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Abstract
Originally, being multicultural community and engage with diversity is a nature in Indonesia. Diversity phenomenon, has been stated and emphasized on national symbol “Bhineka Tunggal Ika” (it means “Unity and diversity”), “Sumpah Pemuda” (youth Pledge) in 1928 and “Pancasila.” As the largest archipelago in the world, Indonesia's people had life in a diverse reality; ethnics, tribes, religions, cultures, traditions and values. Indeed, multicultural issue is something important in Indonesia due to the uniqueness of hundreds variations in Indonesia. However, this reality is not followed by an educational system. The issue of multicultural education is still something new in Indonesia. The study of multicultural education, it’s just had increased in 2000s. The rising phenomenon cannot be separated from the influence of political and social change in Indonesia. Nevertheless, Indonesia needs to rethink about its own multicultural education concept. This paper has been written as a reflection on this situation. We would like to describe the importance of multicultural education, deal with multiculturalism as national identity in Indonesia. At the fist, we raise the issue of national identity as a reason that Indonesia needs multicultural education. Then, we offer a reflection how to maintain the diversity and emphasized national identity, local heritage and national resources as one of the content of multicultural education in Indonesia.

Keywords: Multicultural Education, diversity, national identity, local identity
**Introduction**

Inspiring by the history of multicultural education in Western countries, it made me think and reflect about my own country; Indonesia. Suparlan (2002) said that multicultural in the USA, and Europe evolved from the consciousness of one ethnic (means white people) into a multi-ethnic (received the diversity). Before occurred World War II, the People in the United states and Europe, seems just only accepted one society throughout the world, it was "white people." The other ethnic is powerless, subordinated, discriminated with limitation of rights. The prohibition to color discrimination started in 1960 after the human rights movement for equality in 1950s (Suparlan, 2002).

This is slightly different from the historical birth of Indonesia as a nation. At the beginning of rising Indonesian independence day in 1945, Indonesian realized that Indonesia is a very diverse and multi-ethnic country. Indonesia is the very varied country. Driven by the same agenda of being independent of the Dutch colonialism, some young Indonesians from the variety ethnicity background felt the need of one unified identity (Buwono x; 2008). In October 1928, they gathered and made a declaration called *Sumpah Pemuda* (The youth Pledge). It is the first declaration of unity of Indonesia. On Sumpah Pemuda, it stated that even though Indonesia is very diverse, but have one nation, one land and one unity language; Indonesia. Since that day, “Indonesia” is a unifying identity of this archipelago.

In addition, nationalism of Indonesian was emerged as a common bond against colonialism (Buwono x; 2008). From this, union was born the national symbol "Bhineka Tunggal Ika " (means unity in diversity ). This slogan is a reflection of the nation’s identity, which is created from multiple ethnic, religions, languages, cultures, and customs. Originally, this philosophy is quoted from “ Sutasoma book." It was the ancient book from 14th century of Javanese heritage, that written by Mpu Tantular (Buwono x; 2008; Miksic et al, 2002).

Something interesting on this part is although Indonesia has engaged with a multicultural phenomenon from the beginning, the study of multicultural education is slightly a new. The multicultural phenomenon is not following by arrangement education program. Even though, Indonesian today can live together in harmony, but there are so many challenging soon. Such as globalization issue, discrimination, class social, poverty, even national disintegration (Buwono x, 2008; Khisibiya, 2000; Rachmawati et all. 2014; Suryawati, C., 2005 ). However, today several researchers and academic paper more and more discussed this issue in 2000s (Suparlan, 2002; Lubis, 2006; Syaifuddin, 2006; Amirin, 2012).

**Why are we pursuing Multicultural Education in Indonesia?**

Multicultural education is education for cultural diversity, or education for “people of colors" (Bank, cited Rahim, 2012). Multicultural education emerged from diverse courses, programs and practices. The multicultural educational system devised the academic institution to respond demands, needs and aspirations of the various groups of students (Bank, 2010; P.7). Consequently, not only a single identifiable course, but also the multiple education programs should be offered (Sleeter, 1996). The term multicultural education has described a wide variety of programs and practices. This program is related to educational equity, gender, ethnic groups, language minorities, low-income groups, and people with disabilities (Bank, 2010; P.7).
As a worldwide issue, in October 1994, Unesco has recommended the multicultural education as global commitment (Rahim, 2012).

Country of Thousands Island and Hundreds of Ethnic & Tribes
Multicultural and diversity are a nature of Indonesia. Being unity in diversity is national identity. Indonesia people live in a very diverse community. Indonesia is the largest archipelago in the world, which has 17,508 Island and 81.000 kilometres coastlines (Ministry marine affair and fishery's Republic of Indonesia, 20015) and a maritime country (Kusumoprojo, 2009, Purwati, 2005; Dahuri, 2003; Ch, M. N. A., et all, 2008). It is located in South East Asian region, between the continents of Asia and Australia, and between the Pacific Ocean and the Indian Ocean (Kementrian Sekretariat Negara RI, 2013, Albert, Trommsdorff, Mayer, & Schwarz, 2005). Indonesia territorial sea area was 3 million square kilometres and economic exclusive zona were 3 million square kilometres (Kusumoprojo, 2009). Since 13th -17th century, Indonesia is a maritime nation, which became one of the trades centres around the world (Purwati, 2005). Furthermore, Soekarno as the first president emphasized that to be a strong and prosperous nation, Indonesia has become a marine nation (Kusumoprojo, 2009).

Indonesia is highly populated by around 222 million people in 2006 (kementrian sekretariat negara RI;2013). Therefore, Indonesia becomes the world’s fourth most populous nation after China, India and the US (Kementrian Sekretarian Negara RI, 2013; Population Reference Bureau, 2003). Furthermore, Indonesia consists of 17,508 Islands (kementrian sekretariat negara RI; 2013) with 370 ethnic groups, around 370 languages (Amale et e; 212007). In addition, not only Indonesia has varieties of cultures and languages but also varieties in religions and faith. According to Kementrian Kebudayaan dan Pariwisata (Maskur, n.d.) Indonesia has 125 faiths with six religions are acknowledged and approved by state, namely Islam (88%), Catholic and Protestant (8%), Hindus (2%), Budha (1%) and konhuchu (1%) (CIA cited in Albert, et all; 2005).

For these reasons, it is relevant to conclude that Indonesia is very diverse in nature (Miksic et al; 2002; Kosasih, n.d.). Indeed, multicultural issue is something important in Indonesia due to the uniqueness and cultural diversity in Indonesia. However, the concept and theory of multicultural education are still something new in Indonesia. This phenomenon cannot be separated from the influence of political and social change in Indonesia. Nevertheless, Indonesia needs to rethink about its own multicultural education concept.

On this part, we would like to say is that Indonesian, especially government need to pay attention to this condition. Today, we can live together in harmony due to our characteristic, the influence of local wisdom and religion's values that hold Indonesian in peace. However, the situation was gradually changed. The young generations had faced several challenging soon such as globalization, economic problems, social class problems, that could destroy the values. So, the lesson learning of multiculturalism which are implemented in education is something important to do.
“Pancasila” (Five pillar) and “Bhineka Tunggal Ika” (Unity and Diversity)

At the beginning of rising Indonesian independence in 1945, Indonesian People realized that Indonesia is very diverse and multi-ethnic. Indigenous people of varied indigenous who have lived for thousands years in the Indonesian archipelago, have felt the same need that wants independence from Dutch colonial (Buwono x; 2008). Further, some of the youths from different racial were congregated, united and sworn to defend the homeland which is called The Republic Indonesia. Nationalism of Indonesian was emerged as a common bond against colonialism (Buwono x; 2008). From this, union was born the state symbol "Bhineka Tunggal Ika " (means unity and diversity). This slogan is very aware of the nation identity, which is born from the diversity of ethnicity, religion, language, culture, and customs. This philosophy is quoted from Sutasoma Book. It was the ancient book from 14th century of Javanese heritage (Buwono x; 2008; Miksic et al, 2002).

However, according to Khisbiyah (2000) "dictum of national unity (Bhineka Tunggal Ika or unity in diversity) occupies only cognitive awareness of societies and lip service to the leaders. It is not yet implemented a social in the daily lives of societies ".

This phenomenon requires serious attention. Noble values in the philosophy of “Bhineka Tunggal Ika” must be maintained and implemented in Indonesian societies. Indonesia requires an educational system that implements acceptance of diversity to maintain harmony in society. This was basically in line with the spirit of the Legislation on National Education System (UUSPN), 2003. One of the dictums of UUSPN of 2003 specifies that the national education put one principle: "that education held in a democratic and fair and not discriminatory to uphold human rights, religious and cultural values, and diversity of the nation" (Aly; 2005). Recently, people of Indonesia have needed to find the right formula to maintain national integration. The symbol and spirit of " Bhineka Tunggal Ika or Unity and Diversity" are not enough. Indonesian must preserve the first goals of the nation to be “unity and diversity.” So multicultural in Indonesia become truly multiculturalism society. Moreover, these values were emphasized by Pancasila means five nations Pilar; (1) believe in God, (2) justice and civilization of humanity, (3) unity of Indonesia,(4) democracy led by the inner wisdom of deliberations of justice, (5) social justice for all Indonesian people.

Regarding to Althusser (2006) there is no productivity without support from the elements of the productivity itself. Any kind of productivity can’t determine by “top down” decision; it must be built from the bottom. So that inspired us how to implement “ Bhineka Tunggal Ika” in the whole nation. That is not constructed from the top, but should be starting from the bottom with supporting from all elements.

Maintain the Diversity

Realize and maintain the diversity is an important part in a developing country, especially in an education field. These following are a few ideas that need to be initiated in Indonesia regarding to the multicultural education implementation in Indonesia.
**Emphasizing National Identity**

As mentioned above, Indonesian has been accepting diversity idea, even when other countries struggling with discrimination and racism. In historical view, Indonesia had a good starting foundation in favor the diversity and exalting human values, receive the diversity and differences.

Indeed, Indonesian still need to learn from another country to maintain the diversity. However, this condition not makes us pessimistic, but Indonesian should be positive to reach the future. Life in diversity is inherent in our soul and passion. People in Indonesia have had “Bhineka Tunggal Ika” (unity and diversity) and “Panca Sila” (means five Pilar nation), as symbol and national foundation in multicultural life. We think that we should back to our identity to develop our own multicultural view. “Bhineka tunggal Ika” is not enough only as a national symbol. The implication of this symbol in needed. The school curriculum should be adopted this issue to the class. The diversity of cultures, religions, races, ethnic, and languages, should be offered to the students.

Another point to support this idea is the social system and community movement to maintain our multicultural. In general at least, there are four main kind of group people could arrange multicultural in a Social movement; the constituent base, the power holders, the activist, and the general publics (Sleeter, 1996). All of part of this society altogether must have work together and make cooperation for the better future. The social change of community can't be partially but should do all together.

**The Importance of Local Identity**

The local identity that content the pure and originality region condition and situation. It was including a characteristic of geographic, natural resources or climate, culture and tradition, social life, and religion. We can say that localized is a hallmark of this area.

Indonesia has a variety in geographic. It covered the lowlands, highlands, coastal beach, mountains, valleys, forests, fields, or in the mining areas. Vygotsky said that environment surrounding us is very important in human life. The educational approaching that providing service, which considers the geographic and demographic advantage is what can realize real education. The education is managed according to the needs of local communities.

Every community within a nation must have a local advantage in their respective regions. The localized advantage of each region is different from other regions. Local advantages can be achieved from geography, natural resources, human resources, history, tradition and culture, language, crops, creation of art, social services, information and communication technology, ecology, and others, (Dwigatama, 2007; Santoso, 2010). Basically, the regional advantages possessed of an area can be empowering the society and increase the income or increase revenue (Original Regional Income). (Dwitagama, 2007; Scott, et al, 2009).

The local identity could be one of the content in multicultural education. It would emphasize acknowledgement the origin of identity, in line with the awareness of other's culture and identities. Talking about empowering local content has been discussing in several researchers in Indonesia (Budiyanto et al. 2012; Natadjaja, L.,...
2005; Sudianto, 2006; Damarhati, 2012; Soetopo, 2004; Wachidi, et al. 2009; Wijayanti, 2008; Mulyasa, 2009; Lestari, et.al., 2014). However, we need to emphasize it and consistent in that perspective.

The local identity on this perspective, as following:

a. Geographical
Geographical is referred to the characteristic of the particular region, or a natural feature of a place (Merriam Webster, 2015), for example, ’s mountain, rivers, hollow, hill, coastal marine or other. People in Indonesia live in variety geographical condition. For instance, kampong nelayan is a community that lived in coastal marine. Sundanese people in West Java they live in highland, coastal marine, or a farm.

b. The potential of regional economic growth
The potential of economic growth, it could be rising from mining product, crops, animal husbandry, fishery, artistic creativity, culturally perform or product, culinary, services, human resources or any others. For examples, Garut city in West Java was popular with farming a lamb and sheep, oranges, and “dodol Garut” (traditional food). The economic of Gorontalo was increasing with the corn farm. Dompu has eminence in farming, animal husbandry such as goat, cow, horse. At Bima, they have the eminence of local marine and farming. Sumbawa has mining product and animal husbandry. Lombok has farming and tourism (Trisongko, et al., 2012; Gurur, 2012).

c. The local culture and social life
Lensky described that cultural communities are those whose members are united by ties of a communal cultural tradition, such as racial and ethnic groups and religion (Suharto, 2005) in addition, Scott J, et al (2009) replenish with self-sufficiency, kinship, familiar life-styles, and various intensive types of social interaction. In this part, what we have in cultural community is a crucial part that need recognizing and develop in the education system. It covered ethnic, indigenous, religion, lifestyle, kinship, language, manners, culture and tradition, daily activities, art, local creativity. For examples in Indonesia, we have a lot of tribal and language, batik, variety dance, musical instrument, traditional ceremony and others that connecting with localized area. What we would like to say in this part is the education cannot be separated from the culture and community where education it occurs. It always related to community development and empowerment (Suharto, 2005). Actually, Indonesia has legislation, which is noticed to local content in curriculum. It was stated on legislation of System National Education article 37, subsection one letter j. So it was need maintained in a hard work.

The National Resources
This below, introducing national identity and situation in Indonesia related to multicultural education was needed to adapt as a vision and implementation in all nations.

1. Human resources
Indonesia has huge population is around 222 million people in 2006 (kementrian sekretariat negara RI; 2013). Therefore, Indonesia becomes the world’s fourth most populous nation after China, India and the US (Kementrian Sekretarian Negara RI,
The government need to maintain these human resources. If it is not doing well, these big human resources would become a burden and a problem of unemployment. We need to know people characteristic, talent and potential. On this understanding, we will know how to maintain, support and facilitate them on the right place. From the reference, Indonesia's person was known as a person who loved mutual assistance or gotong royong (Bowen, 2011; Tashadi et al., 1982), creative and religious people. These general profiles are the identity that should not be overlooked. These characteristics are quite different with people from western country that more individualist and independent. So, the consequence is difference. For instance, the competitive arrangement probably is not dealt with Indonesian characteristic. The educationist should be aware of this potential characteristic.

2. Cultural Resources
Furthermore, besides the beautiful nature and abundant natural resources, Indonesia also has a diversity of arts and culture that are very special and unique. It has hundred years old and had foundation as a big society in ancient times.

The views of diversity of examples of arts and cultures are following;

The Artifacts
Artifact is a cultural form of arts material. Some of the artifact in Indonesia are followings; big temple (Borobudur, Prambanan, Mendut in Java), Asmat sculptures, Bali and Jepara carving, ceramics (klaten, Plered), ikat (sundanese and flores), batik (Garut, Cirebon, Yogya, Solo, pekalongan, Papua, and Kalimantan)

Dance
Indonesia has a lot of variety dances from around the country. Every tribe has to own dancing. On 370 tribes, each of the tribes has numbers of dances. It will be a hug number. Some examples of dance in Indonesia, as follows Pendet dance, Kecak and Legong from Bali. From Java, there are serimpi, reog ponorogo. The dances from West Java are kijang dance, anggareni, Kandaga, Jaipongan and Topeng dance. The dances of Northern Sumatra are mulih-mulih, and a dance from West Sumatra is Piring dance and Putri dance.

Wayang (traditional Puppet)
Indonesia had three kinds of wayang; namely wayang orang (people as a puppet), Wayang golek (three dimension puppet made by wood) from West Java, and wayang kulit (two dimesion puppet made by leather) from East Java.

The traditional music
We will find a number of traditional musical instrument in Indonesia, of which there are angklung, kecapi (traditional harp), suling (quite similar with flute), calung and pupuh in West Java. We have a set musical instrument of gamelan from West Java, Central Java and Bali. Each of gamelan is different and has its own characteristics. In addition, there is also a musical instrument Tetabuhan Kanda of Sulawesi.

Languages
According to Amalee (2007) Indonesia had 370 tribes, so every single tribe in Indonesia has its own language, means there are around 370 languages anyway.
**Traditional Cloth**
Indonesian traditional clothes were varied, there is baju bodo (Sulawesi), songket, kebaya sunda (West Java), traditional cloth Aceh Besar (Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam), surjan and kebaya (yogyakarya), iban (Central Kalimantan) ant others. Almost every tribe has traditional cloth.

**Traditional house**
House architecture also varied; each has a name and meaning. Some of the houses that we know of them are rumah gadang (Minangkabau), rumah Bapan (Betawi), rumah tongkonan (Toraja), joglo (Central Java), rumah tradisional Bali, rumah Dayak, rumah tradisional Aceh, rumah uma (Mentawai), rumah ruma or jabu (Hobo), rumah betang (central Kalimantan).

**Indigenous Customs and Ceremonies**
Every tribe in Indonesia has its own customs; some examples of traditional ceremonies are often used as tourism such “Sekaten” to commemorate the birth of Prophet Muhammad (Yogyakarta), monaho-Ndau ceremony, performed when the season arrives (Tolaki Southeast Sulawesi), Bedouin community ceremony before planting rice, and the Bali funeral ceremony called “ngaben”.

**Varieties of foods and culinairis**
Almost every tribe has its own special food, for examples pempek (Palembang), gudeg (Yogya), Tahu Sumedang, peuyeum Bandung, colenak and dodol Garut (West Java), rendang and Balado (West Sumatra), ketan lemak (Jambi), bread crocodile (betawi), Sate (Padang and Java), Soto (Bandung, Betawi), Rujak and Lotek (Bandung), Ayam Betutu (Bali).

**Traditional games**
Almost all regions have a traditional game. Some examples are games gatrik, ucing benang, congklak, galah asin, sorodot gaplok, beklen, loncat tinggi, sondah, bebentengan (West Java), the game gibbon (South Sumatra), the game pindah bintang (East Kalimantan), or even game-Makkah Makkah (Aceh).

**3. Religions**
According to official statement of the ministry of religious affairs of The Republic of Indonesia (2015), it stated that Indonesia was a religious nation. This is reflected in daily life, in the documents of state, on the philosophy of Pancasila, 1945 constitution, on the ministry development plan (Repelita) books and on the speeches of state. It stated that philosophically, socio-political and historical, religious is deep and rooted in the way of life Indonesia's people.

According to Ministry of culture and tourism (2013) Indonesia has 125 faiths with six religions are acknowledged and approved by state, namely Islam (88%), Catholic and Protestant (8%), Hindus (2%), Budha (1%) and konhuchu (1%) (CIA cited in Albert, et all; 2005). In this plural religions, the society can live in harmony.

Historically, Hindu can be treated from the fifth-century AD, with the establishment of the Hindu kingdom such as Kutai in Kalimantan, Tarumanagara kingdom in West Java and Purnawarman kingdom in Central Java. In the eighth century, Buddhism became one of the religions that influence of Srivijaya empire vast enough to Sri
Lanka, Thailand and India. Borobudur temple was built as a symbol of the triumph of Buddhism. Furthermore, Islam came to Indonesia at the seventh century through Arab traders. Nowadays, Islam becoming the largest religion in Indonesia. At the 17th century, Christian came to Indonesia (Goh, 2005).

4. Natural Resources
Indonesia is a country, with a huge number of natural resources that sufficient for thousands years, said Chen-Ching Li, Professor Shih Hsin University, Taiwan on his speech. If we identified the natural resources of Indonesia, we can see that Indonesia is looked like a warehouse treasure, many precious things that we can find in this country. Not only mining products, but also the plant such as fruits that we can enjoy it for all years available in abundance. However, these natural resources did not maintain in a good way and not make people wealthy. There are many problems of miss management and corruption. The government should be pay attention about this.

Here are the natural resources that were found in Indonesia (Amalee, 2007);

The mining product
Indonesia has a lot of mining products. This mining was spreading all over country from Sabang until Merauke. For example, 's gold-silver in java, Aceh, Sumatra and Kalimantan. The mining of diamonds is available in Kalimantan. The Petroleum is existed in Java, Sumatra, Kalimantan and Papua. The Iron ore are spreading in Java and kalimantan. The coal in Java and sulawesi. Asphalt in Buton Island and soon.

Farm and Plantation
Sumatra Island is the most famous in producing coffee, rubber, paddy, pepper, clove. Java island was popular with sugarcane, tobacco, rubber and coffee. The island of Borneo is a producer of rubber, rattan, pepper and rice. Sulawesi Island producer of corn, cane, coffee. Halmahera and Papua island is the sago producer. Also The island of Papua recognizing as the potato producer.

Flora and Fauna Species
Indonesia also has a distinctive flora and fauna, which is unique and special species such as a giant flower "raflesia", Sumatera tigers, Java rhinoceros, orang utan kalimantan, bird of paradise “Cendrawasih” of papua, anoa, and komodo (dragons). Indonesia is a paradise for biologist, botanist, ecologist, zoologists, horticulturist. Indonesia could be a centre for natural research.

Medicinal Plants
Indonesia also has a variety in medicinal plants. The society was accustomed to dispensing of traditional medicine from various plants. Some examples of medicinal plants such as turmeric, ginger, cloves, bitter, betel, kencur, cat whiskers, lemon grass, cumin, beluntas leaves, celery, onion,

Afterwards recognizing diversity in Indonesia, multicultural education program has a role to introduce, emphasize and teach this all varieties. Every single tribe and ethnic had their own uniqueness as their resources. The student need to knowing and emphasizing their particular identity first before recognizing and respect the others. Moreover, knowing local treasure could emphasize independence and national
identity. The focus on innovating and developing localized wisdom would be a Hugh work of society and a valuable provision in the future.

**Conclusion**

Indonesia is a very diversity country. Multicultural issue is something important in Indonesia. Originally, it has emphasized on national symbol “Bhineka tunggal Ika” (unity and diversity) and Pancasila (five pillars). In addition, the unity it had declared on “Sumpah Pemuda” (The youth Pledge) before Indonesia's independence days in 1928.

However, the awareness of diversity didn’t follow by implementation in the education field. The government didn’t arranged a real program to maintain this asset value. Although Indonesia has been independent for 70th years (1945-2015), but the concept of multicultural education is still something new issue.

It just realized a condition of diversity in the society is not enough. The big homework of Indonesian is how maintaining and deal with this all varieties. In our opinion, we cannot just rely on community itself to preserve the values. We can’t let the society implement this values inter generations, without emphasizing, motivated, appreciated and supported by the national system.

Moreover, the study exploring the local wisdom that we have, is needed to be done. Live in harmony on diversity community is not an easy way. However, Indonesia has been successfully done it. It’s needed investigating, exploring, evaluating, rejuvenating and publishing the ancient values, which was a solution for Indonesia.

Indeed, the cultural change took quite a long. We can see it from the historical view in the western country. They need at least around 50 years (1960s - nowadays) to change. Until today, they are still in progress establishing this issue. It so does in Indonesia, for sure; it will take a long time to change. However, It had never been better than no time trying to develop a new education era.
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The Attitude and Performance of the Cadets of Maritime Institution during Ship Board Training: An Assessment

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Abstract
The feedback coming from the ship officers is vital in order to determine and evaluate the performance of the cadets of the maritime institution so that necessary actions and adjustments are made prior to their embarkation. Shipboard Training is the one year practicum component of the four-year Bachelor of Science in Marine Transportation (BSMT)/ Bachelor of Science in Marine Engineering (BSMarE) programs. Research made questionnaire was constructed in order to determine the performances of the cadets based on the perceptions and evaluations of their officers on board. A total of one hundred sixty four (164) ship officers on board who directly supervised the performance of the cadets during the international shipboard training for class 2015 are the respondents of the study. Among the five (5) areas of concern, the attitudes towards colleague got the highest score with very favorable attitudes/ behavior. While knowledge got the lowest mean with favorable attitude/ behavior. It also shows that there is no significant difference on the evaluations of the evaluators when grouped according to position. However, when the evaluators were grouped according to nationality, there are significant differences in terms of attitudes towards colleagues and behavior.

Keywords:
Ship Board Training, Maritime Institution, Cadets, BSMT, BSMarE, Class 2015
I. Introduction

Shipboard training is a mandatory requirement and component of the Bachelor of Science in Marine Transportation (BSMT) and Bachelor of Science in Marine Engineering (BSMarE) programs that pertains to the required seagoing service as provided under Regulation II/1 and Regulation III/1 of the Standards of Training, Certification and Watch keeping (STCW) Convention. This requirement aims to ensure that every BSMT and BSMarE student shall have the opportunity to undergo an approved seagoing service of not less than twelve (12) months which includes onboard training that meets the requirements of Section A-II/1 of the STCW Code documented in an approved training record book (TRB) and perform, during the required seagoing service, bridge watch keeping duties under the supervision of the master or a qualified officer for a period of not less than six (6) months for BSMT cadet students. While for BSMarE, the students must undergo a combined workshop skills training and an approved seagoing service of not less than twelve (12) months which includes onboard training that meets the requirements of Section A-III/1 of STCW Code documented in an approved TRB and perform, during the required seagoing service, engine-room watch keeping duties under the supervision of the chief engineer officer or a qualified engineer officer for a period of not less than six (6) months (Commission on Higher Education Memorandum Order No. 2 Series of 2012, CMO No. 2, S. 2012). During the shipboard training the cadets are expected to acquire the skills required to be a good officer by getting hands-on experience of various shipboard tasks, develop confidence by acquiring the knowledge of the general principles and operating instructions of equipment on a ship, and develop basic instincts of good seamanship (International Maritime Training Centre).

One of the most important benefits of shipboard practical is that cadets are able to learn through practical exercises by doing various jobs on board ships. The exposure of cadets to the working environment during shipboard training will enable them to realize and understand the job requirements on board merchant vessels. They are able to show their capabilities, gain confidence, and test their effectiveness and productivity upon training on board.

As future seafarers, cadets learn through doing the job, experiencing the same problems that they may encounter when they become officers on board. Cadets are permitted to work at their own speed, thereby gaining confidence and a sense of productiveness. If they learn in the actual work environment, an understanding of the job and opportunity to correct errors before they become established is assured.

According to Siang (1998) as cited in the UKESSAYS, learning process occurs as the result of interaction between the dealing with ship officers and cadets through feedback whether positive or negative.

Moreover, on the part of the institution, it is a requirement to all Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) offering BSMT and/or BSMarE program to ensure that qualified students completing the academic requirement for their bachelor’s degree are provided with opportunities to get cadetship/apprenticeship through linkages or partnership with manning/shipping companies. (Section 4. CMO No. 2 Series 2012).
However, cadets are only assessed after the shipboard training based on their Training Record Book and evaluated by the shipboard training officer, the dean of academics and function heads of their respective institution. Immediate feedback coming from officers on board are given less consideration to evaluate the performance of the cadets during onboard ship. Therefore, it is deemed necessary to get the immediate feedback of the ship officers in charge during the shipboard training of cadets in order to address their concerns and make necessary actions on the part of management of the maritime institution.

1.1 Research Question
The study analyzed the attitude and performance of the cadets during shipboard training as perceived by the ship officers.

Specifically, the study sought answers to the following questions:
1. How may the demographic profile of the respondents be described in terms of:
   1.1 Position and
   1.2 Nationality?
2. How may the attitudes and performance of the cadets during shipboard training as evaluated by the ship officers be described in terms of:
   2.1 Attitudes towards work,
   2.2 Attitudes towards colleagues,
   2.3 Knowledge,
   2.4 Behavior and
   2.5 Physical Attribute?
3. How may the factors affecting the attitude and performance of cadets during shipboard training correlate to one another?
4. Which among the factors taken singly or in combination greatly affect the level of attitude and performance of cadets during shipboard training as perceived by the respondents?

II. Review of literature
On January 26, 2012, the CHED issued the Implementing Guidelines on the Shipboard Training Requirement for the Bachelor of Science in Marine Transportation (BSMT) and Bachelor of Science in Marine Engineering (BSMarE) Programs.

The CHED Memorandum Order No. 2 Series of 2012 used as the implementing guidelines on the shipboard training requirement for a Bachelor's degree in Marine Transportation or in Marine Engineering, respectively to be qualified for certification as an Officer-In-Charge of a watch.

Pursuant to the STCW Convention and code, shipboard training shall be categorized into either (a) twelve (12) months seagoing service or (b) by thirty six (36) moths seagoing service that could be undertaken by BSMT and BSMarE cadet student in order to complete the requirements for the conferment of a Bachelor's degree in Marine Transportation or in Marine Engineering, respectively and to be qualified for certification as an officer in charge of a watch (CHED Memorandum Order 02, Series 2012, Article II, Section 3).
In the study of Felicia et al. (2010), it stated that feasible method of developing competitiveness is through training and long-life learning. Training is delivered for undergraduates (future seafarers) in maritime schools and universities and after graduation in maritime training centers and in the employing company. A particular attention must be given to transmission of adequate knowledge for gaining competences and abilities and not only theoretical insights.

On the article Lack of shipboard training blamed on colleges (2014), it states that absence or lack of shipboard training continues to be one of the greatest hindrance in achieving the dreams of Filipino maritime cadets to become merchant marine officers.

Likewise, in the study of Barranta (2011), he found out that Filipino seafarers have generally high and positive attitude towards work environment because the physical environment aboard the ship provides them with better appreciation of standard work performance as well as general feeling of safety and healthy working environment. Their emotional attitude is generally highly positive because they have the feeling of self-confidence, calmness and clear thinking moments. Their social attitude is highly positive because they have less fear and inferiority complex. They believe that the work environment promotes pleasant and harmonious relationship with people.

The above studies are related to the present study since it focused more on the performance of the cadets during ship board training. The aforementioned studies examined the minimum requirement for the compliance of the degree in BSMT and BSMarE. Likewise, different issues were raised on the implementation of shipboard training and its implication to the cadets.

III. Methodology

1.1 Methods and Techniques

The study is a combination of quantitative and qualitative research. Respondents were given survey questionnaire to gather information based on their evaluation on the performance of the cadets respondents which divided into five (5) areas of concerns. Each cadet was given a survey questionnaire to be answered by their respective officers on board. It is required to all answered questionnaire to have a signature or stamp by their officers and have it scanned before returning it to the researchers to eliminate fraud and deceitful data.

Descriptive Statistics is concerned with the collection, organization, presentation, analysis, and the interpretation of data to assess group characteristics. Descriptive Normative Approach is concerned with the percentage distribution of the respondents, the typical characteristics of the group, relationships of the characteristics, and the strength of these relationships. Under this type of research, measures of central tendencies, variability, and location are most commonly used.

A self-made questionnaire was used to determine the perceptions and evaluations of the ship officers towards the performance and attitudes of the cadets during shipboard training. The said questionnaire was divided into five (5) areas of concerns namely: attitudes towards work, attitudes towards colleagues, knowledge, behavior and physical attributes. Each questionnaire was sent to all on board cadets of the maritime
institution for class 2015 using yahoo mail, facebook, gmail and other social networking sites.

1.2 Population of the Study

Table 1 shows the distribution of respondents by nationality and position on board ship.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BRITISH</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CROATIAN</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FILIPINO</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>63.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDIAN</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITALIAN</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JAPANESE</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MYANMAR</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POLISH</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RUSSIAN</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWEDISH</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UKRAINIAN</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>164</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be gleaned from the table that the study employed one hundred sixty four (164) ship officers as respondents according to their nationality. Wherein one hundred four (104) or 63.4% are Filipinos, sixteen (16) or 9.8% are Japanese, eight (8) or 4.9% are Indians and Italians, seven (7) or 4.3% are Ukrainians, six (6) or 3.7% are Croatians and Polish, five (5) or 3% are Russians, two (2) or 1.2% are Swedish and one (1) or 0.6% is Myanmar and British.

By Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Captain/C/E</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>31.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CM / 2E</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2M / 3E</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3M / 4E</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrician/Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>164</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be gleaned from the table the frequency of respondents when grouped according to their position. Fifty two (52) or 31.7% are Captains or Chief Engineer, forty one (41) or 25% are Chief Mates or Second Engineers, forty six (46) or 28% are Second Mates or Third Engineers, twenty four (24) or 14.6% are Third Mates or Fourth Engineers, while one (1) or 0.6% is Electrician or other ship officer.
1.3 Conceptual Framework

This study identified the performance of the cadets during shipboard training in terms of attitudes towards work, towards colleagues, knowledge, behaviour and physical attributes as the independent variables. The dependent variable considered is the evaluation of ship officers in charge during the shipboard training of the cadets. Fig 1 shows the independent and dependent variables used in the study.

**Figure 1. Paradigm of the study**

![Paradigm of the study](image)

Hypotheses of the Study

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. The demographic profile of the respondents has no significant effect to the evaluations of the cadets during shipboard training.
2. The performance of the cadets during shipboard training received very unfavorable attitude/behavior (very negative) based on the evaluation by the ship officers in charge.

1.4 Construction and Validation of Instruments

The assembly of the survey-questionnaire utilized in this study was based from various similar studies. Nonetheless, the experience of the researchers as facilitators and with the help of the experts in the field contributed a lot in the formulation of the questions for this study.

The proficiency of the Dean of Academics in the maritime institution, the English instructors, the members of alumni and some forms of Department of Shipboard Trainings, were solicited for the validity and reliability of the questionnaire.
1.5 *Statistical Treatment of Data*

The data obtained gathered through questionnaires was encoded and was subjected to appropriate statistical treatment to answer the specific research questions of this study.

Mean and standard deviation were utilized to show the performance and attitudes of the cadets during shipboard training.

Also, mean, standard deviation, and frequency counts were utilized to reflect the comparison of attitude/behaviour of the Cadets when grouped according to nationality and position of evaluators.

Independent samples t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were employed to determine the relationship of the attitude and performance of the cadets when the respondents were grouped according to their nationality. Independent samples t-test was used for profile variables with only two (2) categories while ANOVA or F-test was used for more than two (2) groups. Hence, LSD test was used to specify significant mean differences of groups after ANOVA results suggest that significant difference exists.

Further, Pearson correlation was used to explain the relationship between the areas of concern of the study namely: the attitudes towards work, attitudes towards colleagues, knowledge behaviour and physical attributes. For easier interpretation of the Pearson correlation coefficients (r), this study adopted the following according to Sevilla, et.al. (1992) as cited by Alayon (2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficient</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>±0.80 – ±1.0</td>
<td>high correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>±0.60 - ±0.79</td>
<td>moderately high correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>±0.40 – ±0.59</td>
<td>moderate correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>±0.20 - ±0.39</td>
<td>low correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>±0.01 – ±0.19</td>
<td>negligible correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The probability values (p-values) are then compared to 0.05, which is set as the critical value for the hypotheses testing prior to the conduct of this study. If the p-value is equal or less than 0.05, then the statistical value is significant and so null hypothesis is rejected. Otherwise, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

**IV. Results and discussions**

1. **Demographic Profile of the Respondents**

Table 1 shows the distribution of respondents in terms of nationality and position. It can be gleaned from the table that Filipino crew/ship officers got the highest number of respondents with 63.4% followed by the Japanese with only 9.8%, both Italian and Indian got 4.9%, while Ukrainian got 4.3% and the rest got 12.8% comprising British, Croatian, Myanmar, Polish, Russian and Swedish.
It only shows that the Philippines is the world’s premier supplier of qualified and competent seafarers and one third of seafarers worldwide are Filipinos (Rimando 2013). The Philippines is the premiere provider of competent and certificated seafarers in the international seaborne trade, accounting for more than 25% of the total crew requirements on board international merchant marine vessels, performing management and operational functions as well as support services on ships of various types, categories and sizes (Executive Order No. 75, s. 2012). Further, majority of the respondents in terms of their position are Chief Engineer or Captains with 31.7% followed by Second Mate or Third Engineer with 28.0% and Chief Mate or Second Engineer with 25.0%. It only shows that the management levels onboard ship are concerned with the performance of their cadets on board. Management level participated in the survey to determine the strengths and weakness of their trainees. Ship officers have the critical role of evaluating and providing feedback on cadets' performance. Feedback is one of the basis of maintaining good performance and improving unsatisfactory performance of subordinates. Without feedback, cadets are left hanging about how their supervisors view them and their performance as well.

2. Evaluation of the Ship officers on the Attitudes and Performance of the cadets during shipboard training

Table 2 shows the mean evaluation of the respondents in five areas of concern. Among the five (5) areas of concern, the attitudes towards colleague got the highest score with 4.63 mean with very favorable attitudes/ behavior in terms of that the cadet is easy to be with and has the willingness to mingle with other co-workers. While the knowledge area got 4.24 mean score that made it the lowest mean within the five (5) areas.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AREAS OF CONCERN</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Descriptive Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitudes towards work</strong></td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The cadet is always on time during his duty hours.</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The cadet is willing to render additional hours in case of needs.</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The cadet has initiative to perform other tasks.</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The cadet is resourceful.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The cadet feels accountable towards his duties.</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The cadet needs less supervision and is trustworthy.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attitudes towards colleagues</strong></td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The cadet is easy to be with.</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The cadet has the willingness to mingle with other co-workers.</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The cadet can work cooperatively with the crew.</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The cadet participates in social gatherings.</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The cadet maintains good rapport with his colleagues.</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The cadet displays patience to his colleagues.</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Knowledge</strong></td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. The cadet has the ability to perform tasks assigned to him.</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The cadet is theoretically prepared by the institution.</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The cadet has the knowledge in his assigned task.</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The cadet executes instructions immediately and accurately.</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The cadet corrects errors which are done incorrectly.</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>FA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. The cadet is aware of his duties and responsibilities. 4.41 FA

**Behavior 4.46 FA**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The cadet is obedient to his superior 4.65 VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>He follows instructions and command without questioning his superior 4.40 FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The cadet is not defiant on instructions he does not agree. 4.40 FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The cadet does not argue to his superior on the decisions made by his superior 4.41 FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The cadet observes punctuality in his scheduled tasks. 4.45 FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The cadet responds to instructions promptly. 4.42 FA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Physical Attributes 4.37 FA**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>The cadet displays strength and enthusiasm in doing his work. 4.55 VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>The cadet did not have any illness or sickness. 4.64 VFA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>The cadet do exercise regularly to maintain good health. 4.46 FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>The cadet attends regular consultation with the doctor. 3.89 FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>The cadet takes his rest on scheduled time. 4.28 FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>The cadet gets enough sleep prior to his next duty schedule. 4.34 FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>4.41 FA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Scale of Mean**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Descriptive Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.50 – 5.00</td>
<td>Very Favorable Attitude/Behavior (Very Positive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.50 – 4.49</td>
<td>Favorable Attitude/Behavior (Positive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.50 – 3.49</td>
<td>Neither Favorable nor Unfavorable Attitude/Behavior (Neutral)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.50 – 2.49</td>
<td>Unfavorable Attitude/Behavior (Negative)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00 – 1.49</td>
<td>Very Unfavorable Attitude/Behavior (Very Negative)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the findings, it only means that ship officers believed that the cadets have very favorable attitude/behavior in terms of their attitudes towards their colleagues. Since the number of people working on board is limited, it is necessary for them to try to know each other in order to understand the values, knowledge and skills each one possesses. In this way, creating interpersonal relationship among each other on board ship is developed. It is important to enhance interpersonal relationship between people on board to ensure that all jobs are done smoothly and safely.

Also, the cadets were trained and accustomed to be flexible and learn how to adjust in dealing with other people since they were exposed to different personalities, attitudes, behaviors, and cultures during their academic year in the Academy.

In the case of the cadets, since they are the apprentice, it is important for them to mingle with their colleagues that will act as co-trainers and assessors. This includes transferring of knowledge and skills, and assessing behavior and attitude. Their colleagues will act as reflectors, supervisors and providers of feedback.

A British Captain also said, “if the cadet continues to apply himself with the same dedication and consciousness towards his duties and responsibilities, then I am certain that he will develop into a fine ship officer.”

Likewise, one Indian First Engineer stated “Engine cadet is good in his duties and needs some extra hard work to learn the things fast. He performs well in his duties and shows interest on his working environment.”
Another remarks from a Croatian Officer said “He has good motivation in learning bridge work even if his routine is only day work, hope he continues being motivated and focused in his studies to become future officer in our company.”

In addition, in terms of knowledge, a positive mark of favorable attitude/behavior based on the evaluation of the ship officers, hence got the lowest score among the areas of concerns. In terms of knowledge, the cadet is theoretically prepared by their institution and that the cadet has the knowledge in his assigned task got the lowest mean (4.15) among the areas of knowledge. One factor to consider may be the transition of professional instructors or changing of instructors teaching professional courses within the semester. It has been observed that the maritime professionals who are active seafarers teaching in the maritime institution are those faculty members who did not stay longer in the Academy especially the younger ones. Most of them stayed only for two (2) to five (5) months and then they will leave the academy to board their respective ships and sea duties in the middle of the semester that affects the learning of the students.

According to Filipino 2nd officer, “deck cadet performs his duties well. My only suggestions are to study harder specially in navigation, bridge and navigational equipment, duties of safety and navigating officer and cargo handling.”

Similarly with the observation of Filipino a First Engineer, “engine cadet needs to read manuals, piping diagrams and electric circuit diagrams to enhance his knowledge”, “more exposures required at the bridge operation” as suggested by Second Mate from the Philippines; and “the cadet must be prepared prior to his shipboard training” according to a Second Assistant Engineer.

Furthermore, maritime instructors were not taught and exposed on how to teach and deliver the lessons properly. They were not also expose in the basic principles in teaching, the assessment and measurement, the different methods, and the andragogy in teaching. To address this problem, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) created model courses to assist maritime training institutes and their teaching staff in organizing and introducing new training courses or in enhancing, updating or supplementing existing training material where the quality and effectiveness of the training courses may thereby be improved. In which, one of the model courses is the IMO Model Course 6.09, Training Course for Instructors.

The purpose of the IMO model course 6.09 is to help Technical Training and Instruction Centers, as well as its teaching personnel not in possession of a university degree in teaching, in the organization and presentation of new courses, or to increase, update or complement the existing training material. Though this way the quality and effectiveness of these instruction and training courses may be improved (STCW 95, section A-I/16, IMO model course 6.09).

Table 3 shows the comparison of attitudes/ behaviour of the cadets as perceived by the respondents when grouped according to their nationality. It is assumed that there is no significant difference between the evaluation of the three (3) groups on the attitude/ behaviour of the cadets during their shipboard training.
### Table 3. Comparison of Attitude/Behaviour of the Cadets when Grouped according to Nationality of Evaluators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of Concern</th>
<th>Nationality of Evaluators</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards work</td>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.574</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>European</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>European</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards colleagues</td>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>European</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>European</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Attributes</td>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.621</td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>European</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overall</td>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>0.128</td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>European</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be gleaned from table that in terms of attitudes towards work, the three (3) groups have the same evaluations on the attitude/behaviour of the cadets during shipboard training which is favourable attitude/behaviour with 0.574 significance which means that the null hypothesis is accepted. Furthermore, in terms of knowledge and physical attributes, all the three groups agreed that the cadets have favourable attitude/behaviour; therefore, the null hypothesis is also accepted. However, in terms of attitudes towards colleagues and behaviour of the cadets, there are significant differences on the evaluations of the respondents. The first has 0.003 significance while the latter has 0.022 significance which means that the null hypothesis is rejected.

It only means that discrimination among crew members with different nationalities still observed on board. According to Prof. Lane et. Al as cited in Eurekaler.org (2003), they find little evidence of discrimination against particular nationalities, although there were disturbing exceptions. Crews seemed to be divided more strongly on the lines of nationality and sometimes occupational hierarchies were re-aligned on board to coincide with nationality rather than rank.
Table 4. LSD Test Result for Significant Means

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of Concern</th>
<th>Nationality of Evaluators</th>
<th>Mean (^1)</th>
<th>LSD (^2,.05)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards colleagues</td>
<td>European</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>4.49</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
<td>European</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Filipino</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Asian</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) Mean perception of the three (3) groups of nationalities
\(^2\) Treatment means with common letter/s is/are not significantly different at 5% level of significance

Based on the result of Table 4, it shows that the two areas of concern namely attitudes towards colleagues and behaviour have significant difference on the evaluation of the ship officers. To determine which among the variables greatly affect to one another, LSD was used.

It shows that the mean evaluations of Europeans on attitude towards colleagues is significantly higher compared to that of Filipinos and other Asians while Filipinos and other Asians do not differ in mean evaluations significantly. The same findings with the mean of the Europeans on behaviour is also significantly higher compared to that of Filipinos and other Asians while Filipinos and other Asians do not differ in their mean evaluation significantly.

Table 5 shows the mean evaluations of the respondents as grouped according to their positions. The respondents were grouped into two (2) namely: management level that includes the Captain, Chief Engineer, Chief Mate, and Second Engineer and the operational level comprised of the Second Mate, Third Engineer, Third Mate, Fourth Engineer and the electrician.

It is assumed that there is no significant difference between the evaluations of the management and operational level on the performance of the cadets during shipboard training.
Table 5. Comparison of Attitude/ Behaviour of Students when Grouped according to Position of Evaluators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of Concern</th>
<th>Position of Evaluators</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards work</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.100</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operational</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards colleagues</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.147</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operational</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>0.592</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operational</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operational</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical Attributes</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>0.279</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operational</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overall</td>
<td>Management</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>0.347</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operational</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be gleaned from the table that both of them, the management and operational level have no significant difference in their evaluations of the attitude/ behaviour of the cadets in five (5) areas of concerns during their shipboard training. Both of them perceived that the attitudes of cadets towards work has favourable attitude/ behaviour with 4.29 and 4.41 mean respectively. While in terms of attitudes towards colleagues, both of them gave very favourable attitude/ behaviour having 4.59 and 4.68 mean scores at 0.147 significance. On the other hand, in terms of knowledge, the management level group gave 4.22 mean score while 4.36 mean received from the operational level group at 0.592 significance with favourable attitude/ behaviour. In terms of behaviour, with 0.760 significance, it marked that both groups agreed that the cadets have favourable attitudes/ behaviour with 4.47 and 4.45 mean scores, and lastly, on the physical attributes, with 0.279 significance, both groups gave favourable attitudes/ behaviour to the cadets.

It only means that in totality, both groups, the management and the operational level have no significant differences in their evaluations towards the attitude/ behaviour of the cadets with 4.33 and 4.44 mean scores with significance of 0.347. Both of them perceived that the cadets have positive or favourable attitudes/ behaviour. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference on the evaluations of the respondents is accepted.
3. Correlation Matrix on the Attitudes and Performance of the Cadets during their Shipboard Training

Table 6. Correlation Matrix on the Attitudes and Performance of the Cadets during Shipboard Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes towards work</th>
<th>Attitudes towards colleagues</th>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Behavior</th>
<th>Physical Attributes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.68**</td>
<td>0.77**</td>
<td>0.70**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes towards colleagues</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.67**</td>
<td>0.69**</td>
<td>0.64**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.79**</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.71**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.71**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physically Fit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Evidently, the different areas of concerns on the attitude/behaviour of the cadets are inter-correlated or are affecting each other as indicated by their correlation coefficients with each other. Pearson R correlation is used to determine the relationship of two (2) variables.

Based on table 6, knowledge is correlated highest with attitude towards work having a high correlation coefficient of 0.81 which implies that these two (2) variables have a coefficient of determination or R-squared value of 0.66. The R-squared value of 0.66 indicates that 66% of the variability in the knowledge is shared with attitude towards work while the other 34% is shared with other areas of concern. This result suggests that knowledge greatly affects the performance of the cadets.

Furthermore, attitudes towards colleagues is also most associated with behaviour having a moderately high correlation of 0.69 suggesting a 47% shared variance by these two (2) variables.

Moreover, knowledge is most correlated with behaviour (R = 0.79) and then to physical attributes (R = 0.71).

To add, physical attributes is associated most with knowledge and behaviour having a moderately high correlation coefficient of 0.71 and R-squared value of 0.50 with 50% shared variance.
V. Conclusions

1. The hypothesis that the demographic profile of the respondents in terms of nationality has significant difference to the evaluation on the attitudes and performance of the cadets during shipboard training is accepted. While in terms of position, it shows that there is no significant difference.
2. The performance of the cadets during shipboard training received favorable attitude/behavior (positive) evaluation.
3. Among the areas of concerns, it shows that the attitudes towards their colleagues got the highest mean score while the knowledge area received the lowest mean score.

VI. Recommendations

1. The management of the maritime institution may establish a policy for a minimum length of service to all maritime professionals before leaving the academy for their sea service duty so as not to affect and hamper the delivery of the lessons to the cadets.
2. The management of the maritime institution may consider the entry requirements to all maritime professionals like IMO model courses 6.09, 3.12 and 6.10 prior to their teaching assignments for them to be able to have the knowledge in different teaching methodologies and techniques that may be helpful in the delivery of the lessons.
3. It is also recommended to triangulate the findings of the study to the evaluation conducted by the officers in the maritime institution using the Training Record Book to validate the evaluations of the ship officers.
4. The management may consider enhancing the character development of the cadets through leadership enhancement at the academy. With this, the ruling class may lead their subordinates in steering extra – curricular activities.
5. The management may reconsider reviewing the effectiveness of present character development program in the academy that they are offering to determine whether the existing program is still applicable in the present situations/ conditions of the learners.
6. Since the academy is in the transition on the implementation of the outcomes based education and competencies set by Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping (STCW), the management may check if the cadets are now compliant with the said competencies through the integration and implementation of Competency Management System in all courses offered in the academy.
7. Other variables may be used to determine the evaluations of the ship officers on the performance and attitude of cadets taking shipboard training.
VII. References


CHED Memorandum Order (CMO) No. 02, Series 2012 (2012). Implementing Guidelines on the Shipboard Training Requirement for the Bachelor of Science in Marine Transportation (BSMT) and Bachelor of Science in Marine Engineering (BSMarE) Programs. Quezon City, Philippines. January 26, 2012.


The Usefulness of Curriculum Mapping in Writing Learning Modules

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Abstract
This study sought to determine the usefulness of curriculum mapping in teaching Asian History. As the High School Social Studies Coordinator, I found it essential to conduct a research on how curriculum maps enable the teachers in our academic unit to articulately plan the curriculum and effectively deliver instruction. Is curriculum mapping useful in teaching Asian History? In this study, I have obtained primary research data by examining the Term 3 Grade 7 curriculum map for Academic Year 2014-2015 with the unit topic “Regional and Global Conflicts in Asia”. Alignment of the assessments and activities to the learning competencies and national standards was thoroughly checked. To ensure the soundness of the said curriculum map, a formal classroom observation was conducted to validate the delivery of instruction of the Social Studies Teacher vis-à-vis curriculum preparation. Moreover, data analysis was conducted based on the examination of the sample curriculum map and a performance evaluation report was prepared based on the formal classroom visit. Likewise, mentoring was done through a post-observation conference with the said teacher. As a tool for analysis, communication and planning, curriculum mapping has enabled the Social Studies Teacher in the study to thematically align curriculum, instruction and assessment anchored on national standards. Through the creation of such pertinent document, the said teacher has succeeded in planning and delivering instruction in terms of determining the learning goals and aligning the standards with various assessments and activities.

Keywords: curriculum, instruction, curriculum map, learning module
Introduction

The Understanding by Design (UbD) Framework and the Learner Centered Learning Environment (LCLE) Approach

The advent of the K to 12 Basic Education Program introduced by the Department of Education (DepEd) aims to offer a seamless, responsive, enriched, decongested and learner-centered brand of education. In response to this educational transformation, De La Salle Santiago Zobel (DLSZ) continues to adopt the Learner Centered Learning Environment (LCLE) approach in instruction. To complement this approach, the Understanding by Design (UbD) framework was introduced in Academic Year 2010-2011 by the school’s consultant and resource person, Dr. Miguel Q. Rapatan.

There is a logic in combining the LCLE approach with the UbD framework. To begin with, both are not only mutually supportive of one another, but both need one another. Inside the classroom, teachers deal with four (4) important educational elements: who they teach (students), where they teach (learning environment), what they teach (content) and how they teach (instruction). Tomlinson and McTighe (2006) assert that “if teachers lose sight of any one of the elements and cease investing effort in it, the whole fabric of their work is damaged and the quality of learning impaired”.

UbD is predominantly a curriculum design model. Its focus is what and how teachers teach, and what assessments to collect as evidence of learning. Its main goal is “delineating and guiding application of sound principles of curriculum design” (Tomlinson and McTighe, 2006). Moreover, it highlights instruction for understanding for student success. On the other hand, LCLE is predominantly an instructional design model. It focuses on who we teach, where we teach and how we teach. Its main goal is “ensuring that teachers focus on processes and procedures that ensure effective learning for varied individuals” (Tomlinson and McTighe, 2006). Furthermore, differentiation models address the imperative of differentiating quality curriculum (Tomlinson and McTighe, 2006).

Why the UbD Framework is Effective in DLSZ

Effective Use of the UbD Framework by Teachers

The UbD framework has helped enhance the delivery of instruction in DLSZ because of the following developments:

• Since Academic Year 2013-2014, teachers have been designing curriculum maps, which show alignment of standards and competencies with assessments and activities. They thematically align assessment, curriculum and instruction anchored on the Lasallian Guiding Principles (LGPs) to achieve student understanding of key concepts.

• Also in Academic Year 2013-2014, teachers have been constructing unit assessment matrices (UAM) which reflect competencies vis-à-vis assessment items and scoring guides. They design assessments that require students to be self-reflective, to develop their own perspective and to understand others’ points of view.

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The revision of the learning module components was implemented in Academic Year 2014-2015 to suit the new pedagogy. Teachers plan learning modules in such a way that assessments and activities are aligned with the learning goals as evident in the curriculum maps.

Through the UbD framework, teachers are able to organize their thoughts, put these into writing and implement these in instruction.

Enriched Student Learning

With DLSZ espousing a progressive pedagogy, students have become more reflective, creative, critical and resourceful problem-solvers. This supports the school’s vision of producing excellent graduates, who are also expected to possess Lasallian values and attitudes that enable them to become responsible Filipino citizens. Overall, the school promotes the attainment of developmental and holistic learning of its students.

Students are given many opportunities to learn effectively inside the classroom. In planning the curriculum and delivering instruction, teachers are guided by national standards that they align with the LGPs. By doing so, the learning goals – acquisition, meaning making and transfer – are articulated through different processes like mapping the curriculum, constructing assessments and writing the learning modules. These aforementioned goals consistently reflect the need for students to construct meaning from the facts they acquire and use this in new situations that are real-world and complex.

The Struggle in Aligning the Curriculum Components

Even with the successful use of the UbD framework based on a study I have made, a challenge still persists among DLSZ teachers in terms of curriculum preparation – alignment. This pertains to the struggle in aligning the standards and learning competencies set by DepEd with the assessments and activities prepared by the teachers.

One effective way to address such concern is through curriculum mapping. Curriculum mapping is a system that thematically aligns assessment, curriculum and instruction. In DLSZ, the curriculum components include the Vision Mission of the school, the standards and competencies found in the Curriculum Guide, unit content, assessments, activities and resources. Essentially, curriculum mapping answers the key question “How do we put all these together in a useful and meaningful way?”

Methodology

I have obtained primary research data by examining the Term 3 Grade 7 curriculum map for Academic Year 2014-2015. The unit topic was Regional and Global Conflicts in Asia, which focused on World War II in Asia. Alignment of the assessments and activities to the competencies and national standards was thoroughly checked. Moreover, a formal classroom observation was conducted to the faculty member who designed the curriculum map, Teacher Z, to validate the delivery of instruction vis-à-

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2 based on the Philippine Accrediting Association of Schools, Colleges and Universities (PAASCU) report on Curriculum and Instruction for the High School Department of DLSZ written and consolidated by the researcher
The following were the pertinent findings in studying the usefulness of a curriculum map in teaching Asian History based on a thorough examination of the said document and a formal classroom observation of Teacher Z:

- **Alignment of the Enduring Understanding (EU) and Transfer Goal (TG) with the Content Standard (CS) and Performance Standard (PS)**

  The map ensured that the standards, both the CS and PS, were articulated in the third column. These standards were provided by DepEd and stipulated in the Araling Panlipunan Curriculum Guide 2014. Such were translated in English since the medium of instruction in DLSZ is English. The EU and TG were appropriate and sound since all these were aligned with the standards. The EU, “Students will understand that the regional and global conflicts contributed to the development and formation of Asian nations” was aligned with the CS, “A student will demonstrate understanding of the changes, development, and continuity among Asian countries in both transitional and modern ages.” Moreover, the Essential Question (EQ), “Students will find the answer to the question: How did the regional and global conflicts affect Asia”, answered the EU, which showed alignment. Likewise, the TG “Students will be able to independently use their learning to support an advocacy that promotes a culture of peace” was aligned with the PS “A student will demonstrate critical analysis on the changes, development, and continuity among Asian countries in both transitional and modern ages.”

- **Alignment of Learning Competencies vis-à-vis Assessments and Activities**

  All of the target competencies of the learning unit, Regional and Global Conflicts in Asia, were aligned with the designed assessments and selected activities. Table 1 summarizes the alignment stated.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASSESSMENT LEVEL</th>
<th>LEARNING COMPETENCY</th>
<th>CODE</th>
<th>ASSESSMENT</th>
<th>ACTIVITY</th>
<th>ALIGNMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Identify orally and the changes in Asian nations brought by regional, global, and internal conflicts</td>
<td>A P 7 T K A - IIle-1.13/ AP7KIS-IVe-1.12</td>
<td>FOR Picture analysis of pre-war and post-war Asian cities (Evaluation tool: teacher feedback)</td>
<td>Picture gallery of war-torn Asia with interactive lecture</td>
<td>Yes No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Enumerate in writing the causes and effects of global, regional and other conflicts in Asia</td>
<td>AP7TKA-IIle-1.13/ AP7KIS-IVe-1.12</td>
<td>SUM Cause and effect table (Evaluation tool: 1 point each)</td>
<td>Textbook reading and teacher-led instruction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Interpret orally illustrations of different perspectives of Asians about the conflicts during the 20th century orally.</td>
<td>AP7TKA-IIle-1.13/ AP7KIS-IVe-1.12</td>
<td>FOR Critique on wartime editorial cartoons (Evaluation tool: teacher feedback)</td>
<td>Photo gallery of pre-war and post-war Asians</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Justify in writing the different sentiments of Asians on the wars and conflicts in writing.</td>
<td>AP7TKA-IIle-1.13/ AP7KIS-IVe-1.12</td>
<td>SUM Essay on Asian perspectives of wars and conflicts (Evaluation tool: rubric)</td>
<td>Teacher-led instruction and textbook reading</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding</td>
<td>Express thoughts and opinions in writing about the effects of wars and conflicts in Asia through writing.</td>
<td>AP7TKA-IIle-1.13/ AP7KIS-IVe-1.12</td>
<td>FOR Reflective essay comparing the Philippine experience of colonization to other Asian nations (Evaluation tool: rubric)</td>
<td>Picture analysis, textbook reading, teacher-led discussion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support an advocacy to end wars and conflicts in Asia using social media.</td>
<td>(AP7TKA-IIle-1.13/ AP7KIS-IVe-1.12)</td>
<td>SUM #peace4Asia Twitter campaign (Evaluation tool: teacher feedback)</td>
<td>Viewing of UN International Day of Peace campaign videos</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make a message board supporting an advocacy for maintaining peace in Asia.</td>
<td>AP7TKA-IIle-1.13/ AP7KIS-IVe-1.12</td>
<td>FOR #peace4Asia Grade 7 message board (Evaluation tool: teacher feedback)</td>
<td>Viewing of UN International Day of Peace campaign videos</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create a tourist poster or war-affected places in Asia.</td>
<td>AP7TKA-IIle-1.13/ AP7KIS-IVe-1.12</td>
<td>FOR Tourism poster of war-affected Asian cities (Evaluation tool: rubric scoring)</td>
<td>*none written</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Alignment Observed in the Different Levels of Assessment
• Alignment of the Performance Task (PT) with the Transfer Goal (TG)

Alignment was observed between the TG “Students will be able to independently use their learning to support an advocacy that promotes a culture of peace” and the PT, which was articulated in the GRASPS Narrative. Figure 1 illustrates the said narrative.

With the recent events of religious and ideological conflicts in Asia such as the ISIS uprising and the unfortunate fate of the Fallen 44 SAF policemen, it is time for all of us to think of ways to achieve peace. Your group is tasked write an editorial article answering this question: Can peace in Asia be achieved by force or by peace talks? This shall be accompanied by an editorial cartoon (integrated with Art), must be written in Filipino (integrated with Filipino), and will be included in a newsletter (integrated with Computer). The output shall be graded based on content, relevance and creativity.

Figure 1: GRASPS Narrative for the Performance Task

Supporting an advocacy is a practical and concrete way of applying the concept of promoting a culture of peace. Hence, the PT completely supported the TG.

• Formal Observation Report

A list of commendations and recommendations were given to Teacher Z based on the formal visit. Figure 2 presents the classroom observation narrative report.

![Formal Observation Image](image)

Figure 2: Observation Narrative for Teacher Z
Further, an evaluation instrument was used for a more specific and detailed examination of Teacher Z’s delivery of instruction. Figure 3 shows the teaching performance evaluation.

Figure 3: Evaluation of Teaching Performance of Teacher Z

Essentially, Teacher Z has succeeded in planning in terms of thematically aligning curriculum, instruction and assessment anchored on national standards. Also, he succeeded in delivering instruction based on his above average rating of 2.72.
Conclusions

Curriculum mapping is one of DLSZ’s curricular breakthroughs. Since Academic Year 2013-2014, teachers have been designing curriculum maps, which show alignment of standards and competencies with assessments and activities. They thematically align assessment, curriculum and instruction to achieve student understanding of key concepts. Through the creation of such document, teachers are also able to check gaps and redundancies as regards learning competencies as well as identify opportunities for integration among subject areas.

In essence, curriculum mapping has enabled Teacher Z to accomplish the following:

- organize his thoughts and put these articulately into writing

  Once the curriculum map of the said teacher is in place, various learning activities and assessments were then actualized inside the classroom. A formal visit enabled me to monitor and validate the delivery of instruction.

- prepare different activities to suit learning styles evident among students

  With the learning goals and assessments given ahead, the teacher found it easy to develop such activities. In effect, his classroom experience as per our post-observation conference, became more dynamic and meaningful because he considered what learning styles and activities work best for each student.

The abovementioned findings show that curriculum mapping is useful in teaching Asian History. At heart, this curricular development has helped the teacher in this study in the planning and delivery of instruction in terms of determining the learning goals, constructing assessments and preparation of different learning activities.
References


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A Movement-Based Game Designed According to Input-Process-Outcome Model in a Cooperative Learning Environment in Hygiene Education

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Tsuei-ju Hsieh, Chinese Culture University, Taiwan

Abstract
Research showed that first graders have difficulty developing their daily hygiene habits when they bridge their lives in kindergartens and primary schools. Hygiene education is usually in a regular classroom with traditional learning materials that can hardly attract students' attention and make individual practice possible. Although there are computer-aided learning materials available on the web, the materials lack a sense of reality because they are controlled by mouse only. Movement-based games enable intuitive manipulation that control games by body movements instead of keyboards and mouse. Movement-based games have been used in learning. However, game-based learning does not guarantee better learning effects than traditional teaching. The balance of entertainment and education by adopting appropriate pedagogy is essential. The Input-Process-Outcome learning model emphasizes the importance of taking entertainment and education into consideration. This study developed a movement-based game designed according to Input-Process-Outcome in a cooperative learning environment (IPO-MGBCL) to enhance the performance of elementary students' hygiene knowledge developing. The results showed that the IPO-MGBCL group had better learning outcome.

Keywords: Movement-based Game, Input-Process-Outcome Learning Model, Cooperative Learning
Introduction

The learning and life adoption in the first grade has become the foundation of students’ character development, learning style, and school life. The primary school students are believed to have high potential of learning. Acquiring accurate health knowledge, attitude and developing healthy habits and behaviors are beneficial to their lives (Chen, Lin, Ho, & Huang, 2012). Research showed that first graders may have difficulty developing their daily hygiene habits when they bridge their lives in kindergartens and primary schools. The difficulties includes hand washing, mouth hygiene, etc. A survey conducted by The Ministry of Health and Welfare (2012) investigated that the school children in Taiwan have higher rate of teeth decay than the standard set by WHO. In the current curriculum, the time of hygiene education regarding teeth and hand washing is very limited and makes it difficult to change first graders’ behavior. Behavior change is not able to obtain instantly that needs constant practice and strengthen (Houle, 1982). Moreover, in the current curriculum, hygiene education is usually in a regular classroom with traditional learning materials that can hardly attract students’ attention and make individual practice possible. Although there are computer-aided learning materials available on the web, the materials lack a sense of reality because they are controlled by mouse only.

The game-based learning environment is able to maintain students’ attention and further stimulate their learning motivation (Hao, Hong, Jong, Hwang, Su, & Yang, 2010). Movement-based games enable intuitive manipulation that control games by body movements instead of keyboards and mouse. Movement-based games have been applied in motor skills and surgery training (Verdaasdonk, Dankelman, Schijven, Lange, Wentink & Stassen, 2009). However, game-based learning does not guarantee better learning effects than traditional teaching (Kuo, 2007). It is recommended to obtain the balance of entertainment and education.

The Input-Process-Outcome learning model brought by Garris (2002) emphasizes the importance of taking entertainment and education into consideration. The game-based learning needs appropriate content input and outcome. The study further combined movement-based games and cooperative learning in the game-based learning environment. Cooperative learning is usually used to improve interaction and learning (Jocob, 1999; Lewis, Robinson, & Hays, 2011).
In sum, because of the importance of elementary students’ hygiene knowledge improvement, the importance of taking learning model and entertainment into consideration, and combining cooperative learning to improve interaction, this study developed a movement-based game designed according to Input-Process-Outcome in a cooperative learning environment to enhance the performance of elementary students’ hygiene knowledge developing.

Methodology

The research was conducted in elementary classes in Taiwan and 106 students participated. A total of 44.23% of them were male and 55.77% were female. All students in the research were required to learn through movement-based games and participate in Team-Games-Tournament activities. The content in the movement-based games were highly related to the course content to help participants understand and review what they have learned from the class. The entire treatment lasted for four weeks. In the study, quantitative data consisted of pre-test and post-test scores. The participants were asked to take the pre-test before the treatment. After the treatment, they were asked to take post-test.

Results and Discussions

Dependent t-test was used to answer research question one “In the cooperative learning environment, whether the students in the movement-based game that was designed based on the Input-Process-Outcome model will improve their hygiene knowledge?” The pre-test and post-test were administered to the students in the experimental group at the end of the four weeks of study in order to answer this research question. There is a statistically significant mean difference (t= -11.65, df=53, p<.01) between pre-test and post-test in the IPO-MBGCL group. The posttest score (mean= 85.66, s= 12.80) was higher than the pre-test score (mean= 57.33, s=12.88). The 95% Confidence Interval suggests the true mean difference is included in -33.20<µ<-23.45.

Independent t-test was used to answer research question two “In the movement-based gaming and cooperative learning environment, is there any difference in the learning outcome between the students in or not in the movement-based game that was designed based on the Input-Process-Outcome model?” The pre-test and posttest were administered to the students at the end of the four weeks of study in order to answer this research question. The results from the pre-test showed that there was no
statistically significant difference in the pre-test between IPO-MGBCL and non-IPO-MGBCL groups (t=.78, df =104, p=.44). The 95% Confidence Interval indicates the true mean difference (-.38) may range from -2.95<μ<6.78. On average, participants in the IPO-MGBCL group (M=57.33, SD=12.88) had similar level of prior knowledge before the treatment (M=59.25, SD=12.37). The results are shown below in Table 1.

**Table 1. Scores of the Pre-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IPO-MGBCL</td>
<td>57.33</td>
<td>12.88</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non- IPO-MGBCL</td>
<td>59.25</td>
<td>12.37</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58.27</td>
<td>12.61</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results from the knowledge post-test showed that there was statistically significant difference in the post-test between IPO-MGBCL and non- IPO-MGBCL groups (t=-5.35, df =104, p<0.01). The 95% Confidence interval indicates the true mean difference (-14.41) may range from -19.75<μ<-9.07. On average, participants in the IPO-MGBCL group (M=85.66, SD=12.80) performed better academically than the non- IPO-MGBCL group (M=71.25, SD=14.87). The results are shown below in Table 2.

**Table 2. Scores of the Knowledge Post-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IPO-MGBCL</td>
<td>85.66</td>
<td>12.80</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non- IPO-MGBCL</td>
<td>71.25</td>
<td>14.87</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>78.59</td>
<td>15.57</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results from the motion post-test showed that there was statistically significant difference in the post-test between IPO-MGBCL and non- IPO-MGBCL groups (t=-5.69, df =104, p<0.01). The 95% Confidence interval indicates the true mean difference (-14.97) may range from -20.20<μ<-9.75. On average, participants in the IPO-MGBCL group (M=84.35, SD=12.60) performed better academically than the non- IPO-MGBCL group (M=69.38, SD=14.48). The results are shown below in Table 3.
Table 3. Scores of the Motion Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IPO-MGBCL</td>
<td>84.35</td>
<td>12.60</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non- IPO-MGBCL</td>
<td>69.38</td>
<td>14.48</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>77.00</td>
<td>15.45</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect using IPO-MGBCL in hygiene learning. The findings of this study confirm that IPO-MGBCL facilitates effect of learning hygiene in primary education. In the IPO-MGBCL group, the post test scores demonstrated tremendous improvement from the pretest. From the pre-test scores in this study, there was no statistically significant difference in test scores between IPO-MGBCL and non- IPO-MGBCL S groups. However, the IPO-MGBCL group had a higher knowledge post-test score than the other group. Integrating IPO-MGBCL in learning help improve participants’ academic performance. Moreover, the IPO-MGBCL group had a higher motion post-test score than the other group. IPO-MGBCL may be interesting and help students get involved in the learning process, which facilitate users’ learning.

Acknowledgement

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References


**The Storytelling Teacher: Using Storytelling to Improve Engagement and Content Retention in History and Social Studies for All Learners**

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Official Conference Proceedings

**Abstract:**
The purpose of this study is to explore the way that story is used as a method of making the culture and history of distant and diverse peoples meaningful to junior high school students. Canada's aboriginal community utilized the traditional method of communicating the history and teachings of their people via oral communication. These stories teach the student about the way that a culture has lived, utilized the land and interacted with nearby cultures. Often learners are reluctant to engage in traditional history classes due to a lack of engagement, but when teaching uses the aboriginal model of oral history, students have a greater ability to retain and recall the essential understandings of a topic area. In addition, through learning the stories held in high esteem by diverse cultures, students gain a greater appreciation of their values and perspectives. As a result, this study demonstrates that by learning multiple perspectives through the stories valued by different communities, students are more likely to learn necessary curricular outcomes. In addition, students are also more likely to form positive opinions of distant cultures and to feel greater responsibility to contribute to global society.
Introduction

In the southeast corner of Alberta, home to some of the least fertile soil and the sparsest populations in the province, the Milk River carves its way through the Great Plains. Cutting cliffs and hoodoos into the landscape, the river for centuries formed a path by which many of the aboriginal people of North America travelled. Along its banks, 42 kilometres southeast of the Town of Milk River in the Canadian Badlands, is the archaeological site at Writing-on-Stone Provincial Park. In this site, upon the ancient rock can be found one of the “largest concentrations of prehistoric and historic period Native American pictographs and petroglyphs in North America.” (Writing-on-Stone, glyphs. Retrieved 2015). Chiseled into the sandstone, drawn using ironstone or coal or painted with ochre, are the stories used to teach generations of the Blackfoot and Shoshone youth the stories of their people. (Derworiz, 2014).

Storytelling has existed since prehistoric times as a means of communicating not only the histories, but the values and ideals of the societies that developed them. Culture is built upon the stories of its people. Story is the route through which the worldviews of societies are developed and passed down from one generation to the next. Even today, the value of a great storyteller can be seen in the way that people seek out movies, books and articles or even an engaging conversationalist at a social function. The power of the story is evident. There is evidence to support the assertion that students in all grade levels benefit from learning concepts related to history and social studies through storytelling. The power of storytelling is critical among the population of students we commonly identify as “struggling students”. In the context of this paper, storytelling includes traditional cultural stories, those told by parents and teachers about real life experiences and stories detailing events from history. This study aims to detail why storytelling is an effective pedagogical tool, particularly for reluctant learners, how it can best be used in a social studies classroom to teach history, and the ways in which storytelling in history can be transferred to other areas of study. Due to the way that story helps students retain factual information by relating it to emotion, storytelling has proven to have the power to effectively improve the academic engagement and content retention of all learners. (McCullum, Maldonado & Bates 2014).

Storytelling as a Pedagogical Tool for Reluctant Learners

Over time, education in many Western settings became linear and explicit, focusing on the presentation of ideas and key concepts in point form, with the educator’s idea of key concepts highlighted throughout. Students’ ability to comprehend their reading was assessed by the way they could look at, and restate a text and the key strategy to helping students retain information was through taking notes while the teacher instructed the class. (Kariuki & Kent 2014). Testing based on assessing a student’s intelligence quotient, or I.Q., gained prominence in academic circles and was led by Lewis Terman, a psychologist from Stanford University. Terman believed that I.Q. tests “could be used to determine the quality of people by ethnicity, by race, by class... and so the very belief in the capacity of people to learn was undermined.” (Mondale, 2001. p. 101). Questions on the test were “designed to mention mental aptitude rather than academic achievement, and could be highly subjective.” (Mondale, 2001 p. 102). In an academic world dominated by the belief in mental
Aptitude testing without the presence of story, millions of students were thus left behind.

Teaching through story has long been a generally acknowledged pedagogical tool for teaching young children how to read. According to Malo and Bullard (2000), the number of hours that preschool students are read to, receiving the stories of their own culture, is a direct indicator as to how well they will be able to read when they are older. Additionally, “reading aloud to children not only increases reading achievement scores, but also listening and speaking abilities including the ability to use more complex sentences, literal and inferential comprehension skills, concept development, letter and symbol recognition, and positive attitudes about reading.” (Malo & Bullard, 2000). Additionally, “Those who regularly hear stories, subconsciously acquire familiarity with narrative patterns and begin to predict upcoming events” (Teaching Storytelling, 2000) and can use their ability to recognize patterns in stories to better understand new and unfamiliar text. Students who are taught an idea from a “skilled storyteller” (McCullum et al., 2014) have more effective and detailed recall and use a more diverse vocabulary (Malo & Bullard, 2000). Oral comprehension skills gained from a tradition of listening to stories have indicated enhanced reading comprehension skills as well as improved oral and written expression. (Berninger & Abbott, 2010).

Storytelling has been proven to be a particularly effective teaching tool when used with a student audience that comes from diverse backgrounds that have traditions of storytelling. This has proven to be true for students of aboriginal (Atleo, 2009), German, African American, Hispanic and Irish (Malo & Bullard, 2000) cultural traditions. Haven explains that “every culture in the history of this planet has created stories: myths, fables, folk tales… all developed and used stories.” (Haven, 2007. p. 4). In some areas, traditional testing and teaching have shown a great deal of cultural bias against students from diverse backgrounds, particularly those who speak English as a second language. Based on I.Q. testing, which was delivered in English, “two-thirds of Mexican Americans in the 1930s were classified as slow learners, and eventually mentally retarded, on the basis of I.Q. tests given as early as kindergarten.” (Mondale, 2001. p. 104).

Often students who are reluctant learners are empowered by the opportunity to learn through story. Storytelling, through a skilled storyteller who uses voice and gesture effectively, has the ability to engage students with academic difficulties both in the processes of receiving information and developing their vocabulary, or by processing it and having the opportunity to engage in the storytelling process themselves. In a position statement from the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), the organization explains that students at every level of schooling who are not as competent as their peers in reading and writing are often exceptional storytellers. (Teaching Storytelling, 2000). Additionally, the NCTE explains that soon after people develop the ability to speak, they develop the ability to tell stories. Stories are told in an informal manner as people relate the activities of their everyday lives, and the best storytellers can effectively use gestures, hyperbole and changes in the intonation of their voices to increase the effect of the story that they are telling. Listeners can learn through the intricacies of speech that they have been interpreting since youth, and can often derive meaning from a story that they could not from factual referencing. (Teaching Storytelling, 2000).
Stories can assist reluctant learners in acquiring necessary information because it taps into social and emotional aspects of the ways in which people think, helping relate a fact to a feeling, such as loneliness, injustice or triumph. In *How the Brain Learns*, Sousa (2006) explains that “students are much more likely to remember curriculum content in which they have made an emotional investment… teachers often need to use strategies that get students emotionally involved with the learning content” (need a page number with a direct quote). In a study using *Inanimate Alice*, a digital novel that uses storytelling through text, games, images and music, struggling readers were able to improve their literacy skills by engaging with the story they were learning (Fleming, 2013, p. 326). By accessing the basic emotions of human life, storytelling assist students in relating the feelings incurred by the people living the story to feelings remembered in the stories of their own lives. It is through stories that students best learn information about the world around them, which assists students as they engage in the process of ordering their “physical, emotional, and social environment.” (Malo & Bullard, 2000). Additionally, students can achieve increased retention of coursework by linking the material learned in the story to similar stories that they have lived in their own lives. This is effective in meeting the needs of emerging readers and those struggling with the acquisition of new content.

Gottshall (2014) explains that fMRIs illustrate the ways that the human brain operates while engaged in a story. While participating in the watching, reading or listening of a story, fMRIs show that while a person is thus engaged, they experience the same range of emotions as the characters they identify with in the story. Their brains are experiencing anger, fear, lust or exhilaration alongside the characters that they are identifying with in the story. The predictable outcome is that when tied with human emotion, the brain becomes more invested, or engaged in the material than it otherwise would have been. “At a neurological level, whatever is happening on the page or on the stage isn’t just happening to them, it is happening to us as well.” (Gottschall, 2014).

Storytelling does more than just assist students with content retention and make them more engaged in their learning. It is a model of how to tell stories of their own. By listening to a good storyteller, students learn the basics of introducing an idea, capturing a listener’s attention and leaving a message that resonates, regardless of the purpose with which the story is told. Students learn to maintain eye contact with their audience, use gestures and body language and change the pacing and tone of their voice. Modelling of storytelling is useful for developing students into better writers, better public speakers and better storytellers, which is a worthwhile achievement in itself.

At no point is it argued that storytelling should be used in isolation from other teaching strategies. Storytelling is an effective way to encourage students to participate in subject material and to retain information. Storytelling is a valuable pedagogical tool for any teacher’s toolbox, and it is best used in cooperation with other techniques, such as content area reading, small group work and class discussion.
Storytelling to Teach History

Historians are storytellers (Gottschall, 2012). One of the best methods for the passing of factual information is through story, and this is especially the case in regards to the teaching and learning of history. When a traditional storyteller entrances an audience with the history of their group, children gain a sense of history in an immediate and powerful way. Teaching history through an examination of the stories brought about by its events, teachers have an opportunity to use their voice, gestures and mannerisms to teach particular concepts. In doing so, “historical figures and events linger in children's minds when communicated by way of a narrative. The ways of other cultures, both ancient and living, acquire honor in story.” (Teaching Storytelling, 2000). Storytelling is the oldest teaching methodology for conferring a people’s history to future generations.

The most important aspect of being able to effectively use a storyteller method in order to teach history, is to examine the necessary curriculum and find the stories that can best address the concept that needs to be taught. For instance, in the social studies program for the province of Alberta, students are required to understand “how did the Renaissance spark the growth and exchange of ideas and knowledge across Europe (i.e., astronomy, mathematics, science, politics, religion, arts)?” (Alberta Grade 8 Social Studies, 2005). The stories that can help answer this question are beautiful and inspiring, and can lead to exceptional student engagement and understanding as well. The storyteller needs to have the ability to effectively use voice and gesture in order to evoke the necessary memories and emotions of their students. When this is done, storytelling, either through an effective teacher or a guest speaker who can effectively connect story to the essential understandings being taught, “brings learning to life, helping students grasp the intricacies and nuances of today’s challenging decision-making environment.” (Fawcett & Fawcett, 2011). When used in cooperation with discussion and small group activity, the storyteller approach teaching history can have effective and predictable outcomes using a variety of different assessment techniques.

Transferring storytelling methodology from history to other subject areas

The storytelling methodology is effective in teaching far more than simply the history of one’s people. It is a teaching tradition that can be witnessed in the music classroom (Malo & Bullard, 2000) when the natural rhythms and patterns in a story can be replicated by an orchestra. It can be seen in ethics or civics classes when one relates the story “grandmother tells of her adventures while coming to the United States to escape a war ravaged country” teaching her grandchildren about justice and freedom. (Malo & Bullard, 2000). Teachers who tell personal stories about their past or present lives model for students the way to recall sensory detail. Listeners can relate the most vivid images from the stories they have heard or share a memory the story has evoked . (Teaching Storytelling, 2000).

Haven (2007) explains that in 350 research studies on the use of storytelling in fifteen separate fields of science, in each study the authors agreed to the premise that stories are both an efficient and an effective instrument “for teaching, for motivating, and for general communication of factual information, concepts and tacit information.” The facts about how plants and animals develop, how numbers work, or how government policy influences history--any topic, for that matter--can be incorporated into story
form and made more memorable if the listener takes the story to heart. (Teaching Storytelling, 2000).

In order to use storytelling to effectively teach concepts among other disciplines, it is of paramount importance that a teacher begins with an appropriate essential question. It should be a question that matters to students both in the present and in the future, that can create enduring understandings of the disciplinary topic under study, and that should be open-ended and arguable. (Wilhelm, 2012).

Research from the University of Waterloo in Ontario, Canada has found direct correlations between early exposure to storytelling and later success in mathematics. O’Neill, Pierce and Pick (2004) explain that there is a relationship between early preschool narrative abilities, particularly in students’ abilities to identify the main ideas of the story and the thoughts and feelings of the characters, and later mathematical achievement. This is explained in the discussion of O’Neill et al.’s study by stating that “reasoning about mathematical relationships between mathematical (abstract) objects is no different from reasoning about human relationships between people.” This is a concept practiced when listening to and analyzing story. The study argues that the human brain uses the same processes for mathematical relationships that are used when navigating interpersonal relationships and working through the construction of a narrative. (O’Neill et al., 2004).

An excellent example of how storytelling can be used in a multidisciplinary setting can be seen in the YouTube instructional videos of math teacher Tyler Binkley from Palmyra Middle School in Pennsylvania. Binkley uses a collection of videos that teach math concepts as varied as simplifying fractions, the area of a circle and combining like terms. According to Dreon, Kerper and Landis, even though Binkley’s “videos are instructional in nature, each video also tells a humorous story that involves a host of characters and has a distinct plot. Although [Binkley’s] online videos focus on teaching important math concepts, the stories are what ultimately engage his students.” (Dreon, Kerper & Landis, 2011).

**Practical Application for Storytelling**

When it is understood that storytelling is an important and effective method for teaching students about concepts in history and across other disciplines, the next step is to understand how to use this tool effectively. There are differences between a description of events and the telling of a story. For example, stating that Hernan Cortes and his Spanish conquistadors arrived in Mexico in 1519, that he and his soldiers were forced out of the Aztec city of Tenochtitlan in 1520 is a listing of events, it isn’t a story. It isn’t something that will spark the imagination of students and help them build connections by associating memories and feelings with the plight of the people involved in the events. As is explained by Haven (2007), “everything is not a story - but it could become one.”

In the previously stated example, events are listed. They could be memorized, but will likely only survive in the mind for as long as they are needed for the upcoming test, and then they will be forgotten. The material could be covered so much more effectively when used in the format of a story. The story of the Spanish arrival could be told of in the meeting between Cortes and Aztec emperor Moctezuma. The story
could be told either from the perspective of Aztecs who saw the pale, bearded men of the east as the coming to pass of Aztec prophecy, or from that of the Spaniards who witnessed the human sacrifice and cannibalism practiced by the Aztecs for the first time and put Moctezuma in chains in an effort to bend the powerful Aztecs to their will. In establishing a narrative for the Spanish conquest, “we impose the order of story structure on the chaos of existence.” (Gottschall, 2014).

Understanding that the use of story is an effective pedagogical tool to assist in the teaching of a concept, teachers need to understand who they are delivering that story to and that the student is always their primary audience. One of the most effective methods of understanding how to effectively use a story to help generate engagement and retention of class material is to always remember to keep in mind the audience. If the audience of a presentation is twenty five adolescents, it is important to make sure that the story touches on emotions, particularly those that make them laugh, and that the story moves rapidly from its slower paced spaces, which are more heavily content oriented, to its higher paced spaces, which touch on students thoughts and feelings. According to Garr Reynolds (2014), it is important to remember that “your story [the one that you are trying to tell] is actually their story.” That is how your message finds resonance with an audience.

There are a great number of parallels between how teachers instruct students about how to write a story, and the ways that teachers can use storytelling to actually deliver the instructional material. Similar to when teaching students to write a narrative story as a class assignment, those same elements are the one’s that help create a story that will create resonance and retention with the stories told to teach a concept. A great opening “hook” will bring the audience in and help them create meaning from the lesson being learned. (Reynolds, 2014).

A good storyteller moves between moments of high intensity when telling a story, to moments of low intensity, to alternate between grabbing the listener’s attention and allowing them to process information. Dallas news reporter Dave Lieber explains that in telling a story, the reason that it resonates in the human brain is that the story fires up the neurons at its high points, and allows the listener of the story to learn how to overcome struggle and failure in order to achieve a goal. (Lieber, 2013). This was a strategy used by prehistoric humans as they learned about survival while listening to stories in caves, and is a strategy that has been developing in human brains for longer than the written word, and some argue even longer than spoken language. “Evolutionary biologists confirm that 100 000 years of reliance on stories have evolutionarily hardwired a predisposition into human brains to think in story terms.” (Haven, 2007).

When developing the story that you want to tell, regardless of the time frame that exists for you to be able to tell it, it is important to remove everything that is superfluous. Reynolds talks about the theory of Chekhov’s gun, explaining that Anton Chekhov wrote that if there is a gun hanging on the wall in chapter one, it had better be going off in chapter two or three, and one of the main ways to make an idea stick is to do something unexpected (Reynolds, 2014).

Story is riveting, story is powerful, and storytelling is an excellent way that educators can help engage their students in course material across multiple disciplines. Nothing
in human experience holds human attention, hooks human attention, like a story. A study in the United States explains that more than four hours per day is spent in front of a screen in pursuit of stories, whether they be news stories, sports stories or crime stories. They can be found in movies, television broadcasts and now in video games. (Gottschall, 2014). Most importantly, when delivering a story to help engage students and have them retain information, the effective storyteller makes their audience feel something. Whether it be sadness, laughter, shock or anger, emotions touch the parts of the human experience that engage us and help us retain particular content. (Reynolds, 2014).

**Conclusion**

As a species, human beings crave story. Over millennia of evolution, our brains have been wired to think in the cause and effect relationships that have been taught to us through story, and our memories retain information learned through story better than in many other pedagogical methods. Learners, particularly those who are reluctant or struggle with literacy, can become engaged by an effective storyteller. History lends itself particularly well to the process of teaching through story, as the past is filled with rich and inspiring stories of the people and places who have shaped the world in which we live. Story can be used across disciplines, and there are close relationships between students who learn through story and those that experience success in a wide array of disciplines.

Upon those ancient hoodoos of Writing-on-Stone Provincial Park is carved the story of the thunderbird, who foretells of the coming spring through the flap of his wings, the lightning exposing the danger of his claws. (Derworiz, 2014). The centuries old petroglyphs and pictographs survive long after those who created them left their own earthly existence. In this, the astute observer can see the allegory for the storyteller. Long after the teller has left, it is the story that remains in the mind and the memories of the listener.
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Abstract
English dominates communication throughout the world of science. For students in countries such as China, India, Asia, the Middle East, and Africa to compete globally in their fields, an increasing number of their tertiary institutes use English – rather than local languages – as the medium of instruction. However, most available textbooks are written in a manner that assumes total native fluency in English. Studying science is already a challenge, and in a foreign language it is even more so. In our experience, this causes many unnecessary problems in the learning process. Students need textbooks that are more English language accessible, without reduction of scientific content. This paper outlines our efforts to achieve this. The approach aims to:- eliminate complex sentences, formal vocabulary, and idiomatic expressions; include language features that aid non-native speakers; remove distractions that disrupt readability for students reading in English as a foreign language.
Introduction
It is a well-documented fact that English currently dominates the world of scientific communication. (Gordin, 2015) Throughout the technologically developed world, nearly all serious research reporting is done in English. It is therefore no surprise that the vast majority of popular scientific textbooks emerge from the major English-speaking science communities such as the USA and UK. Since authors in these spheres are primarily native English speakers, the textbooks are often assumed to be the best.
Science students in countries such as China, India, Asia, the Middle East, and Africa wish to compete globally. This usually means competing in English. To help with this, an increasing number of their tertiary institutes now use English – rather than local languages – as the medium of instruction. The vast majority of the books that emerge from the English speaking scientific community continue to assume a native English speaking audience. This creates very real problems in the learning process.

The Non-native Reader of English
What are the challenges that face non-native readers of English? Reading in any non-native language involves two processes: bottom up and top down. (Nuttall, 2006) Bottom up processing involves focusing on letters, words and building up the text. With time and practice, readers develop increasing automaticity in decoding the text. Top down processing refers to what readers bring to the topic, what they draw on of their own knowledge as they go through the text.
Since learning content in a second language will necessarily weigh more heavily on the top down processing, it is critical to make the text as simple and clear as possible in order to support the bottom up processing.
Of course, most non-native English speakers who are enrolled in English-medium tertiary level study require some form of English proficiency qualification, such as TOEFL or IELTS. However, these students are still unlikely to have the same level of automaticity of reading as native speaking English readers. As a result, non-native readers of English often struggle to keep pace with the science course. Their lack of reading fluency limits the focus on actual factual content, and they are in real danger of losing interest in their chosen area of studies.

Current Science Textbooks
Compounding the problem is the fact that scientists are not necessarily good writers. The style and language used in scientific articles tends to restrict readability to a limited audience of like-minded specialists. Greene (Greene, 2013) has recently highlighted this shortcoming, and urges scientists to redress the situation.
In addition to poor text readability, many features of modern textbooks – designed to make the content more engaging, attractive and entertaining – are actually distractions. These distractions can slow down the non-native reader who struggles to sort out the key information from the merely supplementary. Many of the extra features are often meaningless within the cultural setting of the readers. These extra features and distractions can also be costly. Colorful pages add to the cost of the textbook, as do the inclusion of many of the web-linked activities and various special-interest topics. This is a problem for many non-native readers of English who live in countries where the resources are not available to meet these inflated prices, or to access the many web-based additional materials.
Textbooks for Dummies
Currently there are textbooks on the market that simplify the science, but do not address issues of language accessibility. These books are not appropriate for non-native readers of English in a tertiary setting. Firstly, these textbooks are aimed at learners who are struggling intellectually with the science concepts whereas non-native readers are challenged by the language, not necessarily the concepts. Secondly, these textbooks ‘for dummies’ tend to be much wordier. Also, they include cultural references that may mean very little to the readers. As we can see in the following excerpt from the ‘For Dummies’ series, the text contains some unnecessarily complex language and uses culturally foreign references to make a point. The italicized parts of the text indicate these issues.

“Carbon has the capability of forming four bonds, so molecules that contain carbon can be of varied and intricate designs. Also, carbon bonds represent the perfect trade-off between stability and reactivity - carbon bonds are neither too strong nor too weak. Instead, they epitomize what chemists refer to affectionately as the Goldilocks principle - carbon bonds are neither "too hot" nor "too cold," but are "just right." If these bonds were too strong, carbon would be unreactive and useless to organisms; if they were too weak, they would be unstable and would be just as worthless." (Winter, 2014)

Real Science, Clear English
Since any reduction of the scientific content is not usually an option, the only alternative is to improve the readability. To address these issues, we developed the concept and principles of Real Science Clear English. (Roos & Roos, 2015b). Many of these principles are drawn from guidelines for good writing in general; (Greene, 2013) some of these principles are drawn from the Plain English concept, but with some important differences. ("Plain English Campaign," 2015)
The ‘Plain English’ concept, is largely aimed at native English speakers, usually in the areas of public information and business. Clear English, on the other hand, is specifically aimed at non-native readers of English and remains academic in nature. Although both approaches embrace clarity and brevity, material for non-native readers of English needs to be written in clear English without compromising on academic rigor. The Clear English concept for textbooks means: simple, uncluttered layout with no unnecessary distractions, such as sidebars or italic fonts; the simplest sentence constructions possible, even if monotonous to the native reader; a minimum of different vocabulary items, even if the same words for the same things are used over and over; no idiomatic expressions or heavily cultural references.

Principles of Clear English
A few of the principles of ‘Clear English’ are illustrated in the following excerpts. We begin with a ‘before’ paragraph from the original introductory organic chemistry textbook (REF) that we transformed into a language-accessible version of the same textbook. (Roos & Roos, 2015a). We finish with the ‘after’ paragraph to show how the language can be made clearer.
The original text: ‘Before’

Before beginning any discussion of the compounds based on carbon, it is perhaps appropriate to put the element into perspective in terms of its natural abundance in a system such as the human body. (Table 1.1) Abundance alone does not dictate the
importance of the elements of life. Iron is part of haemoglobin which carries oxygen in the blood. Iodine is vital to smooth operation of the thyroid. Cobalt is contained in vitamin B\textsubscript{12}. Zinc, copper, and manganese are present in various enzymes. In each of these examples there are vast numbers of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen atoms for every metal atom. Nevertheless, without the metal, the compounds could not serve their biological functions.

Principle 1: Remove unnecessary meta-data

Before beginning any discussion of the compounds based on carbon, it is perhaps appropriate to put the element into perspective in terms of its natural abundance in a system such as the human body. Abundance alone does not dictate the importance of the elements of life. Table 1.1 shows examples of trace elements in the human body.

Principle 2: Use appropriate simple clear visuals

.... in a system such as the human body. Abundance alone does not dictate the importance of the elements of life. Table 1.1 shows examples of trace elements in the human body.

Principle 3: Use concrete rather than abstract nouns

Abundance alone does not dictate the importance of the elements of life. Iron is part of haemoglobin which carries oxygen in the blood. Iodine is vital to smooth operation of the thyroid.

We have only a small amount of iron in the body. However, iron is needed to carry oxygen in the blood. Iodine is needed for the thyroid to work properly.

Principle 4: Use simple, high-frequency vocabulary

Iron is part of haemoglobin which carries oxygen in the blood. Iodine is vital to smooth operation of the thyroid.

Iron is needed to carry oxygen in the blood. Iodine is needed for the thyroid to work properly.

Other principles incorporated into the new textbook include:

• Highlight key terms/phrases for a glossary
• Keep sentence length to maximum of 20 words
• Avoid lengthy noun clauses
• Use simplest sentence type possible and limit the range of linking words:
  ➢ Simple
  ➢ Compound with limited linking words - and, but, or
  ➢ Complex with limited linking words – because, although, which

The new text: ‘After’
The amount of each element of life does not tell us how important it is. Table 1.1 shows examples of trace elements in the human body. We have only a small amount of iron in the body. However, iron is needed to carry oxygen in the blood. Iodine is needed for the thyroid to work properly. Cobalt is part of vitamin B\textsubscript{12}. Zinc, copper, and manganese are in various enzymes that the body needs. In each of these examples there are many carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen atoms for each metal atom. However, without the trace element metals, it is impossible for these compounds to carry out their biological functions.
Tools for Assessing Language Accessibility

A number of useful web-based tools exist to evaluate the difficulty and level of readability of text. We used several of these to evaluate both the above ‘before and after’ sample text, as well as the full pilot textbook. Snapshots of evaluations are shown in Figures 1-3 below, and the key indices are collected in Table 1.

Tool 1: Coh-Metrix

This tool gives various indices of the linguistic and discourse complexity of a text. There are 106 indices, but we focus on the one for ESL readability (the last one). The higher the score, the easier to read.

![Coh-Metrix output](image)

**Figure 1** Coh-Metrix sample output (McNamara, Louwerse, Cai, & Graesser, 2013)

Tool 2: Average Grade Level

This tool is based on American school grades. The lower the score, the easier to read.
Grade Levels

A grade level (based on the USA education system) is equivalent to the number of years of education a person has had. A score of around 10–12 is roughly the reading level on completion of high school. Text to be read by the general public should aim for a grade level of around 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Readability Formula</th>
<th>Grade</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gunning-Fog Score</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coleman-Liau Index</td>
<td>10.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMOG Index</td>
<td>8.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Automated Readability Index</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average Grade Level</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 2** Composite readability grade level sample evaluation ("Readability," 2015)

**Tool 3: The Vocabulary Profiler**
This tool breaks down the text into levels of vocabulary frequency in the language at large. There are different vocabulary lists that can be used. This one is from the new general service and new academic word lists (NGSL/NAWL).

**Figure 3** Sample evaluation of common English words (Cobb, 2015)
Table 1 Key evaluation indices of ‘Before and After’ sample text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Readability Tools</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coh-metrix readability (RDL2-L2)</td>
<td>10.935</td>
<td>17.076a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average grade level (based on 5 readability indices related to American school grade levels)</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>8.6b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000-2000 most frequent words (specifically, the New General Service List and the New Academic Word List)</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>80%a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a The higher the value, the better the readability
b The lower the value, the easier the readability

As can be seen from Table 1, all the indices change significantly in the direction of improved readability. These same evaluations were carried out on the entire pilot publication (Roos & Roos, 2015a) and revealed that, except for specific technical content, only about 1250 different English words were used. Of these, more than 98% are drawn from the 1000-2000 most common English words along with the 350 strong Academic Word List.

Conclusion

Late secondary and entry level tertiary non-native English readers who study science will benefit greatly from textbooks specifically written in Clear English. These students, as they progress through the tertiary system, will have a greater reading confidence and will be able to progress more easily to the mainstream textbooks required in their senior years.

We need to convince both authors and publishers to strive toward producing more appropriate introductory science textbooks in Clear English. If this does not happen, we risk losing many good students due to the frustration of reading unnecessarily complex writing. An alternative is to move away from the monoglot predominance of English in science and a return to some new polyglot of languages. This less preferable outcome will surely result in overall reduced global communication in the important areas of science and technology.
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Mechanisms of Moral Disengagement in Police Unethical Behaviour

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Nowadays there were a lot of police unethical behavior reported in Indonesia which became concern of law enforcement agency and abused of public trust. One of the reason of this phenomena is varied depend on the reason of the perpetrators. Moral disengagement is the ability to use cognitive mechanism to excuse unethical decision making. Moral disengagement can contribute to unethical behaviour depends on the mechanism used. Moral disengagement is divided by eight mechanisms. The eight mechanisms are moral justification, euphemistic labelling, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, distortion of consequences, dehumanization, and attribution of blame. This research purpose to examine the descriptive data of moral disengagement in Police Officer. The instrument of this research was moral disengagement scale developed based on socio-cognitive theory by Albert Bandura. Data collected from 150 police officers from traffic division, criminal investigation division, vital object division, operation division, and ethical profession division. Result of this study indicate that the level of moral disengagement on the subject is low and the mechanism used is varied.

Keywords: Moral disengagement, Unethical behaviour, Police misconduct,
Introduction
Ethical violations committed by the police would be dilemma that occurs not only in the police force but also in Indonesian society. The police ethical violations committed by the police to decreased the public’s expectations and trust to the police (Dwilaksana, 2011). According to Dwilaksana (2011), the police tend to give defensive answers when confronting reports of problems in the institution. When there is a case of ethical violation, the police often use the excuse to the public, to trying using different point of view and do not judge the police without facts. This practices are actually intended to protect the police. In reality this has negative impacts to the police as they protect their violating members without punishment.

Ethical violations committed by police is contradictory to the main task of police officers. The phenomenon of ethical violations committed by law enforcement officials is interesting and need further researched. Bandura's social cognitive theory emphasizes a concept called the moral disengagement which is explain the mechanisms of moral control can be disengaged from unethical behaviour.

Moral disengagement is the process of convincing ourselves that the ethical standards not applicable in a particular context when doing unethical behaviour. It may inhibits and hinder negative consequences for the individual (Jackson & Spar, 2005). Moral disengagement usually occurs when an individual commits something that violates the moral or ethics. Bandura (In Moore, Detert, Trevino, Baker, & Mayer, 2012) suggests moral disengagement theory to explain how the process of moral disengagement inhibit the cognitive processes between unethical behavior conducted and sanctions of such behavior.

According to Bandura (In Detert, Trevino, and Sweitzer, 2008) moral disengagement is one of the cognitive mechanisms that inhibit the process of self-regulation in regulating person's moral standards. Moral disengagement can explain why individuals can do unethical things without feeling guilty. When someone would commit unethical behavior, then there is a process of moral regulation that would impede the person to commit ethical violations. Moral disengagement inhibits the process of moral regulation, so that the individual can easily perform unethical behaviour without guilt.

Bandura (In Jackson & Spar, 2005) suggests that individuals are always observing and comparing their behaviors with moral standards that exist. In addition they can also choose to behave in unethical and change the rationalization they have to make their behavior becomes more acceptable, although the behavior is at odds with existing ethics. In this case the moral disengagement plays an important role in the process of rationalizing the behavior committed by individual.

Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara and Pastorelli (1996), suggested that moral disengagement can influence behavioral consequences of ethical violations committed by individuals. Bandura (In Moore et al., 2012) suggested that moral disengagement correlated with unethical behaviours. Moore et al. also found that moral disengagement has impact on individual's involvement in corruption. However, research conducted by Zschoche (2011) argued that moral disengagement did not have significant effect on the behavior of police corruption. Based on the above
description, this research aimed to finding out moral disengagement among provincial police members.

**Mechanisms**

Bandura (1999) suggested eight dimensions of moral disengagement that can alter individual cognitive structure of the moral standards. Eight dimensions of moral disengagement which are: moral justification, euphemistic labelling, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, distortion of consequences, dehumanization, and attribution of blame.

The first dimension is the moral justification. In this dimension the individual feels that he violates ethical behavior for the sake of a better intention. Individuals tend to feel that the immoral behavior that they do for the sake of defending a conviction or to protect something. Moral justification is often done in the case of the military, especially during the war. Real war is an act that is not in accordance with the humanitarian done because it is considered to achieve a better goal.

The second, euphemistic labeling is a mechanism using sanitized words in order not to cause a real sense of guilt on the individual self. The use of euphemistic labeling tends to be committed by individuals so that ethical violations become more acceptable (Bandura 1999). According to Diener et al. (In Bandura, 1999) euphemistic labeling is one of dangerous mechanisms that can increase individual aggression.

Advantageous comparison is another mechanism that makes ethical violations behavior seems better. In this case, the violation of ethical behavior is being compared to violence or criminal actions that bring bigger consequences, so that the ethical violations do not look too severe (Bandura, 1999). According to Jackson and Sparr (2005) advantegous comparison is done so that the negative behavior by individuals is becoming more acceptable when compared to the behavior of others. These three dimensions: advantageous comparison, euphemistic labeling, and moral justification are the most powerful dimensions in ignoring moral values when committing unethical behaviors (Bandura, 1999).

The next is displacement of responsibility. Displacement of responsibility is an assumption that ethical violations are performed as following orders from the authorities. This can make individuals personally not directly responsible for the action (Jackson & Sparr, 2005). In this case the action is seen as following orders from the authorities, so it will avoid direct responsibility to the person (Bandura, 1999). The person is not responsible for his behavior because he considered that he was not the perpetrator who actually (Bandura et al., 1996).

The next dimension is the diffusion of responsibility that is the dimension which considers that the responsibility for violation of ethical behavior to be reduced because the others do the same. In this case the responsibility and guilt in individuals spread because he felt that others were doing the same thing (Bandura, 1999). Decision making in groups is another form of diffusion of responsibility for behavior that violates ethics. In this case all members of the group have responsibility for the decision, but in fact nobody really feel responsible and this can make individuals much easier to do things that violate ethics (Bandura et al., 1996).
Distortion of consequences is the dimension that minimizes the consequences of the action. When people do things that harm others, then people tend to eliminate or minimize the effects or consequences of behavior that they did (Bandura, 1999). According to Jackson and Sparr (2005), individuals can easily harm to others when the effects of the consequences of behavior not seen in visible or just looks small.

Dehumanization is a mechanism on the victim of behavior. When a person conducts behavior that creates negative impacts on others, they who receive the negative impact are considered less human than the person who conducts the act (Bandura, 1999). A person conducts negative acts to others because he or she may previously looked down or dehumanize by others (Jackson & Sparr, 2005).

The last mechanisms is attribution of blame. Attribution of blame is the mechanism that considers the responsibility of being the victim's behavior as the victim is entitled to be treated as such (Moore et al., 2012). In this case, the individual commits some actions based on the reflection of being underestimated and by others and his action is a reaction of provocation committed by others (Jackson & Sparr, 2005).

**Methods**

**Participants**

Participants in this study were 150 police officers in Jakarta. 32.7% were from traffic division, 20% were from criminal investigation divisions, 20 % from operations division, 20.7 % were vital objects division, and 6.7% from internal profession and security division. Traffic division is charged with the specific duties of traffic enforcement, traffic accident, traffic control and traffic administration. Criminal investigation division is charged with the duty of investigating criminal case. Operation division is charged with the duty as a back up for general operations. Vital objects division is responsible for securing vital objects in the city. Internal profession and security division is responsible for the ethics in the internal institutions. Internal profession and security division also in charged to guard every officers to keep the ethics and their professional standard. 78% of participants in this study were male and 22% were women. The age of the participants is range between 17-55 years old ($M=32.51$, $SD =7.81$). The data collection were done by using a convenience sampling method based on the suitability of the subject and the need for research to perform data retrieval.

**Measures**

The data was taken using self-report questionnaire consisting of demographic attributes and measuring devices to analyze the moral disengagement. Moral disengagement was measured using Moral Disengagement Scale developed by Moore et al (2012). This scale consists of twenty-four items and each dimension consists of three items. Each items will be measured using a Likert scale with a range of 1-5, 1 = Strongly Disagree and 5 = Strongly Agree. Examples of items on the moral scale of disengagement is "Lying to protect a friend is a natural thing". The validity of measuring instruments is done using face validity and content validity. The Alpha Cronbach internal consistency is 0.892.
Data Analysis And Results

The data were analyzed using descriptive method. From the answers given by the participants obtained the value of the whole item. On this measure obtained median of 3.0, the minimum value of 1.00, the maximum value of 4.00. The mean of data 2.46 with the standard deviation of 0.5811. Based on the description of these data, it is known that the mean value obtained is smaller than the median, it can be said that moral disengagement in the participants tend to be low.

Moral disengagement are categorized based on the total score of the points contained in moral disengagement scale. Subjects were categorized into two types: high moral disengagement and low moral disengagement. In this study, subjects with low moral disengagement were 80 subjects (53.3%), while subjects with high moral disengagement, there were 70 subjects (46.7%). Data can be seen in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moral Disengagement</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>46.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tabel 1: Descriptive of moral disengagement

Based on the eight mechanisms of moral disengagement, this variable also had a differences mean score in every mechanisms. From the the answers given by the participants, we get the descriptive data to explain how the differences in every mechanisms. Tabel 2 explain about the descriptive data of each mechanisms. From the data we get that the mechanisms that get the highest mean is dehumanization, moral justifications, and displacement of responsibility. These three mechanisms get the highest score compare than the other mechanisms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mechanisms</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moral justifications</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Euphemistic labelling</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantageous comparison</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>0.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Displacement of responsibility</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diffusion of responsibility</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distortion of consequences</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dehumanization</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribution of blame</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tabel 2: Descriptive of each mechanisms

This research also aim to describe how the moral disengagement in each divisions. Every divisions had different responsibility and also different values. It can influence the officers perceptions about how they should responsible for their work. Tabel 3 describe the moral disengagement in every divisions. From the data below, it explained about the frequencies of high moral disengagement and low moral disengagement in each divisions. As we can see, operations and vital object division had more percentage of high moral disengagement than the low moral disengagement.
Traffic, criminal, and internal professions security divisions had more percentage of low moral disengagement than the high moral disengagement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Division</th>
<th>Low Moral disengagement</th>
<th>High moral disengagement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traffic division</td>
<td>59.2%</td>
<td>40.8%</td>
<td>2.314</td>
<td>0.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Criminal investigation</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
<td>2.326</td>
<td>0.525</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vital object</td>
<td>45.2%</td>
<td>54.8%</td>
<td>2.636</td>
<td>0.446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal professions and security</td>
<td>60.0%</td>
<td>40.0%</td>
<td>2.412</td>
<td>0.417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operations</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>63.3%</td>
<td>2.667</td>
<td>0.640</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tabel 3: Moral disengagement in each divisions

**Discussions**

The research depicts that the majority of the subjects have moral disengagement which tend to be low. This means that the participants have low levels of cognitive restructurization in ethical violation. On the other side, it means the subjects in this study have a low barriers in the process of self-regulation in the moral standard for behavior. Low levels of moral disengagement in this study can not be interpreted as a low level of behavioral tendencies to ethical violations. This research also found the differences of moral disengagement in every divisions. This finding can explain that differences divisions had a differences moral disengagement.

The limitations of this research is the number of participants that been used. We hope that further research can get more participants to explain more about moral disengagement in police officers. The further research also can explain how the other divisions that hasnt been explain in this research. This research also can be the based for the further research to try to explain how moral disengagement in another province state police institution. Further research is expected to find out the correlation of moral disengagement in violation of ethics. Moral disengagement can be the influence of another variabel that can be contribute to violation behaviour. It may also be conducted in another profession or background.
References


School Space and Cross Religious Communication in Provoking Sense of Mutual Respect; Case of a Faith-Based School in Jayapura, Indonesia

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Abstract
Upon the limitation of formal spaces for religious interaction, school spaces for religious interaction and socialisation are still available at both secular school and faith-based school. Many parents have sent their children to get education at faith-based schools, which is actually different from their religious background. By employ ethnographical approach and symbolic interaction analysis this study aimed to see the impacts of students at faith-based schools, which is actually different from their religious background, and identify the impacts of school traditions in regard to the process of religious socialization among different faith in provoking sense of mutual respect. At large this study found that a school, which dominated by a certain religious tradition has greater influence in shaping the characters and thoughts of students toward the dominant religious group, they tend to be more acceptable and adaptable and learn from the dominant culture, though could not work well for the dominant religious group in fostering interpersonal relation with other different faith in order to learn about other religious traditions.

Key words: cross religious education, religious spaces, school tradition, symbolic interaction.
Introduction
Although at some places in Papua religious practice tend to be intolerant toward other religions, some places in south-coastal regions of the Western province of Papua such as Fak-Fak, Kaimana and Raja Ampat, have long been experienced mutual tolerant among different religious faiths that should be learn from and discovered the clues behind it. In those places, due to limited access of education, for many years parents in Papua have sent their children to faith-based schools, which are actually different from their religious backgrounds. Many Muslim students got their education at Christian schools or school managed by Christian institution which strongly applied Christian tradition as the school culture, and the vice versa, many Christian students have been sent to Islamic schools which strongly practicing Islamic traditions. By relegating the fact of limited access to education, I would say that this schooling practice has great potential to build interreligious communication. The hidden curriculum such as school culture and peer interaction could give opportunity for students to learn and to know more about other faiths. This schooling practice could also give impacts to develop culture of trust; mutual tolerant and they could bring it out of school into the society as whole and construct or reconstruct socio-religious culture in society. This study was inspired by aforementioned socio-religious life experiences in some regions in Papua, yet this study was base in Jayapura, which has different school and religious environment, but ease is similar. In Jayappura Many Christian students have been studying at Islamic school in Jayapura, and I would like to know what actually they have learned from their school environment and what they have learned about each other (Muslim and Christian students) through symbolic communication. From this idea, this study was specifically focused on the patterns of inter-religious communication and the transmission of religious ideas through school culture and students experiences in developing trust and mutual tolerant among different faiths.

School Space as Hidden Curriculum
I would like to start this part by discussing the term ‘social space as a hub in which people could meet, greet and interact each other. Scholars have give various perspectives on the term ‘socio-spatial ‘ which could be found in scholars’ works related to sociology, psychology, education and anthropology. Lefebvre (1991) asserted that space is characterised with categories of ideas, as perceived, conceived and lived. Space is related to dynamic changing, change in shifting geometry power (Massey, 1994). Meanwhile Jessop, et, al (2008) view that social space is related to territory, place, scale, network and position. Territory is an arena with boundaries that could constitute social relation in particular aspects among the actors or agents, and it should be managed and governed (Harvey, 1982: 404). It is full of normative contents (Robertson, 2010: 19). In relation to education, school could be a territory that constituted relation between teachers and students in the school boundary with regulations, such as dressing code and other school culture as kinds of power to control the territory, it seem nearly different than the term’ place’ which is exist based on certain criteria, it is social construction such as school and home (Robertson, 2010: 19) While ‘scale’ is strongly related to power stratification in constructing relation from institution at local level, national and global (Herod and Wright, 2002; Robertson, 2010:19). Relationship will be developed based on their ‘position’ and links developed. Future of the places will be determined by their quality of relationship and their interdependency (Sepherd, 2002). When school space is defined in the spectrum of territory, scale, and place and positional, we could be able to see
wide range and interplay issues at school as social construction. I think I will not go further to discuss school space partially on lexical interpretative, but I, d rather to see school space as whole as a hub in which relation, power and ideology constructed because in my view education at large is a process of interaction between people through communication which could be verbal or non verbal communication through symbols, picture, etc., and within this process at school level, each person at school has opportunity exchange information, lifestyles, attitudes, aptitudes, perceptions and could influence each other (Severin and Tankard, 2005: 219). Thus, it could be said that communication hold important role in the process of interaction in social construction of school space through school culture.

At large, communication process at conceptual domain could be traced down into two models of communication process, which are communication process at cognitive domain such as using symbols to communicate certain meaning of an object or reality (Cherry, 2005). While communication process related to behavior according to Skiner (1978) is a communication process with verbalic behavior in which the messenger tries to get certain meaning or response from public as it has determined. Nevertheless, the classical theory of communication suggests that the communication would run as long as there is a ‘channel’ (Shannon and Weiver, 1949; Barlo, 1960) in which through the channel massages such as symbols, written or oral massages could be transmitted and interpreted at certain context by the receiver. I would say that the term ‘channel’ probably has similar meaning to the ‘space’ in sociological lens when space here is as network in which peoples build their relation horizontally within an organised place, though ‘space’ in terms of ‘scale’ in which relationships are built vertically from local to global also important in education especially when looking at school policy or curriculum. Sometime even network or relationship between actors, let say between students and teacher could be viewed vertically as at school, teachers could have more power than students, they have higher position than students at school social structure. School then became a channel in which massages are being transmitted trough symbols, oral communication directly and indirectly.

In the context of school as a social space, I would like to narrow it down to the notion of symbolic interaction and looking at how school environment being constructed through school tradition, symbols placed at school or used by students and teachers to transmit certain ideas, and how do the social groups at school learn from other learn about other in terms of religion even though the school culture is dominated by a certain religious tradition. Within this context, Michael Grimmitt (2000) notion of learning from and learning about will be the fundamental pedagogy approach to see the process of interaction in which student should learn about their religion but they will also have opportunities to learn from other religions. Through the notion of learning from and learning about, student will be able to know other religious traditions through their interactions, learning from their friends and teachers.

When we go through the reasons why they choose this schooling model, we probably find various reasons including accessibility matter. Nevertheless, one thing that must be found is that the practical dimensions of multicultural education such as school culture (see Banks, 1998) has long been developed at schools faith-based schools in Papua, thought mostly through hidden curriculum as unpredicted impacts of education that students learn from school environment though not openly stated such values, norm, beliefs (Giroux and Penna, 1983; Martin, 1983). Further, one could assumed that this school tradition could be conducted as the local tradition in society also
support this schooling model, some time the society consider customary order run pararel with religion, religion could support tradition or custom and vice versa, customary order could support religions, as to what Marry (2005) argued that religion at some aspects always associated with culture or traditions in society. We could hitherto see that culture and ideology are interplay aspects, we will found something lose when discus about culture without ideology and or discuss ideology without culture (Hall, 1978:23). Thus in the context of education people could not be provoked with such schooling model, and by giving young people more opportunity to explore the traditions of other religions than their faith, they will respects the difference of religious order and tradition, and build mutual relations among them. They will identify similarities and differences among religions, and respect the differences as vital aspects of each religion, which distinguish one with other. Such schooling practice however, could give different impacts to people with different cultural tradition, as students will deal with process of cultural shifting (see Inglehart, 1977:6; 1990:56). Further, it would be more difficult for students when their parents want to cultivate their culture and ideology to the students. They want their child to follow what they belief. It may look different when the parents are coming from different religious background (mother and father), more freedom might be given to the child (Caballero et. al., 2008: 30). Such school practice with the notion of learning from and learning about, resistance behaviour might be occurred when students feel oppressed and their faith is not recognised at school due to their minority. Resistance attitude could be varying models such show doubtful attitude and questioned every statement (Modigliani and Rochat, 1995) or creating social movements toward the dominant group. As the result, school then turns to be an arena of struggle between the dominant ideology or dominant culture and those sub-ordinate ideology or culture to win the hegemony of school ideology and culture (see Gramsci, 1998), and within this context there will be contestation between the dominant Islamic culture and Christina as the sub-ordinate culture at school, though both are actually seeking for compromise way and reach what Gramsci called as ‘equilibrium compromise’ (Gramsci, 1998: 161).

In contact theory Allport (1954) asserted that there would be reduction effects toward prejudices among social groups when the optimum condition of direct relationship between all groups could be fulfilled. It could be said that this perception was obviously constructed on the assumptions that by strengthening and optimization of contact between a social groups with other will be resulted on growth of similar perception in all social groups in which frequent contact will resulted on influential mutual relationship. By standing on those perceptions, many psychologists and education practitioners have considered the importance of direct contact in various different models as a popular strategy in fixing inter-groups relationship (Bank, 2007; Stephen, 1987). However, in inter-groups relation, relationship must be equal between individuals and between group relationships to avoid prejudice and negative suspicious, which will be contributed to adverse actions of a group. Therefore, in order to develop cross cultural and religious sensitivity and could effectively work, Bhawk and Berslin (1992) suggested that cultural sensitivity could only be develop effectively when someone is like and interested to other culture, wants to anticipated, recognise the differences and willing to modified his/her attitudes as part of respect toward other peoples and their culture (p.416)
Some people are being afraid of send their children to faith-based schools, which is different from their religion possessed. They afraid about losing religious identity or afraid of their children being brain washed with new religious doctrines or other religious ideology and erode what the parents have cultivated. The reason is logically accepted as children at school ages are considered to be prone of identity crisis (see Erikson, 1968; Marcia, 1966; 1980). Nonetheless, many studies in multicultural area, especially related to religion and identity suggested that the changing of attitudes and perception is really occurred, yet the changing have not significantly or radically change students faith in regard to basic principles of religion, See for examples (Dudireja, 2001; Werfete, 2014).

School Space and Religious Communication
This study was conducted in the mid August 2014 to December 2014 at a faith-based school in Waena, Jayapura, Indonesia, let say SMU Harapan Bangsa\(^1\) (pseudonym). I started this study first by visiting the school daily for nine days to do school observation, followed by interview some students, and I was able to meet fifteen Christian students at the school and had small interviewed and group discussion with them at school. SMU Harapan Bangsa was laid in a quite dense area, near main road that really easy for access. It is an Islamic-based senior high school operated and managed by Yayasan Pendidikan Islam, Papua (Islamic Education Foundation, Papua). All school levels are found there (a quite dense area). Taman Kanank-Kanak (kindergarten school) outside the school fence, Sekolah Dasar (Elementary School), SMP (Junior secondary school) and SMU (senior high school) are placed in the same area surrounded by a wall fence. The buildings were constructed in random position, some are constructed paralleled, and some are juxtaposed. It is almost form a letter U. SD (elementary school) is placed closed to entrance gate follows by SMP and SMU and each school level has teacher office and administration buildings. Thus, the school mapping indicated school environment need to be analyzed as whole, when analysing Senior High School students.

Further, such pattern of putting elementary students at the entrance gate followed by the high schools, will give much opportunities for interaction and socialization between high schools students and elementary students, so do the staffs and teachers.

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\(^1\) Considering research ethics due to individual and institution privacy, all subjects associated with individual names and institutions are written in pseudonym, anonymous or by intial.
Although in my observation I did not find more significant model of symbolic interactions in religion through religious symbols in visual, even the dominant religious group at school. The only Islamic symbol found was jilbab, common dress code of all female Moslem students, while those Christian female students did not wear jilbab. Some of my interlocutors said that the school and the teachers as well do not force them to wear Islamic dress (jilbab). I would say that the school looks tolerable to Christian students as wants to accept students from different religious background. The school also looks more emphasized the function of school as education institution, as the provider of education for all people rather than considering Islamic school as the institution for strengthening theological aspects of religion, or as the medium for Islamic prollystisation. In the entrance gate of the school, I could see the local Papuan cultural symbols such tifa and the bird of paradise drawn in the school wall, which is signaling that the school also respects and accommodates local culture. This of course could be influenced by the institution (YAPIS) experiences and interaction with local context for many years in operating Islamic schools in Papua, so they are really understood the sociological context of Papua in term of education and religion.

![Diagram of School Layout of SMU Harapan Bangsa](image)

**School Traditions**

School tradition such as shalat lima waktu (prayer five times a day) at school or daily payer before the class begin, seem different from high schools tradition and the elementary school tradition. At high school level (SMU) when the class begin, all student including other religions than Islam will pray individually by heart, while at elementary level, students pray loudly in Islamic way every morning in class before the lesson start and at nearly midday when the lesson has ended, students will go back home. From my focused group discussion (FGD) with six Christian students, SY narrated that we pray by ourselves in the class before the lesson begin, and SY statement also confirmed by AY that ‘yes only students at elementary level who pray together. AY added that praying together only on Friday, mostly there is suara mengaji (sound of qur’an recitation) at mosques, and when I tried to reconfirm to AY that whether the sound he heard from the mosque is sound of qur’an recitation (suara mengaji) or adzan (call for praying), he answered ‘yes, basically the sound from toa (speaker) on Friday. From those statements above in terms of religious ritual
tradition at school indicated that at senior high school level (SMU) the religious
tradition for students when the lesson will start found quite accommodative for non-
Muslim students, though Islam is the major or the dominant tradition at school
culture. When I refer to the notion of ‘hegemony’ (see Gramsci, 1998) with his term ‘
equilibrium compromise’, it could said that the accommodative manner of school
culture could be seen as the way of compromise between the Islamic tradition as the
dominant religious tradition and Christian tradition and other religious tradition at
school as the sub-ordinate religious tradition. This compromise of course could be
constructed well through long historical experience of both religions and religious
cultures, it is also could be the output of interaction process between Islamic
education institution known as YAPIS in Papua with local peoples and their culture.
On the other hand, the different approach on religious ritual at elementary school
(SD), it because at the elementary level, there is no students from other religious
background except Moslem students. What have been practicing at elementary school
(SD) could be a great way and interesting point to be discussed further in relation to
the transmission of Islamic culture.

Considering school layout in which SD Harapan Bangsa was laid closed to the
entrance gate will have great influxes in regard to the socialization of Islamic culture
and values through symbolic interaction as hidden curriculum. Other students then
Moslem might be not feel that they are being dictated or oppressed as it runs in
respective ways through school tradition (see Gramsci, 1998). This process may reach
compromise, adaptation and also potential to provoke resistance (see Profit, 1996;
Jasper, 1997). It could create resistance when there is another religious symbols used
or exposed by non Muslim students at school. However, during my observation and
group discussion, I did not find any kinds of religious symbol appeared, placed at
school or wore by those Christian students as well as other religions. It is signaling
that there are two aptitude developed at school, namely ‘compromise and adaptation.’
The compromise way here is between the school institution (SMU Harapan Bangsa)
with local Papuan people in which majority are Christian, meanwhile ‘adaptation’
here could be seen when non Moslem students have adjusted themselves, adapted
with school tradition dominated by Islamic culture.

The process of adaptation could be seen when Christian students do not bring their
religious symbols into the school, which is actually Islamic school and mostly
practicing Islamic culture. The only thing should be taken into consideration is when
they lose their religious education as the school does not provide religious education
for other students than Moslem students as AY commented on our discussion here
‘for religious education, we don’t have the lesson, because there is no teacher’. TS
added that ‘only those Moslem who get religious education’. The comments here
might be viewed as a part of adaptation to the school policy as adaptation also needs
some reduction of personal desires. However, when analyze the comments, the
comments tend to negative moods as expressing of disappointed to the school policy
as they should lose their right to get religious education. In addition, the reason why
school does not provide religious education for non-Moslem students must be
questioned. In hegemonic view point, it could be an indication of how school policy
being utilized to maintain the domination of certain culture at school.
Transmission of Religious Culture

Most of Christian students at SMU Harapan Bangsa were coming from places where Islamic culture or Islamic tradition is hardly ever found. From the discussion with students, no one of them who has Moslem neighbor, meet female who wore jilbab or heard adzan (call for pray) was something strange; they even don’t know what actually adzan is. What they understood about adzan after being students at SMU Harapan Bangsa is a sign for Moslem students to pray, it is only on Friday, they do not know yet other adzan for shalat lima waktu (pray five times a day) which is obliged for all Moslem. During my field observation, I did not hear adzan in midday (zhu’r pray) at school and did not meet the student shalat berjamaah (pray together). The voice of qur’an recitation and adzan they heard is actually from a mosque near the school. Thus, it could be said that from wide range of Islamic tradition, at school those Christian students knew Islamic tradition of jum’at pray (Friday pray). One thing that should be noted here is that they then know that adzan is a sign for Moslem students to pray. Beside it, they also gradually know other Islamic tradition such ‘salam’ aslamu alaikum warahmatullahi wabarokathu (greet people in Islamic tradition). ST who sit at third grade was able to pronounce ‘salam’ though not precisely as Islamic students do, they can only say in the shorter version ‘assalamu alaikum’, while AY and PS who were at first grade could not pronounce it yet. Nevertheless, they said that they are quite familiar with ‘salam’ but quite difficult to pronounce it. AY said ‘I know Islamic greeting but it is hard for me to pronounce it’ I just say ‘salam’. PS added that ‘it is difficult to memorise it’. I would say, their experience at Islamic school suggest that ‘Islamic greeting’ is something new for them, something that far from their life experience and hardly found in the place where they’re live.

The school tradition of daily praying together loudly for elementary pupils at SD Harapana Bangsa also has also brought certain meaning for those Christian students even though they do not know what the praying means indeed. For PS ‘if the elementary pupils are praying means teacher has already in the class’, while ST added that ‘when they are praying, I will walk silently into the class, if the teacher is there, then I will go straightly sit on my chair and I pray in my heart’. These comments could be understood in different ways. ‘I will walk silently into the class’ could mean afraid of disturbing students who’re praying as part of respect to other religion for worship, or it could means afraid of being late into the class. ST further comments of ‘If the teacher is there, then I will go straightly sit on my chair and pray in my heart, also indicates feeling afraid of teacher but the last part of the comments gives rough understanding that praying is individual right and she has to pray before start the lesson that probably constructed by school tradition of praying before lesson start as to what elementary student do or it was home tradition that she brought into the class. Therefore, at this part it could not be said that the tradition is school constructed. Yet, for sure they are respect to the school tradition as part of their self-adjustment to adapt with the school culture, which dominated by Islamic tradition. Thus it could be argued that those Christian students as the minority group with subordinate culture have adapted with the dominant culture at school by adjusting and reducing their desires, and religious tradition. They also have learnt some aspect of Islamic culture in many ways at school. The question here is how about Moslem students at school, which supported by the dominant school tradition? Do they also learn about something of those Christian students, do the school culture also recognized especially about their belief?
Mostly the Christian students are indigenous Papuan and racially different from Moslem students who are non-indigenous Papua, and those female Moslem were wore jilbab while Christian and other not. I could not catch more closely interpersonal relation at school between Moslem students and Christian students or between Christian students with teachers there, who are Moslem. For nine days on my school observation, I was tried to change my position to several vintage spots to see school tradition and interpersonal relation of students. From the places I sat I could see that those Papuan students which are mostly Christian have their own click, they have their own group and they are easily communicate each other in their group, they could sit together to talk something and play something. I rarely found they’re involved in other student groups at school even communicate out of their group. In my discussion with those Christian students that from all my respondents only AY who has one close friend outside of their group who will to share and talk and do other activities outside school, while other do not have any close friend. All of them even have not close relation to one of teachers at the school who can easily talk and share stories with them at school and outside the school.

Under this circumstance, I could say that the process of cultural transmission and information exchange would not effectively work. Certainly, one may say that to build interpersonal or intergroup relation is depending on the ability of students as individual to socialize him/her self to other people and build good relationship with them. However, school culture has greater influence in shaping students aptitudes. Incompatible school culture could bring groups segmentation, unequal treatment for students, racism and prejudice that put students in difficult situation to develop relationship intergroup of students. Thus, in spite of personal skills to build interpersonal and inter-group relation, school setting or school tradition could be the fundamental clue of inter-cultural and inter-religious communication. Incompatible school culture could cause failure in cross culture and religious communication.

Those Christian students who become my interlocutors tent to be less of self-confidence to be students at SMU Harapan Bangsa. I could see it from the ways they talked to me that seem worry and unassertive. But I personally viewed it as a reflection of their position in the school as sub-ordinate group in social space of school, they seem more familiar in their internal group, from the same cultural and religious background. As far as my field observation, I did not found any significant indications of resistance movements at school in terms of against the dominant culture by the sub-ordinate group. But I noted that resistance behavior is not always showing by putting sub-ordinate group as opposition group, yet showing not interested or withdrawal from the school could say culture as resistance attitudes. When those minority students (those Christian students) have built their own group and not so much involved in other groups it could be an indication of resistance. Under this situation, other students groups including those majority Moslem students with dominant culture would not be able to know much about those minority group and vice versa. They would not learn more about the dominant group. Thus, generally speaking this situation will not fully support the process of ‘learning from and learning about’ (Grimmitt, 1984).

The Muslim students at SMU Harapan Bangsa obviously know that there are Christian students at the school but they do not know who they are and where they come from. It could be said that they knew that there are Christian students at the school, yet they seem not really close to them. Therefore, I would say that this
situation would not support them to learn from each other about different culture and religious traditions. Further, the school where they’re studying more inclined to the dominant culture (Islamic tradition) and does not support students in an equal position of cultural communication between Moslem and Christian students that could reduce negative sentiments or prejudices among social groups at school, especially between Moslem and Christian students. School culture is not only about classroom tradition, any particular aspects of school tradition. School culture is about whole aspects of school tradition (Banks, 1993). Within this context, school culture should be able to give opportunities or fairness treatment to all social groups at school. Often we found a school dominated only by a certain group of ethnic, religion, race, the majority group will be given more opportunity then those minority, or even they might be ignored.

School Constructs of Inter-Religious Relation
Analysing whether the school tradition has greater influence in the formation of good inter-religious relation, I should return to see the background of those Christian students at SMU Harapan Bangsa. Where they came from, their cultural background, including their tradition at home. Certainly, we will find differences among them as they brought their cultures and religious tradition at school, meet their new communities, new school culture, they will interact and influence each other, and of course adaptation is needed. They should be able to learn, internalize the reality and adjust their attitudes individually as a person not born and become a member of society (Berger and Lukmaan, 1991). Thus, they could take part in a society, build communication and relationship and became a member of society. By intense communication they could know and signify each other, as Allport (1993) admitted that more often a social group builds direct contact to another social groups, it will gradually reduce negative feelings and prejudices, and even all groups are eager to show similarities among social groups that will recognize each other and raise commonalities of the groups. So, when they could recognise and signify each other groups and individual, in terms of their differences, they could respect each other (Bhaw and Berselin, 1992:416). Nevertheless, according to Bhawk and Berslin (1992) someone could recognize and respect to other culture when she/he likes, interests and attracts to other culture.

If I use this viewpoint to describe the case of SMU Harapan Bangsa, it looks hard as I’m pretty sure that those Christian students who determined to study at such Islamic school is not caused by their interested or likeness to the Islamic culture or Islamic faith. Their need is only to get education. They may interest and like each other at school, but it seems difficult because between Christian and Moslem students and teacher found have not quite good relation even with teachers. Moreover, the school also accepted the Christian students to study there is not because the school was attracted or interested to the student’s culture or religions. The school in this case also has no objectives to introduce Islamic culture or Introduce Islam to the Christian students, yet it does not mean that the process of learning from and learning about is totally fail or unsuccessful. The process has been transmitted through hidden curriculum in unconsciousness ways.
Concluding Remark

Normally, schools with strong domination of a certain religious tradition must have greater influences in shaping and reshaping student’s characters and mindsets of those subordinates culture at school. Yet if the schools able to manage the school traditions by creating more opportunities for all social groups at school to communicate and develop trust and mutual relation among them, this school practice has potential to develop cross culture and religious relation for students to live and participate in to date multicultural society. The case of SMU Harapan Bangsa shows that the patterns of interaction and personal contact between Muslim and Christian students through verbal and symbolic communication seem insufficient to support the process of ‘learning from and learning about’. It could be seen through the relations developed among Moslem and Christian students even with teacher at school. Most Christian students have no close relation either to Moslem students or the Moslem teachers at school.

Although at symbolic interaction, the school does not put show strong symbolic communication at school, except jilbab wore by Moslem girl at school. The school wall even decorated with local cultural symbols of Papua, which means the school is recognising the local culture and also claimed that school is a part of the local society. Yet the school tradition at elementary school of routine praying louder together every morning before lesson start could has impact on Christian students to learn from the school culture setting such knowing Moslem prayer times though they only knew ‘shalat jum’at (‘jum’at pray). Thus, it could be said that the case of SMU Harapan Bangsa, the Christian students as a minor group with sub-ordinate culture could be adapted with the school setting and indirectly have learnt from Islamic religious culture in common. Yet for the Moslem students as the major group with dominant cultural tradition at school could not learn much about Christian religious tradition. Cross religious cultural communication developed is not effectively support the pedagogy of ‘learning from and learning about’ when the school culture is unrecognized even hardly initiates opportunities for inter-groups, inter-religious and inter-cultural socialization to develop mutual relation among school groups at school.
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Get Real: Using Real Dialogue in the English Language Classroom

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Abstract

By using authentic communicative events such as telephone conversations, office gossip and shopkeeper-customer dialogues as example conversations, a student’s communicative ability will improve and thus prepare them for real life situations. By being able to navigate their way around a lot of the unnecessary utterances such as ‘yeh’, ‘ok’ and ‘ah’ which occur in these dialogues, English learners will be able to participate and understand these communicative events far better than if they were removed. By analysing real communicative events language teachers are able to be fully aware of all the intricacies that encompass a language. In order to unlock this ‘real’ English and to convey it onwards to language learners in the classroom, short conversation should be recorded and analysed, with the results passed on in the classroom. By doing this, a communicative event will demonstrate that language is not neat and tidy, and in fact, includes a lot of unnecessary words to get from A to B. By exposing language learners to this unnecessary language and not just the A and B, the language teacher is providing the learner with authentic language to model.
Introduction

Teaching oral communicative to learners of English is a difficult task. The type of situations to be prepared for, what language variations to use, and awareness of cultural differences are all areas that need to be considered when planning a syllabus. Many oral communication textbooks claim to be modeled on native speakers daily conversation, yet, listening to many of the tracks included with the text, they somewhat appear rehearsed and quite dull. They most often are recorded by speakers using a standard English, in a very clear voice. This formal standard English may prepare a student for a formal speech, or job interview, but it will not see them participate to their best ability in daily conversations with native English speakers.

Being able to use authentic communicative events such as telephone conversations, office gossip and shopkeeper-customer dialogues as example conversations will greatly improve an English learner for real life situations. By being able to navigate their way around a lot of the unnecessary utterances such as ‘yeh’, ‘ok’ and ‘ah’, English learners will be able to participate and understand these communicative events.

Method and Findings

By analysing communicative events language teachers are able to be fully aware of all the intricacies that encompass a language. In order to unlock this ‘real English’ and to convey it onwards to language learners in the classroom, a short conversation was recorded between two native English speaking coworkers in their office. The CE (communicative event) featured two participants, with one also being the observer. Being an observer and participant comes with some complexities. One such is observer paradox.

In order to overcome observer paradox, sociolinguist Labov (1972, p.209) suggests to be faced with life threatening situations or to retell personal experiences in order to lose yourself in the event, and forget your role, thus allowing natural speech to occur. In the case of this CE, a recent humorous event shared between the two participants was introduced which enabled the observer to forget that the event was being recorded and produce a natural language. After the CE was recorded it was transcribed (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984) then analysed to reveal language of an office conversation. Dell -Hymes’ SPEAKING model (Eggins & Slade, 2005, p.33), along with Saville- Troike’s 11 components (1989, pg.138) were employed to analyse the CE and provide conclusions regarding communicative approaches for teaching purposes. The analyse can be broken down into the 11 components, which also embody the model proposed by Dell-Hymes, of ; genre, topic, function, setting, key, participants, message form, message content, act sequence, rules of interaction, and norms of interpretation.

The genre of the communicative event can be categorised as ‘office talk’. Here, ‘Office Talk’ does not refer to talk which occurs during meetings or between subordinates and superiors but usual small talk between coworkers about the ‘ins and outs’ of their shared place of employment. The ‘office talk’ could perhaps even fit into the classification of gossip. According to Holmes (1995, p.330) gossip is considered the relaxed in-group talk that happens in a casual setting that helps promote solidarity. In the CE it helped the coworkers unwind and form a common
bond. Gossip is known to be predominantly a female linguistic feature and in the two times it occurred was introduced by the female participant. However, the male participant did join in as displayed in line 7.

7 A: Ah, let’s just hope he shows up (hhh)

This comment could be classed as a criticism of someone’s behavior, an example of a common female gossip trait (Holmes, 1992, p. 331), and could be considered a male partaking in gossip reminiscent of a female. Holmes suggests that women tend to gossip more about personal experiences and relationships, while men tend to keep their topics fact based. (Holmes, 1992, p.332) The topic forming the gossip is A’s superior and his tendency to be late, or failure to attend meetings. In the case of the superior, is not entirely true. Thus, both participants were able to gossip and as a result, the genre of the CE can be considered a relaxed office conversation, where both participants were comfortable and able to join in easily.

The topic discussed in the CE is about work. B asks A where a meeting is to be held, and later on in the CE, also asks B about any new employees. This topic is a common one, and from experience, is not modeled enough in the ESL classroom. Business English or English language required for the business domain is an area of language teaching that often gets much attention. Today, English being a world language, is required for anyone wishing to gain employment in international business. However, much of the language that takes place in day-to-day working environments is between coworkers. Unlike other languages which require a special form, or honorific language for using with younger or elder coworkers, English workers sharing an office tend to speak in a similar fashion, despite differences in age. In the CE both participants use a casual form of yes, ‘yeh’ and ‘yep’ approximately 13 times. This demonstrates the real casualness of the topic and the uselessness of formal business language in the office at times.

To know why the participants were engaged in the conversation is important to understand why coworkers communicate at work. The function of the CE is for one colleague to gain information about a meeting that both participants are to join and any new employees who have joined their place of employment. The CE also allows for gossip to occur and as mentioned previously acts as a means to relax and bond. Line 24 demonstrates this.

24.A: Who else is, who else is, working here? Is it just

Here A wants to gain information about new employees but instead of directly asking about them, does so indirectly. A does not finish the sentence as she assumes that B has picked up on her need to know about any new employees. A continues to fish for information, and makes a criticism by suggesting the new employees are never working.

26. B: Cause (pause) it’s just, no one’s there (pause) that often

The function has gone from one of gaining information to one of stating criticisms. This is an example of female gossip and its tendency to be in the form of criticisms (Holmes, 1992, p. 335).
The setting for this CE is a university lecturer’s office, which is shared by other non-tenured lecturers. The CE takes place with the two participants sitting at A’s desk, both facing the computer. There is minimal eye contact as both are looking ahead. A is looking at their computer and B is looking at the items, such as photos and figurines on A’s desk. Since the setting is not entirely private, the desks are separated by partitions; the CE could be heard by others in the office, which could affect the way the participants communicated. This semi-public setting sees the participants refrain from using swear words and blatantly gossiping about other employees.

The key of the CE is casual and jocular. Although the participants are colleagues of different age and sex, this does not appear to influence the language used. Although there is a ten-year age gap between A and B, both participants kept a casual and light key throughout the event. Both participants are Australian citizens who have been living in Japan and this fact could be a key to the casualness of the language used.

This takes us to the participants. As mentioned above, the participants are colleagues who teach English at university. A is a forty year old married female, and B is a thirty year old single male. A ranks slightly higher than B in terms of employment position. Both are Australian which does influence the language form used.

The language used or the message form is a standard spoken Australian English. The lack of long pauses expresses the comfortableness of both participants during the event. If A and B were of different nationalities there would be less use of ‘yeh’ and ‘yep’ and the final sentence of ‘no worries’, a quintessential Australian term for ‘do not worry’ or the standard English, ‘no problem’ would be missing. By seeing this form of English displayed it is natural to understand why there is an importance to teach English learners forms other than a standard American.

As described by Saville-Troike (1989, p. 150) message form and content are difficult to separate, however, in this CE’s analysis, the content is the semantics behind the topic delivery; Question, answer, comment, comment, question and so on. This is closely related to act sequence, which will be described in the following.

Act sequence is the area, which governs the form and order of the event. This area is important in order to understand why people communicate the way they do, and how certain conversations are able to flow and other not. The act sequence which occurs in the CE between A and B began with a work related question which is answered, then a question about a non-work related humorous topic, which is also answered. Lastly a work related question is asked, which is answered before the CE ends. This sequence sees work or serious talk, balanced out with a lighter topic. If the lighter topic was not introduced, the CE would have taken a more serious turn, and would be reminiscent of an environment shared between new workers or workers still on polite terms with each other. Thus it could be said that the sequence required for a light and casual office environment is the following.

Work Topic-non-related work topic-work topic

Labov suggests that that there is also an order governing the social construct of shared knowledge, which is evident in the CE (Corder, 1992, p.122).

How one speaks and how to ‘read the mood’ can be seen by analyzing the CE to reveal the rules of interaction. This starts with the setting. Different environments
require different language. Conversations in a non-private setting should usually be void of vulgar language and talk regarding other people negatively. This is clearly evident when A makes a comment regarding a superior’s lack of punctuality regarding meetings, he lowers his voice to not be heard by others in the office.

7. A: Let’s just hope °he shows up° (hhh)

If A and B were discussing the matter in a private setting, A would not hesitate to comment on his superior without whispering and perhaps use more colorful language. These rules may appear in most languages, and most probably do not need to be emphasised in the English learners classroom. What may need to be emphasised in the classroom is the use of leave taking, or the conversation ending cues. Pre-closing (Richards & Schmidt, 1983, p.134) are considered the speak acts which occur prior to closure of a CE. The CE’s pre-closing language can be evident twice, first at line 20, and last at line 33. In the first pre-closing, it functions as language redundancy, that is, unnecessary words, that communicate to the listener that the topic should end (Richards & Schmidt, 1983, p.123).

18. B: Yeh
19. A: Yeh
20. B: Yeh, Anyway
21. A: You ready for the week ahead?

B’s use of ‘anyway’ in line 20, signals that there is nothing more to add to the topic and that she would like to change the topic. The rule for A to follow here is to indeed change the topic, which he does in line 21.

The second pre-closing occurs in line 33, with some redundant language occurring, to lead up to a leave taking of, ‘Sorry, I gotta go’.

This area of communication is a necessity for the language learner, particularly, in the area of oral communication. According to Richards & Schmidt (1983, p.135) non-natives may not understand the purpose of these pre-closing utterances and find themselves lost.

(34) B: Oh, ok. ((pause))Oh, Sorry I gotta go.
(35) A: °ok°

Above B is using the pre-closing of ‘oh, ok’ to soften the idea of her leaving. Gardner (p.105) suggests the use of ‘uh huh’ and ‘mm hm’ act as continuers or topic changers. In the CE this is apparent with the use of ‘yeh’ and ‘ok’.

Being able to change topics mid conversation is a skill much needed in the language classroom. Struggling with ideas, and long drawn out pauses can shut down any English learner, and lower confidence. The use of ‘anyway’ is used twice in the CE to keep the conversation running.

In line 7, B senses A’s reluctance to continue a conversation about their superior regarding his habit for coming to meetings late.

7. A: Ah, °let’s just hope °he shows up (hhh)

This feeling of hesitance is apparent in A’s use of a quieter voice and the audible aspiration at the end of the sentence. It was at this point that B decided to change the topic.
8. B: Yeh, anyway, did you get, that um, picture that Takeshi sent you yesterday?

The changing of the topic solved two problems with the event recording and analysis. Firstly it lightened the mood and helped rid B of any observer paradox, and secondly it aided in ensuring the conversation could continue as it involved a previous event both parties had in common and could equally comment on. Also of importance in regards to rules governing speech acts, is adjoining pairs, which is evident in the CE. Generally, when someone apologises, one usually responds with a comment suggesting there was nothing to apologise for. B apologises for leaving and ending the conversation, and A responds with ‘no worries’. These rules are important for the participants to be able to have conversation closure and feel comfortable in doing so. If A had not responded with ‘no worries’, B would perhaps feel guilty for abruptly ending the conversation.

Lastly the norms of interpretation will be considered. The norms embody what a speech community considers appropriate or ‘normal’ in a CE (Saville-Troike, 1989, p.156). By looking at other components such as setting, genre and topic, the norms can be understood clearly (Saville-Troike, 1989, p.156). The Setting of the CE dictates how and what type of language is considered the ‘norm’. This semi-public setting featured in the CE sees the participants refrain from using swear words and blatantly gossiping about other employees. Knowing when to whisper and when not to, is also featured in the CE, and demonstrates the importance of setting on language use.

The genre in the CE dictates that a casual language is to be used. It is fairly unlikely to gossip using a formal or polite form of a language, unless, gossiping to one’s superior, which is highly unlikely. The gossip which took place in the CE does appear critical of A’s superior, which opens up the idea of complaining or ‘whinging’ and how it is considered typical Australian work behavior. Since the participants are Australian it is considered ‘normal’ to complain or gossip about one’s superior. The act of disrespecting authority began in early colonial Australia with the miners and their attempt at civil war in the Eureka Stockade. Ever since, it has been considered a key feature in Australian identity and also expresses the idea of ‘mateship’ (A Dictionary of Australian colloquialisms, 1996, p. 126).

**Conclusion**

By analysing a simple short conversation by two university lecturers, it is easy to see how language teaching can sometimes be over complicated. Much of the communication which took place was not concerned with correct grammar, or specialized vocabulary, but with social and cultural awareness. For the language learner, knowing when it is appropriate to change a topic, finish a conversation, or lower one’s voice is imperative to comfortably join in and competently partake in a communicative event.

This CE demonstrated that language is not neat and tidy, and in fact, includes a lot of unnecessary words to get from A to B. By exposing language learners to this
unnecessary language and not just the A to B, the language teacher is providing the learner with ‘real’ language to model. What can be taken away from this research into dialogue is that language teachers must be reminded of their role as example speakers in the classroom. Instead of looking for published materials of model dialogues, teachers should utilize their own language and experience. By incorporating authentic dialogues into lessons, the teacher is providing the student with a genuine language experience that can be used outside the classroom. Though the ‘uh’, ‘yeh’ and ‘ok’, may not have been what Prof Henry Higgins intended for Eliza Doolittle from the famous Pygmalion, however for the non-native speaker, it is perhaps needed in order to take part in such communicative events as the one which took place in this study.
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Supporting University Athletes to Succeed in Both Academic and Sport Performance at a University in Japan

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Abstract
University athletes often face a dilemma of succeeding in both academic performance and sport performance. For example, Inoue et al (2011) found that university athletes often found it very difficult to make time to study because of their physical fatigue. The future of university athletes is often uncertain. Some might succeed in their sport fields after finishing their study but most of them will retire from sports and choose to get stable jobs in their lifetime. Although university athletes need to take a balance on academic and sport performance at university, the author of this study believes that it is extremely hard for them to do it. Thus, the aim of this study is to investigate 1: how university athletes can effectively manage both their study and sport club activity, 2: if there are any problems in managing both study and club activities, then how university staff can support university athletes. All participants of this study belong to university sport clubs and they major in sport and health science at a private university in Japan. Questionnaires are used in order to collect the data and 216 responses in total were collected. The data is quantitatively analyzed. The results show that participants spent more time on their club activities than study in general although over the half of the participants think studying at university is important.

Keywords: university athletes, study and sport performance
Introduction

In Japan, some university sports such as baseball and long distance relay are very popular. Private universities in particular recruit high school athletes who are talented in sports to promote their universities. Some university athletes will become professionals and they could earn more than enough money to support their entire life after their graduation of their university. However, there are also many university athletes who do not become professionals and who will take other careers for their future life. The author of this study believes that a university is a place for students to have an opportunity of both learning what they are interested in and preparing for their future careers. Although university staff, including both teaching staff and administrative staff try to do their best for university students, the author of this study realizes that university athletes seem to have some problems of coping with both study and their sport club activity at the same time. The aim of this study is to explore how university athletes in this study manage to keep a balance between their sport club activity and their study. Also, it explores how university staff can support university athletes to succeed in their future life. This study adopts both quantitative and qualitative approaches to analyze the data. Questionnaires are used for quantitative analysis. There are 25 questions on the questionnaires for the participants of this study. The participants in this study are majoring in sport and health science in a private university in Japan and all of them belong to their sport clubs. In discussions, this study includes three suggestions to support university athletes to manage both study and their sport club activity. Firstly, it is important for both university lecturers and sport club coaches collaboratively communicate each other to support university athletes. Secondly, it is important for university athletes to understand what university sport is. Thirdly, university athletes need to have strong motivation to succeed in both sport club activity and study at their university. Some past studies of supporting university athletes are explored in the next part.

Literature review

For many university athletes, taking a balance of both study and practice time for their sports is not easy. In particular, Japanese university sport clubs are sometimes described as an army or navy since many of them have strict rules in their clubs. Often first year or second year students are required to do jobs such as cleaning their clubs, looking after their fields, and so forth after they finish their practice sessions. Normally Japanese first and second year students take more subjects at their universities each semester than third year and fourth year students. Thus, both first and second year students normally spend more time on both their club activities and study at their university. For example, Inoue et al (2011) reported that those who belong to sport clubs do not tend to take a break as efficiently than those who do not belong to university sport clubs. Those who belong to their sport clubs participate in their club activities straight after they finish their last class of the day on weekdays. Also, many of them have their part time jobs on days which they don’t have their club activities. As a result, those who belong to their sport clubs find it difficult to take a break.

Orihara and Meguro (2006) point out another problem which many university students face once they start their university life. University students normally tend to have more free time than high school students. In addition, university students
officially become the age when drinking is legal and so they face opportunities to go for a drink with their friends. It might disturb their daily life which might cause demotivation of their study. Mizokami (2009) explains a problem of Japanese university education for Japanese university students. Many Japanese university programs are not designed for students to study outside of the university classes. Therefore, many Japanese university students study a lot in their classes but they are not used to study outside their classes.

In Japan, it is believed that university athletes are favored by companies to be hired. For example, Kasai (2010) explains that those who belong to university sport clubs are believed to be mentally tough, to have good communication skills, and not to give up on things and therefore they tend to be preferred by companies. Matsushige (2005) points out some companies prefer those who are physically tough as their employees, to those who studied harder in the university. Ueno (2007) explains that university athletes often experience a lot of hardships through their hard practice and competitions. University athletes often learn a lot of things through these experiences and will grow up as mature people. Many Japanese companies tend to prefer those who experience these hardships in their university life to those who do not experience these hardships. However, Hirano (2011) points out that belonging to university sport clubs is not a great advantage for university athletes to get a job. They also need to keep better academic performance in their university in order to get a job. In particular, Hirano (2011) explains that academic writing skill is the most important skill for university students for their job seeking since they need to make a lot of curriculum vitae to apply for a job. Ohtake and Sasaki (2009) explain that many Japanese companies recently expect university students to have both academic knowledge and specialized skills for their jobs.

In short, past studies showed the importance of university study for university athletes’ future careers. Belonging to university sport clubs might be advantages for university athletes to get a job after their graduation. However, recently it has become important for university athletes to study at university as well as doing their sport activity for their future careers.

**Methodology**

The participants of this study are majoring in sport and health science in one of the private universities in Japan. The total of 216 students (1st year, 2nd year and 3rd year students) who belong to university sport clubs answered the questionnaires. The questionnaires were carried out in between October and November 2013. All questions were asked in Japanese for the participants and they answered the questions in Japanese. All questions and answers of the questionnaires were translated into English from Japanese by the author of this study. All questions of questionnaires are listed in the appendix.
Results

There are 18 graphs and 5 tables to be explained. To start with, both graph 1 and 2 are looked at.

Graph 1

Both graphs 1 and 2 show club activity participations of participants in this study. As the graph 1 shows, most university athletes have either 5 or 6 days of their club activities every week. Moreover, most of university athletes spend in between 2 and 4 hours for their club activities for each day.
Graph 3 shows that average sleeping hours on every day of university athletes. The popular range of their sleeping hours is between over five and under seven hours on average. Graph 4 shows places of where university athletes live. Over the half of participants in this study live alone (54% of the first year and 63% of both the second and third year). Around 30% live with their parents (36% of the first year, 32% of the second year, and 26% of the third year). Only around 10% of university athletes stay in their sport club accommodation (9% of the first year, 4% of the second year and 11% of the third year).
Graph 5 shows an expense source of university athletes’ living. Over 50% of university athletes who live independently rely on their parents’ financial support to live (52% of the first year, 58% of the second year and 63% of the third year). Only 3% of university athletes get scholarship to support their living expense (3% of both the first and third year).

Graph 6 shows whether university athletes have their part time jobs or not. Over the half of the participants in this study do not have part time jobs (67% of the first year, 58% of the second, 52% of the third year).
Graph 7 shows working hours of those who have part-time jobs. The result shows various working hours. Some work only for between one and two hours but others work over ten hours per week.

Graph 8 shows the result of study time of university athletes. As the author of this study teaches English, thus graph 8 only shows the study time of their English class. The most popular range of the time slot is between one hour and two hours per week (42% of the first year, 46% of the second year and 34% of the third year). The second popular time slot is between two hours and three hours (24% of the first year, 31% of the second year and 18% of the third year).
Graph 9 shows when university athletes study. Over 40% of the participants in this study spend their study time between night and midnight (45% of the first year, 40% of the second year and 44% of the third year). Interestingly, over 30% of the participants of this study use their spare time between their classes (30% of the first year, 34% of the second year and 35% of the third year).

Graph 10 shows whether participants in this study find study at university is different from study at high school. Nearly 80% of participants in this study find it different (88% of the first year, 79% of the second year and 79% of the third year).
Both graphs 11 and 12 show whether participants of this study support study each other in the team. As graph 11 shows, nearly 50% of participants of this study, including both often and sometimes (57% of the first year, 52% of the second year, and 47% of the third year) support each other. However, nearly another 50% of the participants in this study do not support each other including both hardly and never (42% of the first year, 48% of the second year and 53% of the third year).
Graph 13 shows whether or not, their sport coach says something about their study at the university. Over 60% of the participants answered either hardly or never (62% of the first year, 70% of the second year and 71% of the third year). Graph 14 shows whether or not participants of this study do their studies together with their teammates. Over 60% of the participants of this study do their studies together with their teammates (62% of both the first year and the second year, and 67% of the third year).
In Graph 15, over 60% of participants of this study admitted doing both club activity and study is difficult (65% of the first year, 66% of the second year, and 60% of the third year). About 30% of participants of this study do not think it so.

In graph 16, interestingly, both the first year (56%) and the third year students (69%) answered that their club activity was more important than their study. However, 52% of the second year students answered their study was more important than their club activity. Only 30% of them answered their club activity was more important than their study. There were only 3% of the first year and 4% of the second year students who answered that both study and club activity were important in their university life.
In graph 17, nearly over 90% of participants of this study think university study helps their future. Graph 18 shows whether or not participants of this study have already decided their future. Interestingly, 72% of the third year students have already decided their future while 54% of both the first and second year students have decided it.

There are five tables below which show the reasons of Q13 (Table 1), Q19 (Table 2), Q21 (Both tables 3 and 4), and what kind of plans after graduation the participants of this study have on Q25 (Table 5).
Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q14 Please write how exactly different</th>
<th>1st year students</th>
<th>2nd year students</th>
<th>3rd year students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increase of self study time</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lerner centered style classes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of writing reports instead of exams</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of research &amp; giving opinions</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase of using PC</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is no one correct answer but we need to find our opinions</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contents of classes are specialized in the area</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are much homework</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are more free time between classes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There are deadlines to submit reports</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the answers for Q14. The most popular answer (N=36) was that university classes are learner centered style class. The next popular answer (N=14) was that they found there was no one correct answer but they needed to try to find their answers in classes. Then “using PC” (N=13), “much homework” (N=12), “learning specialized in the area” (N=12) and “increase of research and giving opinions” (N= 11), “increase of self study time” (N=10) are followed.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q20 What is the most difficult thing for you to do both study and club activities at the university?</th>
<th>1st year students</th>
<th>2nd year students</th>
<th>3rd year students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I don’t have enough time to study because of my club activity</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of sleep</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am physically too tired to study</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of concentration in class</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miss the class due to club activity</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the results of Q20. 44% (N=96) of the participants answered that they were physically too tired to study because of their club activity. In addition, 27% (N=60) of the participants answered lack of sleep. Then 20% (N=44) of the participants answered they did not enough time to study because of their club activity. As the table 2 showed, over 70% of the participants found that their club activity negatively affected in their study.
Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q22 Why do you think it so? (Club activity)</th>
<th>1st year students</th>
<th>2nd year students</th>
<th>3rd year students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Because I entered this university with sport recommendation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think I can do my sport while I am a university student. I don't think I'll have time to do it after I work.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to get a job something with my sport which I am playing now.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be a professional sport player in the future.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't think I want to be a professional but I want to try my best for my sport now.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I love my sport.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think sport club activity is more useful than study at university in the future.</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I learn many things from sport club activity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy communication with my teammates.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows reasons for Q21 and shows those who answered “Club activity” for Q21 (Which is important for you, club activity or study at the university?). The most popular answers are “because I entered this university with sport recommendation” (N=28) and “I think I can do my sport while I am a university student. I don't think I'll have time to do it after I work.” (N=25). Then “I love my sport” (N=12) and “I don't think I want to be a professional but I want to try my best for my sport now.” (N=11) are followed.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q22 Why do you think it so? (Study at a university)</th>
<th>1st year students</th>
<th>2nd year students</th>
<th>3rd year students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>University is the place to study.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study helps my future.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't think I can live with my sport in the future.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I must study to participate in my sport club activity because of rules of the department policy.</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to get a degree.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like study.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows the answers for Q21 and shows those who answered “Study at a university”. 36% (N=32) of the participants answered “university is the place to study” and 35% (N=31) of the participants answered “study helps my future”. 11%
(N=10) answered “I want to get a degree.”. Over 70% of the participants positively see study at a university as the first two reasons in the table 4 showed.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q25: Please tell me what it is for those who answered &quot;yes&quot; on Q24. (multiple answers)</th>
<th>1st year students</th>
<th>2nd year students</th>
<th>3rd year students</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I want to get a job in a company and keep doing my sport as my hobby</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be a public servant and keep doing my sport as a hobby.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be a PE teacher at school,</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to work for a company as a contract professional sport player.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be a full time professional sport player.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will study at a graduate school and keep doing my sport there,</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will study at a graduate school and I will retire my sport.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will retire my sport after graduation and I will get a permanent job at a company.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want to be a fulltime coach for my sport.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows the answers for the participants’ future careers. 24% (N=30) of the participants answered “I will retire from my sport after graduation and I will get a permanent job at a company.” Then 21% (N=27) of the participants answered “I want to get a job in a company and keep doing my sport as my hobby.” Another 21% (N=26) answered “I want to be a full time professional sport player.” On the other hand, only 6% (N=8) answered “I want to be a full time professional sport player.”. 10% (N=13) of the participants answered “I want to work for a company as a contract professional sport player.”. In Japan, sports which are very popular such as baseball and soccer have their professional leagues. When professional players in these leagues succeed in their careers, they are able to earn multi million dollars. However, sports which are considered as minor sports such as canoe, lacrosse, field hockey, and so forth, are not often able to have their professional leagues normally for financial reasons. Thus, players of these sports often belong to teams owned by companies and they make contracts with their teams to play and work for them.

Discussions

There are some points to discuss here. First of all, university athlete’s life in this study tends to be very busy. As the graph 1 showed, most university athletes participated in their club activities almost every day. In addition, they spent between two and four hours on their practice session almost every day as the graph 2 showed. However, most university athletes were able to take between five to eight hours sleep every day. This figure of sleeping hours was interesting to observe. One of the reasons which allow them to get such enough sleeping hours could be their parents’
financial support for university athletes. As the graph 6 showed, over the half of university athletes in this study did not have part time jobs. As the graph 4 showed, around 30% of university athletes in this study lived with their parents and as graph 5 showed, over 50% of university athletes in this study who lived alone relied on financial support from their parents. Moreover, as the graph 6 showed, nearly 60% of university athletes in this study did not have part time jobs and they have either 5 or 6 days of their club activities every week as the graph 2 showed. These results prove that university athletes in this study do not tend to have enough time to earn money to financially support themselves. These results also show that university athletes in this study need to heavily rely on their parents’ financial support to do both study and their club activities. Thus parents’ financial support tends to be a key to provide university athletes to spend time for both study and club activities with enough sleeping hours.

Secondly, as the graph 15 showed, over 60% of the participants of this study (65% of the first year, 66% of the second year, and 60% of the third year) admitted that they found difficult to do well on both club activities and study at the university. As the table 2 showed, club activity had a negative effect on university athletes’ study in either being physically too tired or lacking sleep time. However, graph 17 showed that about 90% of the participants in this study (92% of the first year, 90% of the second year, and 87% of the third year) thought study at the university would help their future. Thus, many university athletes in this study are motivated to study but they are less likely to be sure how to study at the university. On the other hand, there was a positive side of belonging to university sports clubs for university athletes. There were some university athletes who studied together with either their teammates or their seniors in their sport clubs as the both graphs 11 and 14 showed. Working in a small group is often used in classes. For example, Sugino (1994) explains group work facilitates learners’ abilities in the language and Johnson et al. (2001) explain that group work results in higher productivity and higher educational achievement when group work is effectively used. Some participants in this study effectively used study in small groups to try to manage both club activity and study.

Thirdly, as both tables 3 and 5 showed, many participants of this study did not aim to be professional sport players after their graduation. However, those who came to the university with their sport recommendation found it was their responsibility to participate in their club activity seriously. Also, as the table 2 showed, club activity negatively affected in university athletes’ study by either physical tiredness or lack of sleep. Those who will retire from their sports after graduation need to consider their future career as non-professional sport players. Thus, it is important for them to study in the university and to seriously think what they are going to do for their future. However, as the results showed, because of being physically tired or lack of sleep, the participants of this study tend to miss opportunities in their classes to study for their future career.

The author of this study has three suggestions in order to support university athletes to improve their academic performance in the university classes. Firstly, it is important for both university lecturers and sport club coaches to collaborate with each other to support university athletes. The results of this study such as both graphs 15 and 17 showed that although many university athletes in this study tried to do well on both study and their club activities, they found it difficult to do both of them at the same time. In Japanese universities, lecturers do not often involve in club activities.
Nakazawa (2011) explains that university lecturers are often too busy for what they have to do and they do not normally have time to look after university clubs. In order to solve this problem, many universities employ sport coaches for sport clubs who mainly look after their sport clubs.

On the other hand, in Japan, although sport coaches tend to focus on looking after the university athletes’ sport performance, sport coaches often do not involve themselves in university study. As the graph 13 showed, sport club coaches do not tend to support university athletes’ study well. The author of this study believes that coaches play an important role in university athletes’ academic results. According to Bell (2009), in America, sport coaches of university sport clubs are required by the NCAA to look after university athletes on both sport and study. Bell (2009) explains that sport coaches tend to explain how important university study is in university athletes’ future. Such sport coaches’ involvement in university athletes’ study contributes to keeping the highest graduation rate in the USA. The results of this study show that both academics and sport coaches in Japan do not tend to collaborate with each other to support university athletes in order to do well in both their study and sports. Thus, in order to solve this issue, it is important for both academics and sport coaches to communicate with each other and collaboratively support university athletes.

Secondly, the author believes that it is important for university athletes to understand what university sport is. Toba and Ebishima (2011) explain that a part of the Japanese education system makes both extreme students such as those who try to focus on sport activity with less study, and those who try to study hard with almost no sport activities. Under such an educational environment, sport students in particular not only tend to lose their motivation to study but also they will take a risk with no job in the future if they fail to become professionals and thus earn money for their living. Therefore the author of this study believes that it is better for university athletes to prepare their future not only by focusing on doing their sport club activity but also study hard at the university. Some might be able to become professional sport players and to earn more than enough money to support their entire life. However, all professional sports players will retire sooner or later and they always have a risk of getting injured at some stage. Sooner or later, most professionals need to take another job to live, after their retirement of their sports. Thus, it is important for university athletes to try to do better in both sport club activity and study at their university.

Thirdly, university athletes need to have a strong motivation to succeed in both sport club activity and study at their university. Although around 60% of the participants in this study admitted doing both club activity and study was difficult as graph 15 showed, some participants try to do their best to manage both sport club activity and their study. For instance, the graph 9 showed, around 30% of the participants of this study use their spare time between their classes on campus to study. In addition, both graphs 11 and 14 showed, around 50% to 60% of the participants of this study studies with their teammates or with their seniors in their teams. On the table 1, some participants answered “there are more free time between classes” and “increase of self study time”. Thus, university athletes have time to study while they are on campus. If they effectively use these free time as much as they can for their study, they do have time to study for their degree on campus. In order to do it, university athletes need to have strong motivation to study at the university.
Conclusion
This study explored how university athletes manage both their sport activity and academic study in their university. There were two research questions in this study. Firstly, this study explored how university athletes in this study managed to keep a balance between their sport club activity and their study. Secondly, this study explored how university staff could support university athletes to succeed in their future life.

In order to answer the first question of this study, the results of this study answer the question. First of all, as the graph 1 to 6 showed, in order to succeed in doing both study and sport club activity, financial support for university athletes was important. Over 50% of the participants of this study who lived alone needed to rely on financial support from their parents. Most participants of this study participated in their sport club activity nearly every day on weekdays. It suggested that they did not have time to have part time work to support their living expense. Second of all, as the graph 15 showed, over 60% of university athletes in this study found that it was not easy to keep a balance between both study and their club activity. In addition, the table 2 showed some reasons such as either physically tiredness or lack of sleep. However, some university athletes effectively used their teammates to try to keep a balance on both study and their sport club activity. As both graphs 11 and 14 showed, around 50% of the participants of this study studied with their seniors in their sport club and nearly 60 % of the participants in this study studied with their teammates. Last of all, the results of this study showed that sport club activity negatively and positively influenced on university athletes’ university life. On the negative side, due to their sport club activity, many university athletes were either physically too tired or lacked enough sleep for their study. On the other hand, some university students collaboratively used their teammates and seniors in their clubs to study together.

In order to answer the second research question, the author of this study proposed the three suggestions in discussions. The first suggestion was the importance of collaboration between university lecturers and sport club coaches for university athletes. The graph 13 showed, sport club coaches in this study hardly commented on the participants’ study. Past studies such as Bell (2009) found that sport club coaches’ involvement in the university athletes’ study enhanced athletes’ academic performance. In order to invite sport coaches’ involvement into athletes’ study. Although some university athletes might be able to become professionals after they leave the university, sooner or later they will retire. Study at the university will help university athletes to find their second life after their retirement from their sports. The third suggestion was the importance of university athletes’ strong motivation to study. Some highly motivate university athletes in this study effectively used their free time between their classes. Thus, by having strong motivation to study, university athletes can maximize their academic performance.

This study was limited to exploring university athletes in one of the private universities in Japan. In order to improve the quality of this research, this study could have included university athletes in either a national or public universities in Japan to compare the results.
References


Appendix

Q1: What year are you in?
Q2: Are you man or woman?
Q3: How many days do you have club activities per week?
Q4: How long do you practice in your club on weekdays?
Q5: How long do you sleep every day on average?
Q6: Do you live alone or with your parents?
Q7: Who do you pay for all expense for your living?
Q8: Do you have a part time job or not?
Q9: How long do you work per week?
Q10: How long do you study English per week?
Q11: Where do you normally study?
Q12: When do you study?
Q13: Do you think study at the university is different from study at the high school?
Q14: How different is it?
Q15: Do you get any study support by your seniors in your sport club?
Q16: Do you help your juniors in your club their study?
Q17: Does your sport club coach say something about your study?
Q18: Do you study with your teammates?
Q19: Do you think it is difficult for you to do both study and club activities at the university?
Q20: What is the most difficult thing for you to do both study and club activities at the university?
Q21: Which is important for you, club activity or study at the university?
Q22: Why do you think it so?
Q23: Do you think university study helps your future?
Q24: Have you decided what you will do after you finish your degree?
Q25: Please tell me what it is.
Performance of the Kindergarten Teachers and its Relation to Pupils
Achievement in Different Learning Areas

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The Asian Conference on Education 2015
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study aimed to determine the performance of the kindergarten teachers and its relation to pupils’ achievement in different learning areas in the Division of Kabankalan City. Using the standardized assessment and evaluation of the Department of Education secondary data, 100 kinder teachers and 2901 kinder pupils were investigated to determine the performance of the kindergarten teachers based on their Competency–Based Performance Appraisal System for Teachers and the periodic assessment of kinder pupils collected as secondary data. Weighted mean, Pearson–r, chi-square, Analysis of Variance were used in the study. Findings revealed that the kindergarten teacher respondents were 26-31 years old and most of them were female and married; they spent teaching for two years and less and passed the Licensure Examination for Teachers. They were very satisfactory as to instructional competences, school, and home and community involvement, personal, social, and professional characteristics. It also revealed that performance of the kindergarten pupils on their period of assessment shows that they were slightly advanced in their development. It also shows that domain as to performance of the kindergarten pupils were average overall development. Based on the results, it is recommended that Kindergarten teacher must augment their educational qualification and pursue their graduate studies and must develop the total personality of the children for them to achieve high advanced development to become productive individual.

Keywords: performance, kindergarten teacher, learning areas, professional, pupil

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Introduction

Early childhood educators face tremendous challenges in supporting children's development. Given the task that children must acquire learning best in meaningful contexts, through conversational interactions, and through encounters with written language, these must be the focus of instruction for teacher. Teachers of young children must obtain more education, better compensation, and greater respect; their role in supporting children's well-being and future potential (Taylor, 2003).

A kindergarten teacher must forthrightly hone his/her skills in promoting parenting knowledge, parenting skills, collaborating with parents in instructional decisions, communicating between home/school, advocating for increased parent involvement. Many early childhood professionals succeed in these areas through newsletters, phone calls, and parent/teacher communication folders, emailing, hosting parent/child activities at school, parent/teacher conferences, parent-focused workshops, and continual, in-service professional development.

Considerable evidence exists that high-quality early childhood education programs for children from birth to age five can have long-lasting, positive consequences for children's success in school and later in life, especially for children from low-income families (Raver, 2009).

The researcher observed that the kindergarten teachers are striving hard to do their part in molding the young minds and hearts of every learner to achieve quality learning and academic excellence. Despite of the efforts exerted by the teacher, there were learners who could not cope up with the ideas and still difficult to learn, during seminars and meetings a lot of kindergarten teachers were also facing the same problem thus, the researcher finds it interesting how the kindergarten teacher performance affects to the pupils achievement in developing young learners to become productive citizen in the country. Teachers play an important role in fostering the intellectual and social development of children during their formative years. The education that teachers impart plays a key role in determining the future prospects of their learners and it is said as the weapon in the battle called life, teachers provide the tools and the environment for their learners to develop into responsible adults.

The main purpose of this study is to appraise the performance of the kindergarten teachers and its relation to the kindergarten pupil’s achievement in the different learning areas.

Conceptual Framework

Teacher of Kindergarten pupils play an important role in fostering the intellectual and social development of children during their formative years. The education that teachers impart plays a key role in determining the future prospects of their students. Whether in preschools or high schools or in private or public schools, teachers provide the tools and the environment for their students to develop into responsible adults it advocates educational programs that, like Head Start, take into account not only academic needs but conceive of children as whole persons with social, emotional, and physical needs and strengths, in a family context (Hodgkinson, 2003).

Although most kindergarten teacher preparation programs address language development, little emphasis is given to the role of experience and learning, especially within the social and cultural context because this dimension of language acquisition is overlooked, many teachers do not know how to support children's language learning at various levels of development nor recognize when language development does not proceed as expected. Kindergarten teachers need to talk with children in ways that ensure that their language continues to develop, their vocabulary increases, and their grammar becomes more complex. By school entrance, the
processes of socialization and language development are well under way. When children are served in programs outside of the home beginning as babies, toddlers, and preschoolers, socialization occurs simultaneously in two environments. It is especially important to respect students' home languages and cultures.

The figure below shows Kindergarten Teacher Performance and Pupils Achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KINDERGARTEN TEACHER</th>
<th>PUPILS ACHIEVEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Socio-demographic Profile:</td>
<td>Gross Motor Domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Fine Motor Domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Self Help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil status</td>
<td>Receptive Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational status</td>
<td>Cognitive Domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of service</td>
<td>Psychomotor Domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Teachers' Performance:</td>
<td>Socio-Emotional Domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Competence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School, Home, Community Involvement</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal, Social and Professional Characteristics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1
A Schematic Diagram Showing the Relationship of the Variables of the Study

Methodology
Research Design, Instrumental and Responsibility of the Study

This study utilized the standardized questionnaire on Competency-Based Performance Appraisal System for Teachers used as the principal mean of collecting data. It allows a better description and understanding of the study that assist the researcher in interpreting the data. Descriptive research can be either quantitative or qualitative. It can involve collections of quantitative information that can be tabulated along a continuum in numerical form, such as scores on a test or the number of times a person chooses to use a certain feature of a multimedia program, or it can describe categories of information such as gender or patterns of interaction when using technology in a group situation. It often uses visual aids such as graphs and charts to aid the reader in understanding the data distribution. Because the human mind cannot extract the full import of a large mass of raw data, descriptive statistics are very important in reducing the data to manageable form. When in-depth, narrative descriptions of small numbers of cases are involved, the research uses description as a tool to organize data into patterns that emerge during analysis. Those patterns aid the mind in comprehending a qualitative study and its implications. For the selection of respondents, 100 kindergarten teachers and 2,901 kindergarten pupils of the Division of Kabankalan City, Negros Occidental, Philippines.

Data Analysis
To measure the socio-demographic profile of the kindergarten teachers, frequency counts were utilized. To assess the performance on kindergarten teachers in the Division of Kabankalan, weighted mean was utilized. To determine the significant relationship of the performance of the kindergarten teachers to the pupils learning achievements, ANOVA was utilized.
Findings
Findings revealed that the kindergarten teacher respondents in the Division of Kabankalan City were 26-31 years old (fc=45%) and most of them were female (fc=97%) and married (fc=53%). Kindergarten teachers in the Division of Kabankalan were baccalaureate degree (fc=58%); they spent teaching for two years and less (fc=43%) and passed the Licensure Examination for Teachers (fc=61%).

Table i
Mean performance of kindergarten teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s Performance</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructional competence</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School, home, community involvement</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal, social and professional characteristics</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grand Mean</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The performance of the kindergarten Teachers in the Division of Kabankalan City were very satisfactory as to instructional competences, school, home, and community involvement, personal, social, and professional characteristics.

Table ii
Mean performance of the kindergarten pupils in terms in period of assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District</th>
<th>1st Assessment</th>
<th>2nd Assessment</th>
<th>3rd Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Average of Standard Score</td>
<td>Interpretation of Standard Score</td>
<td>Average of Standard Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K1</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>slight delay in overall development</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K2</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>Average overall development</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K3</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>significant delay in overall development</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K4</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>slight delay in overall development</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K5</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>Average overall development</td>
<td>115</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II reveals that the performance of the kindergarten pupils in Kabankalan district were improving as to the period of assessments. Furthermore on the on the third assessment period the performance of the kindergarten pupils in the division of Kabankalan were slightly advance in development except Kabankalan District 3. It implies that the kindergarten performance as to the different period of assessment was increasing and the children were ready for the next grade level.
Table iii
Mean performance of the kindergarten pupils in terms of selected domains

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domains</th>
<th>Kindergarten Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gross Motor</td>
<td>9.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fine Motor</td>
<td>10.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Help</td>
<td>10.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive Language</td>
<td>10.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expressive Language</td>
<td>9.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>11.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Emotional</td>
<td>11.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>72.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard score</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interpretation
Average Overall development

It reveals that the performance of the kindergarten pupils in Kabankalan district as to domains were average over all development with the total of 72.60 out of 100 as the standard score. It implies that the kindergarten performance as to the domains of assessment was in average overall development and the pupils were eligible to proceed on the next grade level.

Relationship between the performance of the Kindergarten teachers to the pupils learning achievements. The ANOVA presents the significant difference between teachers performance to gender of teachers with the p-value less than 0.01. This means that there are no significant differences on the teacher’s performance to the teacher’s gender in their means, to accept the hypothesis and concluded that there is no significant difference of teacher’s performance to their gender.

According to the gender-stereotypic model, boys fare better academically in classes taught by males and girls fare better in classes taught by females. The gender-invariant model suggests that the academic motivation and engagement of boys and girls is the same for men and women teachers. We also examine the relative contribution of student-, class-, and school-level factors, finding that most variation was at the individual student level. Of the statistically significant main effects for gender, most favored girls. In support of the gender-invariant model, academic motivation and engagement does not significantly vary as a function of their teacher’s gender, and in terms of academic motivation and engagement, boys do not fare any better with male teachers than female teachers (Martinez, R., and Dukes, R. L. 2001).

Analysis of variance between performance and the civil status of the Kindergarten teachers. The ANOVA shows the significant difference between teacher’s performance to teacher’s civil status with the f tabular value of 3.488 and with a significant difference of .034. This means that there is a significant differences on the teacher’s performance to the teacher’s civil status, this means to reject the hypothesis and concluded that there is a significant difference of teachers performance to their civil Status.

Furthermore, early childhood interventions help develop “soft skills.” A mother kindergarten teachers helps her students learn patience, discipline, time management and persistence — hugely important skills in the workplace and in life. Starting one’s school career on the right foot, (Banks, J.A. 2003) adds, “Changes the way a student sees himself, and that changes the way other people see him. It leads to this virtuous cycle” that has profound implications that continue into adulthood.
Table iv
Performances of the Kindergarten Teachers to the Pupils Learning Achievements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Performance – Assessment</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st Assessment</td>
<td>-15.901</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Assessment</td>
<td>-18.205</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Assessment</td>
<td>-386.453</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It presents the significant relationship between performances of kindergarten pupils to pupils learning achievement in the different assessment periods. It reveals that there are no significant differences on the performance of kindergarten pupils to pupils learning achievement in the different assessment periods accept the hypothesis and concluded that there is no significant difference of performances of kindergarten pupils to pupils learning achievement in the different assessment periods.

Kindergarteners are constantly developing in the different domains (cognitive, language, physical, creative and aesthetic, socio-emotional, and values and character). Thus beginning at an early age the child must be cared for and given all the opportunities to address current developmental needs and prepare him/her for lifelong learning. Kindergarten classrooms, therefore, should multi-level because kindergarteners will differ in their development in each domain (Cummins, J. 2005).

The ANOVA revealed the significant difference between teachers performance of kindergarten teachers to pupils learning achievements, with a significant difference of .000. This means that there is significant differences on the teacher’s performance to the kindergarten learning achievements reject the hypothesis and concluded that there is a significant difference of teachers’ performance to the pupils learning achievements.

Many factors contribute to a student's academic performance, including individual characteristics and family and neighborhood experiences. But research suggests that, among school-related factors, teachers matter most. When it comes to student performance on reading and math tests, a teacher is estimated to have two to three times the impact of any other school factor, including services, facilities, and even leadership (Chan, K. S. 2006).
Conclusion

Based on the above findings, this study concludes that kindergarten teachers in the Division of Kabankalan City were at legal age, most were female and married and a baccalaureate degree holder with two years below of experience and a licensed teachers. It is also revealed that kindergarten teachers were performing very satisfactorily to their teaching profession in developing young children, out of the efforts excreted the children were average overall development.

Finally, there is significant difference as to civil status, educational attainment, length of service and eligibility, and there is no significant difference as to age and gender of the teacher respondents. There is no significant relationship on the teacher’s performance to pupils learning ability for pupils has its learning style and abilities and the pupils’ achievement has its significant difference on teacher performance. It is recommended that Kindergarten teacher must augment their educational qualification and pursue their graduate studies and must develop the total personality of the children for them to achieve high advanced development to become productive individual.
References


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Peace Education in Lebanon: 
Case Study in the University Context

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Peace Education encompasses a diversity of pedagogical approaches within formal curricula in schools and universities and non-formal education projects implemented by local, regional and international organizations. It aims to cultivate the knowledge and practices of a culture of peace. In Lebanon, this culture is mainly promoted by non-governmental organizations and engaged intellectuals and artists since the late 1990s. Also, grassroots student dialogue clubs have flourished in a number of secondary schools. However, in the university context, it is considered to be a rare phenomenon. This paper introduces first to the issue of Peace Education in Lebanon. It then presents the conceptual characteristics and examples of applications of a Peace Education approach I developed and adopted in my classrooms from 2007 till 2014 in three universities with 3000 students of different religious, cultural, social-economic and political backgrounds. In conclusion, it identifies the positive changes the various class activities yielded in students' perceptions and relations, and the obstacles that this approach faced in a context of local and regional physical and psychological wars.

Keywords: Lebanon, Southwestern Asia, Youth, War Memory, Peace Education.
Introduction

(…) The teacher who walks in the shadow of the temple, among his followers, gives not of his wisdom but rather of his faith and his lovingness.

If he is indeed wise he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind.

(Gibran Khalil Gibran, The Prophet, 1923)

I started to be interested in the war and peace issues when I left Lebanon, my home country, to pursue my studies at the University of Montreal (Canada) in the late 1990s. While living abroad, I learned that once the war grabs hold of you, it never loses its grip. It shapes the emotions, thoughts, attitudes and behaviors. It becomes part of the individual and collective identity. Therefore, tackling the issues of war and peace is first, to me, a personal struggle and catharsis, incarnated in my pedagogical approach, my artistic work and virtual/physical activism.

As I see it, confronting the culture of war in its past and current dynamics, and especially the psychosocial aspect of the war or the war of traumas and wounded identities within the Lebanese society, is necessary for breaking the war vicious cycle. Sadly, the Lebanese State encourages forgetfulness (1991 Amnestoy Law), and major political parties disseminate conflictual narratives in schools, universities and through different media channels. A national memory is inexistent, and the common history book’s last chapter ends at 1943, when Lebanon became independent from the French Mandate. Peace Education is usually promoted by non-governmental organizations such as interreligious groups, as well as by artists, online activists and international organizations like the United Nations Development Program (UNDP). Few interreligious research centers were established by universities such as the St Josef University in Beirut or Balamand University. However, there is a fear among many historians and educators that because no consensus about a common writing of the history of the contemporary period has been reached and taught in formal settings, and no official curriculum including Peace Education has been implemented in schools and universities, the new generations are doomed to repeat the past.

Indeed, in this context where these generations are inheriting the experiences of war as still living memories, and are molding/converting this remembrance into some form of fixed historical and existential knowledge, the cycle of war can be perpetuated. The moment of transmission is important to dwell on, because it is a moment of genuine hope and possibility, but also a moment of real danger, with the past posing a threat to future stability. More than ever, encouraging and expanding both non-formal/popular and formal Peace Education in Lebanon by cultivating the knowledge and practices of a culture of peace seems crucial.

About my Peace Education Approach

I have been teaching in Canadian and Lebanese universities – and lately Emirati – for the last twelve years while developing my own Peace Education approach. There are numerous United Nations declarations on the importance of Peace Education as the means to bring about a culture of peace, and many peace researchers such as Betty Reardon (1988) and Douglas Roche (2014a, 2014b) emphasize the importance of
Peace Education as a right to preserve and global peace studies as a way to reduce the threats of war. Conflict resolution training, democracy education and human rights education are the most common variations of Peace Education, but new approaches are emerging and calling into question some of the theoretical foundations of the previously mentioned models. I recently discovered Hossein Danesh’s approach, the founder and president of the International Education for Peace Institute, and found it similar to mine. In his Integrative Theory of Peace, peace is understood as a psychological, political, moral and spiritual reality. According to Danesh, the majority of people and societies – and certainly in war zones - hold conflict-based worldviews, subdivided in two main categories: the survival-based worldview and the identity-based worldview. Danesh argues that it is through the acquisition of a more integrative Unity-based worldview that human capacity to mitigate conflict, to create unity in the context of diversity, and establish a sustainable culture of peace, is increased – be it at home, at school and university, and in the international community.

Peace Education’s main goal is therefore, beyond a basic teaching about how conflicts get started and the effects of violence and common nonviolent alternatives, the focus on the healthy development and maturation of human consciousness through assisting students with examining and transforming their worldviews, while learning about peace practices in the classroom (the micro level) – and linking these practices to the macro level (community/society). Simply put, it is learning about peace by doing peace inside the classroom and beyond. In my classrooms, by ‘doing Peace’ I mean that students learn to develop cultural/religious awareness and communication strategies in an intercultural/interreligious/inter-political/inter-social-ecomonical setting. They learn to deconstruct stereotypes and construct alternative narratives. They learn to reflect on the subjectivity of their own identity patterns, to step outside boundaries and discover the fluidity of cultural/religious frontiers. They learn to share responsibility for the act of learning while using all their senses. They learn to understand and experience unity in human diversity through dialogue.

**Examples of Applications**

Fieldtrips, rally papers, visual art workshops, outdoor agoras, meditation sessions, virtual dialogue platforms, storytelling/storysharing, collaborative learning sessions, documentaries/movies screening, as well as singing, dancing, cooking and eating… A variety of applications, along with lectures and conferences, readings and essay writings. There is no single recipe which can be used in all cases and contexts. In that sense, applications were and are always re-invented.

During storytelling/storysharing sessions for instance, I tell my students my own war stories to serve as anticipatory sets, to capture their attention and increase their interest, to facilitate discussion and as a way for making abstract and conceptual content more understandable. Students are then invited to share their own stories orally, in writing, and with digital assignments using a variety of multimedia. Stories range from personal tales to the recounting of historical events.

Also, Learning through food has become an essential component of all my courses since 2004 – in Canada, Lebanon and recently at the American University in Dubai. When we – my students and I - cook, eat and drink unfamiliar types of food, we have a visceral experience of foreignness brought into our bodies and minds, which contributes to the process of familiarization, thus opens the door for dialogue, the
recognition of differences, mutual respect and the search for a common ground - for what unites in the diversity of stories. Food is a life force and a good meal fosters a strong connection between individuals, a convivial relation beyond mere coexistence. When we gather to share the physicality of the food and the cultural/religious knowledge that accompanies the praxis of eating, we share bits and pieces of our belongings, our historical legacies, and our glocal (global/local) identities.

My Research – Data Collection and Analysis Methodology
I have closely studied the initiatives and visions of many peace activists in Lebanon from 2001 till 2007 and published a book about the subject (Chrabieh 2008). When I started teaching in Lebanon in 2007, I expanded my research to include high school students (Chrabieh 2009) then university students. From 2007 till 2014, I taught approximately 3000 undergraduate and graduate students at three different universities: St Josef University in Beirut, Notre Dame University and Holy Spirit University (USEK). Courses ranged from Introduction to “World religions” and “Religions of the Middle East” to “Religious arts, peace and violence”, “Theology of Dialogue”, “Religion and Politics: War and Peace in Lebanon”, etc.

My latest qualitative research targeted 500 of these students and I presented its progressive results in various conferences: Oxford-UK, Balamand-Lebanon, Istanbul-Turkey, Dubai-UAE and lately Rome-Italy. Two academic articles will soon be published, one in English in Europe, and another one in Arabic in Lebanon. Online publications are also available for further information. The main objectives of this research were the following:

1- Assess my pedagogical approach.
2- Further understand the challenges facing Peace Education in the university context.
3- Provide valuable insight on the advantages and difficulties of teaching and learning about war and peace in a country marked by a continuous flux of physical and psychological wars.
4- Identify the representations of war and visions and peace of university students (students’ worldviews), often neglected in academic studies and policy-making reports.

Students’ religious, social and political identities were diverse: 25% Muslims, 40% Christians, 7% Druze and 28% ‘Other’ (other religious movements/ non-official sectarian branches, non-religious affiliations – agnostics, atheists…); 30% March 8 political alliance, 35% March 14 political alliance and 25% Independent¹; 25% upper social-economic class and 75% middle-class.

¹ March 8 and March 14 constitute the two major political alliances, both including various political parties and sectarian branches. March 8 is closer to the Syrian regime, and March 14 openly opposes it.
Two applications were used as data generating platforms for identifying students’ worldviews:

1) Storytelling/storysharing sessions on war memory where my students were invited to share their oral, written and digital-format accounts of the war in Lebanon within a process of reciprocity (Gintis H., Henrich J., Bowles S., Boyd R. & Fehr E. 2008; Maiter S., Simich L., Jacobson N. & Wise J. 2008) – at least three sessions during the semester. Reciprocity is crucial to create a safe environment, promote trust and establish a cooperative relationship, thus to have a greater potential to yield more accurate data.

2) Art workshops on Peace where my students were asked to express visually their visions of Peace in Lebanon by the end of the semester – at least two sessions were required.

3) Furthermore, I used my Participant Observation notes, where descriptions of groups’ dynamics, students’ comments and behaviors are gathered, through my own observations and participation. Participant Observation provides the researcher with ways to check for nonverbal expression of feelings; grasp how participants communicate with each other; shows the researcher what the students deem to be important in manners, leadership, politics, social interaction and taboos; provides several advantages including the access to ‘backstage cultures’; provides the researcher with a source of questions to be addressed with participants; enables the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data through surveys and interviews; allows to check definitions of terms that participants use in activities, and to develop a holistic understanding of the phenomena under study (DeMunck & Sobo 1998; Marshall & Rossman 1995).

I usually study what is happening and why during my classrooms’ activities, sort out the regular from the irregular, look for variations and exceptions, seek similar opportunities for observation and plan systematic observation of those events/behaviors. I learned to start with a descriptive observation – in which one observes anything and everything – and evolve to a focused and selective observation. My research had to take several years to maximize the efficiency of the field experience, minimize the researcher bias, and facilitate replication or verification. A primary consideration in my research study is to conduct it in an ethical manner, letting my students know that one of my purposes for observing is to document their activities. I also preserve the anonymity of my students in the final write-up and field-notes to prevent their identification, unless they agree on revealing their identity.

For the data analysis, I used Narrative Analysis, a qualitative methodology employed as a tool for analysis in the fields of cognitive science, organizational studies, knowledge theory, sociology and education studies, among others. My approach is functional, where narratives are viewed as the ways in which individuals construct and make sense of reality as well as the ways in which meanings are created and shared; and the focus is on the interpretations of events related in the narratives by the individuals telling the story. I look for patterns, themes, and regularities as well as contrasts, paradoxes, and irregularities.

Also, for the analysis of my field notes, I index and cross-reference information, organize symbols, construct a coding system, summarize, and start writing, using exact quotes when possible, pseudonyms to protect confidentiality, providing
descriptions without inferring meaning, including relevant background information to situate the activities, and separating my assumptions from what I observed.

**War and Peace: Students’ Worldviews**

40% of the 500 students - all born in the 1990s - were not able to tell stories of the past. They knew very little of most of Lebanon’s history. Many of these students’ parents were not affiliated to political parties, or they were ex-militia who never raised the war subject at home. According to these students, they “never experienced the wars in Lebanon”. However, while 30% preferred following the blank page approach, believing the prospects of ending conflict were bleak, or the wait and see approach, saying that to be Lebanese is to be in a constant state of wait, by the end of the course, 70% were seeking ways to cope with the memory of past violence in order not to repeat it, and to work on healing wounds. According to one of my students, the healing process is important: “If parents do not talk about the past, it does not mean that they did not communicate to their children a chronic fear, even if the original threat does not exist anymore. This fear leads to a culture of silence and makes people unable to handle any new conflict. My father is constantly watchful. I think he does not like to show us - my sisters and I - his weakness or he does not want to burden us with his anxiety (...). We should be dealing with ours fears”. Another student stated the following: “There are unfinished business passed on to our generation and the next generations through different forms of communication and silence. What kind of legacy are our parents, leaders and educators giving us when they show us that life is about resentment or the ostrich attitude?”

60% of the students told stories about how their parents experienced physical war during the 1970s and 1980s. Few shared what they have seen or felt during the summer 2006 combats. Stories of bombings, shelters, every day survival tips, death in family… “My father taught me the basics of shooting guns when I was a child. He never clearly explained why he thought it was important for me to be trained, until the events of May 7, 2008 (when inter-sectarian clashes in Beirut occurred). He told me then ‘Do you see why I taught you how to fight?’”. This is what I call the micro level of inherited war memories or micro trans-generational narratives.

As for the macro level of inherited war memories or macro trans-generational narratives: at least 70% of these students associated with a certain collective narrative. According to the pro-Kataeb Party students, the starting point of the war in Lebanon is the presence of Palestinians “who wanted to expand beyond the refugee camps, thus attacking Christians and the Lebanese State”. For the pro-Leftists students, “the right-wing Maronite Christians held great power and did not want to share it with others, thus creating social and political inequalities”. Other students named the State of Israel and Syria to be “the only responsible forces at the basis of wars in Lebanon and their continuous ‘fuel’”. Some blamed colonial powers such as Great Britain and France following the end of First World War and the dismantlement of the Ottoman Empire. Others blamed the Ottomans, then the Turks, or the Cold War between the United States and the USSR. Also, some students described the wars in Lebanon to be only “civil wars” and in particular “Muslim-Christian conflicts”.

Furthermore, historical events were made to fit the individual narratives, by being added to or excluded from the narratives. For example, when students were asked
about the massacre of Palestinian civilians which occurred in Sabra and Chatila refugee camps in 1982, many acknowledged the Israeli responsibility while dismissing the right-wing Christian Lebanese Forces’. When they were asked about the conflicts in Mount Lebanon between Christian Maronites and Druze, those who identified themselves as being Maronites only recalled the massacres of Christians by Druze. Similarly, anti-Hezbollah students failed to acknowledge the numerous Israeli invasions and occupations of Southern Lebanon.

Contradicting and often mutually exclusive collective memories appeared to hold a tight grip on most of students’ identities, sense of purpose and beliefs. Each side had its way of describing its identity, whereby intergroup differentiation was highlighted and stereotypes and prejudices used to re-affirm positive distinctiveness. Typical beliefs were, for example, that “we’ are right but ‘they’ are wrong”; “we’ are the victims while ‘they’ are the aggressors”; “we’ were using self-defense tactics while ‘they’ were radicals”. It did not matter much whether the stories were based on historical facts or not. More important was that a student who had a certain cultural-political-social background interpreted the war in Lebanon as the “other’s betrayal”.

During the storytelling/storysharing sessions, many students acknowledged the painful memories of the “other side” in order to break the psychological aspect of war trapping them. Most of them were able to know who they are, what they are suffering for, who are the despised others. When they accepted others’ narratives, it did not mean they agreed with them or that they had abandoned their own narratives. It meant they acknowledged the existence of a diversity of narratives. In my opinion, this is a first step in a process of building a common memory.

As for the students’ Peace visions, there are those who portrayed Peace as the elimination, deportation or destruction of the other, perceived as an enemy, while backing their vision on a particular perception of Lebanon’s past. According to one of my students: “Two people with their own different beliefs and perspectives concerning life, and life goals, can never unify and become one in a same country, especially if one people dominate the other by the use of force (i.e. Muslims and Christians)”. Other students thought Peace is achieved when sectarianism as a social-political system and attitude is abolished, or even religions. However, a large part of the artistic work showed students had positive attitudes toward others. Positive war memories were being shared in the classroom, especially stories of interreligious/inter-sectarian dialogue and conviviality. A student argued that peace comes with “the acceptance of the fact that I am a rock among many other rocks, here to stay, but nonetheless working in harmony with other rocks to allow the structure to stand”. Another student associated the idea of being Lebanese with “living in a plural society and respecting the opinion of others”.

In fact, at least 65% of students saw Peace as “harmonious relations between Lebanese”, whether interreligious/inter-sectarian or inter-human. It was clear in their artistic work, interventions in class and written assignments. One of the students drew a musical key with the caption “we are all part of the symphony!” Another student used a famous juice ad slogan. He drew a carton can of juice, and then added all the different denominations which form Lebanon as if they were the main ingredients, with the slogan “There is a little bit of Lebanon in all fruits!” Definitely, art workshops and storytelling/storysharing sessions helped many students creating
shared spaces where they could understand each other’s beliefs and practices, and feel the pathos and waste of war. A desire and commitment to end war and work for Peace was instilled.

My Approach Assessment: Students’ Feedback

Along with the results of my qualitative research, the universities’ quantitative evaluations of my courses and the class examinations, anonymous qualitative mid-semester and end-of-semester evaluations by students were administered and analyzed in order to assess my approach. Below is a summary of students’ feedback:

At least 60% stated having acquired a new and alternative knowledge in a dialogical environment that helped them gain self-confidence and often inner Peace, improve critical thinking, encourage them to cooperate, to respect each other’s, to be active learners, to be independent yet in dialogue and harmony.

Storytelling/storysharing sessions were highly valued for their contribution to the yielding of positive changes in perceptions and relations on a micro level, and to revealing emotional memories, whether conflictual or convivial. These memories are passed on from generation to generation, allowing students to both relate better and distance themselves from macro historical narratives/memories. The sessions helped students discover and understand the pain endured by their family/group/community as well as the pain of others, recognize the diversity of individual and collective memories/narratives and that this diversity should be gathered to build a national memory/narrative.

According to one of my students: “Storytelling activities helped me learn more about history, and understand that it does not operate through a linear juxtaposition of facts, but through the co-presence and interpenetration of historical subjectivities”. Such a mentality would contribute to the deconstruction of the current top-down approach to teaching the history of Lebanon, responsible for promoting political disempowerment. Another student mentioned the fact that my pedagogical approach helped him become “a critical thinker through a more Socratic-style mentoring where it is not about ‘teaching’ but ‘make others think’, and that because “differences of opinions were encouraged in the classroom along with the search for a common ground, students were given the ability to challenge their own rigid belief systems while being respected”. A student highlighted the importance of having fieldtrips where students search for a visual/archeological/historical content (and are not guided all the time) and culinary activities where students are asked to cook, to look for information about the food and share it in the classroom, considered to be “a sustainability strategy”, meaning students are encouraged to become self-sustainable.

For 15% of my students, changes occurred in their worldviews, behaviors and practices. They became Peace activists in their respective contexts and kept in touch with me via online platforms. Some are part of the 100+ authors of the Red Lips High Heels blog I founded in 2012, others are members of non-governmental organizations – local and/or international. Some established cultural clubs, produced documentaries or organized youth camps. I often receive messages where ex-students relate what they learnt in my classrooms to their current social and political engagement. According to one of them: “We did not only learn about war and Peace. We did Peace. We engaged in acts of civic responsibility in the classroom and following the course”. For another one: “This is a pedagogy of engagement”. And “workshops and
activities, along with the lectures, helped us transform from controlled objects to empowered agents”.

**Obstacles**

Peace Education in Lebanon, and especially in the university context, faces many obstacles:

1) The context itself makes it hard to disseminate: political turmoil, corruption, State paralysis, social-economic crisis, the war in Syria and its impact, the rise of extremism, etc.

2) There are prevailing misconceptions about the aims and nature of Peace Education – some perceive Peace to be an ideal and believe Lebanese should concentrate on surviving through self-defense and the use of “just violence”.

3) There is a diversity of definitions and applications of Peace Education in non-formal settings, where practitioners and activists function often in ivory towers. Cooperation between organizations is a rare phenomenon.

4) The field’s scholarship in the form of theorizing, researching and evaluating badly lags behind practice.

5) Peace Education in universities is usually an isolated affair. For a large-scale impact, it need to expand. There are many conditions to pursue this expansion such as funding and political will. Ultimately, Peace Education ought to be considered a public good and as such should be offered as a free service to all.

6) Students may continue to refuse the possibility of Peace, especially when they live in unsupportive environments. Even when they are equipped with new worldviews, they enter into a collision course with their social-political surroundings: family, neighborhood, sectarian community, political party…

7) Some students question the effectiveness of dialogic methods, arguing that the causes of wars in Lebanon are tangible conflicts of interests, structural causes and a struggle for power and influence.

8) The potential of escalation of hostility among classmates could become alarming when professors/educators are not trained or do not have experience in mediation. Until the present day, training programs in Peace Education in the university context are rather inexistent.

**Conclusion**

My research and students’ feedback revealed that the various applications of my pedagogical approach yielded some positive changes in perceptions and relations. These changes belong to Lebanon’s history. True that traumatic experiences may never disappear from the minds of generations of Lebanese. New wounded memories will be added to the old ones. However, I strongly believe that, as Buckminster Feller states, “To change something, build a new model that makes the existing model obsolete”. Or at least, try to contribute to the creation of alternative models through unconventional ideas and teaching techniques, and out of the box learning practices where all senses are used (holistic approach), and empathy and mutual respect are promoted and experienced. Education, as I see it, is first and foremost about learning to be and become better human beings, or learning the art of being human.
References


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Abstract
This study aimed at determining the impact of the Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) instructions in the Cognitive Ability in Physics of low achieving students as Treatment Group. This used one-way analysis of variance to test the significant differences in Physics’ Pretest and Scores in Physics between the Treatment and Control Groups. Pearson correlation was used for bivariate relationships, while, Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was applied to establish the significant GPA Model in Science of the Grade 7 students as influenced by the five components of the PCK Instructional Model. Findings revealed that the Treatment Group had the High mean rating in the Pedagogical Content Knowledge instructions. Mean scores in the Pretest and Posttest showed positive gains by an advanced of one level with the Treatment and Control Groups; with the latter taking the lead in score-points even if they were on the same Average levels. Highly Significant differences in the Science’s Pretest and Posttest were evident in all of the Four Areas when grouped according to the two groups. This suggested that really the Control Group settled to higher performance even without the explicit intervention of the PCK Instructions, however, gave positive impact to the students’ learning assessment in the Treatment Group. As a result high achieving students had better Cognitive Ability than the Low Achieving ones prior to giving formal lectures in the four areas of Physics.

Keywords: Pedagogical, Cognitive, Physics


Introduction

To influence students’ learning science teachers must possess the knowledge on Pedagogical Content Knowledge or PCK (Frank and Spencer 2012). However, there is a prevalent dilemma of students’ dismal performance in physics (Starr 2005). In fact, Science and Engineering readiness Index (SERI) shows that Math Education and Readiness Qualification in twenty one states in the U.S. earned a score far below average (White and Cottel 2011). In addition, despite of the intervention applied for improved instruction from the Learning Physics as One Nation (LPON) project, students from thirty two schools in the country perform low to very poor levels (Bernirdo et. al. 2013). This disappointing performance was the fact that only fifteen percent of high school physics teachers were qualified to teach the subject (Ogena 2010) this obviously shows deficiency with PCK in teaching the subjects and become the dearth in the part of the researcher to go into this kind of study. Implications were emphasized that programmed instructions like the Pedagogical Content Knowledge was more effective in teaching Physics with low level achievers. The highly significant differences in both the Pretest and Posttest as regards the Cognitive Ability of the students gave proper insights that the Teacher was knowledgeable about the PCK instructions; that these were indispensable in effective teaching.

Theoretical Framework/ Conceptual Framework

This study connected to Shulman’s (1986) model of teacher knowledge called pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as presented in the work of Abell (2007). Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) has been defined as "the transformation of subject-matter knowledge into forms accessible to the students being taught" (Geddis, 1993).

Several Lines of research used frameworks other than Shulman's to understand science teacher knowledge. These studies have demonstrated how teacher knowledge develops over time with respect to various inputs and perturbations, but did not classify teacher knowledge as Shulman did. The pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) includes the following components, to wit: 1. orientations: "general way of viewing or conceptualizing science teaching"-(e.g., fact acquisition, conceptual development, and content understanding); approaches to teaching (e.g., transmission, inquiry, and discovery). 2. knowledge of learners: requirements for learning certain concepts; areas students find difficult, approaches to learning science, and common alternative conceptions; many teachers are unaware of students' likely misconceptions [teachers have many of the same misconceptions student have]; veteran teachers are able to predict and plan around these difficulties; experienced teachers are able to provide evidence to support their interpretations of students. Overall it appears that teachers lack knowledge of student conceptions, but that this knowledge improves with teaching experience. 3. Curriculum knowledge: (a) knowledge of mandated goals and objectives (e.g., state and national standards); and (b) knowledge of specific curriculum programs and materials. Although science teachers recognize a variety of goals for science teaching, they tend to emphasize content goals over attitudinal or process goals. We know little about the knowledge teacher bring to bear on the analysis, selection, or design of science curriculum materials. 4. Knowledge of science instructional strategies: (a) subject specific strategies (e.g., learning cycle, use of analogies or demos or labs); and (b) topic-
specific teaching methods and strategies, including representations, demonstrations, and activities. More science education research should be devoted to examining what teachers understand about classroom inquiry strategies and science teaching models, and how they translate their knowledge into instruction. 5. Science assessment: this includes (a) what to assess, and (b) how to assess (methods); according to Briscoe (1993), a teacher's ability to change his/her assessment practices is "influenced by what the teacher already knows or understands about teaching, learning, and the nature of schooling". These studies of teacher knowledge of assessment in science provide rich research models that demonstrate a link between PCK for assessment and science teaching orientation. More studies are needed to better understand what teachers know about assessment, and how they design, enact, and score assessments in their science classes. To Conceptualize the Shulman’s model, figure 1 is presented below:

\[ Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \epsilon \]

**Figure 1: The Proposed Model**

**Where: Y**: Predicted Average Grade in Physics in which the value used as Dependent Variable is the Mean scores in Physics for each student in the Posttest. And **X1**: Orientations, **X2** is Knowledge of the Learners, **X3** is Curriculum Knowledge, **X4** is Knowledge of Physics Instructional Strategies, and **X5** is Physics Assessment. **\( \beta_0 \)** is the constant term; **\( \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \beta_4, \text{ and } \beta_5 \)** are the beta coefficients respectively for the five independent variables, and **\( \epsilon \)** is the error term and is uniformly distributed when the model is formulated for prediction function which is equal to zero.

**Methodology**

This study was quasi-experimental with model building. This measured the level of PCK instructions as rated by the Grade 7 students in components like: Orientations, Knowledge of the Learners, Curriculum Knowledge, Knowledge of Physics Instructional Strategies, and Physics Assessment. Survey questionnaire for these five components in Pedagogical Content Knowledge was provided in which ten-item statements were rated by these High and Low Achiever students to measure the extent their teacher had applied this approach in their Physics subject. This study was conducted in Immaculate Conception Academy, Inc. in Dancalan, Ilog, Negros Occidental. Complete enumerations of the total 196 Grade 7 students were the respondents of the study. The Treatment Group was composed of the Low Achievers who’s General Percent Average (GPA) in Grade Six ranges from 75% to 84% and for the High Achievers, from 84% and up. There were two types of instruments used. First was the survey instrument for the Pedagogical Content Knowledge which was modified from internet sources (Alev et al., 2012). The second was the test questionnaire taken from the topics about Energy in Physics by Rabago et al. (2010), as presented in the research design. The researcher personally conducted this quasi-experimental study with the Grade Seven students including the administration of the Survey Questionnaires in Pedagogical Content Knowledge with Physics’ Pretests and Posttests. He used to teach Physics as part of the General Science curriculum. The researcher used to teach in this school with these students to warrant him to finish this data gathering on time.
**Data Analysis**

Profiles of the Grade 7 students in terms of Gender, Types of Achievers, and Average Grade in General Science subjects were dealt by frequency and mean distributions. The students’ levels in the Pretest and Posttest of Physics when grouped according to Treatment and Control Groups were computed by getting the mean scores with their respective levels. The significant mean differences in Physics’ Pretest and Posttest between the Treatment and Control Groups were determined with the use of One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The significant bivariate relationships among the five components of Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) were analyzed through Pearson Correlations. This provided the ideas of the trends of directions between the two components, pair-wise. The significant Physics Model of the Grade 7 students using PCK instructions was formulated using Multiple Linear Regression Analysis.

**Summary of Findings**

The results of the pedagogical content knowledge instructions as applied to Physics together with the cognitive ability of the Grade 7 students are analyzed and interpreted. The results are tabulated and incorporated with discussions.

Table 1 presents the Profile of the Grade 7 students in Terms of Gender, Types of Achievers, and Average Grade in Science.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Low Achievers</th>
<th>GPA</th>
<th>High Achievers</th>
<th>GPA</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>45.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>54.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of 16% High Achieving students support the study of Dey (2012) in which this group of students really excels because of the study habits they have made late every night which makes the difference and the valid reason of their few in numbers compared to those of the 84% low achieving students. This means that what constitutes most likely of the fewer percentage of the High Achievers is their perseverance to withstand with long hours of studying that is rarely done by the Low Achievers (Ali, 2007).

Table 2 presents the levels of Pedagogical Content Knowledge in terms of its five components when grouped according to types of achievers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pedagogical Content Knowledge Components</th>
<th>Treatment Group: LA Mean Level</th>
<th></th>
<th>Control Group: HA Mean Level</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Orientations</td>
<td>3.70 H</td>
<td>3.30 A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Knowledge of the Learners</td>
<td>3.83 H</td>
<td>3.06 A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Curriculum Knowledge</td>
<td>3.73 H</td>
<td>3.27 A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Knowledge of Physics</td>
<td>3.69 H</td>
<td>3.14 A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Physics Assessment</td>
<td>3.44 H</td>
<td>3.42 H</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.68 H</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.24 A</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A: Average (2.61-4.60)  H: High (3.41-4.20)
Table 3 Presents the Students’ Cognitive Ability in the Pretest and Post Test in Physics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test Areas in Physics</th>
<th>Treatment Group</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pretest Posttest</td>
<td>Pretest Posttest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mn Lev Mn Lev</td>
<td>Mn Lev Mn Lev</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Constant Uniformly Accelerated Motion</td>
<td>4.43 L 4.68 A</td>
<td>5.25 A 6.22 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sound and Light Waves</td>
<td>2.76 L 4.80 A</td>
<td>5.19 A 5.56 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Heat</td>
<td>4.58 L 5.37 A</td>
<td>5.38 A 6.44 H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Electricity</td>
<td>4.12 L 5.06 A</td>
<td>4.94 A 5.75 A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.97 L 4.98 A</strong></td>
<td><strong>5.37 A 5.99 A</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notation: Mn: Mean Lev: Level L: Low (2.81-4.60) A: Average (4.61-6.40) H: High (6.41-8.20)

The Grade 7 students under the Treatment Group rated the Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) components a total mean of 3.68 interpreted as High (H) level. While the students under the Control Group rated 3.24 for Average level. The High ratings given by the students under the Treatment Group with the five pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) intervention components signify that they have been mediated with this type of instruction. And the students’ overall rating of Average from the Control Group simply shows of the conservative applications of the PCK instructions in a subtle way of dealing with them in the classroom.

The overall Cognitive Ability of the students in the Treatment Group as measured through the Pretest reveals Low mean rating (3.97) and has improved to Average in the four test areas of the students in the Posttest of (4.98). Specifically, these increases are shown in the following areas The results further indicate that the students under the Control Group perform better during the Pretest which means that those with better GPAs generally have better performance in the examinations (Jabeen and Kha, 2013). In other words, performance has improved for these students from pretest to posttest after they have experienced a coached dynamic assessment intervention.
Table 4.1 Shows the Significant Difference in the Pretest According to Treatment and Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UA</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>19.512</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19.512</td>
<td>7.318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Group</td>
<td>517.238</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>2.666</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SO</td>
<td>Between Group</td>
<td>126.700</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>126.700</td>
<td>75.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Group</td>
<td>323.601</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>1.668</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HE</td>
<td>Between Group</td>
<td>12.938</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.938</td>
<td>5.474</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Group</td>
<td>458.506</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>2.363</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EL</td>
<td>Between Group</td>
<td>22.624</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22.624</td>
<td>8.331</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Group</td>
<td>526.820</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>2.716</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values in the above-table indicate highly significant differences in pretest scores in the cognitive ability of the students in both the Treatment and Control Groups giving the edge of High Achieving students in the Control Group. This has made the null hypothesis rejected to infer that in the Pretest the High Achievers perform better than the Low Achievers.

Table 4.2 Significant Difference in the Posttest According to Treatment and Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UAp</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>62.158</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>62.158</td>
<td>28.560</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>422.225</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>2.176</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>484.383</td>
<td>195</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOp</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>17.676</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17.676</td>
<td>8.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>420.625</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>2.168</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>438.301</td>
<td>195</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEp</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>30.750</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30.750</td>
<td>12.127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>491.924</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>2.536</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>522.673</td>
<td>195</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELp</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>12.712</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.712</td>
<td>10.132</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>243.390</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>1.255</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>256.102</td>
<td>195</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Posttest results show highly significant differences according to Treatment and Control Groups to reject the null hypothesis. Although both groups settled to Average levels in their Cognitive Ability but the difference in points suggests that the Control Group obtain higher than that of the treatment Group; proving the Control Group to perform better by point-estimates. These findings further confirm that in the part of the Treatment Group
the influence of Pedagogical Content Knowledge approach has made them performed better in the Posttest with one level increase; that is from Low level from the pretest to Average level rating in the posttest.

**Table 5 Significant Correlations in the Components of Pedagogical Content Knowledge**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Orientations</th>
<th>Knowledge of Learners</th>
<th>Curriculum Knowledge</th>
<th>Knowledge in Physics</th>
<th>Physics Assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>Pearson Corr.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.143(*)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.046</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Learners</td>
<td>Pearson Corr.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.326(**)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Knowledge</td>
<td>Pearson Corr.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.291(**)</td>
<td>.297(**)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge in Physics</td>
<td>Pearson Corr.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.294(**)</td>
<td>.297(**)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics Assessment</td>
<td>Pearson Corr.</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.295(**)</td>
<td>-.199(**)</td>
<td>-.186(**)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are five highly significant and positive low strengths of relationships in Curriculum Knowledge and Orientation (.29) as well as Knowledge of Learners (.33). Also there are three to Knowledge in Physics with Orientation (.25), Knowledge of Learners (.29); and Curriculum Knowledge (.30). These coefficients suggest that when this pair of components goes together, they are likely going toward positive directions. The higher the rating found in Curriculum Knowledge corresponds to the high rating similarly in Orientation. The same connotations and interpretations can be applied to Knowledge in Physics paired with Orientations, Knowledge of Learners and Curriculum Knowledge. There are three negative but significantly low coefficient of correlations and one moderately low significant bivariate relationships respectively to Physics Assessment with Knowledge of Learners (-.15), Curriculum Knowledge (-.20), Knowledge in Physics (-.19), and Orientation (-.30). This means that as the ratings increase in Knowledge of Learners (3.83), Curriculum Knowledge (3.73), Knowledge in Physics (3.69) and Orientations (3.70) there correspond the decreasing trends in Physics Assessment rating (3.14) within the alpha level of less than .05. These significant correlations make the null hypothesis rejected to generalize that these PCK components are correlated (Please refer to Table 2).

**Table 6 Significant Physics Model Using Pedagogical Content Knowledge**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 2</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R^2</th>
<th>R^2adj</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49.53</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanatory Variables</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Stdized. Coef.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>4.456</td>
<td>13.77 .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orientations (X1)</td>
<td>-1.97</td>
<td>-.205 -3.933 .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of the Learners (X2)</td>
<td>-3.92</td>
<td>-.478 -9.200 .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Knowledge (X3)</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td>-.131 -2.457 .015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Physics (X4)</td>
<td>-.220</td>
<td>-.248 -4.755 .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physics Assessment (X5)</td>
<td>.034</td>
<td>.039 .767 .444</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Results in the Multiple Regression Analysis reflect the F-test to be highly significant with adjusted R square of .57 or 57%; with four explanatory variables register highly significant in their t-tests. This means that there is 57% of the total variance that these variables can explain to the students’ GPA in Science. And it means the other 43% is explainable by other variables not in PCK. The adjusted R square value (.57) is preferred because there are three model extractions out of the data sets to really look into which of the transformations could have offered the best model for prediction and strategy formulation of the Grade students’ Grade Percent Average (GPA) in Science of Immaculate Conception Academy. The Model selection is made, and out of three trials, it is Model 1 that gives highly significant variables. The other two, are processed through using the scores in the Posttest in Physics Cognitive Ability segregating the Treatment and the Control Groups of which the extraction reveals no significant variables that can influence their Cognitive Ability in Physics (Appendix E).

**Conclusion**

For the inferentially analyzed results, the following major conclusions were given: Significant differences in the Pretest scores proved that High Achieving students had better Cognitive Ability than the Low Achieving ones prior to giving formal lectures in the four areas in Physics. Hence better GPA was a significant student factor to obtain better scores in Cognitive Ability. With significant differences in the Posttest, despite the Average levels the Treatment and the Control Groups had achieved, this inferred to conclude that the Control Group manifested significantly higher scores in point-estimates at that range of Average level-interval against the Treatment Group. The increased performance level in the test scores form Low to Average by the Low Achieving students in the Treatment Group indicated the effectiveness of the application of the Pedagogical Content Knowledge as a form of mediated instructions in Physics. Therefore PCK instructions must be sustained. Highly significant positive correlations among the components of PCK also implied positive influence toward better academic scores, hence, taking initiatives in improving PCK instructions must be pressed to be implemented effectively; particularly to students with learning difficulties. The three negative coefficients of the extracted significant variables in the model gave decreasing effects to the science GPA therefore offered a disadvantage to the part of the High Achieving students. With considerable amount of variance at 57%, the formulated model became worthwhile; therefore, this model would efficiently serve as bases for the formulation of effective PCK strategies.
Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following major recommendations were given: The Pedagogical Content Knowledge instructions must be applied and sustained across subject areas which are highly analytical especially with the low achieving students, specifically on activities based on Curriculum Knowledge. Authentic assessment through itemized questionnaires must be strategized according to the Cognitive levels of the students. More specifically with the incorporations of pictorial representations to provide fair evaluation, and become feasible in both the teacher and students to become a significant predictor for GPA in General Science. Science and Math Teachers must go hand in hand in tackling classroom issues in workshops and seminars particularly in enriching and improving the learning and understanding of these low achieving students.

Teaching with these students must employ different methods in both content and pedagogical courses. This would be initiated particularly in terms of PCK components that give decreasing effects, particularly to students’ Grade Percent Average (GPA) in General Science. Special mention to components like: Orientations, Knowledge of the Learners, Knowledge of Physics in faculty professional growth education programs (Kaya, 2009) since these courses are important for improved learning of these students as emphasized by Nakiboğlu and Karakok (2005), and Tekin (2006). In so doing, these components would provide better chances to students for a realistic enhancement in their Physics performance. For the different higher institutions of learning, teaching through PCK course should be given more time and attention by the teaching staff in different Colleges especially to College of Teacher Education. Teaching through PCK should always be videotaped, so that students will have the opportunity of observing their own teaching in order to improve upon it during re-teach. Education department should give more instruction or education on how to conduct a lesson through PCK. This PCK peer teaching should be constantly and effectively organized. The different Colleges should effectively handle the methodology aspects of each subject. The effective production, improvisation and utilization of self-made relevant instructional and assessment materials should be encouraged and implemented. More research activities should be carried out through PCK in other subject areas by considering these three recommended research problems. 1. Designing and implementing Pedagogical Content Knowledge for problem-based learning in high school science. 2. Applications of Computer Interface to Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) in high school Physics. 3. E-Tech PCK Instructions for College Physics.
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Internet Sources:

Finding a Place for Karate-do in Mainstream Education

Marc Waterfield, Shihan International Chito-Ryu Karate-Do Federation, Japan

Abstract
This paper discusses some of the benefits of including karate-do lessons in schools. It begins by providing a brief history of karate-do which originated on the small island of Okinawa, South of mainland Japan and its intimate relationship with education and the Japanese school system. In order to determine its merit we will look at such things as some of the health benefits of regular karate-do training as a form of exercise and how this exercise can positively affect academic performance. Furthermore, the philosophies and ethics of karate-do which are grounded in Bushido develop healthy habits in its practitioners and have the potential to change lives in very positive ways. The author will draw from his extensive knowledge and experience in Chito-Ryu Karate-do which he has practiced for almost 30 years from childhood to present in Canada and Japan as well as his nearly ten year involvement with the Japan Karate-do Federation (JKF) through the Junior and Senior High School divisions. This paper outlines such important concepts as Bun-bu Ryo-do, Shin Gi Tai, and Reigi Saho. The JKF; the organizing body of karate-do in Japan, is making great efforts and working closely with the Japanese Ministry of Education Health and Science (MEXT) to develop an acceptable curriculum which incorporates karate-do lessons in junior high schools across Japan as part of the budo lessons, an affiliate of the Japanese physical education program. These initiatives will be reviewed and referenced to support the viability of including karate-do in schools’ curricula.
Introduction
In order to have a discussion on this topic we must first answer a few important questions, the first being what is karate-do? I would like to put emphasis on the ‘do’ part of karate-do. In order to define karate-do we must also research where it came from and how it developed. In doing so, we may also attain vital information as to why it is so important to so many people world-wide. With “100 million practitioners around the world” (Espinos, 2014), it is safe to say that karate-do holds a special position in the global society. Karate-do has the potential to change the lives of students around the world as it has positively impacted the lives of the 100 million practitioners mentioned above. In this paper I will introduce karate-do and outline some of the positive points it has to offer to students if included in mainstream education.

Defining Karate-do
The Oxford Dictionary of Current English defines karate as a Japanese system of unarmed combat using hands and feet as weapons. Christopher M. Clarke in his book Okinawan Karate: A History of Styles and Masters Vol.1 (2012), he states that, “At its simplest, karate is a system of unarmed self-defense” (p.7), implying that karate is actually something more complex. Karate is indeed a self-defense system, but the discussion I wish to have deals with karate-do which requires more clarification in its definition.

In order to deepen our understanding of the terms covered in this paper we must also look at the Chinese Characters (kanji). The word karate, as we know it today, is made up of two kanji 空 and 手, Kara; Empty or vacant and Te; Hand. These two kanji combine to become ‘empty hand’ which describes this weaponless art of self-defense. The two definitions given above, while accurately defining the term karate, are lacking when we attempt to define karate-do and therefore should not be misunderstood to encompass karate-do as well.
When we add the third kanji 道 Michi or Do, often translated as Path or Way, we must begin considering a great deal more than just the aspects of self-defense as we attempt to define it. Karate-do has tremendously more depth because it is grounded in the principles and philosophies of Bushido; a Japanese “code of moral principles” (Nitobe, 1899) that positively influence peoples’ lives.

It is well known that when dealing with a different culture and a different language we need to address and attempt to understand these deeply rooted differences. However, as in the case of Eastern and Western philosophies, more often than not, the vocabulary available to translate these complex concepts is often lacking (Ames, 2009). This is especially true when we begin to look at the codes of moral principles of Asian martial arts like karate-do.

Professor Roger Ames has often stated that in an attempt to discuss the philosophies of Asia in the West people often end up forcing the vocabulary by “trying to fit the Asian foot into a Greek sandal” (Ames, 2009). We are lacking the vocabulary to effectively translate some of the more foreign concepts. Ames offers great insight and aids on the subject of understanding Eastern philosophy and Chinese philosophy in particular. I suggest that we can use similar approaches when addressing karate-do; its principles and practices, theories and concepts, and the impact they make on those involved. Obviously, I cannot address everything in this short paper. Therefore, further and more in-depth study on this and related subjects is recommended.

As Ames states, we are really trying to understand the ‘Lange’ of the Culture by using the ‘Parole’ (Saussure) to deepen our understanding of the social structure of that culture. “Langu is a vocabulary that a living culture will generate in order to articulate the importance’s of that culture” (Ames, 2009). It is, therefore, understandable that every culture will have a different Lange. We can find this in both the semantics and syntax of the language. According to Ames, when learning foreign languages, we excavate the Lange of that culture and, in doing so we discover how that culture has structured itself in ways different from our own culture. Parole allows us to express and understand the Lange of other cultures, but we are always limited by the vocabulary of our own culture.

In the case of researching the philosophical concepts of karate-do, as well as other Asian martial arts, I believe that by deconstructing the kanji we can learn a lot more about the intended meanings in a more accurate context. For example, in this case we can see that by adding the character 道 Do / Michi to the previous 空手 karate it becomes something more than just a weaponless self-defense system; michi; a way, a road, or a path, as mentioned above, indicates that there is something deeper upon which this combative system is built, a base that is rooted in its philosophy and a set of ethics that teaches a ‘way of life’ this ‘way’ is grounded in the process of self-cultivation and fosters the qualities of self-discipline and kindness toward others, the doctrine of which states that karate-do must never be used to perpetrate violence. In this respect, it may be said that karate-do is a path that guides us to peace.

Funakoshi Gichin, a famous pioneer of karate-do who contributed greatly to its spread from Okinawa to mainland Japan and considered by many as the ‘Father of Modern Karate-do’ was also a school teacher. He is known to have repeatedly stated that, “Karate-do begins and ends with courtesy.” This is not a definition of what the
karate-do is, but it describes the path. The meaning of do is illustrated in the methods of practice and grounded in its history as it developed in and spread from Okinawa to mainland Japan and then to the rest of the world. Although training is often done in groups, the ‘journey’ of karate-do is always a very personal one of self-cultivation and for many it becomes the thing that grounds and guides them, giving direction to their lives and over time indeed becomes their ‘way of life’.

Therefore, the following definition given by Funakoshi (1973) is more appropriate than the definitions given above, “True karate-do is this: that in daily life, one’s mind and body be trained and developed in a spirit of humility and that in critical times, one be devoted utterly to the cause of justice” (p.3). This, in my opinion, is a more accurate definition of karate-do.

A Brief History
Funakoshi Gichin was a school teacher who authored many books on karate-do. He also pioneered its spread from Okinawa to mainland Japan. In one of his lesser known books Karate-Do Nyumon (1973), Funakoshi Gichin gives a detailed history of karate-do. He states, “Located in the south of Japan, that country, formerly called the Kingdom of the Ryukyus and now known as Okinawa Prefecture, was the birthplace of karate” (p.18).

(Figure 1: Map of Okinawa)

Before this martial art became recognized on mainland Japan it developed in Okinawa among other indigenous fighting arts. The literature supports the estimate that these fighting arts have existed on the Ryukyu Islands for at least 1,000 years, despite the fact that written records are scarce, most having been destroyed during the Battle of Okinawa in April 1945 (Clarke, 2012).

The name karate only became recognized in the English language after World War II. First known simply as 手 Te, Ti, or Di, depending on the dialect used. This fighting art was heavily influenced by the classical Chinese fighting arts, the same art introduced to those at Shao-lin Temple which came to be known as 少林寺拳法 Shorin-ji Kempo. “In 1392, the emperor sent the famous ’36 families’ of Chinese
emigrants to Okinawa; they included all sorts of literati, artisans, and experts in the martial arts” (Funakoshi, 1973, p. 20). These families settled in Kume Village which later became famous for its interaction between native Okinawan and Chinese martial artists. Due to the strong influence of Chinese martial arts and the strong connection among the Kingdoms which may be said to have blossomed in the 17th century this fighting art became known as 唐手 tote or karate which translates to ‘Chinese Hand’. The two characters 唐 and 空 are homonyms in Japanese. The first, 唐, denotes that it is foreign, in particular from ancient China, derived from its use in Chinese to signify the Tang dynasty (A.D. 618 – 907). The more recent kanji, 空, was introduced for the word karate to make it more palatable for mainland Japanese nationalists and is now accepted (Ohshima, 1973). It wasn’t until 1879 when Japan forced the abolition of the kingdom of Okinawa and absorbed the Ryukyu Islands as a Prefecture that the name officially changed to 空手 karate.

It is interesting to note that while the Okinawans initially resisted it was the Japanese system of education that persuaded them to “accept their new status as Japanese” (Funakoshi, 1973, p.21). Leading up to WW II many young men were drafted by the Japanese army and educated within its ranks. Many of these young men turned to the martial arts as a way to improve their physical conditioning. This is important to know because after the loss of the war to the American Armed forces karate became one of the main methods used to re-build the physical health of the Japanese people, illustrating the positive health benefits of karate-do as an exercise system.

In his book Kempo Karate-do Universal Art of Self-Defense Dr. Chitose Tsuyoshi (1947), a medical doctor and founder of the Chito-Ryu style of karate-do, stated that karate-do could play a central role in the re-building of a new Japan stressing that in order to do so “we must first ensure that we are in good health” (p.90). He goes on to list the 5 areas in which karate-do practice contributes to one’s general health before stating that “karate-do is the most complete form of physical exercise” (p.90).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>According to Dr. Chitose, healthy bodies are developed through proper karate-do training which can be seen in the following five areas:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Effecting a change in the metabolism of cells.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Working to promote the functioning of the capillaries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Improving the circulation of the blood.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Stimulating the lymphatic system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Helping to regulate the body temperature.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Figure 2: Five areas of Karate-do Training Health Benefits)
Karate-do in the Education System of Okinawa and Japan

Karate-do training in Okinawa before the Meiji period (1868-1912) was only taught in secrecy and usually limited to family members. Therefore, there were very few documents before this time. However, with the beginning of the Meiji period this all changed and karate-do became more and more popularized eventually making its way into the public school system of Okinawa as part of the Prefectural physical education program. Described in his book, Karate-do Kyohan, Funakoshi (1973) writes regarding the public introduction of karate-do:

Training in karate was always conducted with the utmost secrecy in Okinawa, with no one teaching or training openly in its arts as is done today. For this reason, books or written records on karate are almost nonexistent. It was naturally unthinkable that karate should be displayed in public exhibition. With the beginning of the Meiji period, the formal education system and the military conscription system were inaugurated, and during the physical examination of draftees and students, those young men with karate training were recognizable at a glance and greatly impressed the examining doctors with their well-balanced limb development and clearly defined muscular development. Then, sometime later, the commissioner of public schools, Shintaro Ogawa, strongly recommended in a report to the Ministry of Education that the physical education programs of the normal schools and the First Public High School of Okinawa Prefecture include karate as part of their training. This recommendation was accepted and initiated by these schools in 1902.
Between the years of 1914 and 1930 Funakoshi and a small group of karate-do masters gave public demonstrations and lectures around Okinawa and Japan. Funakoshi has been linked to many schools and companies with regard to his instruction of karate-do. Some of the universities include: Keio, Waseda, Tokyo Shoka Daigaku, Takusho, Chuo, Gakushu-in, and Hosei. Now, generations’ later karate-do classes are conducted as either part of the physical education program or as a club activity in most public and private schools across Japan.

The JKF has been working together with MEXT to develop a curriculum to include karate-do lessons in JHS as a part of the physical education program across Japan. At the time this paper was written, there were 202 JHSs which implemented the program across the nation. It is interesting to note that of the 202 schools 127 of them are in Okinawa.

(Figure 3: Japanese Junior High Schools that have included Karate-do classes, 2014)

As we continue to explore this topic, other questions beg to be addressed. What makes karate-do so popular? What was its great appeal to the commissioner of public schools in Okinawa in 1902, later to the crown prince and emperor in 1921, and now today with people all over the world? How can a fighting art have such a positive impact on students? The answer to questions like these is actually quite simple and can be found in the character of the participants.

No matter how you may excel in the art of ti (karate-do) and in your scholastic endeavors, nothing is more important than your humanity as observed in daily life.

‘Ti’ Junsoku (1663-1734)
In Asian philosophy there has always been a strong connection between man and nature and community (Ames, and Hall, 2003, Lau, 1970, 2003). This can be seen in many texts and works of art. The philosophies that have guided the growth of Japanese martial arts are no different.

The close connection to the art of karate, academia, and nature is illustrated in the quote above. The underlining principle that a practitioner of karate-do doesn’t simply learn the moves like a formula, but rather strives to develop a well-rounded and healthy life style that is balanced and innately human. What does it mean to be human? How do we show our humanity? It is believed by many that we show our humanity in our daily acts of kindness and courtesy, through our acts of courage in the face of danger, and in our restraint and self-control. In short, it is in our humility that we show our true strength. What a concept. What a great lesson to learn. I believe that offering such an opportunity to school children can change their academic lives and greatly increase their potential for success in many other areas of their lives as well. “Those who follow Karate-do must consider courtesy of prime importance. Without courtesy, the essence of Karate-do is lost. Courtesy must be practiced not only during the karate training period but at all times in one’s daily life” (Funakoshi, 1975, p. 6).

(Japanese Kanji, Kansha‘Gratitude’ written by the Author, 2015)

People begin practicing karate-do for many different reasons, but the longer someone trains the more karate-do becomes an intricate part of their lives and, inevitably, one begins to familiarize themselves with the Japanese language and cultural aspects which are embedded in the art. One learns specific skill sets through repetitive practice of precise techniques, but this is only the tip of the metaphorical iceberg. It is no secret that continued practice of this art changes lives, it is said that “those who follow karate-do will develop courage and fortitude…” (Funakoshi, 1975, p.6), in this statement we can see that practitioners develop qualities such as self-confidence and self-control. This quiet strength can be taught and strengthened by regular karate-do practice. This is reinforced by a set of rules or guidelines known as Dojo Kun which I will discuss in more detail later in this paper.
Merits of Including Karate-do in Schools

The positive effects of regular physical activity on academic performance are becoming more widely documented (Fedewa, Ahn, 2011, Weir, 2011), and some information can be found on the impact of karate specific training on performance levels and health benefits among student athletes (Imamura, Yoshimura, Nishimura, Nishimura, Nakazawa, Nishimura, and Shiota, T., 1997, 1999), (Imamura, Yamauchi, Hori, Nishimura, Sakamoto, 2002), (Imamura, Yoshimura, Nishimura, Nakazawa, Teshima, Nishimura, Miyamoto, 2002), (Imamura, Yoshimura, Nishimura, Nishimura, Sakamoto, 2003), (Iide, Imamura, Yoshimura, Yamashita, Miyahara, Miyamoto, Morikawa, 2008). However, there is not a lot of information on the impact of karate-do specific training on academic performance, which is why I feel there is a real need to conduct such studies. Until such a study is completed we will have to base our hypothesis on the data available regarding general physical activity and its impacts on students.

Regarding the impacts of regular physical activity on students, Janelle Vaesa (2012) sites a study conducted in the Netherlands which found a strong correlation between physical activity and test scores. Vaesa suggests children should be active for at least one hour per day. This is a widely accepted guideline which is also supported by the American Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). Considering the amount of time children spend in school performing menial clerical work such as sitting still taking notes, reading books, and studying formulas, it makes sense that children would tend to have problems concentrating.

The average school week in North America is eight hours a day, 5 days a week. However, in Japan the days are much longer, some schools beginning extracurricular classes as early as 7:30 a.m. and evening classes running well past 6:00 p.m. Most private schools offer classes on Saturdays and some even on Sundays (Buntoku high school, 2015). One of the suggestions of the above mentioned study was to provide even more opportunities for children to be physically active while at school, beyond the currently provided physical education classes such as “…being a member of a sports club…” (Vaesa, 2012), I suggest that karate-do classes could have positive health benefits and augment the current physical education classes while providing the students with the opportunity to learn the qualities discussed in this paper.
My hypothesis, which is based on nearly 30 years of practicing and over 20 years of teaching karate-do, is that in a relatively short amount of time noticeable changes among the students’ health and concentration levels will be found and continue to improve with regular karate-do training. A theory of why this happens is explored next.

*Karate-do* quickly takes the student into the “practice gap” (Chi, 2015). Chi lists three learning gaps that one must cross in order to attain proficiency, the first of which is the knowledge gap. This is where we research and learn all the information regarding the subject. However, without practice we will never become proficient. Chi argues that we have to get to the second gap; the practice gap more quickly. I believe that the approach *karate-do* lessons take do just that. It is through continued practicing of the techniques that we learn the intricate points including such things as the philosophy, ethics, and cultural understanding.

At the end of the practice gap is the attainment of basic competency. However, with the attainment of competency we also come to the beginning of Chi’s third learning gap; the mastery gap. Chi states that in this gap “human potential is expanded.” I believe that continued *karate-do* training takes the student through these three gaps in a very natural process that could benefit the students’ lives and resonate outward to affect other areas of their life as well. This unique balance of academic proficiency through specific physical training has been appreciated in Japan for centuries and is known as 文武両道 Bun Bu Ryo Do.

(Japanese Kanji, Bun Bu Ryo Do written by the Author, 2015)

**Karate-do as Life-long Learning Method**

From what we have learned in this discussion, the value of *karate-do* can be seen in three major areas: athletic training (運動); self-defense (護身術); and emotional training (精神的な), that is to say, training which fosters the intrinsic traits of courage, courtesy, integrity, humility and promotes self-confidence and self-control among the participants. Such training forms good habits that have far reaching effects. These traits are sometimes described as 不動心 (Mencius 1970, 2003).
As was mentioned earlier, “karate-do begins and ends with courtesy” (Funakoshi). Courtesy can be found in many aspects of most traditional styles of karate-do and can be seen in many of the everyday actions of the karate-do practitioner. From the way one enters and leaves the 道場 Dojo, to the way they conduct themselves in the course of their daily lives.

It is believed by many that acting in such a way brings honour to the individual. However, during my time in Japan, it seems to me that people do not perform this kind of genuine courtesy of the attention, but rather because it is natural for them to act in that specific manner in the given situation. This may bring honour to their community, but make no mistake; their courteous actions are not premeditated to draw attention to themselves.

Furthermore, in my experience, showing proper manners through specific etiquette is a requirement for effective communication in Japan. So much so in fact, that different speech patterns in the form of honorifics 敬語 (Keigo), developed in the language to demonstrate this in everyday dealings with each other.

This concept of courtesy in daily life is known as 礼儀作法 (Reigi Sahou), The Application of Courtesy. The first two kanji mean Courtesy and the last two kanji mean Manners or Etiquette. When placed together they mean the practice of 'good' manners through courteous actions. In his book, *Bushido the Soul of Japan; An Exposition of Japanese Thought* Nitobe Inazo (1909) discusses the many aspects of Japanese courtesy in the *Budo* context. Over half of the book is dedicated to things such as Politeness, Sincerity, Honour, and Self-control all of which are connected to courtesy. Throughout the text, Nitobe compares Eastern and Western philosophies on these subjects and reflects on them in detail.

The International Chito-Ryu Karate-do has a list of five rules of conduct, 道場五訓 *dojo Go Kun*, that karate-do practitioners are expected to follow in order to display their deep understanding of the importance of courtesy in every aspect of their daily lives. Many Okinawan and Japanese Styles or Groups of karate-do have similar *Kun* focusing on manners, cleanliness, self-control, and strength of character (Clarke, 2012). In some schools these *dojo Kun* are recited in unison before and or after training sessions. Students are not only expected to memorize them but also make efforts in their daily lives to be true to them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>千唐流道場五訓 Chito-Ryu Dojo Teachings</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. 礼儀を重んずべし</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. 態度を正すべし</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. 言語を謹むべし</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. 意気を盛んにすべし</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. 清潔を旨とすべし</td>
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(Figure 4: Chito-Ryu Dojo Teachings, Chito-Ryu Basic Guide, 2010)
It can be seen in the rules of conduct listed above that one must make efforts to always show respect to others through their actions and speech and to strive for more. Courtesy can also be interpreted as an act of 心 Shin, the Spirit. The development of three important things occurs, “through the course of continued, long-term Karate-do practice the Spirit, the Body, and Technique are developed and refined” (Chito-Ryu Soke, T. Chitose, personal conversation, 2007).

In addition to the dojo kun listed above there are a set of Directives one must uphold, like an agreement clause known as 心得 Kokoro E. Students are obligated to know and abide by the following directives. Together the dojo Kun and the Kokoro E form the code of conduct of Chito-Ryu Karate-do.

千唐流空手道心得 Directives (Regulations) of the Study of Chito-Ryu Karate Do

a) When you start karate you must comply with the teachings with an open mind and submissive (humble) feeling, and not make bad habits.

b) Of course, you must respect your Sensei, Senpai, and fellow training partners. Kohai must also respect each other. We must have virtue of modesty and humility. “Bravery without respect is violence” (Confucius, 552 - 479 BCE).

c) You develop a healthy body through unyielding dedication to training and perseverance.

d) Training brings forth the cultivation of spirit, personality development is strived for and we are mindful of building peace and freedom for society.

e) Always have correct behaviour and absolutely don’t lose rationality.

f) When you study, it must move from easy to difficult, simple to complicated through repetition. Don’t mindlessly do hard training from the start, and never hurry.

g) Always have an intimacy with Makiwara, Chishi, Sashi, Kame, and Iron Geta and the fist, and don’t hurry the effects of these. Research Kata and Kumite with enthusiasm and train both equally.

h) A long time ago, it took three years to completely master one Kata. If you become a little good at one you must not become conceited. If you become conceited it will stop the progress of your natural moral virtue, and later you will become a useless person to society.

i) You must be careful to be well balanced in all your training and knowledge of theory.

j) If you do not have a clear understanding of these points, do not hesitate to ask your Sensei and Senpai. You must try to correctly understand.

(Figure 5: Chito-Ryu Directives, Chito-Ryu Basic Guide, 2010)

As we can see, the focus of these rules is the perfection of the character of the participants, not perpetuating violence. In other words, these rules outline the same qualities that one would expect to find in a role model (Wooden, 2006). “Being a role model is the most powerful form of education” (Nater, Gallimore, 2006, 2010). Progression in karate-do development is often likened to ascending a staircase.

Figure 6 outlines what is focused on during this progression. It is evident that at the base of this staircase is courtesy and respect. The first 3 stages are spent developing the spirit of the practitioner; the 心 Shin as mentioned earlier. The next 3 stages (from level 4 to 6) are spent developing technique in increasing levels of difficulty.
Finally, in the final stage the practitioner is expected to possess the qualities of the spirit rooted in compassion and respect for others, the control of their techniques and therefore, the ability to apply those techniques appropriately.

(Figure 6: the Karate-do Staircase, Japan Karate-do Federation, 2009)

**Mind and Body Connection through Practicing Technique**

The above examples relate to the concept of 心伎体 Shin Gi Tai, a process of self-cultivation. Developing the quality of the character of the participant before developing the combative abilities is a common theme of karate-do practice. I believe that this is the quality that sets karate-do apart from other self-defense systems. The sense of honor and integrity are present in the foundation of the codes of conduct and in every action while training. The karate-do 形 Kata is one of the main forms of practice, developed by Masters and preserved by many practitioners over the generations represent the 心 Kokoro of karate-do. “Every kata begins with a blocking technique” (Chitose, 1979), this exemplifies the fact that a true practitioner of karate-do never strikes first (Chitose, 1979, Funakoshi, 1973). Developing the 心 Kokoro, often translated in academic texts as “Heart/Mind” (Ames, 2009), while developing the techniques is crucial in creating an environment of trust and respect. As we develop our technique we attain greater control of our bodies and in doing so develop stronger, healthier physiques as discussed earlier in this paper. This is the progression of Shin Gi Tai; Connecting the Heart/Mind, and Body, through practicing specific techniques. Forming a connection between all three components in the practitioner is one of the major goals of karate-do practice (Chitose, personal communication, 2007).
Challenges Being Faced

Even with all of the people who have been positively affected by the lessons of karate-do, there are still sceptics who believe that karate promotes violence.

Fear of the destructive power of karate techniques; of the tremendous offensive and defensive power of karate-do (Funakoshi, 1973) is one of the things that cause hesitation among some people regarding acceptance in mainstream education (Japan Karate-do Federation, National Instructor’s Seminar, 2015). Even from the onset of the spread of this art throughout Japan this was a major concern of implementing karate training courses in such organizations as the Okinawan Police Department and the Japanese Navy due to “deep concern over the danger of this art” (Funakoshi, 1973 p. 5). The underlining fear that those skilled in the fighting art would use it to harm others has always been a deep concern for those determining karate’s place in society. Funakoshi states, “If its application is for a good purpose, then the art is of great value; but if it is misused, then there is no more evil or harmful art than karate” (Funakoshi, 1973 p. 5).

However, as can be seen in this paper and the multiple texts on karate-do, the main purpose and pursuit of this art is not for harming others, but rather for self-improvement, specifically the cultivation of the mind and body. Funakoshi has often illustrated the importance of humility as a common trait among karate-do practitioners. It is a unique paradigm where by growing stronger both physically and mentally one becomes more humble. “In Karate-do, one’s individual goal might be improvement of his health or training of his body to function efficiently. He might wish to develop the strength in his arms or legs or body, or to attain poise and spiritual fortitude. Clearly, one could wish to learn Karate-do to become humble. All such goals have to do with self-development” (Funakoshi, 1973, p.6).

The lack of data collected in studies that show the positive impact that karate-do practice has on the quality of people’s lives makes it difficult to argue its merits for inclusion in mainstream education. The examples that can currently be given are anecdotal or biographical. This is why I believe that there is a need to conduct longitudinal studies to assess these positive impacts on students world-wide.
Conclusion

This paper attempted to illustrate the fact that karate-do training does not promote violence rather it brings people together and promotes the development of healthy habits focusing on human qualities that lead to the cultivation of productive members of society.

As educators we need to do more to inspire and encourage students to find and follow their passions (Robinson, 2009). For those who are able to do so the question is not whether they will become empowered by their experiences, but rather, what they will do with this power they have attained. How will they change the world? What impact will they make on those around them and beyond? I believe that augmenting the current education curriculum with the inclusion of karate-do classes can have a profoundly positive effect on the health and well-being of students. However, to prove this theory thorough studies need to be conducted and qualitative data need to be analyzed. The unique blend of physical activity and emotional development through the process of self-cultivation that karate-do training provides should be available to every student. It is our duty to find ways to engage and inspire our students. It is important to facilitate learning experiences that will have significant influence in their lives. This will lend to achieving a higher quality in their academic development. I am confident that karate-do has the potential to facilitate such an impact on many more students if given a more influential role in the school system through inclusion in mainstream education as an extension of the current physical education program.
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Map of Okinawa [http://mickmc.tripod.com/okinawa_rei90.jpg](http://mickmc.tripod.com/okinawa_rei90.jpg)

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For further information on *karate-do* specific philosophies please visit the *Karate no Michi* blog by the Author, [http://understanding-karatedo.blogspot.jp](http://understanding-karatedo.blogspot.jp)
The Shift from Yakudoku to Communicative Language Teaching: Empowering Students with a Diversity of English Classes

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Abstract
Traditionally, English classes taught in Japanese schools have followed the *yakudoku* method (Gorsuch, 1998; Nishino, 2008; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012). In this method, English sentences are translated into Japanese word-for-word, and then reordered in accordance with Japanese grammar. This limits the use for students to practice speaking English with the exception of repeating words for pronunciation purposes.

However, since 1989, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) has attempted to execute a strategy using the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach as outlined in *The Course of Study*. These goals include “fostering learner motivation as well as developing receptive and productive language abilities in the four skill areas (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)” (Sakui, 2004). CLT is defined as an approach to the teaching of a second language, which aims to develop communicative competence (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992).

Using ethnography and focus groups, this empirical study investigates how Aoya Senior High School implements CLT into a variety of English courses that students are able to choose from. Not only do these courses align with MEXT’s goal of “cultivating English communication abilities in Japanese people,” but also supports Dornyei’s “L2 Motivational Self-System” (Ryan, 2008; Suzuki, 2011). The implications of this study show that by giving students a plethora of course options, they are able to choose a class they are interested and comfortable taking. This allows students to excel at their own pace while ultimately leading towards the main goal of developing communicative English competence.

Keywords: CLT, ESL, Motivation, TESOL, *yakudoku*
Introduction and Literature Review

Soon after the conclusion of World War II, the Japanese government put a strong emphasis on English language learning. They have released a series of guidelines known as *The Course of Study*, which has been done through the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology of Japan (MEXT). Provided in each release are goals and curriculum for Japanese teachers of English (JTE) to bestow upon their students. Many regard *The Course of Study* series to be the standard for which Japanese students are expected to learn English by their completion of elementary, junior, and senior high school (Tahira, 2012).

The first *Course of Study* was released in 1947. Outlined in this document were four main points: (1) habit formation was the ultimate goal in learning a foreign language, (2) listening and speaking were the primary skills, (3) it was advisable to accurately imitate utterances, and (4) students should get used to English focusing on its sounds and rhythms without using textbooks for the first six weeks (MEXT, 1947). Unfortunately, the interpretation of these guidelines by JTEs align with a traditional style of Japanese teaching known as the *yakudoku* method. Using this method, students would translate English sentences into Japanese word-for-word. After the words were translated, the sentences would be modified in accordance to Japanese grammar. By using this method, the students were not able to practice English with the exception of repeating words for pronunciation purposes (Gorsuch, 1998; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Rutson-Griffiths, 2012).

However, in the 1980s, Japan was looking towards internationalization. With this in mind, MEXT implemented an English education reform. One of the polices stemming from this reform was the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program, which started in 1987. The program was aimed to attract recent college graduates to help out with teaching English in the classroom. This is called team teaching. Team teaching is where a JTE would teach an English class with a native English speaker also known as an assistant language teacher (ALT). The role of the ALT is to provide practical communicative interaction with the students while helping JTEs teach English in the classroom (Nishino, 2008; JET Program USA, 2015).

Aligning with the implementation of ALTs in Japanese English classes, the 1989 release of *The Course of Study*, MEXT introduced a new approach to help improve English communication skills to students. This method was called communicative language teaching (CLT). CLT is defined as an approach to the teaching of a second language, which aims to develop communicative competence (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992). With CLT as the new preferred method of teaching English to elementary, junior, and high school students, MEXT’s main goal of foreign language education was to “develop practical communication abilities” (Yoshida, 2003; Nishio, 2008; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009). However, in the early years of the JET Program, many JTEs used their ALTs to be human tape recorders or “the experience of being in the classroom only to read out loud conversations and example sentences from the textbook” (Ruston-Griffiths, 2012). In many ways, JTEs were sticking to the traditional *yakudoku* method despite what was outlined in the 1989 *Course of Study*. 
Gradually, JTEs were more aware of utilizing and maximizing the use of the ALT in the classroom. They understood that by using ALTs in the classroom, it would be a key component to achieving the goal of practical communicative abilities in Japanese students. ALTs were able to bring a different teaching perspective that was foreign to JTEs. Some of the activities included: role-playing exercises, game activities, and international media clips including music videos, television shows, and movies (A. Tajino & Y. Tajino, 2000).

More specifically, these goals were: “fostering learner motivation as well as developing receptive and productive language abilities in the four skill areas (listening, speaking, reading, and writing)” (Sakui, 2004). The key words in the goals were “learner motivation,” especially since the Japanese government requires all students at elementary, junior, and high schools to take English. As Francis Shiobara (2013) writes, “because of the compulsory nature of [English courses], students tend to have low motivation to study English” (4). This is the case for Aoya High School where I am in my second year as the ALT at the school. Unknowingly by the school and administrators, in order to change the nature of this low motivation to study English for Japanese students, Aoya High School implemented Zoltán Dörnyei’s Second Language (L2) Motivational Self System.

The model consists of three approaches: (1) Ideal L2 Self, (2) Ought-to L2 Self, and (3) L2 Learning Experience. First, the Ideal L2 Self is described as individuals who are highly motivated to learn a new language; these students want to take more challenging classes because they want to get better at English. Second, the Ought-to L2 Self are individuals who feel pressured to succeed; these students feel as if they are obligated and responsible for doing well on assignments and tests. Finally, L2 Learning Experience individuals rely on previous knowledge and acquisition for learning (Ryan, 2008; Suzuki, 2011).

Aoya High School utilized Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System by offering nine different types of English classes: English Expression, English Communication, English Conversation, Basic English, Practical English, English Listening, English Understanding, Intercultural Communicative Understanding (ICU), and Current Events. Some of these courses are compulsory to abide by Japanese law, but entering the second year of high school, students are able to choose what type of English classes they want to take, including English elective courses.

This research looks to address the issue of English language learning at Aoya High School by examining the nine different types of English classes. It will specifically focus on the motivational levels of students particularly addressing Dörnyei’s L2 Motivational Self System. This research will look to answer the following research questions:

1. How has the plethora of English courses offered at Aoya High School helped, if at all, L2 Japanese learners when it comes to learning English?

2. What are the students’ attitude towards learning English because of the variety of English courses offered?
Methodology

Ethnography

The first method I used for collecting data was ethnography. According to Paul Atkinson and Martyn Hammersley (1994), ethnography puts “a strong emphasis on exploring the nature of particular social phenomena, rather than setting out to test a hypothesis about them and has a tendency to work primarily with ‘unstructured’ data” (p. 248). In my case, I was exploring how students’ motivational levels change with how English was being taught to them along with the variety of methods and materials presented to them.

Focus Group

The second method I used was using focus groups. According to Sue Wilkinson (2004), “a focus group is an informal discussion among a group of selected individuals about a particular topic” (p. 3). For the purposes of my research, the focus groups were used with two third-year classes. I asked them what they thought about their English elective courses and how it compared to the compulsory courses.

Data analysis

I used a grounded theory approach for both research methods. Glaser and Strauss created grounded theory in 1967 where the researcher is at the forefront of using grounded theory. According to Steve Chin (2013):

The grounded theory approach develops practical theory by means of note taking, coding (identifying key points from notes), “memoing” (developing theory from coding), and the sorting of data collected via observations, interviews, and the reading of literature related to the research situation. (Chin, 2013).

The overall objective for using grounded theory in this study was to see the affect the variety of English courses had on multiple students. Through the grounded theory process, I was able to collect enough data to help answer my research questions.

Limitations

There were several limitations, which may have hindered the results or the analysis of the data. In terms of ethnography, I was not allowed to focus on every student in every class. Therefore, I focused on students where I noticed a significant progress in their English abilities, especially if they took English elective courses. Time was also a limitation because some of my third year students ended up graduating before I could fully see their maturation with the English language. Therefore, I focused research on the first and second year students (currently second and third year students) because I knew I could observed them the following year.
In terms of the focus group, one limitation was having the JTE translate what I was saying to the students and vice versa. Some of the words and phrases were probably lost in translation. Also, since there were at least five people per class per focus group, some of the students could have been too shy to voice their opinions in front of many people. Perhaps, an interview with the JTE as the translator would have been a better method for data collection in that case.

Results

As stated earlier, I am in my second year working as an ALT as part of the JET Program at Aoya High School. It located in the eastern region of Tottori prefecture. I am one of ten ALTs working at a high school on the JET Program on the eastern side of the prefecture. Speaking to the other nine ALTs working in my region, they were shocked when I mentioned the variety of English classes being taught at my school. When speaking to one of my JTE’s, he said, “Aoya High School is [known to be] a lower academic school. [In order] to attract students, the school [created] many different course options [not offered] at other higher academic schools,” Sakamoto Sensei. In this section, I will describe and examine the different English classes offered at Aoya High School. I will provide extensive ethnographic analysis especially with the classes in which I have taught the students for more than one year in order to elaborate on their progress. I will also provide some of the student’s testimonials from the focus group sessions.

English Expression

English Expression is a compulsory class that every student at Aoya High School must take (first, second, and third year students). This course focuses on grammar and syntax. It is a class that is mainly taught only by JTEs. In the few lessons I was able to team teach with the JTE, I tried to make learning grammar more enjoyable for the students. Unfortunately, this course is taught using the yakudoku method and I have not been able to help out with any of these classes.

English Communication

This is another compulsory course that students in the first, second, and third year must take. It is the main class that I help out with for the first year students and it is designed to feature CLT between the JTE and the ALT. The main objective for this class, specifically with the first year students is to help them communicate in English specifically focusing on listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Each week, I am in charge with making my own curriculum based on topics in the text book or of cultural relevance with making activities focusing on listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

One activity that has worked really well was “show and tell.” The most recent show and tell activity featured students’ role models. This assignment was implemented over two class periods. During the first class period, I went over the assignment and the grading rubric.

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1 Name has been changed to protect the identity of the teacher. Going forward, all names will be pseudonyms to protect the identity of the students.
The students were judged on a five-point scale based on five categories: projection (volume), fluidity (speed), pronunciation (clarity), eye contact, and a picture or drawing of their role models. After I went over the grading rubric, I gave them an example show and tell using my role model, Jeremy Lin. When I finished presenting, I asked a few students of their assessment of my show and tell and why they gave me certain scores for each category. The purpose of this was to see if they understood the grading criteria. Next, the students were given a sheet of paper, which asked questions about their role models. A few of the questions were: who is your role model, what does he or she do, and how long has he or she been your role model? Then, the students were given time to write down their answers. After they finished their speeches, the students would find a partner and practice rehearsing their show and tell speeches. Their homework assignment was to practice their show and tell speech along with finding or drawing a picture of their role models.

In the next class, the students presented their show and tell speeches. The other students were asked to take notes of each students’ role model so they were not sleeping or busy talking with their friends. This was a very good activity because it encompassed the four critical areas of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. I was pleasantly surprised with two students in particular; a student in class one and a student in class two. In class two Ikeda-kun (kun is used to describe a boy) who usually sleeps in class and does not like to participate in any activities, filled out the entire worksheet. He talked about his role model, Ichiro Suzuki and how Suzuki is an inspiration for him on the baseball field. In class three, Yamane-san (san is used to describe a girl) who is very good at English completed the worksheet without any problem. However, she is usually very shy and quiet. However, when it was her turn to present, she gave arguably the best speech of the entire first year students. She was very confident talking about her role model, Taylor Swift. I had no idea Yamane-san had a really strong voice until she gave her speech; I could hear her from the back of the room. She was also one of a few students that actually made eye contact with the audience. I highlighted these two students because since we had the show and tell lesson, they have both excelled in with subsequent lessons (volunteering to speak and encouraging other students to participate) and showed an improvement with their test scores.

**English Conversation**

During the 2014-2015 school year, I was able to teach English Conversation as an elective course to the first year students. This course mainly focused on getting the students to communicate with one another in more of a pair work setting. There were a wide range of topics ranging from arranging schedules, telling and receiving directions on a map, traveling abroad, ordering at a restaurant, and going shopping. I noticed that the students who were in the English Conversation course were genuinely motivated to learn and speak English. These were also the students whom were very active in the English Communication class.

In the 2015-2016 school year, I am teaching this course again to the first year students, but also to the third year students. It is quite challenging getting the third year students to be motivated for this English elective course since it meets for two class periods, back-to-back. At the beginning of the year, I had the students write down what they hoped to learn in the course along with activities they wanted to do.
All but two of the eleven registered students wanted to do a cooking activity. I told them if I saw effort from them during the textbook and extra worksheet lessons that I prepared, then we could have a cooking class. Many of the students showed a lot of effort with the exception of three girls (Takimura-san, Ibuki-san, and Oka-san).

After a month into the school year, since the other students showed a lot of enthusiasm, I introduced the cooking lesson. During one class, I had the students find recipes of food they wanted to cook for the class. I stated the only way we could do this cooking assignment is if they wrote the ingredients and instructions in English along with teaching me how to make the food using easy English. All the students agreed. In the second half of the class, the students voted on making cupcakes, shrimp and *kimchi yaki* (stir-fried balls), and dessert *yaki* using pancake batter.

The following week, we had the cooking class. My JTE bought all the ingredients and we asked who would be the leaders of the three cooking stations. To my surprise, Takimura-san, Ibuki-san, and Oka-san were the three students whom stepped up to take on a leadership role for each of the three groups. Takimura-san was in charge of the dessert *yaki*, Ibuki-san was the leader for the shrimp and *kimchi yaki* group, and Oka-san was the person in charge of making cupcakes. While rotating between the three groups, Takimura-san, Ibuki-san, and Oka-san made sure to approach me and give me specific instruction on how to create their specific food item. I was surprised with how enthusiastic these three girls were at cooking and communicating how to cook their respective dishes to me using English. Although, the students digressed following the cooking assignment, it gave me hope to see that these girls were actually paying attention in our English Conversation classes; they just needed to be motivated by doing something they loved for them to start using English.

Following the cooking lesson, I had a focus group with the third year students and asked why they took this class. Here are a few responses from the students: Ibuki-san stated, “I [took] this class because [I thought] it [would be] fun.” Yamawaku-kun explain, “I wanted something different.” Finally, Takimura-san replied, “I need to practice English [for my job].” Following this question, I asked the students to raise their hands if they enjoyed this class over the traditional English grammar class. All eleven students raised their hands. Finally, I asked the students what they thought of English after taking this class. Kawamoto-san said, “I [didn’t] like English before, but now I like [it].”

**Basic English and Practical English**

Basic English is a course that is offered to second year students. It focuses on reading, writing, and daily conversation. It is mainly taken by second year students whom do not have a good grasp of the English language. This is essentially a review course from the first year. Practical English is a lower level course for third year students. It is a course that focuses on teaching practical English phrases and sentences. It is similar to the Basic English course taught to second year students. Unfortunately, I have not had the opportunity to help out with either of these classes.
English Listening

The English Listening class was designed as an elective course. During the 2014-2015 school year, I taught this course to third year students. Currently, in the 2015-2016 school year, I am teaching this course to second year students. The course meets only once a week for two straight periods. Because of the elongated nature of this class, I have broken up the course into two sections. One period is doing textbook work and the other period focuses on “fun” activities.

Working with the third year students was more of a challenge because many of them took the course because they thought it was an “easy” class without any tests. The first time teaching this class was very rough. We tried to do multiple repeating and listening exercises as a warm-up to the class followed by textbook work for the rest of the period. Many of the third year students tended to doze off or talk with their friends during the class. After the first week, I approached my JTE and decided to change the nature of the class. To entice the students to learn, my JTE and I would prepare listening games for the second half of the class. These games were only to be played if the students worked hard and paid attention in the beginning of the class.

During the third class (second time seeing them), I saw an immediate response from Takimori-kun and Mameda-kun. These were two of the boys that talked to each other in the first class (in Japanese). However, at the beginning of class, when I said we would be playing a game towards the latter half of the class if we could get through all the textbook work, the students’ attitudes changed immensely. We got through the third class without any interruptions. After a ten minute break, we had the fourth class.

I decided to introduce Battleship to the students. This was a great game to start with the students: they were able to practice vocabulary using numbers and letters, listen to the coordinates that were given, and work with their teammates to figure out where the ships were located. Since the one textbook, one “fun” class worked, we continued this method in subsequent lessons. Some other games we played were: various card games, scrabble, matching, and pyramid.

During the 2015-2016 school year, the listening class was offered to the second year students. I had the opportunity to teach all six of these students in their first year, so I knew their English abilities and tendencies. Since the course was offered the same way (two back-to-back classes), I decided to keep the same method of the course; the first class would be textbook work and the second class would be the more “fun” class. At the beginning of the course, the students stated they wanted to watch movies during their “fun” classes. I thought this was a great idea, especially for a listening class.

The first month of class, we watched Alice in Wonderland. We watched the movie in English with Japanese subtitles. The students had to take notes because they would have to reenact their favorite scenes. I was pleasantly surprised with the ability of three girls: Tsujimoto-san, Hosoda-san, and Yamamoto-san because these were three of the quieter girls I had during their first year. The only time they would speak, was when they were talking to their friends in Japanese. However, this changed in their second year. They were a lot more outgoing and were eager to participate in acting
out their favorite Alice in Wonderland scenes. Tsujimoto-san’s favorite scene was when Alice first went down the rabbit’s whole and had food/drinks which made her larger or smaller. Hosoda-san’s favorite scene was when the queen was yelling, “off with her head,” to her guards. Finally, Yamamoto-san’s favorite scene was the Mad Hatter’s tea party scene. Each girl had a lot of emotion and fun acting out their favorite Alice in Wonderland scenes, while using key English phrases they jotted down from the movie.

**English Understanding**

English Understanding is a lower level elective course for third year students. It focuses on very basic English points and includes lots of games, videos, practical scenes, easy English newspaper and manga excerpts along with relevant listing activities.

I frequently help out as a guest teacher for this class as it is not a course I am originally assigned to. The first class I helped out in was a very dry class, which focused on grammar. From working with previous third year classes, I knew their motivation was quite low since many of them already found out what they would be doing after high school and very few of them needed to use English. With this in mind, I suggested we turn the English grammar point in to a competition by seeing which team could complete the worksheet the quickest. This really helped motivate many of the male students in particular.

Other classes which were very successful involved the use of an activity that made the students move around or incorporated more interesting approaches to teaching such as giving them an intriguing scene from Doraemon (a manga) while having both the English and Japanese written on this comic strip. After going over both texts, students would break up into groups and act out the scenes. Rakuyama-kun was particularly active when implementing the manga lesson. I have caught him multiple times using his cell phone in class while the JTE was explaining a grammar point. However, by forcing him to actively participate in the manga scene, he put his phone away and had a good time acting out the scene in English with his classmates.

**Intercultural Communicative Understanding (ICU)**

The Intercultural Communicative Understanding class is a course that offers deep world cultural understanding. This course is designed for students to choose a country and make their own curriculum. In the 2014-2015 school year, I was first introduced to this class from my JTE. The JTE would choose a topic and the students would choose a country from the world and talk about this topic. Some topic examples were: food, music, and festivals. In the 2015-2016 school year, I wanted to take this class a step further.

Instead of choosing specific topics, I wanted the students to choose a specific country and do a detailed report of their country. The countries chosen were: Korea, the United States of America (by three people), and Australia. The first project, the students needed to physically demonstrate or show something associated with their country. Since this class meets twice a week, I gave the students two months to choose a country, do research on the country, and prepare a detailed lesson.
The main criteria was to think of something innovative and interactive. Kawamoto-san chose Korea and decided to teach us how to make bulgogi. Yamawaku-ku infused Japanese and American culture by teaching us how to make California rolls. Kitajima-san made cupcakes to show us one of the many American desserts. Sakai-san brought in clothing and showed us pictures of clothing dressed and made in the United States. Finally, Tamura-san talked about how Australia celebrates Easter and showed us an Easter tradition by having us paint Easter eggs.

I also did a focus group with this class. I asked them similar questions to the third year English conversation students and got the same responses of how they really liked English elective classes because it was more enjoyable. In addition, I asked them what they thought about making their own curriculum. Kawamoto-san said she liked the freedom to teach her classmates. Yamawaku-kun noted that he liked the opportunity to engage his classmates and by being in charge. Tamura-san explained that she liked being taught by someone other than a teacher. Overall, I got great responses on empowering students to teach and learn English through their own curriculum.

**Current Events**

Current Events is an elective course only offered to third year students. I only got to teach this class once as a special lesson since it regularly conflicts with the ICU course. In the one class I taught, I decided to use the website: [www.newsinlevels.com](http://www.newsinlevels.com). This is a site that tells current events using three different levels of English. The third level is the most difficult as it is the actual news story. The first and second levels are broken down using simpler English vocabulary.

I wanted to choose an interesting story that would appeal to the students, so I ended up choosing, “Pandas in Washington.” It was a story about twin pandas born at the Smithsonian National Zoo in Washington. First, I showed the third level video because there were actual pictures with text. This would help the students grasp what the story was about. Then, I proceeded to go over the first and second level videos. It was during these videos where I asked the students questions and we discussed the more difficult vocabulary. I really like this site because it offers definitions of the difficult words in all the videos.

This class is particularly useful because it engages students with interesting stories happening throughout the world. It is also a good class to use practical English will learning something outside of a textbook.
Overview

Overall, there are many layers to this research. However, there were a couple of major themes that emerged from observing, teaching, and talking with students from the variety of English courses.

It appears that the overwhelming majority of students preferred the English classes where they could be active or have some input in what was being taught. Many of the students really enjoyed the English classes, especially the elective courses (144 out of 176 students over two years). Personally, I am very happy with the growth of many of the students when it comes to English acquisition. I found that many of the students that take English elective courses thrive in my classes probably because they have a high motivation for learning English. However, even with students who do not take English elective courses, I found they tend to speak more English if I can make English appealing to their interests and talk to them on a more personal level.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the motivation for learning English from L2 Japanese high school students by looking at the variety of English courses offered at Aoya High School. I believe using CLT is a better method than the yakudoku method. Many students’ whom have slept in class or were quiet during class opened up during a team-teaching lesson. Additionally, when students chose an English elective course, many of them developed a strong sense of English by creating their own curriculum/projects to teach to the rest of the class.
References


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From Theory to Reality: Enhancing Creativity and Achievements of Hong Kong Students through Online Design Platform and Consideration of Culture

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Abstract

Visual merchandising involves the manipulation of design elements and themes in retail outlets, thus creating a pleasant store atmosphere and shopping experience for customers. It is therefore important to teach students on ways to best determine the strategies that are appropriate for different types of stores, and provide training in both aesthetics and business operations. However, Hong Kong Chinese students have adapted a passive learning approach; they are result-oriented and insensitive to art, and therefore expect that their instructors will provide guidelines, definite answers and examples during the learning process as the means to achieving good grades. This is a cultural phenomenon found in many Asian countries. Therefore, stimulating their creativity becomes a difficult task as absolute answers cannot be given in terms of aesthetics and creativity. Instead of doing so, an approach is used which integrates a customizable design platform in an online store layout for store display assignments, and takes into consideration field research on local customs and aesthetics. A total of 100 Visual Merchandising students at a Hong Kong university have participated in a related study that utilized this approach. Focus group discussions and content analysis are used to collect and analyze the data respectively. It is found that the work of the student participants do not have a high degree of aesthetic congruence with those of previous students which were provided as guidelines, and they have adopted an open and creative attitude in developing store displays, thus indicating the success of this approach in stimulating student creativity. To further demonstrate their abilities, a publicly accessible exhibition was organized to showcase their creativity.
Background of the study

Teaching creative subjects is often a challenge. Instructors not only have to deliver the concepts of aesthetics, understand the learning patterns of their students and their internal processing patterns that shape the interpretation of aesthetics (Veryzer, 1993), but also design appropriate methods that guide students to creatively solve problems. This dilemma is common for instructors of design-related subjects. However, the situation becomes more complicated if the subject is both design and business related, as the students have to understand both the fundamental principles of aesthetic elements and the corresponding sensory qualities and applications in various business circumstances. Fashion Visual Merchandising is a subject that incorporates both design and business elements. Students learn to design store displays that are creative yet also project the appropriate identity of different fashion brands and consider the aesthetic preferences of the target consumers. Apart from being creative, they have to consider the sensory, cognitive and emotional qualities derived from the display elements. Thus, there is a dilemma between creating creative displays and fulfilling the expectations of the target audience during the process of idea development. Also, the background and characteristics of the students are important criteria that influence their degree of idea generation.

For instance, Hong Kong is a society influenced by both Eastern and Western values, which have a unique impact on the generation and execution of creative ideas. There is a strong correlation between aesthetic preferences and social values and perceptions (Yang and Wang, 1999) so that creators have to consider social acceptance while creating a new idea (Markus and Kitayama, 1991) to order to comply with the abstract aesthetic needs of their audience (Li, 1994). Although there are various techniques to enhance creativity (Butler and Thomas, 1999; De Bono, 1985; Osborn, 1969), the most important factors are to change and stimulate habitual thinking patterns (Boden, 1993) and locate the attributes that shape creative development. As the Chinese take social expectations into consideration during their creative processing (Rudowicz and Yue, 2002), an alternative way is required to enhance their creativity in which both social expectations and creative aspects can be addressed. In Hong Kong, the learning pattern of students is passive. They are trained to follow precise instructions in school and their need for aesthetic congruence in exploring new ideas is strong (Law et al. 2013) so that they rely on perceived patterns to evaluate design ideas during the creative process (Law, 2010). Also, since aesthetic background and social acceptance are crucial in influencing the acceptance of new ideas (Law and Yip, 2007; Law and Yip, 2008; Law, Yip and Wong, 2009) along with the influence of cultural values, an alternative method is required to stimulate Hong Kong Chinese students to be creative. Thus, this study proposes another means that would help students in becoming more creative.

Research subjects and methodology

The research subjects were one hundred undergraduate students who were enrolled in Fashion Visual Merchandising at a Hong Kong university. They were divided into ten groups and each group consisted of ten students. They were asked to complete a customizable assignment and develop a window display that would demonstrate their creativity by making use of a virtual visual merchandising platform and online display library, and finally, showcase their work in a public exhibition. The requirement of
the assignment included development of a theme from elements that they considered remarkable to Hong Kong, and transform their ideas into a window display for a fashion store. None of the students had a design background. They were to record their creative process into a learning journal and submit the journal as part of the assignment requirements. The learning journal was a record of their feelings and included their comments from the theme development to finalization of idea stages from an individual perspective. To obtain an in-depth understanding of their creative process, ten focus group discussions were arranged. The students commented and shared their opinions on: 1) the usage of the virtual learning tools in executing creative ideas, and 2) the creative and learning process from idea generation to showcasing their work in an exhibition. The interviews lasted for one hour and thirty minutes; their comments were tape-recorded and transcribed into English by a professional transcriber. Content analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data and four themes were found.

Results and discussion
The content analysis revealed four themes from the results, including 1) enhancing of confidence in being creative; 2) reduction in psychological uncertainties; 3) increase in positive emotions; and 4) improving incentive to learn.

Enhancing of confidence in being creative
The students anticipated that there would be specific criteria included in the assignment brief and the need to properly address each one. During the creative process, they expected that they would have to comply with all of the requirements for a high grade. Based on the assignment requirements, they were to develop a creative fashion window display inspired by the city of Hong Kong that would draw attention to the retail identity of the company as well as match the identity at the same time. It was found that they have problems in generating new ideas since they do not feel confident in deciding which idea would be ‘correct’. This is due to the fact that they have been trained to follow rules and instructions in the learning of new knowledge, which means that they continue to rely on a ‘copy-and-paste’ method even when carrying out tasks in creative subjects. This notion is supported by the following quote.

“It is difficult for us to start from the beginning in the generation of new ideas. We are used to having a set of clear instructions given by our teachers and our task is to fulfill them one by one. It is different in designing a window display. We have to consider the aesthetics and design elements which are abstract and we do not know which one is correct, which makes it difficult for us to carry out the task.” (Stella, 20)

The feeling of insecurity in generating ideas was addressed when they applied the virtual visual merchandising platform and used the online visual merchandising library during the idea generation process. The online visual merchandising library included the display works of their senior classmates and the corresponding comments, so that the students could access the database at any time to obtain preliminary ideas of the design concepts, thus serving as a means and guideline for evaluating their ideas. After that, they started to use the virtual visual merchandising platform to work on the window display development. Since the platform allows the preliminary works to be stored online, the students could modify and change their
ideas at any time, which support their creative processing in a stepwise manner. The following quote supports this notion.

“The examples provided on the virtual visual merchandising platform gave me clear guidelines on how to turn abstract ideas into display works. This is important for non-design students like us. The online library gave us a good start on the initial idea generation.”

Reduction of psychological uncertainties

Aside from seeking detailed guidelines for idea generation, it was found that the cognition of art is weak among these students. They perceived that art is inferior in comparison to other subjects. This is because they have been taught that good grades in academic subjects are more important than non-academic subjects, such as art and design. They recalled that they seldom visited museums or did not receive training or undertake activities related to art appreciation. As their degree of exposure to art is low, their cognition level towards art is weak which causes the weak development of aesthetic algorithms. During the creative process, the students expect to use ideas that are highly congruent with their aesthetic algorithm. The following quote illustrates this notion.

“I remember when I was a kid, my parents never took me to art-related activities. I spent a lot of time in private schools because that’s what my parents planned for me. Even when I showed interest in drawing and painting, my mum told me these can’t help me earn a living. The most important thing is to get good grades and into business school.” (Gary, 20)

“We were told to create window displays for casual wear fashion retailers with iconic Hong Kong elements but we need examples that show us what should be included in a casual wear fashion display, because we’re worried that we would be heading in the wrong direction. As we aren’t design students, it would be easier if we could begin the creative process with some examples, so that we can follow their ideas.” (Anson, 19)

To solve this problem, the window display examples on the online library provided visual references of acceptable ideas. This is very important for students who have not developed their aesthetic algorithms. The examples therefore serve as a guideline and framework to generate the initial idea(s) and also reduce their psychological uncertainties in the initial stages of idea generation.

Increase in positive emotions

The examples in the online visual merchandising library and a customized assignment topic, “A journey with Hong Kong visual merchandising” assisted the students in developing their initial idea(s) and there was an increase in positive emotions. Both the examples and customized topic provided familiarity to the students because the former not only reduced their psychological uncertainties, but also provided a high degree of congruence between inspiration and local elements for generating acceptable ideas. That is, the assignment topic made it easy for students to seek inspiration since they were to be inspired by local elements. The combination of both
the examples and a familiar topic provided clarity in direction to the students; it enhanced their confidence and generated positive responses during the process which motivated them to exploring the ideas further. Since Hong Kong students learn in a passive manner, positive emotions are important to them in continuing to develop ideas, and this serves as an alternative means for seeking the ‘right’ direction in their creative process. The following quote supports this finding.

“It is important to make reference to the works of our senior classmates. They are examples of what is correct in the concept development stage. This is crucial for us as it may affect our final performance and grade. We can also easily relate the topic to our final work by referring to traditional Hong Kong elements because we are living here and we are familiar with the local culture. This gives us comfort during the development of ideas (Dorothy, 21)”

Improving incentive to learn

When the students obtained their reference sources from the online display examples and started to develop and evaluate their new ideas by integrating Hong Kong and fashion elements, they did not have to change their learning style which made them feel at ease. They were also informed that their work would be showcased in “A journey of Hong Kong Visual Merchandising” exhibition, which further increased their incentive to explore new ideas by mixing the local culture into contemporary displays. This is because the students perceived that the works represent themselves and they do not want to lose face because their work lacked quality. It is critical among the Chinese community to lose not face in public, and thus, they started to look for different ideas and modify them to make their displays more creative and present their best in the exhibition. The quotes below support this notion.

“We have been told that our works will be showcased to the public and it is an honor to be chosen; we don’t want to show poor quality work as our other classmates will display their work as well, we don’t want others to think that our work is bad because that we will feel embarrassed and inferior in public.” (Edwina, 19)

A familiar topic, an online design platform and a public exhibition all provided the means to elicit the creativity of the students. This is especially important for non-design students. As they are not trained in design and lack background in aesthetics, they require a clear and organized means of learning to manage abstract ideas that are also creative. A familiar topic helps them to become inspired in seeking ideas, such as the use of local Hong Kong elements in this study. Also, the examples and comments provided by their senior classmates from the online learning platform consolidate their selection process of ideas as they can obtain examples of acceptable ideas and use them as guidelines to evaluate their own ideas. This is in line with their learning patterns in which they need instructions throughout the learning process to continue with idea development. Also, the examples reduce their level of uncertainty during the creative process. After the development of their idea(s), the exhibition then provides a channel to realize their idea(s), so they can visualize their ideas, which in itself is a form of motivation and achievement as the exhibition is open to the public. Then, the creative learning process is complete, from idea development to concept execution.
Conclusion
Understanding of the learning patterns and cultural values of students is crucial in enhancing their creativity. The study on Hong Kong Chinese university students in successfully carrying out a project in Fashion Visual Merchandising shows that creativity can be enhanced by using customized teaching tools that take into consideration their learning patterns, such as by using an online visual merchandising platform and library to address the need to use standards and step-by-step instructions during the idea generation process. Also, the customized teaching tools enhance the confidence of the students in exploring new possibilities during the idea generation stage and reduces the psychological uncertainties of making the wrong decisions. The transfer of creative ideas to physical displays and showcased in a public exhibition positively enhance motivation and incentive to learn, as the exhibition theme “A journey of Hong Kong visual merchandising” provides a guideline in their search for inspiration. The ideas inspired by the local environment and culture serve as references to assess the degree of social acceptance. When students find ideas and elements that are considered to be acceptable, they are encouraged to continue to develop the ideas. Also, the exhibition further enhances the incentive to learn because when the students are informed that their work will be showcased to the public, as a result, they put forth more effort to address the problems that they encounter in the development process of their physical display and aim to show their best to the viewing audience.
References


Abstract
In 2013, according to National Public Radio, two-thirds of Americans had not heard of the Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI). A year later, 80% knew about it, and 60% were opposed. The confluence between Big Business and Big Government support for CCSSI has fed growing opposition from parents and teachers across the political spectrum. While much debate concerns the standards’ contents, this paper focuses on the mendacity used to justify CCSSI and the cronies pushing it.

Supporters claim CCSSI is state-led, internationally benchmarked, and based on the latest research, but it is not. In July 2009, $4.35 billion in federal funding was made available to recession-shocked states through the Race to the Top program. States had to adopt CCSSI and join one of two approved testing consortia to participate. Before standards had even been written, 46 states and Washington, D.C. agreed to join. As of May 2014, only 26 states and D.C. remained in the program. Advocates say CCSSI is state-led and voluntary; critics say federal funding is bribery and intimidation.

Additionally, opponents worry about centralization and the collection of real-time data on students and teachers. Mandatory curriculum, textbooks, lesson plans, and Core-aligned tests remove teachers from heretofore-key elements of education. To many, the use of cameras and biofeedback devices on students to obtain fine-grained data is Orwellian. Critics fear such monitoring of classrooms will transform education from an art into an exercise in industrial-style Taylorism. We can do better.

Key words: Common Core, education reform, national testing, public education
The species of oppression by which democratic nations are menaced is unlike anything that ever before existed...Above...stands an immense and tutelary power...That power...would be like the authority of a parent if...its object was to prepare men for manhood; but it seeks, on the contrary, to keep them in perpetual childhood...

In the states which are ideologically self-conscious...the process of education is combined with agitation and regulation, so that the entire population lives under conditions approximating the psychological side of war...Education and propaganda merge into everlasting indoctrination...Education is to psychological warfare what a glacier is to an avalanche. The mind is to be in both cases captured, but the speed and techniques differ. — Linebarger, 1948/1954, p. 32

No one familiar with government boondoggles is surprised to find misrepresentation, misdirection, and mendacity circling the public trough. Indeed, they are hallmarks of special interest projects that grant substantial benefits to a chosen few by imposing small costs on the many. We are inured to waste, fraud, and abuse in government programs ranging from defense contractors to daycare centers, from farm subsidies to Big Pharma. Usually, we remain willfully ignorant of the details of these sausage factories—we know something stinks but we disregard it because the stench does not follow us home. The Common Core State Standards Initiative (CCSSI) is different because it directly affects our children. They spend every day with parents and teachers, so we cannot ignore the Core’s negative effects as we might overlook other malfeasance. Parents do not want their children merely schooled, they want them educated and prepared for productive lives. Similarly, teachers do not strive to be assembly-line drones obeying crony consultants and bureaucrats who issue classroom edicts from afar; they want to use the reflective practice of teaching to help their students achieve their best. It is no shock, therefore, that parents and teachers rebel when faced with daily evidence that their children’s needs are being sacrificed to an unaccountable Leviathan that empowers itself while reducing students to cogs in a machine. This paper traces the CCSSI’s history, its Big Business/Big Government roots, the roles played by key organizations and people, and the ways in which data are misused to justify the enterprise. It behooves parents, teachers, and citizens of all political stripes to band together to protect children from this misbegotten mess masquerading as school reform.

Before delving into the Core’s background, the author gratefully acknowledges and highly recommends two books and one organization that readers will find invaluable. An inspection copy of the first book, Common ground on Common Core: Voices from across the political spectrum expose the realities of the Common Core State Standards, was sent to the author in May 2015, by its editor, Kirsten Lombard. It is an anthology of superb essays by education experts covering every facet of the CCSSI. The book is unavailable in Japan and this paper benefitted greatly from her generous help. The second book, The educator and the oligarch: A teacher challenges The Gates Foundation, is by Anthony Cody, a National Board-certified science teacher
and self-described social activist from Oakland, California. He is the author of Education Week’s “Living in Dialogue” blog, which featured his public debate with the Gates Foundation starting in 2012, much of it reprinted in his book. Finally, the Pioneer Institute is a privately funded Boston-based think tank devoted to non-partisan analysis of quality of life issues in Massachusetts. Since 2009, it has led the fight against Common Core’s effort to seize control of K-12 education, publishing a scholarly series of white papers, many of which are cited below.

History
The CCSSI officially began in 2009, but its pedigree is much longer. Fundamental transformation of American society via centralized control of education has been a dream since 1893 when progressives rejected the report of the Committee of Ten that recommended all students receive a high-quality liberal education. The committee assumed that: “1) rigorous study disciplines the mind; 2) this benefits all students; and 3) studying the cultural, scientific, and religious heritage of the nation adds value to the society and uplifts the community as a whole” (Sower, 2010, p. 9). Progressives preferred instead a differentiated curriculum whereby elite students would be prepared as the vanguard of the people while everyone else received vocational training. From 1910-1950, academic courses were cut 60% as “life-adjustment” classes increased “ten-fold” (Stevenson & Stigler, 1992, p. 108). Education fads like whole language instruction and invented spelling faded in and out of fashion. In 1989 and 2000, the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) introduced “reform math” principles that failed disastrously “after lowering outcomes in every state that attempted” to implement them (Phelps & Milgram, 2014, p. 8). California adopted NCTM standards in 1992. “By 1996 the resulting problems had become so acute that a rebellion led by parents and the state’s high tech industries forced the state to create new standards” (Phelps & Milgram, 2014, p. 8). Also in 1996, the National Governors Association (NGA) “and a roster of business leaders founded Achieve, Inc…in order to raise academic standards” (Vander Hart, 2014, p. 4). In 2001, President George W. Bush and Senator Ted Kennedy oversaw passage of the No Child Left Behind Act. “It mandated high-stakes testing and greater teacher accountability, but resulted instead in states lowering standards…[and] cheating scandals involving teachers” (Sower, 2014, p. 5). CCSSI was supposed to cure all that.

In 2007, the Gates Foundation and the Eli Broad Foundation contributed $60 million to the 2008 political election cycle to promote “uniform American standards” (Vander Hart, 2014, p. 6). Also in 2007, two Chicago business partners, David Coleman and Jason Zimba, founded Student Achievement Partners (SAP) for the express purpose of developing national standards (Schneider, 2013). In 2008, the director of NGA’s Educational Policy Division, Arizona Governor Janet Napolitano, created a bipartisan taskforce of governors, educators, and CEOs to suggest changes in math and science education. The Ur-document for CCSSI was the taskforce report. After it was issued, the NGA, the Council of Chief State Schools Officers (CCSSO), and Achieve, Inc. “came together to make sure the goals of the report became reality” (Bidwell, 2014). These groups joined with SAP and for the next two years met behind closed doors writing what would later be foisted on the public as new Common Core standards for math (CCMS) and English language arts (ELA). Vander Hart (2014) writes that from 2008-2013, Achieve, SAP, NGA, and CCSSO “accepted more than $149.7 million from the Gates Foundation alone” (p. 6).
The Huffington Post reports that after developing the standards “with help from the Gates Foundation, they received a new, powerful... boost in 2009. That year, the Obama administration incentivized...standards with [4.35 billion] in its Race to the Top [RttT] competition, and recession-stunned states signed on to the Core” (Resmovits, 2013). To receive federal funds, states had to agree to adopt CCSSI and join one of two assessment consortia: the Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium (SBAC), or the Partnership for Assessment of Readiness for College and Careers (PARCC). By June 2009, 46 states and Washington, D.C., had agreed to join. Not only had they not seen the standards they agreed to, the group ostensibly charged with writing them had yet to be named. On July 1, the Standards Development Work Group (SDWG) was formed. While names were initially kept secret, it turned out its 29 members included no K-12 teachers, “14 reps [sic] from testing companies...10 reps from Common Core groups (Achieve Inc., Student Achievement Partners), 2 reps from a textbook company...2 educational consultants, and 1 professor” (McQueen, 2014, p. 50). Among its members were the owners of SAP: Coleman (a lead ELA author) and Zimba (a lead CCMS author). The public was unaware that these people had already spent two years together secretly planning the standards.

On July 21, 2009, Gates addressed the National Conference of State Legislatures giving the clearest description yet of CCSSI. Groups he funds intend to: 1) establish a national curriculum; 2) increase high-stakes national testing; and 3) establish control of students and teachers through a massive data collection scheme. According to the Gates Foundation website, he said:

We’ll know we’ve succeeded when the curriculum and the tests are aligned to these standards. Secretary [of Education] Arne Duncan recently announced that $350 million of the stimulus package will be used to create just these kinds of tests — next-generation assessments aligned to the common core. When the tests are aligned to the common standards, the curriculum will line up as well — and that will unleash powerful market forces in the service of better teaching. For the first time, there will be a large base of customers eager to buy products that can help every kid learn and every teacher get better...Common standards define what the students need to learn; robust data systems tell us whether they’re learning it — and they tell us a whole lot more than that...The stimulus package contains funding for longitudinal data systems; I hope you will use this funding to support systems that track student performance from early childhood education through high school and college and into the workplace...All states and districts should collect common data on teachers and students. We need to define the data in a standardized way, we need to collect all of it for all of our students...Of course, if you do build this system and get this data, you may have to deal with people who don’t want you to use it. (Gates, 2009)

In August 2009, a 29-member validation committee (VC) was named to assure the pedagogical integrity of the standards. The VC included Dr. James Milgram and Dr. Sandra Stotsky. Trouble started when they actually checked the standards rather than rubberstamping them. In a scathing piece (How did charlatans ever get to design national English language arts standards, and why would we listen to them?) Stotsky (2014a) details her efforts to correct the shoddy work of lead ELA writers David Coleman and Susan Pimentel, neither of whom had ever “taught reading or English in K-12 or at the college level” (p. 103). “One example of...dubious pedagogy is...Coleman’s advice to teachers to ask students to read historical documents
‘cold’…on the grounds that such a practice ‘levels the playing field’” (Stotsky, 2014a, p. 122). Milgram, the only Ph.D. mathematician on the VC, had similar problems with the reform math in CCMS. The first professional educators to see the standards were appalled. When final standards were released in August 2010, Milgram, Stotsky, and three other VC members refused to sign off. Their detailed critiques of the standards were ignored by Gates, SDWG, and NGA/CCSSO. These groups’ refusal to respond even to their own VC should give pause to all concerned. Milgram & Wurman (2014) write, “The VC’s report does not mention that five out of its twenty-nine members—two of them the only content-experts to sit on the VC—were not ready to sign off on the Common Core standards” (p. 76). Things have continued downhill as one state after another has withdrawn. By May 2014, just 26 states and Washington, D.C. remained in the testing consortia (Gewertz & Ujifusa, 2014). We turn next to six people intimately involved in the process.

The good, the bad, and the ugly

Dr. Sandra Stotsky, professor of education emerita at Arkansas University (Lombard, 2014, p. xxi), was the sole ELA subject-matter expert appointed to the VC. As Senior Associate Commissioner at the Massachusetts DOE (1999-2003), she developed the literature-heavy curriculum that is credited with Massachusetts’ first-place ranking in national reading scores. Massachusetts outperformed all European and many Asian countries in the 2012 PISA reading tests (Sailer, 2013). In August 2010, Stotsky joined four other members of the VC in refusing to sign off on the Common Core standards. As a member of the Massachusetts Board of Elementary and Secondary Education (2006-2010) she grilled Jason Zimba on the CCMS (see below). Since severing ties with CCSSI she has been a vocal critic of the ELA standards writing that, “Common Core’s architects have inaccurately and without warrant applied…percentages for passage types on its reading tests to the English and reading curriculum, misleading teachers, administrators, and test developers, alike” (Bauerlein & Stotsky, 2012, p. 1). Furthermore, “Common Core makes repeated claims that its standards (presumably including the 50/50 division of literary and informational reading) are research-based. But we can find no research cited in its own document to support its organizational framework for reading” (Bauerlein & Stotsky, 2012, p. 25).

Dr. James Milgram, professor of mathematics emeritus at Stanford University, served on NASA’s Advisory Board and was the only mathematician on the VC (Lombard, 2014, pp. xviii-xix). An outspoken CCMS critic, he testified before the Texas legislature that, “by the end of fifth grade the material being covered…is more than a year behind most high achieving countries…By the end of seventh grade Core Standards are roughly two years behind” (Prof., 2011). Furthermore, Zimba “had never written K-12 standards before or studied the standards of high-achieving countries” (Phelps & Milgram, 2014, p. 11). In August 2010, he, Stotsky, and three others refused to approve the standards. Milgram & Stotsky (2013) state that they refused to sign off on the standards because, despite repeated assurances to the contrary, the standards are neither rigorous nor do what they purport to do (p. 4).

Bill Gates, Microsoft founder and the richest man in America, has been the driving force behind Common Core. In addition to the $147.9 million he gave NGA, CCSSO, SAP, and Achieve, Inc. from 2008-2013 (Vander Hart, 2014, p. 6), he funds a host of other government agencies and NGOs that advocate for Common Core. Many of these entities are engaged in research “in a post hoc attempt to validate Common
Core’s standards” (Stotsky, 2014b, p. 66). Others, like inBloom, a now defunct database company, “sprang from the earth and blossomed into multimillion dollar non-profits with Gates funding” (Cody, 2014, p. 8). Self-described progressive and humanistic educator Jack Hassard (2014) analyzed the public records of the Gates Foundation and concluded that Gates has spent at least $2.3 billion promoting CCSSI. Schneider (2013), Cody (2014), and McQueen (2014) corroborate his findings. Gates recently appealed to educators to help sell parents on Common Core, explaining to teachers in the audience that standardizing education is like standardizing electrical outlets (Layton, 2014). To Gates it probably is, and therein lies the problem.

Arne Duncan, the soon-to-retire U.S. Secretary of Education, oversaw the RttT program that funded states in return for their agreement to accept CCSSI sight unseen. He repeatedly broke promises to involve teachers in writing usable standards (Cody, 2014, p. 51), and has disparaged Common Core critics as racists (Strauss, 2013). Before moving to Washington he was the CEO of Chicago Public Schools (CPS). In that capacity he contracted with Coleman and Zimba’s Grow Network (see below). Rich and powerful as Gates may be, CCSSI could not have been implemented without the help of the U.S. DOE. Despite claims by supporters that CCSSI was voluntary and state-led, Joanne Weiss, who served as Duncan’s chief of staff and led the RttT program from the start, recently revealed that the U.S. DOE “forced alignment among…education leaders in each participating state” (Berry, 2015).

David Coleman, a well-connected businessman with no teaching experience, was a lead architect of the ELA standards on the SDWG. Prior to writing standards for subjects he has never taught, he and Jason Zimba founded the Grow Network, which profited from cozy deals with Arne Duncan’s CPS. In 2004, they sold their business to McGraw Hill, which continues the lucrative contracts. It sells copyrighted materials including “lesson plans, and curriculum resources…identical to those now being used with Common Core” (Clark, 2013). In 2007, Coleman and Zimba founded SAP, a Gates-funded enterprise that “has no work other than CCSS” (Schneider, 2013). He has since become president of College Board where, in accordance with Bill Gates’ plans, he oversees revision of the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) bringing it into line with the Core. These changes in the SAT are crucial since methods embedded in the standards would be codified in tests for college admission. Changing the admissions tests effectively forces schools to change their curricula. Phelps & Milgram (2014) write, “the greatest harm to higher education may accrue from the alignment of the SAT to Common Core’s high school standards, converting the SAT from an adaptable test predictive of college work to an inflexible retrospective test aligned to and locking in a low level of [reform] mathematics” (p. 5). Scholars like Phelps, Milgram, and Stotsky differ sharply with Coleman, whose curdling views verge on incoherence. On November 29, 2012, a few weeks after becoming head of College Board, Coleman spoke at the Brookings Institution. According to the Brookings website (2012), Coleman explained: “assessment is an extremely powerful signal for instruction, but you’ve got to own it. You’ve got to cut the [expletive] when you’re like, ooh we wrote this test and all these people are doing test preparation. They shouldn’t test preparation. They should look at the standards. I mean, is it a—like [expletive] you, like no. I hate that disingenuousness. If you put something on an assessment, in my view, you are ethically obligated to take responsibility that kids will practice it 100 times. So when I look over an instrument like SAT, I want to say to myself is it worth it. Is this work worth doing?” Put that way, one suspects not.
Dr. Jason Zimba, a former college physics teacher with no K-12 math teaching experience, was a lead architect of CCMS on the SDWG. He is currently Coleman’s business partner in SAP, and profited handsomely from the sale of their Grow Network. Milgram & Stotsky (2013) write that in 2010, Stotsky questioned Zimba before the Massachusetts Board of Elementary and Secondary Education. He testified, “the concept of college readiness [in the standards] is minimal and focuses on non-selective colleges” (p. 2). Zimba said, “We have agreement…that the minimally college-ready student is a student who has passed Algebra II” (Milgram & Stotsky, 2013, p. 4-5). Stotsky asked if that was enough and he stated, “Well, for the colleges most kids go to, but not for the colleges most parents aspire to.” Stotsky: “‘Not for STEM? Not for international competitiveness?’ Zimba…‘Not only not for STEM, it’s also not for selective colleges…whether you are going to be an engineer or not, you’d better have precalculus’…Stotsky [objected] to this minimalist definition [in]…standards labeled as making students college-ready” (Milgram & Stotsky, 2013, p. 5).

**Abusing data: Lies, damn lies, statistics, and surveillance**

CCSSI boosters like Gates, Duncan, Coleman, and Zimba justify wrestling control of American schools away from state and local authorities by misrepresenting data. Arne Duncan has cited the results of the 2012 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) as evidence of the need to nationalize schools through the RttT program. Tienken (2014) writes, “Duncan advanced three empirically unsupported claims: (1) the results from over sixty nations and cities are comparable; (2) those results accurately describe the quality of the U.S. education system…and (3) the results relate directly to the economic strength and future of countries who took the PISA” (pp. 31-2). In order to explain why Duncan is wrong we must first look at how statistics can be manipulated to create confusion, starting with Simpson’s Paradox. Simpson’s Paradox is when the average scores of two groups seem to show that one group performs better than another when, in fact, the opposite is true if the data is disaggregated (i.e., analyzed by subset). Table-1 shows a simple example. Ms. Smith and Ms. Brown teach 100 polka-dotted and striped children, but the sizes of the subsets in each class differ. Overall, Ms. Smith’s average class score is 6.5, and Ms. Brown’s is 5.4, giving the illusion that children would be better off with Ms. Smith.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subset Group</th>
<th>Polka-dotted children</th>
<th>Polka-dotted avg. score</th>
<th>Polka-dotted total points</th>
<th>Striped children</th>
<th>Striped avg. score</th>
<th>Striped total points</th>
<th>Total points (avg. score)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Smith</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>650 (6.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ms. Brown</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>540 (5.4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, upon closer inspection we see that Ms. Brown’s 10 polka-dotted children outscore their friends in Ms. Smith’s class by two points. The case of striped children is even more dramatic: those in Ms. Brown’s class perform two-and-a-half times better than the striped children in Ms. Smith’s class. The difference in average group scores is a function of the different sizes of the subsets within each group. Contrary to the impression created by average class scores, whether your child is polka-dotted or
striped she would be much better off in Ms. Brown’s class than in Ms. Smith’s. This is why it is called Simpson’s Paradox rather than Simpson’s Blindingly Obvious Conclusion. Terwilliger & Schield (2004) wryly note, “All Simpson’s reversals are ‘journalistically significant.’” Duncan and journalists are not alone in their error—the author, mea culpa, has also used PISA statistics to knock American education. This is more than a theoretical problem. The OECD, which oversees the PISA tests, cautions members to beware of using the results to draw conclusions about education systems and policy, but the warning is widely ignored. Critics like to point out that American students do only slightly better than average on PISA tests, which is true as far as it goes. Table-2 shows selected 2012 PISA reading scores grouped by top, middle, and bottom scores. East Asian students lead the pack, followed by Western countries, with South America and Southeast Asia bringing up the rear. Alarmingly, the U.S. ranks in the middle, somewhere between Kazakhstan and Shanghai, China.

Table 2: 2012 PISA Reading Scores (OECD average 496) (Sailer, 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Top scores</th>
<th>Middle scores</th>
<th>Bottom scores</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shanghai-China</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>U.A.E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong-China</td>
<td>Macao-China</td>
<td>Chile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea, Rep. of</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>Uruguay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese Taipei</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>U.S.</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Argentina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>Russian Fed.</td>
<td>Kazakhstan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, as in the case of Ms. Brown’s much maligned class, the story is different when group totals are disaggregated by subgroups (Table-3). Sailer (2013) examined scores by ethnicity with interesting results.

Table 3: 2012 PISA Reading Scores by Ethnicity (Sailer, 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Asian</th>
<th>European</th>
<th>Hispanic &amp; other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shanghai-China</td>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Florida (all races)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian-American</td>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>Spain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong-China</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Portugal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Conn. (all races)</td>
<td>Russian Fed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>White U.S.</td>
<td>Hispanic U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea, Rep. of</td>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Black U.S.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mass. (all races)</td>
<td>Multiracial U.S.</td>
<td>U.A.E.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese Taipei</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>Chile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macao-China</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Uruguay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Colombia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Argentina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhstan</td>
<td>U.S. (all races)</td>
<td>Peru</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this deeper analysis of scores, Asian-American students are second only to those in Shanghai. Tellingly, Massachusetts’ students of all races outperform many Asian and all European students. Keep in mind that Sandra Stotsky, dissident member of the VC and the leading critic of the Core’s faulty and fatuous ELA standards, designed the
Massachusetts’ literature-heavy reading curriculum. White students in the U.S. trail Finland, but by a statistically insignificant five points. Hispanic and black students outperform all of South America, and compare favorably to Spain and Portugal. This casts the efforts to turn American schools inside out in a new light.

Bad as Core supporters’ abuse of existing data may be, it pales in comparison to their plans to gather, store, and use still more information. In addition to data on American children and their families, teachers will be monitored and their evaluations based on student test scores using an industrial-style Value Added Model (Cody, 2014, p. 25). Remember Gates’ 2009 speech to legislators. He said he and the federal government are building a system to control the standards, tests, and curriculum used by every child in the country. Whoever controls the standards will command a surveillance network harvesting student data from preschool into the workplace. He warned lawmakers they might have to “deal with” people who do not trust the government or businesses with information on their children and families. Implicit in his scheme is the elimination of existing protections in the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) that require parents’ permission before any data is collected, stored, or used. The National Center for Education Statistics has helpfully gutted FERPA by ruling parental consent is required only for studies funded directly by the U.S. DOE (McGroarty et al., 2014, p. 27). Private companies may mine data as they please.

This might sound like 1984 hysteria but for the words of government officials who bolster Gates’ vision. The U.S. DOE’s Office of Educational Technology issued a report in February 2013 titled “Promoting Grit, Tenacity, and Perseverance: Critical Factors for Success in the 21st Century.” The report focuses on how fine-grained data can be gathered from students, stored, processed, and used. The report reads:

[M]easurement may focus on sequences of behaviors, emotions, physiological reactions, and/or thoughts that unfold over time during learning, extracting indicators of persistence and giving up. New technologies using educational data mining and ‘affective computing’ (the study and development of systems and devices that can recognize, interpret, process, and simulate aspects of human affect) are beginning to focus on ‘micro-level’ moment-by-moment data…to provide feedback to adapt learning tasks. (p. ix)

The technical implements to read kids’ minds are shown on page 44 of the report:

![Facial Expression Camera](image1)
![Posture Analysis Seat](image2)
![Pressure Mouse](image3)
![Wireless Skin Conductance Sensor](image4)

The report goes on to say, “Ed Dieterle and Ash Vasudeva of the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation point out that researchers such as Jon Gabrieli and Richard Davidson are beginning to use multiple methods to explore how specific brain activity is correlated to other cognitive affective indicators that are practical to measure in
school settings” (p. 45, italics in original). The authors briefly mention ethics in a section titled, “Ethical Considerations for New Types of Personal Data”:

As new forms of measurement emerge and new types of personal data become available, the field must also deal with critical ethical considerations. Of course, privacy is... a concern, especially when leveraging data available in the ‘cloud’ that users may or may not be aware is being mined. However, another emergent concern is the consequences of using new types of personal data in new ways. Learners and educators have the potential to get forms of feedback about their behaviors, emotions, physiological responses, and cognitive processes that have never been available before. Measurement developers must carefully consider the impacts of releasing such data, sometimes of a sensitive nature. (p. 48)

A search of this 126-page report finds the word “ethical” used just four times including in the title of the above section and the table of contents. On the other hand, the authors are expansive about the data they seek on teachers, students and their families including their “beliefs, attitudes, dispositions, values, and ways of perceiving oneself” (p. 77). These are not simply the idle musings of some rich but irrelevant eccentric and his tech-savvy minions. Echoing the concerns of McGroarty et al., Cody (2014) describes a Gates-funded $498,055 research project at “Clemson University...to measure engagement physiologically with Galvanic Skin Response (GSR) bracelets...in schools with students and teachers” (p. 110). He cites another $621,265 grant from Gates to the “National Center on Time and Learning...[using] Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging and [GSR]” (Cody, 2014, p. 110). Similar efforts are underway to devise ever-sharper instruments with the encouragement of bureaucrats and researchers who see a bright future aboard Gates’ gravy train. Alas, their search for higher technology is not tempered by deeper wisdom. All this begs the question of how far technicians, educrats, oligarchs, and state-sponsored cronies are willing to go. Leaving aside the manifest pedagogical concerns, on what planet are we to find men and women virtuous enough to be trusted with this much data and power?

Conclusion

_He thought of the telescreen with its never-sleeping ear. They could spy upon you day and night, but if you kept your head you could still outwit them. With all their cleverness they had never mastered the secret of finding out what another human being was thinking._ — Orwell, 1949, p. 363

One can almost hear the elliptical “yet.” Neither Bill Gates nor the scientists at the Office of Educational Technology would seem out of place in Orwell’s Ministry of Truth. It is easy enough to dismiss Coleman and Zimba as predictable, garden-variety crony capitalists. But Gates, Duncan, the U.S. DOE, and politicians of both political parties who continue to push Common Core remind us that evil is indeed banal. They epitomize a dark part of the human psyche that has always plagued civil society: the demiurge seeking power over others to dominate and to rule. Plato’s Republic had its Guardians, Bentham his Panopticon, and the Nazis and Soviets their secret police. Their spirits stalk us today, posing as philanthropists and civic-minded helpers. To say we can do better is an epic understatement. Knowing all this, God help us if we go along with them.
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Visualization in Building Information Modelling (BIM) for Interior Design Education: A Case Study at Sunway University

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Abstract
The utilization of Building Information Modelling (BIM) technology has revolutionized the architecture and interior design industry globally in recent years. This technology promotes a more efficient approach in the design visualization process and it provides enhancement of productivity. Similar to other developing countries, the employment of BIM in Malaysia has presented new challenges to both the industry practice and educational institutions. The curriculums of build environment courses offered in universities throughout the world have been restructured to allow the integration of BIM. However, its adoption in Malaysian higher education has been considered slow. This paper discusses on the introduction of BIM through the usage of Autodesk Revit software tool for visualization purposes to the diploma in interior design students’ project at Sunway University. The research was focused on the process of parametric tools techniques used in Revit to create 3D models and the features that allow BIM to interoperate with other 3D applications. Case study methodology was used and information were gathered through a variety of data sources including; observation, assessment and interview series. The result showed that although BIM has aided the students in terms of time efficiency in producing visualization, there are limitations in design freedom as well as the needs for students to be familiar with other 3D applications beforehand. Findings from this research will be among the important considerations to be taken in developing BIM and Revit as an independent module into the academic curriculum of Diploma and Degree courses in Interior Design at Sunway University.

Keywords: Building Information Modelling, Interior Design Education, Interior Visualization
Introduction

The digital age has brought many changes in architecture industry in recent years. In relation to design production, the inventiveness of technology in architecture has been very noticeable, from the traditional drawing board to Computer Aided Design and today, with Building Information Modelling (BIM). BIM is an extensive, wide-ranging term that covers technologies and methodologies based around the creation and co-ordination of digital building data that is visually represented in "three dimensions (3D)" on a computer screen (Mathews, 2012). The Construction Industry Development Board Malaysia (CIDB, 2013) defined BIM as “a modelling technology and associated set of processes to produce, communicate and analyse digital information for building construction life cycle”. It has revolutionized the architecture and design industry in terms of visualization, preconstruction simulation, life cycle analysis and enabled faster construction, thus promoting more sustainable integrated practices (Asojo, 2012). BIM is a successor to the computer-aided drafting (CAD) (e.g. AutoCAD) which started in the 1980s. With the advent of BIM, the architectural and interior design practice has gradually started changing since the beginning of the 21st century (Wong, Wong & Nadeem, 2011).

This research was initiated from an understanding of the shortages of education and training efforts provided by higher learning institutions in Malaysia towards the development of BIM. Though universities in Malaysia teach traditionally industry-standard Computer Aided Design (CAD) applications such as AutoCAD, 3Ds Max and Adobe Photoshop but has falling short of meeting the new and advanced software such as BIM (Enegbuma & Ali, 2011). The aim was to explore possible advantages and disadvantages of visualization through the use of BIM application for interior design students’ project at Sunway University, Malaysia. Initiative has been taken by the faculty members of the Department of Art and Design at the university to integrate BIM as a module into the curriculum of diploma and degree programs in interior design in the near future. The researcher observed and documented a design studio project which involved the production of a 3D BIM model for visualization by students and a case study methodology has been used to examine the visualization process during the project.

BIM and Autodesk Revit

Autodesk Revit is a software that is commonly used to produce BIM models and serves as a tool for planning, designing and stimulating. In contrast to CAD in which the 3D elements or objects are made up with purely lines, the 3D models produced with BIM are actually intelligent contextual models, where objects are defined in terms of building elements and systems such as spaces, walls, beams and columns (Azhar, 2011). Although CAD has been one of the primary design tools in the industry, BIM are becoming more utilized due to its capabilities. Colleges and universities are restructuring curriculum to reflect this change from CAD to BIM (Sacks & Barak, 2010). Among the most common objectives for BIM related courses include: producing drawings from a model (Sacks & Barak, 2010) and, at the same time, developing verbal, written, graphic and electronic communication skills (Arnold, 2010). Generally in Malaysia, the built environment industry including Interior Design employs CAD with AutoCAD being the most commonly used software (Dawoud, Haron & Abdullah, 2013). Due to the benefits of BIM and its huge potential of improving the Architecture, Engineering and Construction (AEC) industry, governments of developed and developing countries around the world have started to mandate the usage of BIM in their respective countries. (Mohd-Nor & Grant, 2014).
BIM in Malaysian Higher Education

In the case of Interior Design courses in colleges and universities, traditionally it falls under the architecture faculty, as the course deals mainly with building elements. In order for interior designers to be valued as knowledgeable and capable members of a project team, interior design curricula must incorporate industry-standard technology (Roehl & Shannon, 2013). The kind of technology and innovation offered through BIM are currently being used to shape design in the architecture community, so it will be vital for interior designers and universities to be involved in the knowledge development of BIM. The accreditation for Interior Design courses in Malaysia is partially under The Board of Architects Malaysia (LAM). The Board expects interior design students to demonstrate a clear ability to apply different tools in design, from two-dimensional (2D) and three-dimensional graphics (3D) to computer-generated and material models (Dawoud, Haron & Abdullah, 2013). According to Panuwatwanich, Wong, Doh, Stewart & McCarthy (2013), the lack of BIM training and education within educational institutions is one main barrier commonly identified across architectural studies. Research in BIM is also at a low where none of the academic institutions in Malaysia have set up a unit or department that looks into BIM matters. Mohd-Nor & Grant (2014) highlighted that while national scale reports or surveys on BIM usage has been conducted in many developed countries, it has not been the case with Malaysia.

Visualization in Interior Design

In interior design practice, the visualization and conceptualization of interior environments represent places where activity and events happen (Dohr & Portillo, 2011). It refers to the visual production of sketches, drawings, 3D imageries and multimedia to communicate ideas and concept. Generally in academic setting, studio modules for interior design curriculum will require students to demonstrate these visualizations for their project submission. Production of computer aided 3D models to facilitate the production of plan drawings and perspective views has become the common practice among students nowadays. In today’s rapid advancement of technology, educators have started to show concern in the learning process of these new technologies in design production. Barison & Santos (2010) recommended that in the first two years, the focus should be on the student’s individual skills of 3D modelling. Later in their academic careers when their 2D to 3D visualization skills improved, 3D modeling will allow them to more accurately "see" their design ideas" (Crumpton & Miller, 2010). This is in order to more fully integrate the learning of technology with the teaching of design." (Crumpton & Miller, 2010). For this particular research, the expectation of outcomes from the 12 weeks period of lesson on BIM would be limited to the design visualization only, which includes production of working drawings and 3D views.

Methodology

During the August 2014 semester, the Diploma in Interior Design course at Sunway University offered a studio based design module with a focus on commercial interior space to second year students. This module was supported with extra classes to provide lessons on BIM for visualization purposes. The design and visualization process using BIM through Revit software tool was documented from the beginning to the end of the project. Case study methodology approach applied in this research was inspired by Wong, Wong & Nadeem (2011) through their study on the implementation of BIM courses at a university as a case study to analyze the feedbacks from students about BIM education. Obtaining data from students will be very important in this research as part of the findings will be reflected upon
their feedbacks. Mathews (2012) stated that case study allowed researchers to capture information through a range of data sources including:

Observation of students working with Revit

The researcher spent around half an hour after lesson every week to observe and keep written records on the process of students working with Revit in building and detailing the 3D BIM model. These records provided a chronology in the development of the project.

Student’s Formative assessment

The students work was assessed individually at semester end. Students were expected to produce a complete set of working drawings for the interior design project. This involved suggestions for renovations into the existing interior space. Through the assessment, the researcher could summarize whether or not BIM visualization process for the project could fulfill the assignment requirements. Assessment was conducted through Blackboard E-Learn system.

Project end interviews with students and faculty members

Interviews were conducted at the semester end and were mainly designed to obtain feedback about students’ experiences and perceptions towards BIM usage for interior visualization. The interviews are to acquire their views about the strengths, weaknesses and prospects that may be developed as a result of learning BIM. Besides that, faculty members were also invited to assess the students’ final projects at the end of the semester. Another round of interview with faculty members was conducted after the assessment session to view their perception towards the outcome of the students’ work.

E Learning

Online tutorial series were setup in Blackboard E-Learn system by the instructor. It enables the tracking of students’ views of the video tutorials posted every week. It also allowed students to communicate with the instructor through the feedback and survey system provided. The response by the students provided useful understandings to the problems encountered throughout the visualization process in Revit. Currently the Blackboard E-Learn system is being used across all faculties in Sunway University for teaching and learning.

By the semester end, the data gathered were analyzed. The qualitative data provided testimony on the significance of using BIM for visualization within the context of interior design. It also revealed the drawback and weaknesses of BIM usage in the design stage.

Settings

The extra classes dedicated to the teaching of BIM were offered to students who had completed AutoCAD and 3ds Max course in the previous semester. 20 students participated for the particular semester. As a part of the project requirement, students were expected to develop a 3D BIM model of their individual project. Students were first introduced to the concepts of modelling and the fundamental differences between BIM and CAD. Concepts for students to develop an accurate representation of BIM include parametric objects and relationships; model categories; annotation categories; families, modelling basics, modifying...
elements and presentation graphics (Asojo, 2012). At the end of the semester, they are required to produce graphical presentation boards and to give verbal presentations about their project (See Figure 5).

**Phase 1: Introductory Stage**

At the early stage, the instructor gave introduction to the concept of BIM in Autodesk Revit and made students to familiarize themselves with the interface and concept of “families”. Families are components used to build the 3D models such as walls, floors, roofs, ceilings, curtain walls systems, fixtures and partitions. Each family contains its own information, such as size, materials, parameter and variables. Any change to a family is reorganized in every order throughout the project.

![Furniture family of a chair with its detailed information in Revit.](image)

**Phase 2: Working with CAD files**

Students started their design by importing a 2D plan from AutoCAD into Revit software as primary guide on which to base the foundation of walls. With the guide from the CAD plan, it was easier for students to decide the type of wall family to be used, its height, its thickness, width, materials and on what level, etc., from the beginning of the design development. The researcher noticed that at this stage, BIM has developed the students’ understanding from software skills to a more scientific thinking. As students progressed with their BIM models, they encountered various construction implications of their design choices. They discovered that a lot of considerations need to be taken of the entire building rather than individual spaces.
Phase 3: Customization of 3D models and Massing Tool

Students had to learn the creation of customized building components and non-standard objects in order to accomplish their intended design. This includes the creation of expressive forms and complex geometry components. At this point, they were introduced to the massing tool in Revit. “Massing” tool allows a designer to perform basic geometric explorations in BIM. It will invite more designers to employ BIM at an early design stage while providing more freedom in the form making process (Park, 2008). However the massing tools in Revit will also require some time to be fully familiarized by the students. This parametric tool technique used to produce non-standard objects in BIM have led the students to a new approach of building and working with 3D models, with most of the time requires intricate level of detailing and this has brought some confusion and awkwardness in 3D modelling process among them. One reason is because they have familiarized themselves well with the more fluid and lesser numerical data input of 3D modelling techniques in CAD software such as 3ds Max, which they have learned in previous semester.
Phase 4: Interoperability

To maximize the quality of visuals produced, 3D models produced from other CAD application such as Autodesk 3ds Max were used to ensure that the students can achieve their design ideas. Besides that, a good reason to interoperate Revit with other 3D applications was to improve the rendering works in order to produce realistic 3D imageries. Having prior knowledge of geometric modelling in 3ds Max has aided the students in producing non-standard geometric models. These models with custom geometry which were more time consuming to model in Revit were then integrated into the BIM model. This BIM model was then exported back to Autodesk 3ds Max as an Autocad DWG file format. Materials and lighting were applied within 3ds Max by using accessible materials in the 3ds Max library. The lighting was generated mainly from sunlight available from Vray plug-in, which is used together with the software. Once all the model content, materials, lighting and camera were in place, the model was rendered using Vray plug-in render engine.

Figure 4: The 3D rendering produced by inter-operating Revit with 3ds Max application.
SWOT Analysis

At the end of the semester, students were requested to explain their understanding in operating BIM model in Revit to produce visualizations for their project through interviews. SWOT-analysis has been used to list strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, in order to identify aspects concerning the design process when using BIM for visualization in interior design education. The SWOT analysis focuses on the aspects related to BIM based on the qualitative data gathered from both students and faculty members.

Strengths

Majority of the students stated remarks about the smart features in BIM in detecting errors on construction detailing. They were very positive towards the working process in Revit, as it managed to reduce the time needed to produce a complete set of working drawings (plans, sections and elevations) and 3D visuals. 3D model produced in BIM has managed to simplify the process of producing quality visualization within the context of interior design.

Weaknesses

As a parametric objects modelling tool, there are difficulties in creating custom made, complex models and non-standard objects using BIM. The 3D modelling methods in Revit are different from the traditional architectural design procedure, which is based upon a form-making process that the students are accustomed to. This can be a major challenge to those with limited knowledge of construction method and materials. Learning curve is steep in order to fully understand and to be able to handle the design tools in BIM effectively.
**Opportunities**

Faculty members unanimously agreed that the outcome of visualization from the students’ project reflects better quality compared to when it was done in CAD previously. They saw potentials to develop and integrate BIM into other supporting modules in the diploma and soon the degree programmes such as Building Construction and Building Services, considering the unlimited capabilities of BIM to perform tasks beyond visualization such as building analysis, scheduling and estimation.

**Threats**

Response from the faculty members highlighted that there are still too much of the efforts which are supposed to be taken by the students were done by the system in BIM. Consequently, it reduces the students’ creativity and their thinking process. Below is one of the statements made by the faculty members during the interview:

As much as we agreed that Revit and BIM has aided a lot in terms of understanding building construction, we still feel that the students’ reliance on the software is very high, leading to limitation of visual exploration and studies.
Conclusion

The comments and responses from students and faculty members have inspired analytical thoughts and it also offered useful understanding for the growth of the interior design curriculum at Sunway University. Feedbacks received have indicated that BIM has its own benefits and restrictions in the stage of design visualization.

Integration of BIM into the curriculum of interior design programmes will require a well-planned strategy to ensure a success, especially when the integration involves other supporting modules like Building Construction, Lighting Design and Building Services. Based on the aspects listed in the SWOT-analysis, a strategy map has been developed by the faculty members to integrate BIM into the curriculum. The SWOT-strategy-map supports the development of a strategy, based on the aspects listed in the SWOT-analysis (Thomassen, 2011). Strengths and weaknesses are combined with opportunities and threats to locate how the different aspects can affect each other (Thomassen, 2011). Among the important factors that were taken into account in planning the strategy include the time frame to teach BIM; how many semesters needed and how soon should BIM be introduced.

The main benefit of using BIM for an interior design project is definitely the efficiency of the system in the production of visuals, besides its intelligent features to detect errors and clashes in construction. However due to the complexity of the software, steep learning curve is expected to master BIM, mainly to Diploma level students, where their knowledge and exposure to construction methods and materials are still within the most basic level. This has led to limitations of visual and design freedom, where students tend to ignore potentially innovative ideas that they have in mind when they start to think about the possibilities of building them in Revit. Therefore, having earlier skills and understanding in other 3D modelling software is important before students can start to learn BIM. It is suggested to incorporate the design process from several 3D applications with BIM application, rather than using BIM application single-handedly in the design process.

Lastly, through this case study, the researcher acknowledged that as much as BIM has given an impressive paradigm shift in architectural design process though its advanced and sophisticated features, a worrying trend existed among design students through the heavy reliance to software tools provided by today’s technology. This could potentially limit their creativity and restrict their imagination in building construction detailing, when every building component is ‘made-ready’ for them by the system. For that reason, it is recommended that every design school should maintain the strength and appreciation of traditional education and to always consider multi-disciplinary approach when developing a curriculum with technology integration.
References


From Preparation to Practice: The Experiences of Beginning Teacher in Kiengiang Province, A Remote Area of Mekong Delta Region in Vietnam

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Abstract
This study examines the experience of beginning teacher in the Kien Giang province, an area located in one of remote areas of the Mekong Delta region in the south-west of Vietnam. Through focus group discussion and in-depth interview with 29 new teachers, the findings showed that the participants felt they were not well equipped during their training course. Participants knew little about the importance of relationships in learning, in collegial communities or with parents. The teaching experience during the courses had been in schools that contrasted greatly with the ones in which they were employed and they had no experience in dealing with the four main difficulties encountered in this remote area: motivating students, lack of educational resources, poor living standards and relationship with parents. However, those who did receive some support within the school environment were able to overcome the weakness of their preparation. The results indicated that beginning teachers in this area were in need of assistance from the stakeholders in the community such as school principals, Kien Giang Teacher Training College, teacher training and local authorities who need to work together to ensure the teachers receives ongoing support.
Introduction
New teachers are the key to maintaining and improving the education system. Fullan (1993) stated that new teachers could be change agents when they were in well-organized schools which supported teacher development. Although unemployment is dropping sharply and the business sector is taking on more employees, Vietnam still does not have enough teachers. At current rates, Vietnam is facing a shortage of more than 8000 teachers (Thi, 2010). Hence, hopefully with the effective teaching workforce planning of the Ministry of Education and Training in Vietnam, about 8000 new teachers started a teaching career in 2011. Therefore, in the next few years, new teachers will be an important factor in the success of strategies for educational development or reforms if these strategies improve teachers’ workloads and deliver gains in pay. These types of critical support will enable teachers to deliver high quality education, increase their job satisfaction and will subsequently result in the likelihood of them remaining in the school system (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003b).

Besides that the quality and relevance of instruction during teacher training remain low. Firstly, students at teacher training colleges do not obtain specific knowledge of the curriculum, teachers’ guides or student textbooks for the subjects they will eventually be teaching in schools (Trang, 2010). In Vietnam, students studying to become teachers typically study general academic subjects in the first year, spending the second half of their studies concentrating on core units. Most of these units are not related to their specific teaching areas but focus entirely on theory. This is also a reason why some new teachers are often shocked when there are significant differences between what they learned at college and what they have to do as a teacher in a real school.

Secondly, the emphasis of the training is on theoretical knowledge rather than on guiding student teachers in how to put this theoretical knowledge into practice. Furthermore, most college teachers have never taught in a secondary school and may not fully understand the practical issues associated with classroom management and the delivery of instruction. Consequently, almost all students in pedagogy colleges and newly graduated teachers are lacking in basic teaching skills and pedagogy knowledge (Uyên, 2011).

No research has been found that conducted on the experiences of beginning teachers in the context of Vietnam, including induction programs. If beginning teachers face problems in their first teaching year without receiving support from their workplace, they are much more likely to experience great difficulties. Therefore, this paper focuses on understanding beginning teachers’ experiences in their first year of teaching. This is why the focus of this study is to listen to the ‘voices’ of beginning teachers who have just graduated from the college where I teach. The impact of the new environment on them in terms of their perspectives toward difficulties, received support, and the preparation of Kien Giang Teacher Training College for teaching in the real world will be closely analysed.

Purpose of the study
The main purpose of this study was to conduct a qualitative case study to
1. Identify the problems encountered by beginning teachers during their first year of teaching. 2. Discover the received support from the participants’ perspectives in their first teaching year. 3. Evaluate the quality of the preparation provided by Kien Giang Teachers’ Training College for trainee teachers.
**Methods**

In order to examine the research on the experience of beginning teachers in Kien Giang, Vietnam, a qualitative case study was employed. Stake (2000) states that in case study research, the case can be an individual, a group of people, an organisation, a program, an innovation, a process, a service or an activity. According to Creswell (2007), case studies allow the researcher to explore in depth a program, an event, an activity, a process, or one or more individuals. Yin (2009) also explains that when compared with other designs, case studies can provide ‘holistic and meaningful exploratory characteristics’ and ‘descriptive’ study reports, and that such a design focuses on a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context. According to Stake, (1978) case studies provide an opportunity to acquire insightful knowledge regarding an individual or event. These parameters suit the study of beginning teachers in Kien Giang province which the writer is undertaking to provide insight into the issues these teachers faced in their first year of teaching. This present qualitative case study allows to provide a better understanding these beginning teachers’ situation.

**Result**

In terms of searching for variation in beginning teachers’ experience as much as commonality, the one-to-one interview data assists the writer with information at a deeper level with details of the experience told by five volunteer participants through their stories. The analysis of these data from one-to-one interview requires the identification of examples from the data that would illuminate the aims of the study In the following we present the findings in relation to our research question. The findings are organised into the following themes: First teaching problem concerns, and valued support received, and the quality of preparation during teacher training college from five in-depth interviews. Some quotations from the original studies are used as validation

**First teaching problem concerns:**

Figure 1: shows the results of the seven themes on the perceived problems described in the five in-depth interviews.
This figure summarises the interview results graphically, so we can see that there are three levels of concern. The most frequently mentioned concern is lack of knowledge (by which the teachers mean not only foundation knowledge, knowledge appropriate to teaching at the primary level, but also knowledge of classroom techniques and the regulations and practices common in their schools). The middle level of concern relates to student motivation and parental support, related to poor living standards of the community, and insufficient school resources with which to tackle these problems. The lowest mentioned level of concern relates to classroom management and lack of opportunity for further professional development.
Valued support received

Figure 2 shows the results of the five issues on the value of the received support as indicated in the in-depth interviews

Received supports in five individual interviews

Support from informal mentors was identified by all five as a helpful source during the first teaching year. There was no participant who experienced gaining positive support from their formal mentors, but they experienced negative support from these formal mentors. This is also why they seek support from other experienced colleagues. Therefore, the theme about supportive formal mentors presents participants’ negative experience. Support from friends was highly valued by the three participants (Chuc, Suong, and Dinh) and was identified as a useful source of support in their experience. Support from principal, as identified by Dinh, and support from parents as identified by Suong were also assessed as valued supports in their first teaching year.
The quality of preparation during teacher training college

Figure 3: Five issues from the five indepth interviews on the quality of preparation in the teacher training college.

The quality of preparation in the Teacher Training College

when discussing the quality of the preparation of these participants for their first teaching year, the majority of participants expressed a common experience in the in-depth interview in three aspects: one was the lack of practice teaching, the second was the importance establishing good relationships in the work place; the third was the weakness of the short-course expressed in the experience of Chuc, Suong and Lan, it was the weakness of the short-course entailed their concerns about the lack of subject matter knowledge. The discussion about the problems of lack of knowledge about subject matter has been given in the previous section

Conclusion:
The purpose of this study was to investigate the beginning teachers’ experience in their first teaching year in Kien Giang province, a province located at the lower section of the Mekong River in Vietnam. To achieve this purpose, a single qualitative case study design was used to obtain an in-depth understanding of the experience of beginning teachers in their first year by collecting data from four focus group discussions, five individual interviews, and documentary evidence.

The first finding of this study revealed that these beginning teachers were concerned about their lack of subject knowledge, how to motivate students to learn, the lack of material and supplies, their relationship with parents and the poor living standards. The foremost concern of three participants, expressed in the individual interviews was their lack of knowledge of subject matter. The specific problem was for participants who had been trained as secondary teachers and who had completed only a two-
month course to gain a qualification to teach at the primary level. This course did not provide them with the sufficient knowledge to teach at the primary level. Therefore, they argued that it was the lack of training which made them incapable of teaching at this level. This finding indicated that the two-month training course for primary teachers was not successful and resulted in a lot of troubles for these beginning teachers. They also admitted that they sometimes felt apologetic for their incapability to fulfil their responsibility to students in terms of not being assured and confident about what they were teaching in their primary classrooms. This result is consistent with prior research which argues that beginning teachers need to be equipped with clear and detailed knowledge of subject matter to enable them to manage a class and teach effectively.

The second finding of this study relates to the two sources of support that the participants experienced and most valued, namely support from experienced teachers (from both outside and inside their schools), and from other beginning teachers. The participants’ experience of supportive colleagues varied from context to context, as they were in different schools. Most participants highly valued the support they received from experienced teachers; however, only three participants were lucky enough to be teaching in their old schools and received strong support from their former teachers. This strong support helped them resolve many of their difficulties in their first year of teaching, although they faced other difficulties such as a lack of knowledge on subject matter and not being assigned a formal mentor. This finding confirmed the importance of the support from experienced teachers for beginning teachers in school cultures where “integrated cultures” exist. Communication between experienced and beginning teachers helped the beginning teachers to be more confident in sharing their successes obtained.

The third major finding of this study concerns the participants’ perspective of the role of KGTTC in preparing them for their first year of teaching. This study revealed that the time allocated to practical teaching and field-work was insufficient, therefore during their practicum, trainee teachers did not have enough time to actually practice what they had been trained in relation to theoretical knowledge. Consequently they experienced many difficulties in undertaking tasks of head-teachers and also transferring the theory of teaching into practice in the first teaching year. In addition, this research also found that the practicum and field experience programs offered by KGTTC did not expose participants to the full range of tasks and responsibilities expected to teachers and the demands of the real teaching environment were far beyond what they had imagined when they were training to become teachers. This resulted in many participants experiencing ‘the reality shock’ during their first teaching year.
Recommendations
For school principals:
Beginning teachers should be encouraged to conduct lessons with experienced teachers as they are often prone to be weak in classroom practices and more emotional support. The principal should acknowledge these two factors and encourage beginning teachers to conduct lesson observations.

Principals in remote schools should be aware of the disadvantages of the local socio-economic environment in remote areas and should encourage more efficient support for teachers especially beginning teachers. Principal should also have sympathy towards and an understanding of the difficulties associated with mobility issues in relation to teachers travelling to work, due to poor transportation in remote areas.

Beginning teachers should have greater opportunities to attend training courses and develop their professional development.

Teacher educators
The teacher training college should assist trainee teachers grasp the connection between theoretical knowledge attained in teacher training courses and how to put this knowledge into practice by giving practical examples of teaching in schools. During field-work and practicum, teacher educators should maximize all available opportunities in the limited teaching practice time to help trainee teachers better understand teaching and learning activities in the school, in particularly, how to complete score books, and school report books.

Local authority
Closely coordinating with principals at local schools to create the best conditions in capacity in terms of venues and budgets for school activities, in which including the organization of the network among beginning teachers from all schools. Creating favourable conditions and encouraging poor families to make them feel more secured to let their children go to school.
Reference:

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Using Facebook Application In School Based Assessment (SBA) for Moral Studies

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Abstract
The aim of the research is to identify the extent of the students’ response in using the Facebook application and also to identify the evidence that can be done by students and the usability of the Facebook application in evidence assessment of the School Based Assessment (SBA) for Moral Studies. This action research is a short research of 40 students of Form 2 and Form 3 whose taking the Moral Studies subject in a Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan (SMK) in Rawang, Selangor, Malaysia. The application is used for idea and method in interpreting the evidence and at once as a teaching and learning methods too. This research used the method of survey and questionnaires. Questionnaires were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The results of the survey showed the use of Facebook application can be used to diversify the evidence assessment of the School Based Assessment (SBA) for Moral Studies. Students’ response about the evidence assessment is very positive when students actively engage during the assessment through the use of Facebook application. Observations of students’ response have shown the variety of evidence through the creativity and ideas of the students in giving answers. Based on data obtained and analysed, the Facebook application can be used in the implementation of the School Based Assessment (SBA) for Moral Studies in school. Thereby, teachers can vary their methods in evaluating the evidence. Hence, attract the students to respond and develop the form of evidence assessment.

Keywords : Usability, Facebook, School Based Assessment (SBA)
Introduction

School Based Assessment (SBA) was introduced to the students of form 1 in 2013. PBS is a holistic assessment that is able to assess the cognitive (intellectual), affective (emotional and spiritual) and psychomotor (physical) in accordance with the National Philosophy of Education, Curriculum Standard School (KSSR) and High School Curriculum Standard (SSM). PBS was accomplished referring to the assessment of academic and non-academic (LPM, User Management School Based Assessment, 2014).

In several studies, the students after the 21st century will be study in a more active and productive through the application of digital technology, particularly in based learning. This method of digital storytelling good impact and improve the quality of teaching and collaborative learning (Jakes, 2006; Robin, 2008). The integration of Internet Communication Technology (ICT) to give collaborative teaching a lesson that is very effective against the lesson and learning (L&L) teachers besides attracting students (Davis et al, 1997). The main aim of collaborative learning based on computer technology Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning (CSCL) is to ensure the learning patterns into a diversified, while helping the students to learn (Kreijns, Kirschner, & Jochems, 2003), enhance collaborative learning and working in groups (Stahl, 2006). Through this ICT learning, learning environment will be a very interesting result, will give added value to existing learning environment through interactive learning in line with the objectives of pedagogy, curriculum and school organization.

Problem statement

According to the Malaysian Examination 2014, teachers lack an understanding of implementing the assessment in line with the process of teaching and learning (formative assessment). This is because, the difficulties face by teachers to form various instruments of assessment because they are bound by beliefs and customs to evaluate students’ achievement using the written test. Hazim (2012) stated that most teachers do not understand SBA and does not receive timely information on the process of implementation. Teachers also have been familiar with the assessment tests compared to the assessment. One of the factors attributed to the lack of skills and talent added value of innovation and change is still not sufficient (Azhar Rodzi, 2012). SBA gives recognition and implementation of autonomy to teachers to become appraisers during PDP formative or summative at the end of a learning unit or even at the end of the year. For the assessment process, teachers do not really need to provide a worksheet for each skill to be assessed. Evidence or proof of student mastery can be obtained through observation, oral responses, training in an exercise book or workbook and homework. SBA does not limit the creativity of teachers which is of course more familiar with their students.

Facebook application is an alternative assessment of the dividend that was introduced by the researcher to ensure that teachers have variety of ways to carry out SBA evaluation. Technology-based methods introduced by these researchers, along and in line with the government's desire to increase the use of technology in everyday life. The introduction of this study, although as usual, but at least give a new idea in education, when students' interest (the use of social media) joined with the
implementation of teaching in schools. As the proverb ‘to kill two birds with one stone’ and two in one (2 in 1), in view of the teacher as autonomy implementer for SBA in schools.

Objectives

This study was conducted to provide a variety of methods, means and practices to assess dividend School Based Assessment (SBA) Moral Education as well as expand and improve the teaching and learning process. Moral education has 36 points and needs a lot of evaluators dividend. Use the Facebook application is to serve as a new medium in the performance assessment. The intended objectives are to;

1. Identify the extent of the response of students to use Facebook applications in the performance evaluation dividend SBA Moral Education
2. Identify the dividend that can be executed by the students through the use of Facebook applications.
3. Identify the usability of Facebook applications in the performance evaluation of dividend for SBA Moral Education

Literature review

Constructivism Theory

The use of computers in teaching involves some basic theory related to teaching and learning related to computer technology. Involves the use of computer vision in which visual senses are involved as intermediate components to all the information. For low achievers should be given the opportunity in this interactive computer activities which will make students more active and motivated to learn (Rafiza Abd Razak and Siti Zarina Syed Nordin, 2013). Similarly, the use of Facebook applications, technology-based visual medium is used as a method in L&L to get students’ interests, especially in drafting of a dividend in the implementation of the SBA Moral Education. Apart from that, constructivism also emphasize the low and high skills and learning simultaneously. Learning these skills simultaneously is confirmed with the assumption that each skill will reinforce each other through its implementation using Facebook application.

This method is student-centred with the main concept is the generation of knowledge (knowledge construction) by the students through the learning model generation (generative learning). The principle used in this constructivist theory is a branch of cognitive science focused on the motivation for learning outside the school practice coincides with the medium's use of Facebook. Under this theory underlying the use of Facebook applications can give students confidence to find relevancy about what is learned with their existing knowledge (prior knowledge) in adapting to new learning. Students can search for additional materials and process ideas via online using the aid of technology such as the internet link in answering questions according to SBA. Learning approach using technology such as this Facebook application, is one of the student-centred learning which are likely to have a positive impact in the pedagogy of teaching (Kalantzis& Cope, 2010). This learning will be more meaningful when students are actively construct their own ideas and can be shared with others (Papert,
Students will also be able to construct their own knowledge when designing the process of ideas (Piaget, 1969).

**Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning (CTML)**

Learning methods through the use of Facebook can be attributed to basic learning using multimedia (CTML). This theory was founded by Mayer (2001). This theory is a combination of Dual Coding theory (Paivio 1986; Clark & Paivio 1991), Models of Working Memory (Baddeley 1992), Cognitive Load Theory (Chandler & Sweller 1991; Sweller, Chandler, Tierney & Cooper, 1990) and Model of Meaningful Learning SOI (Mayer 1996). Based on this theory, students will have visual information processing systems and verbal processing system. Through both senses, the narrative auditory senses will be process by oral system while the animation by visual system. Multimedia learning materials involving three cognitive processes of selecting, processing and integration. The use of Facebook application includes all three of these cognitive processes, when students are given the freedom to answer questions based on their creativity through dividends material processing, then the students prepare answers according to their own ideas and they will necessarily integrate the PDP which has been studied in a Facebook page.

Through a study conducted by Mayer, 5 multimedia design principles were identified. The first principle of representation (multiple representation) explained that the lighting will be more meaningful if made in two modes. The second principle relates to contiguity. This principle emphasizes that the explanation will be easier if the words matched the pictures and shown in simultaneous time. While the third principle is (split attention) which explains that the word-based audio are more effective than written text. The fourth principle explain that the individual differences (individual differences) states that the three principles of early depends on individual diversity that existed at the students. While the last principle is parallel (coherence) states that only information key is being used in the additional information and clarification rather than less relevant points.

Based on this theory, the use of Facebook applications can expose students with visual and verbal processing system directly. Students will access the internet thus explore learning with more interactive. Through the use of this application, it will also try to build students’ ideas, then will change the idea of learning by doing as well as learning aspects match teacher’s envisioned in the L&L.

**Design of study**

This study is an action research, the approach to repair or improve the quality of education through changes that encourage teachers to become more aware of their own practice, to be critical of such practices and are willing to change practices (Mc. IFF, 1988). This action research using an Action Research Model Somekh (1989) which involved the problem identification process, data collecting, data analyzing, designing an action plan, implementing the plan of action, collecting data to confirm the change, analyze, and evaluate and following next round.

To see the response of students to use the Facebook application, researchers conducted a visual observation to look at materials and activities carried out by students in the Facebook display site. Documents were generated by researchers at the
display site Facebook to see the involvement and motivation of students to perform SBA Moral Education using the Facebook application. To identify successful evidence done by students using the Facebook application, observation methods also be done to look for answer about the task that has been given by students. To view this Facebook application usability, teachers have given a questionnaire using the dichotomous nature involve two options, yes or no. Data was statistically analysed using SPSS. Here are the modules implementing the activities carried out by the researcher to look up application in assessment of SBA Moral Education over a period of 2 weeks.

Through the activities carried out, the researcher further assess actions taken by students after the implementation of the activity. Of valuation, teachers reflect research that has been carried out.

Findings

Students' Responses on the Use of Facebook

The implementation study undertaken by researchers began as early as April and mid-May until the end of 2014. The implementation of this takes time but large enough to give meaning to see on what extent the response of students to use the Facebook application for evaluating dividend SBA Moral Education in school. 3 conducting
activities to students. The first activity is participation of students in a group (group) SBA Moral Education SMKBS 2014 Facebook page. Through these activities students participate in its target this group within a week. The band given by the teacher is responsible. From the observations, 90% of students have joined the group - SBA 2014 SMKBSMoral Education in a timely manner. This means that all 36 students are successfully obtained Band of the responsibility that is - can show its responsibility to conduct yourself in your home / school / community. While 10%, or a total of four students failed to obtain because the band did not join the group in a timely manner because of absent school and failed to get the info provided by the researcher.

Through this first activity, the researcher can see the positive response of pupils in implementing evaluation SBA Moral Education dividend when the majority of students have joined the Facebook group that has been developed by researchers in a timely manner. This is consistent with the theory of constructivism that emphasizes learning independently and there is a motivation in learning when the confirmation given by the teacher. Through the second and third, the majority of students have sent a reply and responds well to the tasks given by the researcher. A student, for example, a student who is not active at the time in the classroom, but in the Facebook application, he has answered questions raised by the teacher well.

Figure 1 : Positive Response to Student Progress

This shows that there is a positive response to student progress SBA Moral Education with the aid of the Facebook application.

Identify Dividend

The second activity is undertaken researchers speech and picture messages with their celebration of Mother's Day. This program is carried out for a week. From the findings, showing 18 pupils sent an answer concerning the value of love, which is the assignment needs students to give a message of love to their mothers during Mother's Day. The answers given most creative students and accompanied by a display image with her beloved students. E.g. students and has provided a special message to his mother after Mother's Day with grammatical language and also put a picture of his mother as a memory. Through the implementation of this activity, the researchers could see the seriousness of pupils and test their creativity. Operations to be carried multifaceted and interesting for students.
The third activity is congratulating the beloved teacher of teachers, activities conducted for 9 days in conjunction with teacher's day May 16, 2014. Through its activities, a total of 37 students have given an answer through a special message to their beloved teacher. Through the answers given, the students have managed to generate a message about the day their beloved teacher to teacher. The message was given also clearly show appreciation to teachers who have students educate them in conjunction with the teachers. This is consistent with the high manner is used as the medium of assessment of students. Facebook is seen as a medium for a new medium that replaces the cards and short message system (SMS) to send a meaningful message. It shows that this method has set up various evidence assessments to the students.

**Usability Of Facebook Applications In The Performance Evaluation Of Dividend For SBA Moral Education**

Table 1: Results of Survey Regarding Applicability Facebook Application For Evaluating SBA Moral Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before listening to a description of this method I have used the Facebook page of the application in question SBA for subjects - other subjects.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review this FB2FORUMPBS interest me in particular to answer Rating dividend SBA Moral Education.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>0.304</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do this FB2FORUMPBS introduced is easy for me to follow?</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.335</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This method is very effective for the performance evaluation of PBS.</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>0.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have problems implementing innovations FB2FORUMPBS because it does not have internet facilities.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>0.439</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the survey conducted, showed that all students have never used this method up to answer - where questions SBA Assessment before. Therefore, this method is Facebook that the new method can be implemented to attract students SBA facilitate the process of assessment by teachers. In addition, 90% of students agree that use of
the Facebook application is especially interesting for students to answer questions dividend SBA guest Moral Education. This shows that, in this study as something new and can be used in evaluating and assessing SBA Moral Education.

The majority of students (95%) agreed that the study presented by researchers is very effective and efficient implementation of the medium as a dividend valuation for SBA. The answer can be supported through the involvement of students in all activities undertaken by teachers in groups SBA website 2014 SMKBS Moral Education. The method used by the teacher is very effective and can be answered anywhere using a variety of devices such as smartphones and access and others. The questionnaire regarding the issues when using Facebook apps show 10% of students have a problem in implementing this application. This percentage has given an answer to some students who did not answer the SBA question given by the teacher on time. As an alternative teacher has opened a school computer lab every day of the two week period of implementation of the study for the students to fill in the answers. Therefore, if there are students who cannot answer SBA dividend given by the teacher, students can use the computer laboratory for filling and dividends given researchers said. Overall, through this questionnaire, clearly demonstrates the use of this application can be used at the same time facilitate the implementation of the evaluation dividend alphabetical SBA at school. This is evidenced by the responses collected after the survey was conducted.

**Summary and recommendations**

Based on the findings of the study carried out it can be clarified that the methods introduced can be used by students and teachers to implement the SBA evident assessment at school. Through the results of surveys carried out, it has proved that the new method is very well received by students. After the implementation of the Facebook application is done, the students showed a good response, as well as secured band. The study also assesses students’ achievement in particular subjective band 5 and 6. It can be proved when students can perform on their own responsibility in the house without anyone's help. For example through subjective evaluation band 5 and 6 of the charge, the early disciples joined the group (group) SMKBS SBA Moral Education have shown a high responsible nature thereby entitled to a brilliant band. The highlight of this study can be successful if the full support given to all students. Researchers will try to make improvements over time. For example, researchers can increase their use of social media such as the introduction of the forum through Twitter, What's Up or Blog. In the future, researchers also considered to reply within a task given in a longer period to overcome a number of students who do not have their own Internet access.
Further Recommendations

Researchers feel the need for a continuous review after production methods to students. As the researchers only focused on preliminary study on the use of social medium Facebook, it is likely in the near future researchers will expand the use of other social media such as Twitter, blog and What’s up Application. Researchers also hope that in the future, many researchers can introduce some other better method to support and enhance students’ success in improving the quality of academic achievement. Researchers feel –this Action Research is one of the perfect stage to seek alternative after a successful educator success in teaching and learning platform (PDP).

The use of Facebook application is a new and easy alternative for assessing students’ SBA dividend. According to the study, the average person uses the social networking site on the internet is for 2 hours a day (Daily Herald Press 2013), therefore, in addition to surf the social networking site, teachers and students can also make use of time, space and opportunity to carry out the SBA through this cyberspace indirectly. The method used is very simple to attract students because students are now more likely to progress IT or internet which is growing rapidly. In addition, the students seem fun and work harder in engaging this technology. This shows the use of the Facebook application is also able to create a relaxed PDP atmosphere thus increase the students' interest in studying this topic.
References


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Analysis of Compositions Written by a Fifth Grade Chinese Child in Japan

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Multiple languages are prevalent in our increasingly connected world, and this interconnectivity brings many languages together in contact zones (Pratt, 1991), where speakers of multiple languages interact with one another. Schools are a common contact zone, yet while most educators are comfortable with the dominant language of instruction, they need tools for understanding multilingualism (Piccardo, 2013). Discourse analysis can shed light on how children develop multilingual competency, providing much needed information to educators, especially at the elementary school level.
Discourse analysis has been used to analyze the spoken interactions of multilingual elementary and university students (Creese and Blackledge, 2010; Michael-Luna and Canagarajah, 2008). In addition to oral language, written compositions have been analyzed by Canagarajah (2011) who grounds his work in translanguaging theory (see also García and Wei, 2014). This theory posits that multiple languages are part of an integrated system, and speakers move between languages as needed during a speech event and even in writing. Through using multiple languages in writing, students can exercise agency by expressing themselves on topics they care about. For example, Harmon and Vargas-Dubai (2012) used discourse analysis to explore writing within an arts-based participatory education experience of middle school multilingual students in the United States. The students chose to write about issues of discrimination in their community and created a newsletter to publicize these issues. In this way, the young people exercised agency by using all their linguistic resources, choosing their topic, and disseminating information to others. This study stands out as an example of how discourse analysis of children’s writing can reveal issues that are important to students as well as actions students take to create better conditions in their lives and the lives of others.

**Multilingualism is an Asset**

It is important for educators to understand why multilingualism is an asset. Many continue to believe that multiple languages interfere with one another, or children should use only one language in order to increase the speed of language acquisition. However, there are many benefits to learning and using multiple languages. “Bilinguals have an expanded repertoire with which to amplify communication and express comprehension. These resources have the potential to be both communicative tools and pedagogical tools” (Hopewell, 2013, p. 235). Multilingual students have shown their ability to help their families understand school, medical, and other official documents and to negotiate parent-teacher conferences. Although such language brokering has its problems, many families rely on it for everyday life (Corona, 2011). Another advantage for multilingual students is in learning world languages for academic purposes. Eventually their languages may provide employment opportunities. Multilingualism is an asset for cognitive development. Neuroscientists are increasingly discovering cognitive benefits to bilingualism (Costa, Hernández, and Sebastián-Gallés, 2008).

Multilingualism can also be an asset to instruction. Canagarajah illustrated how using a dialogic approach to instruction develops students’ linguistic resources to create texts in which two languages are complimentary. Students draw upon their languages to make rhetorical choices in writing. Even people who view themselves as monolingual use other languages in writing. Many languages, including English use phrases from other languages. For example, English authors often use French, German and Latin phrases to illustrate their meaning.

There are benefits to writing in multiple languages, just as there are benefits to speaking multiple languages. Oral language abilities are a resource that can lead to accomplished readers and writers of multiple languages when sufficient educational contexts are employed. Taylor, Bernhard, Garg and Cummins (2008) depicted such a learning context in a Canadian kindergarten where children wrote dual language books in collaboration with the classroom teacher and multiple generations of family members in the child’s home. As educators are increasingly utilizing students’
multiple languages for writing instruction, it is necessary to analyze such writing to understand the rhetorical strategies used. Building on previous work using discourse analysis with multilingual writing, our paper traces the linguistic moves made by a multilingual child when writing in two languages, Japanese and Chinese. Writing samples from her third, fourth, and fifth grade school years were chosen for analysis in order to explore how she was developing as a multilingual writer. Theories of translanguaging and multilingualism contributed to our exploration of the following question: What can be learned through analyzing a bilingual Chinese/Japanese student’s writing in both languages?

A Discourse Analysis Method for Student Writing

Spence (2014) developed a method for analyzing linguistically diverse student writing called Generous Reading. In a follow up study of 61 fifth grade students and their teachers (Spence, Fan, Speece, and Bushaala, forthcoming), it was found that when teachers used this method in a professional development setting, the teachers made more nuanced observations than a control group of teachers. The Generous Reading teachers drew from broader sources of knowledge about student writing. They noticed how their students used description, explanation, concepts, and expression contrasted with the control group, which took very little or no notice of these.

Generous Reading draws from composition scholars and childhood educators who have analyzed student writing for contributing voices, or influences (Bakhtin, 1986; Dyson, 2003 Freedman & Ball, 2004; Halasek, 1999; Ryan and Barton, 2014; Welch, 1993) and for literary or descriptive language (Armstrong, 2006; Coady and Escamilla, 2005). Bakhtin referred to language as a heteroglossia, or diversity of voices. Analysis of voices “explicitly bridges the linguistic and the sociohistorical, enriching analysis of human interaction” (Baily 2007p. 269). Such an analysis helps uncover the historical and social influences in writing.

Heteroglossic voices and literary language are internalized ways of using language, not authorial embellishments to writing. “The generalizations governing poetic metaphorical expressions are not in language, but in thought” (Lakoff, 1992, p. 203) Analyzing multilingual writing for literary elements uncovers the figures of speech used in everyday language, and the thought process behind that language. Discourse analysis focusing on voices and literary elements is used as a productive method for understanding multilingual student writing.

Context. We report on the multilingual writing of an ethnically Chinese elementary student who was born and raised in Japan. Spence met Tao and her daughter, Lala (not her actual name) through their participation in a previous study of Japanese writing instruction (Spence and Kite, 2013) when Lala was a student at one of the study schools. During that study, Spence and Tao observed Lala’s third grade teacher’s language arts lesson. In the present study, Spence and Tao collected Lala’s writing over a three year time span.

Lala’s father and mother are both Chinese and moved to Japan soon after they were married. Lala was born in Japan and began attending Japanese nursery school at 9 months. She was immersed in the Japanese language while at nursery school. At home, her mother spoke to her in Mandarin Chinese, English, and Japanese, depending on the situation. Her father spoke to her only in Mandarin Chinese. In this
way, Lala was multilingual from infancy. She continued to attend Japanese nursery school until the age of three, when she spent most of her third year in China with her grandmother. There, she attended a Chinese preschool. She came back to Japan at four years old, and continued to attend Japanese schools until the present time. Lala’s family lived in the center of a large city in Japan within a predominantly Japanese neighborhood. In general, they did not interact with a Chinese community, so Lala had little Chinese language input from the local environment. When Lala was five, her mother began teaching her Chinese written characters, using the Chinese national textbook. She continued teaching Chinese characters until Lala was in third grade, when she stopped. She thought Lala might be confusing Japanese kanji with Chinese writing, as the two are sometimes subtly different.

We used the Generous Reading method to analyze three written works. The first was written in Japanese when Lala was in third grade. Her teacher asked the students to write on Monday about something they did on the weekend. The students wrote in a nikki (journal) and the teacher subsequently read the entries and commented in red pen, focusing on the content of the writing. Nikki is a common type of writing practiced in Japanese elementary schools. Lala’s teacher required writing in the nikki every week. She also assigned writing during language arts lessons and across school subjects. The teacher also provided the students with a notebook to explore topics of their own choice at home. Lala used this notebook extensively during her third grade year, and even used the notebook to engage in a self-study of Chinese.

The second work was written in Chinese when Lala was in fourth grade. Lala’s mother encouraged Lala to write a speech for a Chinese speech contest, held in a nearby city with a large Chinese population. Lala wrote the speech mainly in Chinese, using Japanese when she did not know how to express an idea in Chinese. Once she had written a draft of the speech, she asked her mother for suggestions of how to express the Japanese words and phrases in Chinese. She used her mother’s suggestions to rewrite the speech completely in Chinese. She continued to revise the speech until she had a final copy to be used in the speech contest.

The third work was written in Japanese when Lala was in fifth grade. It is an impression written after a school activity. The school she attended was small, so all the grade levels engaged in outdoor activities together. The school principal promoted the practice of writing impressions of such activities. Her fifth grade teacher complied with the practice only minimally, and he did not require the students to write as often as Lala had in third and fourth grade. Also, Lala began attending Juku, after-school lessons in math, language arts, and science. So she did not have much time to write at home for her own purposes as she had in third grade. Lala’s body of written work in fifth grade was much smaller than in the previous years.

**Analysis.** The three written works were chosen as exemplars of Lala’s multilingual writing. The Japanese works were chosen as typical writings from third and fifth grade. The Chinese piece was one of two Chinese writings that Lala completed over three years. Lala’s only encouragement to write in Chinese during these years was through the open exploration notebook and the Chinese speech contest.
Lala’s mother, Tao, was familiar with the Generous Reading method. With this in mind, she read through each written work, while verbally translating into English for Spence. Together we discussed the heteroglossic voices within the written work. Next, we discussed the literary elements within the written work. Finally, we discussed what this analysis revealed about Lala as a person, as a writer, and what the analysis revealed about the written work itself. As this occurred, Lala was playing with her brother nearby. Tao asked Lala to clarify aspects of the written work throughout the analysis and discussion. The analysis of these works revealed many heteroglossic voices, literary elements, and rich information about Lala as a person and writer. We present the English translation of each piece of writing, followed by our findings from the discourse analysis. This is only a portion of what was found, with more extensive notes from each analysis provided as appendix.

Tsurumi Park (pseudonym)

Yesterday, because of good weather, we went to Tsurumi. We always go there by car but yesterday I asked my father, “Let’s go there by bicycle.” And then my father said, “Okay.” And I felt happy. We rode bicycles to the park. I felt like only a few minutes later, my brother said, “Hey, look, Tsurumi is over there. Look, look.” he said. Really, it’s true. We realized we arrived already. So we went to Children’s Square. We tried our best to play. First of all, I played on the monkey bars. My brother worked very hard on it at that time and I said, “You can do it.” But my brother fell down from the monkey bars repeatedly, with one more to go. Only one more! So he cried very loudly. At that time I went to his side and said, “Are you okay? I’m sure you can do it!” I comforted him. So with my words, my brother stopped crying. He said, “Okay, I’ll try to pass the bars again, so please, my sister, watch me. Focus on me only, please.” he requested.

So once again he started from the very beginning and went to the very end. He finished it, he did it! “Great,” I said, “you worked so hard, congratulations.” My brother smiled. “Thank you” he said.

That was fun for me, so I would like to go there again.

The heteroglossic voices in this narrative were cultural maxims, direct quotes of the father and brother, and dialogue typical of children’s talk to each other. The literary elements were comparisons and theme development. These aspects of Lala’s narrative initiated and sustained a theme: the power of words. The dialogue between Lala and her father begins with “We always go there by car but yesterday I asked my father, “Let’s go there by bicycle.” Her father agreed, setting the stage for not only an enjoyable outing, but an important victory for her younger brother. The words Lala uses, “little brother” and “elder sister” are words introduced to children in Japanese homes and schools. Lala’s family, who are Chinese, did not introduce these words at home, but Lala took on Japanese cultural norms through her schooling.

Culture is also evident in common Japanese maxims such as ganbare, you can do it! This phrase indicates the belief that encouragement is important and can lead to success. The idea was reinforced by Lala’s use of the phrase ishokenme, do as well as you can. The idea that one can succeed through trying hard was reinforced in the narrative through repetition, “I’ll try to pass the bars again” and “So once again he started” The dialogue between brother and sister developed a theme of the power of words as Lala’s words of encouragement had the effect of her brother successfully
completing the monkey bars. The theme was reinforced when Lala wrote, “So with my words, my brother stopped crying.” In her writing, Lala expresses the power of words to comfort, motivate, and create a successful outcome.

The next written work we present is the Chinese speech, written in fourth grade for a speech contest. The contest officials provided the topic, which was to write about a future goal or dream.

What is Your Dream?
I want to be a person who is helpful to people who need help and to protect the earth. Even though I am still in elementary school, I can do two things. The first one, I can deposit my pocket money so I can do something. Every day I help my mom do some housework, washing dishes, cleaning house, watching my brother. My mom gives me 400 yen a month and I deposit this money and I never spend a penny. In Szechuan province there was an earthquake and also in Japan. My family and I donated money a little bit. One day a TV program introduced a place in Thailand where there was a flood. Every day it flooded and the school floated away. Money was donated for a floating school and the teachers taught in the floating school. That inspired me.

The second one, it is very important to separate trash in Japan. It is important to protect the environment. Separating garbage is a very good idea to protect the environment. It can decrease the pollution in the air and save the environment. Unfortunately Chinese people do not do very well on this point. I would like to tell my friends, my relatives, my family members about pollution and teach them how to separate garbage. In my opinion separating garbage is a good idea. What’s more I think carbon dioxide will pollute the environment very much, so I always persuade my father not to drive. If we can take a bus or take a train, I don’t want my father to take a car.

What’s more I decided not to eat potato chips. Potato chips are really delicious, but it needs a lot of palm oil. In order to make potato chips, a lot of forests are cut down to instead grow palms for oil. The earth’s environment has been destroyed and a lot of animals have lost their homes. This I remember from a good book. So I decided not to eat potato chips but it is something I can do to protect the environment. So my conclusion is, my dream is to be a person who is helpful to other people in the society and I want to realize my dream bit by bit.

The heteroglossic voices in this speech were: television broadcasts of the Szechuan and Fukushima earthquakes and Thailand flood, people who came from Fukushima to the school, environmental slogans in Japanese lessons and posters from the train station. The literary language was reminiscent of proverbs.

This speech has an obvious theme due to the nature of the writing prompt for a future goal or dream. Lala chose to focus on helping others in society. The ideas developed in this speech are a reflection of many texts Lala encountered including television, posters, books, and fliers. Although the family does not usually watch television, the media had a strong influence on this written work. The natural disasters and resulting nuclear power plant accident at Fukushima had a devastating effect across Japan. Everyone was affected in some way. News broadcasts were shown at Lala’s
elementary school and in the aftermath of the disaster, people from Fukushima came to the school to speak. That same year, Thailand was devastated by their worst flooding in five decades and as a result many people were left homeless and many buildings were destroyed. Lala directly referred to television broadcasts in her speech, “One day a TV program introduced a place in Thailand where there was a flood.” Lala also directly referred to a book about habitat destruction in the rainforest, “The earth’s environment has been destroyed and a lot of animals have lost their homes. This I remember from a good book.” Lala’s writing was also influenced by community flyers with detailed instructions on how to separate household trash for recycling. These influential voices in Lala’s world reflect her growing awareness of her place in the world and society. She felt that she could make a small difference in the world, but that small gestures by many people can have a large impact. The phrase, “bit by bit” is reminiscent of the proverb from China and other cultures that mean something like, “A single drop of water helps to swell the ocean.” Lala not only wants to do her part, but also told her father not to drive the car because of carbon dioxide emissions and she told her family in China that they should recycle their trash.

This Chinese writing began as a rough draft, using Japanese words when Lala did not know how to express an idea in Chinese. It is written in a style that is not typical of Chinese writing. Rather than elaborate phrases used to decorate the writing, Lala’s prose is very direct. And Lala did not hesitate to state her opinions. In this way, Lala used translanguaging, drawing upon both Chinese and Japanese phrases, and moving outside of the traditional style of Chinese writing.

The last work we will present is an impression of a school event, written in the fifth grade, one of very few writing assignments from this school year.

Enjoyable, Exciting Picnic
On May sixteenth, we had an exciting picnic. We went and came back on foot, so our legs became more and more heavy. At first we tried to reach the goal as fast as we could so we choose a short cut and arrived at N. sensei’s place. But from there we became more and more lost. So we took out the map and had a look and went back to the place of N. sensei. From there we were able to find the other teachers and after answering the quiz from S. sensei, homeroom teacher of second grade. About ten meters from him, we saw a first year girl fall down on the ground. Her legs were bleeding. The leader said, “Can I carry you?” She said, “No.” So listening to her words I felt how stubborn she was as a first year girl. But I saw the blood came out of her mouth more and more, and her steps became weaker. So the leader said again, “Can I carry you on my back?” But the girl seemed she didn’t want to be carried. Her arms and legs were wobbly and it was hard for her to jump on the back to be carried. I was called because I had a brother and was used to carrying my brother, so I immediately carried her to the place of T. sensei. Then to the main office for treatment for her injuries. Although it had many troubles, this exciting picnic was fun for me.

The heteroglossic voices in this speech were: an English loan word and Japanese maxims. The literary language included repetition, alliteration, and opposites. Lala described a school activity in which team members worked together to read a map to find their way to each teacher, who then gave them a quiz that they must answer in order to move on to finding the next teacher. Lala used the word goru, goal, an
English loan word. This word was spelled with the alphabet used for foreign words and can be found in sporting events and games, including handheld gaming devices. The repetition and alliteration in words such as waku waku, exciting, don don, more and more, and chikamichi, short cut, have the effect of recreating the children’s sense of urgency as they read the map and rushed to each goal. Lala also used binary opposites, tsuyoi and yowai, to describe the first year girl’s strong mind and her weak legs. This narrative ends with another opposite pair, “Although it had many troubles, this exciting picnic was fun for me.” The sense of urgency and the contrastive ending in the story reveal that for Lala, overcoming obstacles is what makes an event worthwhile and enjoyable.

Discussion
Analyzing Lala’s three writings revealed aspects of agency and flexible bilingualism. We will first discuss how Lala expressed her agency in life experiences, and then we will discuss how Lala engaged in flexible bilingualism.

Agency. Looking across the three written works over a time span of three years, it is clear that Lala continued to address themes that were important to her. When she was confronted with obstacles in life, she relished overcoming the obstacles. When her group became lost during a school activity and they found a hurt child, Lala expressed agency in solving the problems. When her brother could not succeed at the monkey bars, she comforted and motivated him until he was successful. Lala also extended her agency to problems in society such as natural disasters and environmental issues. She expressed agency by asking her father not to drive the car, and by asking her grandparents in China to recycle items from their trash. Lala made the decision to not eat potato chips in order to help prevent deforestation. Lala’s writing was strong because of her sense of agency. She understood that words have power and actions can make a difference.

Previous research on multilingual writing has shown how children use written signs such as English and Japanese scripts in identity formation (Kabuto, 2012). Maguire and Grave’s, (2001) analysis of bilingual students’ daily journal entries revealed children’s views of the world and their sense of selves as writers. Harman and Varga Dobai’s (2012) study of middle school students’ writing in an arts-based participatory classroom provided the opportunity to write about social topics that were meaningful to the students. They expressed agency by researching, revising, and disseminating information on discriminatory practices. Discourse analysis of Lala’s three written works reveal how she was developing her identity as a helpful, encouraging person, who cares about the environment. She was not afraid to express her views to others and she acted to help others and improve the environment.

Flexible bilingualism. As a multilingual writer, Lala had few opportunities to practice the Chinese writing she learned as a child, yet she seized those few chances to write in Chinese. She wrote a speech in fourth grade, first using a code-meshing strategy in Chinese and Japanese. This is a very productive strategy for developing literacy in multiple languages and connects with translanguaging theory.

Lala learned about three hundred Chinese characters as a five year old. In subsequent years, she was exposed to her mother and father’s talk at home and she spent almost one year in China as a four year old. She also visited her grandparents in China during summer vacation each year. Tao also provided her children with many DVDs of Chinese animation, which exposed Lala to vocabulary and literary features. While
writing the speech, her mother helped her think of Chinese phrases when Lala asked for help. Through this interaction, the mother-daughter pair engaged in flexible bilingualism, in which the boundaries between the languages were permeable (Creese and Blackledge, 2010). By discussing the ideas using Japanese and Chinese phrases, Lala developed concepts that could be described using both languages. This example from Lala’s Chinese writing highlights a combination of experiences that led to multiple literacies. These experiences were: early learning of Chinese literacy, continued exposure to Chinese in a variety of venues, and using a strategy of writing in both languages in order to express ideas. By revising the speech with her mother’s help, Lala was successful in writing and performing a polished Chinese version of her speech for the contest.

Implications
Educators should create opportunities for students to use all their linguistic resources throughout the school year. To date, Lala was only asked to use Chinese once in school. She is now in sixth grade. At that time, the class was studying classical Chinese poetry, written in Japanese. This is a normal unit of study in Japanese elementary school. The teacher asked Lala to read a poem with classical Chinese pronunciation for the whole class to hear. Lala was a bit shy, but performed the reading to the best of her ability. Multilingual students have linguistic abilities that can be valuable assets for their own learning and to share with others. These assets should not be ignored by educators.

Discourse analysis using Generous Reading is one way to read student writing, paying attention to who they are becoming as people in relation to society. Through her writing, Lala is seen as a person who thrives on solving problems and helping others in difficult situations. This can be seen in her simple narratives of family and school life as well as the speech she wrote to express her dreams for the future. Often educators do not look beyond surface features of writing such as spelling, handwriting, grammar, and organization. They never see the person behind the writing, even when the words are clearly describing that person’s ideas. Educators should take the time to read children’s writing thinking about whom the child is becoming and what the child is thinking. Discourse analysis also can help educators to see what the student is doing as a writer. By noticing the literary language use in writing, educators can see that children have internalized the sound of language such as alliteration and repetition. Children use metaphors, proverbs and symbolism without intentionally trying to embellish their writing. Educators should pay attention to what children are doing with language in their writing.

Parents and family members of multilingual children are tremendous assets in helping educators understand how children are translanguaging. When given opportunities, children will use all their linguistic resources to develop themselves as people in society and as writers. Teachers should make appointments with parents to share student writing and together discuss the child as a person and how the child is using their linguistic repertoire in speaking and writing. Teachers should be aware of how language is used in the home, and should encourage the family to discuss ideas in multiple languages. Homework assignments that include opportunities for translanguaging would be beneficial to student’s writing and language development. Finally, policy makers should consider the benefits of bilingual education opportunities. In general, Japan offers very little for Mandarin Chinese development.
Yet Chinese are a significant population group in Japan. As of 2015, the ethnic breakdown of population was Japanese 98.5%, Koreans 0.5%, Chinese 0.4%, other 0.6% (CIA Factbook). The development of bilingual Chinese would be a benefit to Japan, providing much needed translation services and intercultural understandings.
References

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Appendix

Generous Reading Notes

Tsrumi Park
During class, students wrote what happened over the weekend

Voices of Others
Because of good weather, let’s go out. Mother and father
Teachers always begin by talking about the weather
Ganbare- Japanese culture
Directly quotes the father and brother
Kid talk
My brother, my sister- school, kindergarten

Literary Elements
Ishokenme- do as well as one can
She really enjoyed everything about the day
Comparison Last time my brother fell second time he
Actually only one more hold- emphasis
So once again- repetition to emphasize ganbarai
From the very beginning to the end
Because of my words- emphasize the theme
I was happy (beginning of the story) very; very enjoyable (at the end)
After a few minutes- it was really a long time, but her happiness made it short

What does it tell you about her as a person?
She can be happy because of small things
Agreeing with her opinions can make her happy
She has an interest in the impact of cars on the environment
She believes that words have power
The sister and brother cooperate together
The sisters words are so powerful to her brother

What does it tell you about her as a writer?
She writes about a simple thing, but with a deeper meaning
Repetition is important to her expression of her feeling together with the words

What does it tell you about the writing?
Quotations throughout with correct punctuation (different than Chinese)
She used words to convey that time goes by quickly when you are enjoying the time
Although young, students have their own thoughts and thinking may be different.
Respect them as individuals
Teachers may think of writing conventions as mistakes, but in a different language, they may be correct.

What is Your Dream?
Written in Chinese for a speech contest
Voices of Others
Television: for example Thailand flood situation
Pocket money typical for Japanese children
Helping others: kindergarten teachers and principal
Fukushima 311 broadcasting even in school
People from the area came to the school to speak
Donate some money, school donated money and stationary
Steady job-mom’s voice if you don’t study…
Protect our Earths environment- Japanese lesson, slogans at the station
Decrease pollution in the air
Save energy
Separation of trash- flier from community area
“In China this perspective doesn’t do well”
Family in China throws everything together, friends throw everything together
No container for PET bottles
Carbon dioxide will pollute- school social studies
Chips are fried in palm oil- *Elephants and Potato Chips*

Literary Elements
I can deposit a little more and it will be a big one drops of water can become a big flood
Washing dishes, folding clothes, cleaning house, taking care of little brother
phrases in a series
I don’t spend money at all- childlike speech
I want to shout- strong emotional word
Potato chips are delicious, yes, very delicious- childish enjoyment, evocative
I made a decision- passion for her cause

What does it tell you about the person?
Kindhearted cares about other people
She wants to have an effect on the world
She thinks deeply about things

What does this tell you about the writer?
She thinks about what phrases to include or not
She’s not afraid to criticize or state her opinion

What does this reveal about the writing?
Her words and phrases evoke a reaction in the reader
Comes from her own experience
It is direct

Enjoyable, Exciting Picnic
Impression of a school activity
Voices of Others
Feels very heavy, Japanese people use that phrase
More than 40 minutes from their school to the park
First year girl, to show I’m the elder one you should listen to me
ranking by age 5th grade matched with first grade
When the first year girl said “no” it surprised her
Dekirutake as soon as possible teacher uses it a lot, to hand in homework, etc.
Goru, Goal written in katakana school events and games it is written this way, handheld game
Chikamichi shortcut- daily life, children go to school every morning in a group
Have to go to the appointed place to go together even though they live close to the school Shortcut only after school, it’s an adventure or exploration
Ombu to carry somebody, but usually for kids they have to jump on the back of the child Must bend over, not like an adult who squats down and can use abdominal muscles
Hancho, group leader- she is showing respect
The big ones give orders and small ones have to obey
Because I have a brother I know how, Nareteru, after practice I know how
Say teachers name to show respect that teacher is for second year students

Literary Elements
Opposite word yowai in talking
more and more, dondon- level is up and up difficulty
Opposite: The little girls mind is so strong even though her legs are so weak

What does it tell you about the person?
Internalized Japanese cultural norms
Small school family atmosphere everyone knows each other
Enjoys a challenge

What does this tell you about the writer?
Writes from her own experience
Develops a theme through a simple story

What does this reveal about the writing?
Describes with vivid detail
Uses repetition to make a point
The Link between the Process of Change and Coaching in an Organization: A Case Study

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Abstract
The aim of this article is to highlight the empowerment of coaching in the process of change in an organization using case study - a real life change project in an institution. The article hopes to demonstrate the critical importance of coaching during change, for successful change to occur, and any sustaining change requires ongoing coaching as an integral part of the process. The article tries to heed a call on adopting coaching to support organizational learning and change. It also attempts to open further research interests in the link between the process of change and coaching, and the benefits of coaching in change management today.

Key Words: organizational learning and change, change management, coaching for change, empowerment
Introduction

Today’s dynamic world is causing organizations, groups and individuals to reframe their view of what ‘normal’ is: ‘Change is the new normal’, or ‘the new normal is continuous change’ (Jorgensen, et al., 2008). Drivers of change can be positive or negative. They can be environmental or personal. They can be of external or internal environment. Changes of external environment can be due to factors like markets, legislation, competition and economy and all these will have consequences for organizations, such as its strategy development. Changes in strategy can lead to changes in the way the organization is structured, which can impact on relationships, responsibilities and ways of working. The way in which change is implemented and accepted through the organization will be largely influenced by its leaders, their attitudes and behaviors as perceived by their subordinates. When there are changes in the work carried out, skills of the employees would have to be assessed, usually training is needed in order to cope with the new skill requirements and coaching is also necessary to facilitate the mobility (Gallwey, 2000) (Burke & Litwin, 1992). Changes of internal environment can be of immediate working environment, like a change in job to a new organization, a change in personnel, or a change in terms of conditions of service, which are likely to invoke a range of emotional and political responses from relevant stakeholders. Every organization has its unique culture, and culture change only evolves over time as a result of many other changes happening around.

In the Executive Overview of the Best Practices in Change Management – 2014 Edition, the report suggests that two of the greatest contributors to success are: employee engagement and participation; engagement with and support from middle management (Creasey & Hiatt, 2014). The study reported that the main obstacles when implementing change projects were: changing mindsets and attitudes; lack of motivation of involved employees. The “soft stuff” was the hardest to get right (Jorgensen, et al., 2008). Therefore, the most significant challenges are people oriented, motivation is the key to effective change, and to maintain motivation in the pursuit of change is a real challenge (Burke & Litwin, 1992). And here a coach can play a pivotal role in facilitating the change process (Downey, 2003).

The premise of this research is that change coaching is an optimal support to facilitate effective change, however, coaching is not the only valid support (Bennett & Bush, 2014). The article aims to establish the link between the process of change and coaching in an organization. Using real life project example to demonstrate how a coach could help in facilitating the change process, and in maintaining motivation throughout the changing events. It also tries to bring out the benefits of coaching for change by looking into a list of change process related factors in a pre- and post-coaching setting.

Coaching for Change and its Assessment

Coaching is an effective skill for helping individuals and groups change, and coaching for change can have an impact on the organization or system (Bennett & Bush, 2014). While the efficacy of coaching is still not well understood, the AMA/Institute for Corporate Productivity Coaching Survey 2008 reported that two of the main reasons behind the termination of coaching assignments were: the inability of certain employees to change and the difficulty of measuring return on investment (ROI) (American Management Association, 2008). ‘Coaching engages with people, the
essentially human nature of coaching is what makes it work – and also what makes it nearly impossible to quantify’ (Sherman & Freas, 2004).

One way to track the benefits associated with coaching is through the use of assessments. The critical lesson for coaches is to administer these assessments in a pre- and post-test format (American Management Association, 2008). Though there are several different ways organization can use coaching, the most commonly used method of coaching is to make it an integral part of a supporting programme.

**Background of the Case Study**

Introduction of a new Student and Course Record System – a case study in a tertiary education institution in Hong Kong (called the Institution hereunder).

The Institution was experiencing rapid growth and to support the academic development and operation of the Institution, the Academic and Management Board had decided to partner with Cloud Business Services to implement a new Student and Course Record System in 2013.

When introducing an initiative – a new IT system, it required staff to change the way they think and do things within the Institution. These disturbances to their behavior or thinking were likely to be met with resistance in some form (Prochaska, J., et al., 2006), and the Institution Management saw that to bring about changes in behavior, a pervading change in context was required (Palmer & Whybrow, 2008). They also saw that to change behavior at the individual and organization level, the expectations, individual roles, behaviors, hierarchies and coalitions that existed within the systems of the organization needed to be examined and made more flexible (Peltier, 2001).

According to Peltier (Peltier, 2001), below are opportunities or ways that coaches can help:

a. ‘When big things in the organization change.’
b. ‘Skill development for individual/group transitions.’
c. ‘Specific skill development.’
d. ‘Resolving specific problems.’

The Institution Management, as the Change Sponsor, realized the new system would be a big thing in the Institution, the staff had to go through stages of learning and skill development, and finally, they would benefit from an improved work flow with greater ease in administration, record keeping and retrieving, and enhanced technological skills. This is a directed change project driven from the top of the organization and relies on authority, persuasion, and compliance (Kerber & Buono, 2010, Spring).

On this project the Institution Management had established a Change Team Infrastructure (Galpin, 1996) – Figure 1, to manage the process of change in order to make the implementation of the new system a success.
The Steering Committee guided the coalition roles. The Change Sponsor appointed two Change Managers. Since the project was for large-scale change, in addition to the Steering Committee, was that of a Project Team. The Project Team coordinated across the Implementation Teams, identifying and resolving issues, its members were the leaders of the Implementation Teams. It provided a coordination function, offering regular forum for communication and learning among all the teams (Bennett & Bush, 2014).

The Change Managers had conducted a few Change Agent Engagement Sessions, followed by a series of Fundamental Change Briefing Sessions and System Live Demo to the Change Agents, whereby the concepts of the new system were explained, and upcoming changes on the operation processes were highlighted. In this change project, the Change Managers focused on several critical areas: communication, employee involvement, teamwork and change management (Palmer & Whybrow, 2008), and managing the transitions (Bridges, 2009).

During change, the Change Managers advised the Institution Management to repeat the message again and again – emphasized the need to change and the benefits of the new system. A website was established to introduce the background of the project and the new system, the Change Sponsor, the Change Agents and the System Partner, the go-live schedule of the system and the project status. Newsletters were distributed to all stakeholders regularly to update them on the progress of the project, and to announce interim victories and the ultimate success.

Employee participation in the system design workshops and meetings had been highly encouraged during the core system design stages because the Change Managers believed that participation gave substantive benefits for both individuals and the School. When the staff saw that their input was valued, they would increase their commitment, involvement, and take greater personal responsibility for the new system outcomes (Palmer & Whybrow, 2008).

During change, people went through a series of stages and emotions (Kubler-Ross, 1973):

Pre-contemplation / Denial
Project Team at the Institution faced a lot of changes in work load, project priority and did not believe in the urgency of the new IT system. Programme administration teams in the Institution did not want to accept the news and expose themselves to the new and long journey ahead.

Emotional arousal – anger, bargaining, upset
After acknowledgment, some project team members would still ask questions like, ‘Why now?’ ‘Why me?’ ‘Why not employing somebody else to do the additional work?’ When they came to meetings, they still showed their faces that they did not want to accept the changes in work arrangement and of wanting to do anything but getting involved in the project. This caused frustration of those members who had already been convinced of the benefits of the project – the Change Sponsor which included everyone in the management team and the Change Agents which were group of individuals who had the responsibility to make change happen.

Due to insufficient manpower for redeployment, some programme teams started to bargain and requested to spread out the duration of the project to a longer time. This bargain could be due to panic, low confidence, and desperation.

After many rounds of meetings on the project, project implementers had been convinced of the need and that they were not going to escape from the situation. Nonetheless, they were still upset by the new arrangements of workload, which meant they would have to compromise some of their routines and were grieving for the loss that they were about to endure. This upset could take the form of sadness and emotions, depending on individual’s status.

Contemplation /Acceptance
The Change Managers saw many team members move out of their denial, anger, bargain and upset to a stage of acceptance. They were prepared to accept the reality of the situation, and the new and long journey ahead, but they were still uncertain about the impact of change and were in a state of anxiety.

A discovery journey of preparation, action, maintenance and termination
‘At the end of the contemplation stage you decided to change your problem behavior’ (Prochaska, J., et al., 2006). Helping relationships between partners, peers, teammates, and subordinates played an important role during the preparation stage. ‘Action is the busiest period of change. Now more than ever, you need to depend on your helping relationships’. (Prochaska, J., et al., 2006)

In this project, the Change Managers guided the project team to communicate and relate in a way that engenders commitment, responsibility and accountability.

Resistance was part of the territory of change (Palmer & Whybrow, 2008), it occurred when people experienced the discomfort and ambiguity associated with change (Prochaska, J., et al., 2006). The Change Managers listened to all the resistance and addressed them in order to assist the staff to develop new behaviors and thinking. The strategies and techniques they adopted were ‘keep repeating the communication’; ‘acknowledge and legitimize feelings’; ‘raise awareness’; ‘support individual learning and development’; ‘build confidence and provide feedback’; ‘reward and acknowledge progress’ to provide support that utilized resistance and enabled people to change (Palmer & Whybrow, 2008). ‘Resistance exists and will never go away, the easier it will be to embrace it and use its energy to build support for change.’ (Maurer, 1996)

The Change Managers were leading the change by applying critical skills like communication, presence, engagement, listening, showing empathy, understand the
change curve and negotiating resistance. They also consistently used sound change management strategies and techniques to move people through the change cycle (Palmer & Whybrow, 2008). They listened and agreed with the request that the change agents would need some coaching in order to do their job well. They sought approval from the Institution Management to hire an external coach to conduct a workshop – ‘Team Building with Focus on Change Management’ for the Change Agents. The objective was to equip participants with knowledge and skills in managing change in the teams through coaching. As the Change Sponsor, the Institution Management had been pleased with the progress of the changing events, and had been very supportive in approving the recommendations made by the Change Managers.

**Methodology and Findings**
This article reflected on a change project in a tertiary education institution in Hong Kong (called the Institution hereunder), from 2013 to present (it was on-going at the time of writing the article). The project covered changes in the process of a system revamp caused by drivers in the internal environment. The content described the rationale of the changes, planning, review and achievements in progress, and the way forward. The article specifically reviewed the link between the process of change and coaching in an organization. Values and benefits of coaching for change reflected were a collection of feedbacks from relevant stakeholders via formal surveys in pre-and post-workshop setting and informal sharing sessions. In this survey, multiple questions used the well-accepted Likert-type scale, with a 1 rating designated as “lowest/least” and a 5 rating designated as “highest/most”. There were 9 questions in all, with a 10th question in the post-workshop survey.

The questionnaires had been designed to include below factors related to the change process (Prochaska, J., et al., 2006):
- clarification on the change process
- degree of emotion aroused in you
- degree of your resistance to the change process
- allowance to give feedback
- helping relations with your peer in the change team
- commitment to implement the change process
- sufficient knowledge and training on implementing the change process
- ability to manage the change implementation process
- confidence in implementing the change process
- enhancing the assertiveness in implementing the change process (only in post-workshop survey)

**Pre- and Post-Workshop Questionnaire**
The Change – a new Student and Course Record System
Reflecting on the change process, please circle the appropriate score as answer to each statement/question.

1. Please rate your degree of clarification on the change process.
2. Please rate the degree of emotion aroused in you during the process of change. For example shock, denial, anxiety, confrontation.
3. Please rate your degree of resistance during the process of change.
4. How far are you allowed to give feedback? For example identifying dysfunctional thoughts.

5. Do you feel you have established helping relationships with your peer in the Project Implementation Team during the change process? For example empathy and warmth.

6. Do you feel you are committed to implement the change process?

7. Do you feel you have been provided with sufficient knowledge and training on implementing the change process?

8. Do you think you would be able to manage the change implementation process?

9. How confident are you in implementing the change process?

10. Do you find the coaching session enhancing your assertiveness in implementing the change process? (only appear in the post-workshop questionnaire)

The questionnaires were distributed face-to-face before and after the one-day coaching session, and were to be completed by all participants in anonymity. The pre-workshop questionnaire was collected before the session started and the post-workshop questionnaire was collected immediately after the session finished. The scores to each question were organized in table and graphic presentation with focus on the differences in the pre- and post-workshop ratings.

There was a total of 40 participants, with 14 attended the first workshop and the other 26 attended the second workshop. Participants were of various positions in the organizations: among them 13% were director, 17% were manager, 17% were senior executive officer, 20% were executive officer, 13% were executive secretary and 20% were executive assistants (Table 1). And, 20% were male and 80% were female (Table 2). With 36 questionnaires returned from a base of 40 participants, the response rate was 90% (Table 3). Differences in the score ratings of each question at pre- and post-workshop settings were presented in table (Table 4) and graphic formats (Figure 2). And were calculated and expressed as percentage variance (Table 4).
Table 1 – Background of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position in the organization</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Executive Officer</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Officer</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive Secretary</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive/Assistant</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Base: 40

Table 2 – Gender of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Base: 40

Table 3 – Response Rate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. of respondents</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response rate</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Base: 40

Table 4 – Survey Results: Difference in Pre- and Post-Workshop Average Score and Percentage of Difference in Average Score

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors related to the change process</th>
<th>Average Score*</th>
<th>Percentage increase/decrease</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-workshop</td>
<td>Post-workshop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q1 Clarification on the change process</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>4.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2 Degree of emotion aroused in you</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3 Degree of your resistance to the change process</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>2.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4 Allowance to give feedback</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5 Helping relations with your peer in the change team</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>4.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q6 Commitment to implement the change process</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>4.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7 Sufficient knowledge and training on implementing the change process</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>4.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q8 Ability to manage the change implementation process</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>4.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9 Confidence in implementing the change process</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>4.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10 Enhancing the assertiveness in implementing the change process (only in post-workshop survey)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Likert-type scale, with a 1 rating designated as “lowest/least” and a 5 rating designated as “highest/most”

Figure 2 – Survey Results: Difference in Pre- and Post-Workshop Average Score
Base: 40
Remarks:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q1 – clarification on the change process</th>
<th>Q6 – commitment to implement the change process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q2 – degree of emotions aroused in you</td>
<td>Q7 – sufficient knowledge and training on implementing the change process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3 – degree of resistance to the change process</td>
<td>Q8 – ability to manage the change implementation process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4 – allowance to give feedback</td>
<td>Q9 – confidence in implementing the change process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q5 – helping relationships with peer in the change team</td>
<td>Q10 – enhancing the assertiveness in implementing the change process (only in post-workshop survey)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Upon administering the assessments in the pre- and post-workshop setting, the findings were as below. After the coaching workshop:

1. There was a 17.1% increase in the average score on “clarification on the change process” – the 2nd top benefit;
2. There was a 4.9% increase in the degree of emotion aroused in participants;
3. There was a 9.7% decrease in the average score on “degree of resistance to the change process” – the 5th top benefit;
4. There were only slight differences in the average score on “allowance to give feedback” (4%);
5. There was a 6% increase in the average score on “helping relationships with peer in the change team” – the 6th top benefit;
6. There were only slight differences in the average score on “commitment to implement the change process” (-1%);
7. There was a 15.8% increase in the average score on “sufficient knowledge and training on implementing the change process” – the 3rd top benefit;
8. There was an 18.1% increase in the average score on “ability to manage the change implementation process” – the 1st top benefit;
9. There was a 13.1% increase in the average score on “confidence in implementing the change process” – the 4th top benefit;
10. The overall average score on “enhancing the assertiveness in implementing the change process” after the workshop was high at 4.73, against a scale with a 1 rating designated as “lowest” and a 5 rating designated as “highest”;

Examples of feedback from informal sharing session with randomly selected participants:

“I am happy being able to participate in the project from its design stage. As I have been with the Institution for more than 15 years, I am fully aware of the downsides of the current student record system and I do not wish to see the new system not meeting my practical needs in future. I have always been committed in implementing the change process and help my teammates as much as I can. This workshop gave me extra opportunities to share my view with peers in the change team.” – by A. Chan

“I appreciate the continuous communication and transparency of the change events so that I could brief new staff on the prospect of the new system, as they are complaining about the time they have to spend on working with the current system which has been obsolete for a long time! This workshop gave me an insight into coaching and equipped me with useful tools – listening and questioning skills, which would help me in dealing with my colleagues during the implementation process in future.” – by B. Lee

“As change agents, we would have to guide and train other programme staff in the Institution on the new system when it is ready. We do not have any experience in handling changing project and the resistance to change which we may encounter. We hoped to receive some training and this workshop has given me extras strengths. And it has enhanced my understanding on a change process in an organization.” – by C Cheung

**Discussion**

Coaching had been applied in the changing processes in the above project with very positive feedbacks and appreciation from the Change Team. However, it only served as an integral part of the supporting programme in the change process.
The Change Managers recommended hiring an external change coach because they believe an external coach would have an independent perspective, credibility and experience to support and facilitate effective change. In addition, external coach has greater financial motivation to succeed with their clients than do internal coach (Bennett & Bush, 2014), and after all, senior leadership have already been heavily loaded with change work and related activities. However, the combined roles of project leader and coach, change manager and coach in project examples of other organizations is not uncommon, it is frequent to see executives wearing more than one hat and performing multiple functions in parallel in this fast-moving working environment.

Since the number of participants of the workshop was 40, they were divided into two groups to attend the workshop in two separate days. Team coaching was selected due to budget reason and also due to its anticipated benefits as described by Clutterbuck (2007), ‘helping the team improve performance, and the processes by which performance is achieved, through reflection and dialogue’ (Clutterbuck, 2007). According to the survey in Best Practices in Change Management – 2014 Edition, two of the top five obstacles to success in change management in organizations are: resistance to change from employees; and middle management resistance (Creasey & Hiatt, 2014). The project example is a directed change project driven from the top of the organization and relies on authority at the top, persuasion in the middle, and compliance at the bottom (Kerber & Buono, 2010, Spring). In the pre-workshop survey, the resistance from staff was moderate at an average score of 2.89 against a scale with a 1 rating designated as “lowest” and a 5 rating designated as “highest”; and after the workshop, there was a 9.7% decrease in the average score of this factor, to 2.61, which is still exceeding the medium level. It indicates that more work has to be done in regard to persuasion in the middle. However, other supporting activities such as communication, employee involvement and managing the transitions may attain synergy benefits as a whole.

In this change project, coaching had been made as an integral part of a supporting programme. Change Managers listened and agreed with the request that the change agents would need some coaching in order to do their job well. Despite it was only a one-day workshop for each of the participants, the benefits for the group speak for themselves through the differences in the score rating on the factors related to the change process at pre- and post-workshop setting. Further coaching intervention in future may be necessary to the processes of reinforcement and sustainment, as soft and people-related factors typically present great challenges in these processes. The development of the Change Managers to become internal coach may add value in this situation, and using more cost-effective internal coaches would be useful for managers and supervisors. However, when training internal coaches, using externally based development programmes or bringing in external talent as trainer may lead to higher coaching success (Amercian Management Association, 2008). Combining coaching and change management could be very powerful in facilitating changes in an organization. ‘Dealing with organizational change and dilemmas is not for the faint-hearted’ (O’Neill, 2007). ‘Through experience on the sea, sailors learn to read the wind. Once they are on the water, subtle cues tell them when to tack and when to open the sails full.’ (Maurer, 1996) The same applied to the coach of change, the Change Manager was reading a few of the signs: key players, support change agents, timing, go for understanding and keep moving. Only experience and a
willingness to act support a coach of change to move on. Nonetheless, to be instrumental of change, he needed to have his own ongoing reflective space, in which he could reflect on his own practice (Hawkins & Smith, 2006). And the Change Manager may expand his practice to include a blend of education and coaching, which would be a very powerful tool in facilitating a change process.

Conclusion
The results of the survey in the case study had demonstrated the link between the process of change and coaching in an organization, and they were positive energy as below:

- enhance the clarification on the change process
- increase in the degree of emotion aroused in participants
- decrease in the degree of participants’ resistance to the change process
- enhance the helping relations with participants’ peer in the change team
- increase in the level of knowledge and training on implementing the change process
- increase in the ability to manage the change implementation process
- enhance the confidence in implementing the change process
- achieving a high score in enhancing the assertiveness in implementing the change process after the coaching workshop

However, any sustaining change may require ongoing coaching as an integral part of the process. Change becomes more important as an organization ages, because it keeps the organization and its management team updated, stay contemporary and being risks sensitive. The business environment is changing rapidly and it is important for an organization and its people to be ahead of the changes, or at least excited to move along with them. Coaching is extremely helpful when an organization is aware of its needs to change, no matter whether the changes are being driven by external or internal environment. In situation where people are trying to make changes at the emotional level, ‘there would be push back, they may be in the form of panic, lack of confidence, avoidance or insecurity, due to the people have to move far outside their normal patterns of response’ (Hawkins & Smith, 2006). A coach is a professional who have the skills to help others effect personal change. Organizations are using a variety of methods to measure the success of their coaching initiatives. However, some observers believe ‘coaching is not well suited to metrics’ (American Management Association, 2008). The observations and processes described and the reflections made in this article had been based on a real life project in a sizable organization. Quantitative and qualitative reflections on practical cases can truly demonstrate the link between the process of change and coaching in an organization, and it is evident in this study that the link creates positive energy in the change process, especially in raising ability and confidence.

Limitation and the Need for Further Studies
The limitations of the study were: it was case study base; the sample size was small; the questionnaires had not been validated and the data collected had not been analyzed statistically. Nonetheless the premise of this research has been validated – change coaching is an optimal support to facilitate effective change (Bennet & Bush, 2014). The benefit of coaching in sustaining change in the case study is to be ascertained (the project was on-going at the time of writing the article). The article can heed a call on adopting coaching to support organizational learning and change.
Further reflections, studies and or empirical research are warranted to foster the value of coaching in change management today.

**Note**
All names in the assignment have been changed to preserve anonymity.

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An Exploration of One Learner's Affective Experiences from a Dynamic Perspective

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Abstract
This paper examines the perceptions of one Chinese learner of English at a university. From a Dynamic System Theory (DST) perspective, the learner’s perceptions, affective experiences and classroom learning will be explored by identifying the non-linear relationships between them. This paper aims to investigate the relationship between the learner’s perceived affective experiences and her self-reported performances in a foreign language classroom. The learner is a second-year university student from a foreign language university in China. Diary, questionnaire, semi-structured interview, and class observation were applied to investigate this 6-month longitudinal study. Emotional ambivalence including several different affective patterns and four attractor states, namely, Integrative Disposition, Self-esteem, External Incentives and Autonomy were identified.

Keywords: Foreign Language Acquisition (FLA), Dynamic System Theory (DST), Affective Experiences, Non-linear Relationship

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Introduction

In terms of the motivational and affective aspects in Foreign Language Acquisition (FLA) studies, currently, most studies tended to provide evidence to support the potential linear relationship between the target emotion, such as anxiety and one aspect of language learning, such as L2 speaking (Chen & Lee, 2011). However, it is possible that similar speaking performances amongst the learners may result from different patterns of affective change other than only one emotion. This assumption can be linked to Dörnyei’s (2010) reconceptualization of Individual Differences. “…even people with outwardly similar ID patterns can travel very different paths as a result of some difference in a personality constituent that is seemingly irrelevant or of secondary importance” (Dörnyei, 2010, p.262). Therefore, it can be more fruitful if the combinations of different emotions were studied as a whole and from a more open non-linear relationship mapping angle to identify their potential changes over time and their impact on the learner’s self-reported performances.

The purpose of this case study is to investigate the nonlinear dynamic relationship between the learner’s perceived affective experiences and self-reported performances. It is important to obtain a fuller understanding of the dynamism of the learner’s emotional and motivational change through learning. The traditional “Variable” identification, which implied a causal link in the first instance, may not be adequate enough to theorise such dynamism (Dörnyei, 2009; Larsen-Freeman, 2006). Therefore, Dynamic System Theory (DST) was applied as a new paradigm to study the nonlinear relationship between motivation, emotions and performances.

Dynamic System Theory (DST)

Meiss (2007) defined DST as “a trajectory as a function of a single parameter (time) on a set of states (the phase space) is a dynamical system” (p. 105). DST was originally a branch of theoretical mechanics, which was originally designed to mimic the dynamic system. Subsequently, DST developed as a mathematical tool for the analysis of a number of issues, for example, the trajectory of the moon under the influence of the sun, the earth and other planets. In the realistic world, there was a system for each level (de Bot, 1996). Therefore, DST has been adapted and used in different disciplines, from economics to infectious diseases; from meteorology to the solution of practical problems, such as heart rate control, and oil drilling. Although DST was a relatively new theory (van Geert & Steenbeek, 2005), it remained attractive and made more researchers to begin working from a dynamic perspective.

Application of DST in FLA

More scholars tended to apply DST into FLA researches, because of DST’s unique characteristics, for example, self-organization and non-linear, which might fulfill the isolation gaps being revealed from the traditional research. Several examples can
support this trend. For example, Larsen-Freeman (2012) argued that DST was a new transdisciplinary theme for FLA. The most important researchers applying DST to FLA included ‘Five Graces Group’1, Larsen-Freeman, de Bot, Herdina and Jessner, van Geert and Dörnyei. These researchers have shifted from studying discrete factors to studying the whole from moment to moment. Traditional linear studies have revealed the inadequacy of studying the change and individual complexity. For example, Dörnyei (2010) argued that sometimes a seemingly irrelevant tiny difference between learners can lead to a huge difference in their path selection, though they may have very similar ID patterns. Therefore, researchers start to study the combination of traits instead of isolating discrete factors.

**Research Questions**

From a dynamic perspective, what is the relationship between the learner’s perceived affective experiences and her self-reported performances in a foreign language classroom?

**Phenomenographic Approach to This Case Study**

The aim of the current study is to investigate the relationship between the learner’s perceived affective experiences and her self-reported performances in a foreign language classroom from a DST perspective. For this purpose, phenomenography, developed by Ference Marton (1981) was employed as a qualitative research theoretical framework for this study. Phenomenography is “the empirical study of the qualitatively different ways in which a phenomenon can be experienced, perceived, apprehended, understood, conceptualized” (Marton, 1994).

The rationale to choose phenomenography as research methodology is that the ultimate goal of phenomenography is to explore the perceptions individuals hold regarding a given phenomenon through different timescales (Marton, 1981). In addition, the current phenomenographic study adopts a second-order perspective to identify how the learners conceive their world rather than a first-order perspective. The definition and measurement of affective experiences are in accordance with componential theory from a DST perspective.

**Research Design**

**Methods.** Four tools were employed for data collection: Diary, Questionnaire, Semi-structured Interview, and Class Observation. This applied to the first procedure of triangulation to validate phenomenographic data. To be specific, 6 months with an interval of 2 months was covered for this longitudinal study. The data collection was

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1 Authors of the “Five Graces Group”: Clay Beckner, University of New Mexico; Nick C. Ellis, University of Michigan; Richard Blythe, University of Edinburgh; John Holland, Santa Fe Institute; Joan Bybee, University of New Mexico; Jinyun Ke, University of Michigan; Morten H. Christiansen, Cornell University; Diane Larsen-Freeman, University of Michigan; William Croft, University of New Mexico; Tom Schoenemann, Indiana University
in learner’s first language, Chinese Mandarin in order “not to let the lack of L2 proficiency affect the participants’ expressiveness” (Zheng 2012, p. 87). The data was then transcribed and translated into English.

First three tools had different emphasis points. To be specific, diary entries were designed for keeping records of her affective experiences. The learner was asked to keep diaries every week. She could write almost anything relating to her affective experiences. These notes could be irrelevant to FLA teaching and learning activities. Questionnaires were designed to obtain the learner’s learning and performances. Interviews were designed according to Mercer’s (2012) interpersonal and intrapersonal concept, aiming to integrate her perceived affective experiences and self-reported performances.

In this study, the learner was studied over 18 weeks (equals to 6 months with an interval of 2 months) from 28 April to 27 June (9 weeks) and from 1 September to 31 October (9 weeks). The reason for the selection of the above two periods of time is that, in the selected university, this period covers 7 regular tests (twice a month), 2 big exams (one final and one mid-term exam) and one English Oral Competition, which may significantly affect learner’s emotions, motivations and English performances.

The learner was observed once a week as she attended the Comprehensive English class. This module has been selected for classroom observation because it included all kinds of English activities, namely, speaking, writing, listening, reading and grammar. Also, the learner was asked to write the diary entry once a week after her attendance at the observed class and provided copies of her diary entries once a week to me for constant comparison. She was interviewed twice a month after she has received feedbacks after her regular tests, big exams and the competition. The interviews were audio-recorded. Each interview lasted around half an hour’s time. She was asked to complete a questionnaire consisting largely of open-ended questions to supplement the written information gathered from the diary entries. The questionnaire was distributed twice per month and the learner was given several days in which to complete them. The diary entries and questionnaires may garner similar information from the learner but this was done over different time scales, with the diary entries gathering short term responses and the questionnaires medium term. Class observation was applied for the purpose of being involved in the same context with the learner. Therefore, the researcher was able to obtain the knowledge of the context about the classroom activities.

**Sampling.** The learner was from a Foreign Language University in China. She was a second-year Chinese student of English who was selected at random from one class and asked to volunteer to take part in the study. The learner was studying a degree in English. The first reason for choosing a second-year university student instead of year one, three or four is because if the learner may be a very confident English speaker (like year four), she may not have strong negative emotions about learning English as
a learner in other years may have. Secondly, another reason is according to the possible access of the learner. Since this study is an in-depth investigation across six months including two semesters and one summer vacation in between, year one students are new to university and busy with the military training while year three students are in their intern period. Therefore, the year two students are the most suitable participants for this research.

**Data Analysis.** Nine individual interviews took place at two-week intervals. The interviews were audio-recorded and the transcript of interviews was interpreted and analysed using NVivo software for qualitative data analysis. Also, the data from the diary entries was analysed using NVivo as well as those gathered from open-ended questionnaire responses.

Thematic analysis was the system of analysis because it ensured both accessibility and flexibility (Braun & Clarke, 2012). The categories for analysis were not predetermined, and the analysis was carried out inductively. To be specific, the coding framework was based on “recurrent issues in the text” rather than ‘established criteria’ or ‘a set of theoretical constructs’ (Attride-Stirling, 2001, p. 390-391). Theme generalization was according to Basic Themes which referred to “lowest-order premises evident in the text”; Organizing Themes which refers to “categories of basic themes grouped together to summarize more abstract principles”; and Global Themes which refers to “super-ordinate themes encapsulating the principal metaphors in the text as a whole” (Attride-Stirling, 2001, p. 388).

**Ethical Consideration.** Regarding ethical issues, please refer to my ethical approval form which was submitted and approved by the University of Warwick.

**Results and Discussion**

Fiona was a self-perceived highly motivated learner with great confidence and self-esteem. Also, she reported that she was an autonomous learner who designed detailed study plans and organised her time schedule for purpose of better English language development. Especially, her proficiency in spoken English ranked top 3 in her grade, according to the result of the previous year's university wide English Oral Competition. She positively participated in activities and held many leading positions, namely, the leading actress of the English Drama Club, the member of the Model United Nations Association, and the representative of the English class. She had clear goals for her future. She claimed that she would like to study an MA in Interpreting and Translating in the University of Bath, UK after her graduation. Therefore, everything she did, as she argued, was for this clear goal.
Fiona’s Affective Experiences

Through the whole period of this study, 10 affects of different intensities were identified from Fiona’s responses including: Admiration, Anxiety, Confidence, Contentment, Enjoyment, Expectation, Interest, Jealousy, Relaxation and Stress. These affects interacted with each other at different intensities and appeared to coalesce into 21 combinations. Within each combination, the affects interacted with each other at different levels, and each finally reached a stable state for the duration. According to this stability, these combinations were categorised into 4 salient affective patterns.

(a) Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern
(b) Mixed Lower Level Negative and Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern
(c) Mixed Lower Level Positive, Lower Level Negative and Higher Level Negative Affective Pattern
(d) Mixed Lower Level Negative and Lower Level Positive Affective Pattern

Perceived Facilitative Affective Experiences

Three patterns of affective experiences (a, b & d, outlined below) could be identified as more facilitative for Fiona’s performance. From her responses, these patterns of affective experiences related to better performance than her perceived English proficiency would have suggested. The affective experiences appeared to have positively affected her performance as she perceived it.

(a) Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern

Fiona commented that a trail of higher level positive affects including expectation, relaxation, confidence, interest, contentment, admiration and enjoyment related to her good performance in regular exams.

(b) Mixed Lower Level Negative and Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern

Fiona reported two of higher level positive affects including expectation and confidence. Also, she reported three lower level negative affects including anxiety, jealousy and stress. From her responses, these combinations of affective experiences related to better performance than her perceived English proficiency would have suggested. The affective experiences appeared to have positively affected her grammar performance in week 14 and writing performance in week 14.

[Sample Extract 1: Interview]

L: “Regarding your grammar performance (week 14), how did you feel after you received the feedback from your teacher?”
Fiona: “Well, before the exam, I felt a little bit stressful and anxious, because thought that I did not do well last time. And during these two weeks, I have reviewed thoroughly, and therefore, I believed that, I really expected to take this exam, to validate my ability and effort. I believed that I did well during the exam and the feedback from my teacher met my expectation.”

(d) Mixed Lower Level Negative and Lower Level Positive Affective Pattern

Fiona reported that two lower level positive affects including expectation and relaxation and together with one lower level negative affect, anxiety facilitated her reading performance in week 8.

Perceived Debilitative Affective Experiences

Two patterns of affective experiences (c & d, outlined below) could be elicited as more debilitative for Fiona’s performance. From her responses, these combinations of affective experiences related to poorer performance than her perceived English proficiency would have suggested. The affective experiences appeared to have negatively affected good or average performance.

(c) Mixed Lower Level Positive, Lower Level Negative and Higher Level Negative Affective Pattern

Fiona reported that one lower level positive affect admiration, lower level negative affects anxiety and stress, together with one higher level negative affect jealousy negatively affected her good or average vocabulary performance in week 6.

(d) Mixed Lower Level Negative and Lower Level Positive Affective Pattern

Fiona reported one lower level positive affect expectation and two lower level negative affects anxiety and stress. From Fiona’s responses, this pattern of affective experiences related to poorer performance than her perceived English proficiency would have suggested. The affective experiences appeared to have negatively affected good or average grammar performance in week 4.

[Sample Extract 2: Diary]

Fiona: “Though I expected to validate my effort, but my expectation to take the exams was not as strong as the week before. Because in class, the teacher told us that the grammar section may include paragraphs outside Syllabus, which made me feel a little stressful. And before the exam, I felt a little bit anxious and I knew that I may not perform as well as last time.”
Fiona’s Self-reported Performance Trajectory

Identified Attractor States

From Fiona's responses regarding her self-reported performances, altogether four attractor states, namely, Integrative Disposition, Self-esteem, External Incentives and Autonomy were identified.

Integrative Disposition

Integrative Disposition was termed by Dörnyei (2009) according to Ushioda's (2001) classification of motivation dimensions. Dörnyei (2009) argued that from Ushioda's (2001) eight motivation dimensions, Integrative Disposition represents a broad cluster which consisted of “Personal goals; Desired levels of L2 competence; Academic interest; Feelings about French-speaking countries or people” (p. 30). For example, from Fiona's responses, she had clear goals for her future to study at University of Bath, therefore, she “searched information on the University of Bath”. Moreover, her performances met her desired level of L2 competence and willingness of being “named more to lead reading vocabulary in class”.

Self-esteem

Branden (1994) defined Self-esteem as “the disposition to experience oneself as being competent to cope with the basic challenges of life and of being worthy of happiness”. In addition, The National Association of Self-Esteem (1997) refined it as “the experience of being capable of meeting life's challenges and being worthy of happiness”. For example, Fiona claimed that in week 10, her “self-doubt” decreased because of her successful election to become a “member of Model United Nations Association”. Another example from her responses was her “positively helping teacher to prepare before class begins” reflecting that her healthy self-esteem had increased positive behaviour.

External Incentives

From Fiona's explanation, External Incentives including teacher's appraisal and peers' approval made a powerful attractor state. Two salient External Incentives related to optimal performance and two other external incentives related to worst performance. For example, in week 6, Fiona argued that she was “not satisfied with the teacher” because the teacher pointed out other students to lead reading new vocabularies instead of her. And her self-reported vocabulary performance significantly declined to the worst point. Another example related to good performance, positive behaviour and peers' approval. She positively attended “drama practicing activities” and “Model UN practicing activities” because she could receive affirmative comments from her peers, which facilitated her speaking performance in week 10.
In Self-determination theory (SDT), three features including competence, relatedness and autonomy were introduced by Deci and Ryan (1985). Identified regulation was claimed to be a more Autonomy driven form of extrinsic motivation. This argument can be linked to Dörnyei's (2009) illustration that identified regulation “occurs when people engage in an activity because they highly value and identify with the behaviour, and see its usefulness” (p. 14). For example, Because Fiona was a self-perceived highly motivated student with clear future goals, from her daily behaviour, for example, “keep daily detailed study plans, being specific to minute”, “listen to BBC one hour daily”, and “use Economist to practice reading”. From these responses, it was obvious that Fiona could organize her time effectively to achieve better performance.

Regarding Fiona's self-reported performances, 6 trajectories were identified to present changes in her self-perceived performances over the six-month time window. The interactions between her self-reported performances, different attractor states and affective patterns were also presented.

Figure 1 displays Fiona's self-reported vocabulary performance (green dashed line) trajectory; Figure 2 displays her self-reported grammar (blue dashed line) performance trajectory; Figure 3 displays her self-reported reading (red dashed line) and listening (yellow dashed line) performance trajectories; and Figure 4 displays her self-reported speaking (orange dashed line) and writing performance (purple dashed line) trajectories.

Figure 1 shows how Fiona's self-reported vocabulary performances changed over time. Four crucial points A, B, C and D were identified from her responses. Regarding Fiona’s self-reported vocabulary performances, she argued that the initial condition which referred to the state that the system was in at the beginning of this investigation (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012) was “to study an MA in Interpreting and Translating in the University of Bath, UK”. In this study, the initial condition referred to the identifying attractor state the performance system occupied at the time Fiona started her class in week 1, which was system component “Personal Goals” that was categorised as the attractor state of Integrative Disposition.
Over the time window of the study, four attractors, namely, Integrative Disposition, Self-esteem, External Incentives and Autonomy were identified. The movement between the system components within each attractor as well as their interactions with the affective groups significantly related to the change of Fiona’s self-reported performance trajectory.

To be specific, Fiona argued that she believed her vocabulary performance started at the average point in week 2, when she argued that she could do better because she has already “finished first round GRE vocabulary recitation during vacation”. In the following two weeks, the attractor of Integrative Disposition together with the facilitative affective experience of Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern correlated with her self-reported excellent performance in week 4 at Point A. After reaching the optimal performance state, she argued that her performance dramatically decreased to the worst point in week 6. At Point C, she was not satisfied with the teacher’s feedback at all, which was categorised as the attractor of External Incentives. In the meantime, she commented on the debilitative affective experience of Mixed Lower Level Negative, Lower Level Positive and Higher Level Negative Affective Pattern as well. At the end of the first semester, at Point B, the attractor of Self-esteem together with the facilitative affective experience of Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern moved again and she reported that she perceived her vocabulary performance was very good during the final exam. After the vacation, Fiona kept a record of her detailed study plans to monitor herself to make progression in the vocabulary development which was categorised as the attractor of Autonomy. She argued that her performance was normal in week 12 and went upward to the optimal state in week 14 at Point D during the mid-term exam. Also, Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern was reported in the meantime.

Figure 2 shows how Fiona’s self-reported grammar performances changed over time. Three crucial points A, B and C were identified from her responses. Regarding Fiona’s self-reported grammar performances, she argued that the initial condition was “positively helping her teacher with class preparation” because she believed that she was “more competent than others to be the teacher’s assistant”. In this study, the initial condition referred to the identifying attractor state the performance system
occupied at the time Fiona started her class in week 1, which was the attractor state of Self-esteem.

Two attractors Self-esteem and External Incentives were identified. At Point A, Fiona reported that she believed her grammar performance reached its the optimal state in week 2. Fiona felt that she was “more competent than others to be the teacher’s assistant”, which could be categorised as the attractor Self-esteem, together with the facilitative affective experience of Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern was seen to correlate with her self-reported excellent performance. After reaching the optimal performance state, she reported that her performance dramatically decreased to its worst Point C in week 4. In the following weeks afterwards, she argued that her grammar performance slightly went upward to the average state, and kept at the average level for weeks until finally reaching the optimal state again at Point B in week 14. One attractor state of External Incentives moved constantly from week 4 onwards, with interactions with different affective groups. In week 4, Fiona argued that the teacher’s feedback was not inspiring at all and she in the meantime reported Mixed Lower Level Negative and Lower Level Positive Affective Pattern. However, she positively shared her opinions with her teacher and classmates. During the time after week 4, she gained confidence in herself again and renewed expectations for her future, though sometimes she felt a little bit anxious and stressful. Such combination of affects with different intensity can be categorised into Mixed Lower Level Negative and Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern.

Fiona’s Self-reported Listening and Reading Performance Trajectory

The yellow dashed line referred to Fiona’s self-reported listening performances whereas the red one referred to her reading aspects. Figure 3 shows how Fiona’s self-reported listening and reading performances changed over time. Two crucial points A, and B were identified from her responses. Her English listening and reading ability only tested twice during the whole studied time window. The aspects of listening and reading were tested in the final exam in week 8 of the first semester and the mid-term exam in week 14 of the second semester. Fiona reported that she kept detailed study plans to practice her English reading ability by reading articles from Economist regularly, and “listening to BBC one hour daily” to practice her English listening ability. One attractor of Autonomy was reported to interact with the affective experience of Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern. Same attractor state was
reported by Fiona correlating with her optimal listening performance at Point B and optimal reading performance at Point A. At Point A, Mixed Lower Level Negative and Lower Lever Positive Affective Pattern was identified. Her self-reported listening performance trajectory started at an average point in week 8 and went upwards to the optimal state in week 14. Her self-reported reading performance reached the optimal state in week 8 and went downward to the average state in week 14.

Fiona’s Self-reported Speaking and Writing Performance Trajectory

![Fiona's Self-reported Speaking and Writing Performance Trajectory](image)

The orange dashed line referred to Fiona’s self-reported speaking performances whereas the purple one referred to her writing aspects. Regarding Fiona’s self-reported speaking performances, she claimed that she was really confident in her English speaking ability. Her proficiency in spoken English ranked top 3 in her grade, according to the result of the previous year’s university wide English Oral Competition. She positively participated in activities and held many leading positions. From her responses, she believed that her English speaking ability was much better than her peers since she was only eight in her primary school study. Such belief and her confidence of English speaking ability accumulated over time. This response can be linked to Greenwald and Banaji’s (1995) perspective of implicit self-esteem. This response can be categorised as the attractor Self-esteem. One affective pattern of Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern was also reported significantly related to her English speaking optimal performance at Point A in week 10.

Regarding the writing section, Fiona reported 3 self-perceived performances in week 5, 8 and 14. She reported that she positively practice her writing ability by “submitting pieces of writings to university newspaper” and “finding a foreign teacher to proofread her writings” which can be categorised as the attractor Autonomy. She also consulted with teachers and peers to improve her writing ability, which can be categorised as the attractor External Incentive. From her responses, her perceived performance in week 5 and 8 was average and in week 14 was very good. Mixed Lower Level Negative and Higher Level Positive Affective Pattern was reported relating to her optimal performance at Point B in week 14.
Conclusion

First, initial conditions which were defined by Verspoor (2014) as “the conditions subsystems are in when the researcher starts measuring” (p. 45) were reported significantly relating to the Fiona’s group recognition and career goals. As she reported, in her class, two groups existed relating to three career goals. To be specific, Civil Service Exam Group related to career goals of Studying for a Master Degree in China and Going for a Job Directly after Graduation; whereas GRE Group related to the career goal of Studying a Master Degree Abroad. Fiona was reported that she would like to study abroad after graduation and she reported that she belonged to GRE group at the beginning of this research.

Second, the learner’s perceived affective patterns are more complicated than a dualistic view of not being positive, then should go for negative. As responses from Fiona, four affective patterns were reported including simultaneous affects at different intensities. This finding left a question relating to the predictability issue from Dörnyei’s three-step template which “Retrodictive Qualitative Modelling” (RQM). How to predict the learner’s affective experiences from a non-dualistic view? It was clear that even belonged to the same affective pattern, different affects were identified at different timescales and different research contexts. These affects were reported as simultaneous affective groups rather than discrete affects. The learner’s affective state was more complex from a DST perspective.

To conclude, this study reports the perceived affective experiences and self-reported performances of one Chinese learner’s of English from a foreign language classroom. Four salient affective patterns and four attractor states were identified interacting with six different self-reported performance trajectories. The learner’s specific affective patterns, attractor states and self-reported performance trajectories over time are unique. No claim should be made that other foreign language learners respond similarly to similar contexts.

The application of DST into the study of FLA affective experiences reveals both its strengths and its limitations. On the positive side, DST enables researchers to identify salient patterns, attractor states and the performance trajectories from the learners’ perspectives, which it is seen as a powerful framework for future FLA affective research. On the other hand, researchers still face the methodological challenges in researching DST under FLA context, because “dynamic systems research is such a new and uncharted territory that there are simply no tried and tested research methodological templates available” (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 84). However, an increasing number of researchers see DST’s strength and design empirical studies to examine different aspects within FLA settings (Nitta & Baba, 2014; Yashima & Arano, 2014; Henry, 2014; Hiver, 2014; Waninge, 2014; Mercer, 2014). As MacIntyre and Serroul (2014) said, “The nitty-gritty detail of this complex process, observed as it unfolds in idiodynamic studies of the L2 learning and communication process, provides an embarrasse de riches that hopefully will motivate future research” (p. 133).
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The Design and Outcomes of a Writing Improvement Programme in an Australian University

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Introduction

This paper examines a writing development programme implemented in a School of Nursing and Midwifery. It was targeted at English as an Additional Language (EAL) doctoral writers who had an intermediate to advanced level of written English. This writing programme was created to address a complex problem found among postgraduate students. Supervisors found it difficult to understand the writing of their EAL doctoral students, and cited poor or incomprehensible English as the problem. The doctoral students reported that they had difficulty with writing, but were disappointed with the feedback from supervisors who they felt primarily concentrated on their English skills and not their ideas (students did not see how their English writing impeded comprehension). Postgraduate students also reported that they were unable to improve their writing by themselves.

Drawing upon the anecdotal evidence, and an analysis of the postgraduate students’ writing, a number of conclusions were made. The first conclusion was that students had many English language errors in their writing and therefore they were unable to clearly state their ideas for the supervisor to provide feedback (note that this relates purely to errors, not stylistic or discourse features of writing). The second conclusion was that these students could not see the errors they made, or if they were aware of the errors they did not know how to fix them. Students reported that they sensed something was not quite right but did not have the skills to analyse their writing, or that they did not know where to find the educational resources to help them fix the problem. It was also recognised that academic supervisors are not language teachers and have varying ability and time to provide useful language-focussed feedback (their predominant focus is on the content) (Ferris, 2009). This made supervisors feel powerless and discouraged. The task, it was concluded, was to reduce the number of errors made in writing, and this would alleviate the problem. An even better result would be to extinguish some error types altogether. A teaching programme needed to be devised that achieved these aims, plus some more, as will be discussed next.

Deciding on a programme of change

When faced with a piece of EAL writing that has a wide variety of errors in it, Ferris (2009) suggests that there are a number of questions that need to be asked before action can be taken:

1. What level of ability does the student already have?
2. What aspects of the writing are functional, i.e. does not need attention?
3. What aspects of the writing need development, i.e. subsets of grammar and/or stylistic features?
4. What is the desired aim once improvements have been made, i.e. needs analysis?
5. How sustainable is the solution?

In response to these questions, it was decided that the focus of the writing development programme would be on grammar and error correction, rather than on issues of stylistics and genre improvement.

The decision about which particular error categories to incorporate into the writing programme was informed by a review of the literature (e.g. Ferris 2009; Bitchener & Ferris 2012). The review helped establish which grammatical features commonly needed attention in tertiary-level writing. These were matched to the analysis of postgraduate student writing we conducted before the writing programme commenced and 11 error categories were identified (Table 1).
Table 1. Error categories used for the programme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Error Category</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>v</td>
<td>verbs (form/tense)</td>
<td>wrong verb or missing the verb, e.g. ‘now it changed’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>nouns</td>
<td>e.g. ‘ability’, ‘car’, ‘advice’, every ‘day’, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adj</td>
<td>adjectives</td>
<td>e.g. ‘everyday’, ‘painful’, ‘expensive’, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adv</td>
<td>adverbs</td>
<td>e.g. ‘quite’, ‘soon’, ‘however’, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>art</td>
<td>articles</td>
<td>e.g. ‘the’, ‘a’, ‘an’, Ø</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pl</td>
<td>plurals</td>
<td>e.g. car/cars, staff/staff, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conj</td>
<td>conjunctions</td>
<td>e.g. ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘nor’, ‘yet’, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>punc</td>
<td>punctuation</td>
<td>e.g. . . . . - etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s/v</td>
<td>subject-verb agreement</td>
<td>e.g. ‘a person has’, ‘people have’, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sent</td>
<td>sentence fragment/run on</td>
<td>e.g. ‘Having looked at the problem.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The EAL writers displayed a range of errors across a spectrum, i.e. there was rarely full mastery over an area of English grammar and writing. Since there was no obvious single concentrated area of error, a general coverage of all observed errors was adopted. It was acknowledged that error categories are often related to each other, i.e. when dealing with nouns, plurals and articles can be addressed, or when dealing with verbs, subject-verb agreement and the basic subject-verb-object sentence form can be addressed. As a result, one error category (and its related categories) would be discussed each week. It is likely that only one area of error can be remediated at any particular time because students have a limited amount of cognitive capacity to process information (pay attention). Furthermore, it was felt that if error categories could be extinguished (remediated), this would not only reduce the overall number of errors but also the chance of them returning in future writing.

Students would be taught how to conduct a systematic search for error types. This systematic approach to reducing errors in writing is supported by prior research which indicates the effectiveness of focusing on one error category at a time, especially for discrete rule-based errors (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012, pp. 57-61). Furthermore, “for advanced L2 writers, it is clear that one treatment on one error category can help them improve the accuracy of their writing” (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010, p. 215). To complement this approach, explicit instruction was adopted for explaining error types. Error correction instruction is largely a linear process where a new form is introduced and practiced, accompanied by feedback. In this situation, improvement should be linear as the rule-based learning becomes internalised or automatized. Factors such as inattention will still influence the production of errors. It is likely that as a system of knowledge is developed, some areas within that domain will temporarily be destabilised to incorporate the new knowledge. Thus, if one error category is remediated, it may have a knock-on effect of causing a re-evaluation of related error categories, i.e. an extended knowledge about the different types of noun may cause a temporary (even negative) change in article use while the understanding and treatment of nouns is reconfigured. It was also decided that a peer-based element would also be used in order to increase the sustainability of improvement. After learning the methods and strategies for writing, students were expected to take the initiative to
look at each other’s writing and seek help from each other. This would also reduce their dependence on their supervisor for English language help. Granted, a peer is unlikely to find 100% of the errors in another student’s work, but they would be able to reduce the overall number of errors and increase the chance of producing a more comprehensible text. It is often the case that students have different areas of difficulty, so peer-based editing may increase the likelihood of error reduction (Bitchener & Ferris, 2012; Ferris, 2011).

**Intervention Programme**

The programme was conducted in two hour blocks over eight weeks. It comprised of focused grammar/error instruction and short practice sessions in the first hour and focused indirect error feedback by peers on a thesis chapter draft in the second hour. Although we assumed that students had prior knowledge of grammatical forms, the focused grammar instruction brought any discrepancies and shortfalls in knowledge to light (in which case students were shown how to find resources to help themselves when this occurred). The topics in the programme were sequenced as shown in Table 2.

**Table 2. Weekly programme.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Topics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Week 1</td>
<td>Introduction to the underlining and coding method for corrective feedback. The topic was the sentence and its variations, including clauses and phrases, how to identify the basic constituents of the sentence, and relationship of punctuation to this.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 2</td>
<td>Verbs, including tenses, verb phrases, and their role in independent clauses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 3</td>
<td>Articles and nouns, their use in noun phrases, and how they act as the subject or object in sentences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 4</td>
<td>Prepositions, phrasal verbs, and prepositional phrases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 5</td>
<td>Phrases and clauses, including more practice on verb, noun, and preposition phrases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 6</td>
<td>Combining phrases and clauses to create different sentence types.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 7</td>
<td>Consolidation 1: supervised practice at correcting one error category at a time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Week 8</td>
<td>Consolidation 2: supervised practice at correcting one error category at a time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the first hour of each weekly lesson, the typical lesson format was:

1. **Introduction** about the problem area, including where the related errors occur and providing contextual information about why this is an issue.
2. **Provide explicit instruction** about the error category, properties and rules of the target form, and its relationship to meaning, and show examples.
3. Identify resources that help students understand the error category, the grammatical and stylistic rules, and practical lists etc. Teach students strategies about how and where to find help.
4. **Provide explicit instruction** on how the error category might be related to other error categories (as part of the exploration of the issue).
5. Conduct a structured input activity requiring students to manipulate materials and process the target form. This required a worksheet to be created prior to class (and some direct correction may be needed of student output).

6. Conduct a structured input and output activity asking students produce their own sentences, concentrating on avoiding that error type (i.e. ask students to produce a sentence from a series of phrases or notes given to them, or to create a written answer to a question).

7. Ask students to swap their written work with other students and underline where any instance of that error category has been made (thus providing indirect correction), and this is checked by the teacher for direct correction.

Each focused instruction session was immediately followed by an hour-long hands-on workshop for focused indirect written corrective feedback which was conducted by peers in pairs.

In the second hour, peers worked in pairs and examined each other’s writing for the focal error category. The format was as follows:

1. Students swap a piece of their writing (e.g. a page from a draft of their chapter), identify the focal error category in their peer’s work, and offer a possible correction (only if they could explain why). Since one error category may overlap with another error category, some discussion of this relationship naturally emerges, but the focus needs to remain on the primary error category.

2. The teacher answers queries. This is where a discussion of the relationship between different error categories often arose, and was worthy of discussion without losing focus on the primary error category.

3. The teacher checks the corrections as appropriate.

These workshops used focused corrective feedback because they emphasised that particular week’s error category/focus ahead of other errors. Students were encouraged to provide a metalinguistic explanation of errors found to each other. Often, these peers attempted to provide some direct correction too. By responding to input and processing the writing of others – using codes to help them focus – students were required to notice and understand the feedback. This supported learning because students had to internalise and consolidate new knowledge within their existing linguistic repertoire.

**Outcomes**

In order to ascertain the effect of the writing programme, seven doctoral students wrote an essay before and after the programme and these were analysed for errors and error categories. This was compared to eight doctoral students who did not do the programme (but were free to seek help in other areas of the university) but had their essays analysed too. The assumptions underlying this study were that students would improve, but it was unlikely that they would produce completely error-free writing, and it was hoped that there would be an extinction of some error categories.

In terms of error rates, the students who did the programme reduced the number of errors they made by an average of 44% (ranged from -12% to +73% improvement). There was quite some variation in individual improvement, and all but one student improved. The student who benefitted least from the programme was clearly a level below the others in terms of English ability (i.e. intermediate versus upper-intermediate/advanced). Thus, the writing programme was effective in achieving its
aim at reducing the error rate, but with the caution that these results can only be expected among upper-intermediate/advanced English users. In comparison, the students who did not do this particular writing programme also improved by 12% (ranged between -51% to +63% improvement). These people may have been seeking help from other parts of the university, and this remains unknown. Among this group, there was no clear pattern for how individuals improved or worsened. The analysis for error categories provides more information about this trend.

In terms of error categories and their extinction, there was an average reduction of 2.7 error categories among those who did the writing programme (range from 1-5 extinguished). Large improvements were seen in the error categories of verbs, prepositions, articles, and punctuation. In the group that didn’t do this particular writing programme, they worsened on average by 0.5 of an error category, which means they displayed a greater range of errors into the second essay (range of -3 to +2). At best, only modest improvements were found in verbs, prepositions, and punctuation. There were also group differences in how error categories disappeared or were introduced. In the writing programme group, when a new error category appeared, it was only once in the essay, so it could be a lapse of attention. In the other group, when a new category appeared, it was often found in multiple places in the essay, which indicates an incomplete level of knowledge or a lack of control over the error type.

**Conclusion**

The writing programme did seem to achieve its aim of reducing the overall number of errors made and in reducing the error categories. The literature indicates that concentrating on one error category (and related categories for that position in the sentence) is likely to improve writing, and students who used this systematic approach to detecting and correcting errors had much lower error rates as a result. The reduction in error categories indicate that a greater mastery over errors was also gained. This method of improving writing was readily learned and easily applied in peer-based scenarios – the participating doctoral students saw the value of working with each other to reduce overall errors. Some anecdotal feedback from supervisors indicated that they saw some improvement in the readability of their students’ writing, but naturally they would prefer to see greater gains. However, this is something that can only be achieved over time, and the doctoral students will need to continue practising this systematic approach in order to produce increasingly better writing. Hopefully, in return, they will receive better feedback on their ideas and find the road to completing their doctoral studies becomes easier.
References


Abstract
This paper will examine the potential impact that contemporary cross-cultural art projects can have on the development of 21st Century Competencies (Ministry of Education, 2015) in students. Following the tsunami and earthquake that hit Japan in 2011, relief supplies, including used school backpacks, were sent to children in affected areas to help rebuild lives. To avoid excess supplies from being disposed of, artist/curator Daisuke Takeya proposed the Field Trip Project where artists were invited to transform the surplus backpacks into works of art. In 2015 the Field Trip Project Asia arrived in Singapore and a number of backpacks were sent to a local school for art teachers to engage their students to transform the backpacks into works of art. Despite living in a region that is sheltered from natural disasters and being mostly unfamiliar with facing physical hardship, it was hoped that children in Singapore would be interested and able to learn through the process of engaging with art-making that was directly linked to the recent disaster relief and aid efforts in Japan. The objective of the study will be to track the possible engendering of empathy, self and social global awareness, all part of the desired outcomes of education & emerging 21st Century Competencies. As this project falls under the description of contemporary art rather than traditional art practices, literature on contemporary art will be used to inform the findings. The embodied learning experience having taken place through a focused and partially self-directed art project, classroom observations and subsequent interviews with students were conducted throughout the duration of the student engagement in the project to provide data for this research study.

Keywords: cross-cultural, 21st Century Competencies, disaster relief, social and global awareness, contemporary art, art education
Introduction

When the Great East Japan Earthquake and Tsunami devastated Japan in March 2011, the world watched helplessly from our television sets. There was a huge outpouring of support as relief efforts came into Japan from all over the world. Many relief projects in the affected areas were established by non-profit organizations and individuals. However, as time passed, and victims settled into their temporary homes, international attention soon subsided thinking that their work is done. Although basic physical welfare of individuals was taken care of, many socio-emotional issues started to emerge (Takeya, 2015). There was an increase in suicide rates and symptoms of social-withdrawal among those in temporary housings.

At this point, a Japanese artist, Daisuke Takeya, who spent several months conducting trauma relief workshops met with another artist/teacher from Onagawa. Together, they decided to start an international art project to draw awareness to the on-going relief work that still needs to be done. Due to an excess in relief supplies of children’s backpacks, also known as ‘Randoseru’ in Japan, they designed an art project where these backpacks were sent to artists from all over the world to be transformed into works of art. These backpack artworks were then sent back to the affected areas to be displayed and interacted with as artworks.

As most communities from the disaster affected areas still lived in temporary housing, there was a lack of proper gallery spaces to showcase the works. This resulted in the works being displayed in makeshift informal communal areas. The works are largely left in these areas for the residents to freely interact with as the purpose of the exhibit was not for viewers to admire the artworks from a distance as one would in a formal gallery setting, they were meant to be tools to bridge communication. Through these interactions, residents got to know their new found neighbours and started to open up and share their experiences. This quickly became a therapeutic experience for them. This meeting place also became the children’s temporary playground which they lost to the tsunami (Takeya, 2015).

Figure 1: Relief surplus backpacks.
The Field Trip Project Asia in Singapore

The Field Trip Project arrived in Singapore in August, 2015. As Singapore is largely protected from natural disasters such as earthquakes, tsunami, typhoon, and devastating floods, the intention of bringing the project to this island nation is to cultivate awareness and connect people through compassion and art. Programmes such as artists’ talk, forum on activism and community, art exhibition and art procession were planned to get the community involved in the project. In the exhibition, there were 42 participating artists from Singapore, Japan, Indonesia, United Kingdom, Australia, India and Germany.

During the exhibition, a procession of students wearing the backpack artworks was led by local artist/performer/teacher Ms. Natasha Sophia Wei. The original exhibition in Japan happened in makeshift exhibition spaces that provided a freedom from the confines of the ‘Gallery’ space and its etiquette, the residents felt uninhibited while they interacted with the artworks, encouraging dialogues and a form of informal group therapy. The procession in Singapore references the dynamics of the first exhibition at the Onagawa temporary housing when there were no permanent gallery spaces.

![Procession during the Exhibition.](image)

Figure 2: Procession during the Exhibition.

Field Trip Project as Contemporary Art

The Field Trip Project is an example of contemporary art that is socially engaged. There is no single definitive meaning to contemporary art, however Kemperl (2013) describes it as a social practice about current issues, thus socially engaging and calls for active citizenship, critically reflex[iv]ity, is heterogeneous, and a part of life and therefore not elite, invites active engagement and offers solutions to our modern day crisis. Cox (2000) added that it accepts diverse voices and viewpoints from artists as
well as viewers, it provokes community to engage with ideas and relevant issues, therefore encouraging dialogue (Sullivan, 2010). It can also be controversial, however, according to Emery (2002) shocking contemporary events and issues necessitates/instigates shocking tactics of engagement. Adams (2010) adds, “the search by each generation to find its own practices entails considerable risk, since they are by definition new and untested. Any existing models eventually become inappropriate. In order for artists – and learners – to make an intelligible social response they must by necessity be current and contemporary in their thinking, which brings with it dilemmas often in the form of social risk” (p. 694). In Vygotsky’s (1975) view, art presents the original and the most powerful weapon in the battle for survival, it is the most critical intersection of all biological and social processes of a person in society.

### 21st Century Competencies and Contemporary Art

According to Ministry of Education (2015) in Singapore, “To help our students thrive in a fast-changing world, MOE has identified competencies that have become increasingly important in the 21st Century. These competencies, represented in the following framework, underpin the holistic education that our schools provide to better prepare our students for the future. It is envisaged that schools and parents need to work hand-in-hand to help our students develop these 21st Century Competencies”. These competencies include global awareness, cross-cultural skills, critical and inventive thinking, communication and collaboration skills. The literature seem to indicate that teaching contemporary art in school promotes 21st Century Competencies such as critical thinking and creativity rather than merely skill based rote learning. Research suggests that teaching contemporary art encourages learner engagement, freedom of expression, empathy, risk taking in art making, a broader and deeper understanding in art and that it fosters higher-order thinking skills by increasing students’ opportunity in analyzing and evaluating art through art discussions and in contemporary art practices.

Contemporary art lends itself well to cross-disciplinary considerations as it straddles many genres and addresses contemporary issues. Subjects such as citizenship and patriotic education, and ethics according to Kemperl (2013), are part and parcel of most art discussions. Such discussions enable students to express their ideas and interpretations and offer multiple opinions and encourage applicability to real life situations (Hickman & Kiss, 2010). The issue-based nature of contemporary art also offers cross curricula opportunities across a range of subjects (Page et al., 2006) including but not limited to science, literature, languages, social studies, mathematics and performing arts. Beyond that, project based work built around research into different issues encourages students to problem solve provides a valuable form of integrated teaching (Tomljenović & Novaković, 2012). Since the Field Trip Project promotes social awareness as well as artistic expression, it fits well into the 21st Century Competencies paradigm.
Yishun Town Secondary School

When the Field Trip Project Asia arrived in Singapore this year, a number of backpacks were sent to Yishun Town Secondary School for their art teacher Ms. Candy Tong to engage students in transforming the backpacks into works of art. Despite living in a region that is sheltered from natural disasters and being mostly unfamiliar with facing physical hardship, it was hoped that children in Singapore would be interested and able to learn through the process of engaging with art-making that was directly linked to disaster relief and aid efforts in the region.

The objective of the student engagement is the possible engendering of resilience, empathy and self, social & global awareness, all part of the desired outcomes of education & emerging 21st Century Competencies (Ministry of Education, 2015). From Doraemon backpacks that ‘provides anything the carrier needs’ to Emoji smiley faces that brings smiles to everyone, the artwork’s that students created aimed to offer emotional aid to victims. As one student aptly puts it, “other than food and shelter, they need mental support too…”

Below are results from Pre-participation and Post-participation reflections of participating students:

Pre-participation reflection (26 responses)

1. What do you know about the Tsunami that devastated Japan in 2011?
   • 3 responses - Do not know/not sure
   • 23 responses – Had knowledge (Loss of life, family, home etc.)

2. Did you know/hear of aid provisions locally or globally that was provided to the victims? If yes, please specify.
   • 18 responses – No
   • 8 responses - Yes

If your answer to question 2 is yes, please answer question 3.

3. In your personal opinion, do you think the aid that was sent helped the victims? How?
   • 18 responses – No
   • 8 responses – Yes (shows people care, helped physically and emotionally etc.)

4. If you could send aid to the victims, what would you send?
   • 19 responses – would send water, food, medical supplies
   • 6 responses – would send medics or medical supplies
   • 4 responses – would send money
   • 2 responses – would send encouragement

5. If you were a victim, what kind of aid would you like to receive?
   • 4 responses – would like to receive money
   • 21 responses – would like to receive basic necessities for survival
   • 3 responses – would like to receive encouragement and comfort
6. What message or items would you like to send them now, 4 years after the devastation?
   • 10 responses – do not know
   • 9 responses – send emotional support
   • 2 responses – send material support
   • 2 responses – send educational support
   • 1 response – send wishes
   • 1 response – ‘Nope you all are well’
   • 1 response – ‘Stay away’

Post-participation reflection (30 responses)

1. What do you know about the Tsunami that devastated Japan in 2011?
   • 30 responses - Had knowledge (Loss of life, family, home etc.)

2. Did you know/hear of aid provisions locally or globally that was provided to the victims? If yes, please specify.
   • 11 responses – No
   • 19 responses – Yes

If your answer to question 2 is yes, please answer question 3.

3. In your personal opinion, do you think the aid that was sent helped the victims? How?
   • 11 responses – blank (no response)
   • 19 responses – 15 responses – Yes, 4 responses – Not enough

4. What did you think about while you were making your backpacks?
   • 30 responses – How the audience/victims would feel/think = Empathy

5. Now that you have completed your backpacks, can you explain what you have done? What do you hope your artwork will communicate?
   • 30 responses – Described in detail how their artworks would communicate their message to the audience/victims = Compassion

6. Do you feel that you have more compassion for the disaster victims now that you have completed this project?
   • 30 responses – Yes
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-Participation reflection</th>
<th>Post-Participation reflection</th>
<th>Percentage increase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of Event</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of aid provisions sent</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal response to aid sent</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compassion for victims</td>
<td>54%*</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Students’ Written responses to the Field Trip Project**

Below are some written responses from the participating students:

“we want our bags to make them feel happy and to entertain them with the games inside of our bags with our drawings and paintings inside the bags and all of the Japanese words of encouragement for them I hope when they see the Mount Fuji makes them happy”

“We decided to use felt for the rainbow on the bag as it is flexible and…adds texture to the bag. We attached the rainbow ribbons to make the bag look like it has fringes to add more colour and fun to the bag. We want the children to wear the bags and imagine themselves on cloud 9, flying with the help of the cloud wings. We want them to feel our joy, represented by the sun and rainbow with the help of the cloud wings. We want them to feel our joy, represented by the sun and rainbow.”

“we have also came up with our customized white board which would allow the passerby to jot down their thoughts and wishes on the board and to add more enthusiasm there is a raincoat attached to the back of the bag just in case there is a bad weather. The head of the Doraemon would bring excitement to the kids and would encourage them to come forward to enjoy the lively treat…”

“We want to let the people know that one day the nuclear meltdown will be cleared from the sea just like a rainbow would appear after a rain…”

“The googly eyes represent the people who are there to support…them mentally or physically.”

Their responses suggest that students have developed not only art making skills, but also thinking skills and meta-cognitive skills. As observed by Heme (2005), students who participated in contemporary art making workshops gained visual literacy skills and started to understand how images are constructed and communicated within shared popular culture conventions. The processes they go through in art making also help students understand how visual imagery can impact contemporary society and
how through them, historical events and shared experiences can mold our identities (Yang & Suchan, 2009).

Through this art project, students were able to construct their own identities and verbalize them to their peers and teachers. In this process they not only got to know their friends better, they were able to articulate their opinions and in so doing, recognize their own worth. Such broad engagement through the arts helps them develop a strong self-esteem and confidence, increases their capacity to be respectful of others and ultimately prepares them to be active citizens (Herne, 2005). With increased self-confidence, they become more involved and can contribute more actively in the teaching process which feeds back to their acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitude (Tomljenović & Novaković, 2012). According to Kotin, Aguirre McGregor, Pellecchia, Schatz, and Liu (2013) students began to “develop sensitivity to the role of art in the world…they realized that…they could speak from a position of power and authority”.

**Conclusion**

Student reflections seem to indicate that cross-cultural art projects such as the Field Trip Project can play a role in the engendering of empathy, self, social and global awareness, all part of the desired outcomes of education & emerging 21st Century Competencies.

Response to disaster effected zones in the world, to sustainable development in our relationship with the environment and other pressing global concerns are topics that call for active citizenship. Rusanen et al. (2011) reflected on the practices of art education as cultural education, concluded that there are many definitions of culture, one of which includes the ways we live in our communities and societies. In the recent European compulsory curricula, arts and cultural education are combined. As such, promoting art is equivalent to promoting cultural heritage and diversity. There has been an emphasis for art educators to organize art activities that enable the social and cultural participation of children. Governments are starting to realize the importance of arts education to the health and well-being of a community (Freedman, 2010). Open and critical conversations brought about by contemporary cross-cultural art projects such as the Field Trip Project encourage the understanding of our own views and encourage empathy and sensitivities for the experiences and views of others. With the findings in this small scale research seeming to fulfill one or more of the objectives of citizenship education and emerging 21st Century Competencies this research aims to add to the body of knowledge on the use of contemporary art in education for human development and to encourage further research into the application of contemporary art strategies in the classroom.
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Introduction:

It is the objective of this essay to compare an interpretation of Islamic conceptions of time, space and artifact, too the work and writings, particularly the Spiral Jetty, by Robert Smithson and his conceptions of: time, space and artifact. I want to make apparent here the use of “interpretation” simply because any discussion of Islam like any theology of the world cannot be analyzed in a purely discursive manner, for “true” understanding is ultimately internal to it and external to me. Nevertheless it is my hope to trace intersections between the work of Robert Smithson, which form a rift with the trajectory of western art history, and the art and architecture of Islam, of which the Palm Jumeirah is a part. My approach is dialectic, to bring forth a discussion of overlaps and synthesis as they pertain to conceptions of space, time and artifact. A t the same time I am aware of aware that historically attempts at a dialectic between cultures have mostly failed arguably because of Western predilection for authorial domination in the discourse. (1) My intent in a “dialectic” is more in keeping with Smithson’s own use of the term, that is as Gary Shapiro points out a system of “play”, (2) play by it’s nature is antithetical to achieving an ideological inertia in the positivist or utopian sense.

Play because as Smithson suggests all ordered existence, whether it be matter or ideas is ultimately subject to entropy, the force that ultimately unravels all order, constructed or organic, into disorder. Smithson would in fact as Ron Graziani suggests in his book “Robert Smithson and the American Landscape” reject any ideology, political, environmental, or otherwise when it came to issues of the earth, as he considered them all ultimately an exercise in futility in the face of entropy. (3) The corollary in the Islamic conception of temporality, is a condition defined by Sayyed Hossein Nasr as seeking “to create an ambience in which the transient and temporal character of material things is emphasized and in which the vacuity of objects is accentuated.”(4) While the conception of “play” cannot be ascribed to this dialectic of divinity, (the word “Islam” translates to “obedience”), in both Islamic and Smithson’s conception of the dialectic there is a de-centering whereby the infinite and ineffable, the void is let in. And in the albeit brief history of confluence of ideas and dialogue, some entirely beautiful and unique artifacts have developed, ideas and practices that have proved enriching to both cultures.
Time:

In Robert Smithson’s art and writings and specifically at the Spiral Jetty time was a prime motivator. Smithson wanted to actively engage, or possibly reengage, as in the conditions of prehistoric art a conception time that was based in the earth. A conception of time that went beyond western art histories, museum based trajectory, of genre and style, a linear and humanist ‘progression’ of history, and examined time as ultimately something that was neither progressive or regressive, but perhaps something that could be described as digressive. (5) Time where the historical periodic framework was but just a part that contrasted and conflated with other histories of time, from the metaphysical, to aesthetic, to scientific but all subject to the forces of entropy. Entropy the condition through which all ordered systems, move to a condition of disorder.

For Smithson the recognition of entropy in the conception of any system was fundamental. An anecdotal description for which Smithson included in his 1967, “Monuments of Passaic” entitled “Sandbox Monument”, is that if you take a child’s sandbox, and fill half the box with black sand, and half the box with white sand, and then engage the children to move in a clockwise procession, the difference in the colors of the sand will gradually but ultimately fuse into a gray, the condition cannot be reversed by changing the children’s direction to counter-clockwise. (6) An ordered system becomes disordered. The relative terms of order and disorder were not as important to Smithson as the fact that a kind of “dedifferentiation” was taking place. A “sameness” arises. Because it is through relative contrast in perception and phenomenon that we affirm position, and centrality, without the relative parameters of contrast to define a center, the dedifferentiated presence of the void fills the vacuum. It is contrast or differentiation that is essential to the Hegelian dialectic process; it is the engine of western progress and positivism. To Smithson it was the inevitability of “sameness or entropy, that doomed any sort of political dialectic and so made his dialectic inquiries while actively engaged in agency, nevertheless it was an agency that lacked the conviction of progress, and rather became an agency for nothing more than Art.

Jenifer Roberts makes it clear that the location of the spiral jetty, and its close proximity to the Golden Spike Monument, approximately 10 miles from the site of the Spiral Jetty was no coincidence. (7) The Golden Spike Monument, which commemorates the location and linking of western and eastern United States, via the first transcontinental railroad, began the radical change in the perception of space and time, precipitated by speed, and the standardization of time across the country through the accompaniment of telegraph lines. These low friction continental metal lines now conjoined the frames of past, present and future in a defiance of space, information and experience were being liberated from time and space. Roberts notes the proximity allowed Smithson a counter for his conceptions. “For even at the most basic formal level the Spiral Jetty renounces linearity. If anything it swerves counter-clockwise into the lake, it suggests a derailment of the linear progress that the nearby transcontinental railroad track bed once so perfectly embodied.” (8)

While the term entropy, in Islamic culture might be foreign what it describes is not. All matter is accepted as temporal and transitory, the presence of the void in Islamic art has equal importance to the object, the interpenetration of one with the other is the
manifestation of the divine. Seyyed Hossein Nasr’s in his book “Islamic Art and Spirituality”, defines the condition as such; “Islamic art has always sought to create an ambience in which the transient and temporal character of material things is emphasized and in which the vacuity of objects is accentuated. But if objects were to be completely unreal and absolutely nothing, there would be no existing objects to start with and no art about which to speak. The reality of the situation in all it’s fullness, however, encompasses both the illusory aspect of things and their being reflections and positive symbols of the higher orders of reality, and finally the ultimate reality itself. Both aspects have to be emphasized. To one corresponds the void, and to the other the ‘positive’ material, form, color, and so forth displayed in a work of art. Together they depict the full reality of an object, chiseling away its unreality and illuminating its essential reality as a positive symbol and harmonious whole.” (9) This definition gets to the core of what we see in all Islamic ornamentation and architecture, that everything other than God is ephemeral.

Like the Spiral Jetty, the Palm Jumeirah Island in Dubai, is a response to a geological condition of entropy, and to a socio-historical condition specific to the Arabian Peninsula, decreasing quantities of oil and revenues. Oil like the sand which cover it, was entropically formed over eons, and again subjected to the process of accelerated entropy this time by a human catalyst that combusted the hydrocarbon to atmosphere. The hydrocarbons which had transformed the country from a nomadic Bedouin culture, a culture whose survival depended largely on perpetual movement through the landscape, not overtaxing any one place (10), was transformed with a speed that correlated to an appetite of twentieth century progress, to a nation with the second largest sovereign wealth fund in the world. While the sovereign wealth fund does much to buffer the UAE in a globalized economy, it does little to build the country for the future, so the country is divesting wealth into projects that will build it into a global center predicated on trade, and tourism. Effectively and literally recrystallizing the geography, by additions such as the tallest building in the world, The Burj Kalifa, and the world’s largest man made island the Palm Jumeirah.

Space:

The Spiral Jetty has become arguably one of the most transformative works of art in the twentieth century. Transformative largely for it’s participation in the nascent beginnings of Land or Earth Art, an art movement predicated on what Rosalind Krauss would come to term “sculpture in the expanded field”(11) whereby the traditional means of experience in western art and specifically sculpture had reached a reductive terminus in modernism. Modernist sculpture by separating from it’s historical roots in “monument” a cultural artifact that by definition is a synthesis of time, place, and event, a lynchpin between architecture and landscape, to a condition termed by Krauss “not architecture and not landscape” equals “sculpture”, the modernist conclusion whereby the reductive practices of abstraction had ultimately defined sculpture by what it was not. This binary impasse “not architecture and not landscape” was liberated by Krauss’s depiction of a “quaternary diagram” to include the terms “architecture and landscape” this quaternary diagram in turn liberated art criticism to consider possibilities to include; beyond the definition of “sculpture” as art, “site construction”, “marked sites”, and “axiomatic structures”. Smithson who died in 1973, six years prior to the publication of Krauss’s article, was a prime example of the issues Krauss was trying to raise. Krauss considered the Spiral Jetty as
an example of “landscape, not landscape” a binary indeterminate condition which she labeled “marked site”. “Marked as opposed to a qualification of “made” is the operative phrase because it invokes a temporality, a transitory quality, something that resembles the word “pentimenti” in painting and drawing and the ephemeral “land drawings” Michael Heizer made in the desert sand with his motorcyle, that is a contour or line, open to forces still in process of becoming or dissolving. In the case of the Spiral Jetty it is the construction of the spiral engaged rather than fixed within the actions of geological earth time, erosion, accretion, flood and drought, celebrating not resisting the reality of growth and decay. Engaged because it’s presence is contingent on those forces including; human interaction and erosion, the relative factors of flood versus drought which determined it’s presence, or lack of presence, and the salt crystals that given to the high degree of salinity in the lake are continuously forming and dissolving around the perimeter of the spiral.

The idea of liberating a “centralized” understanding of a work is a constant theme in Smithson’s work, but is perhaps most evident in his dialectic studies of “Site /Non-Site” which engage the disparity between the artifact represented in the museum and that artifacts origin in the site“ There is a central focus point which is the non-site, the “work of art” is determined by the frame, the containment of the artifact, which itself is in turn determined by the volume of the gallery. This was the centering aspect of the work, but holistically the work could not be understood without the relative decentering qualities of the actual site, qualities that Smithson evoked using maps, photographs, and drawings, along with material taken directly from the site, and sometimes through guided site tours, such as the “Monuments of Passaic”. Smithson defined the site by stating, “the site is the unfocused fringe where your mind loses its boundaries and a sense of the oceanic pervades, as it were.”(12) More specific to the Spiral Jetty, is discussion about why he chose the remote location. “As I looked at the site, it reverberated out to the horizons only to suggest an immobile cyclone while flickering light made the entire landscape appear to quake. A dormant earthquake spread into the fluttering stillness, into a spinning sensation without movement…From that gyrating space emerged the possibility for the Spiral Jetty. No ideas, no concepts, no systems, no structures, no abstractions could hold themselves together in the actuality of that evidence. My dialectics of site and non-site whirled into an indeterminate state, where solid and liquid lost themselves in each other…No sense wondering about classifications and categories there were none.” (13)

The notion that the experience of art does not require a position of centrality became one of the most contentious issues in twentieth century art history with the publication of Michael Fried’s “Art and Objecthood “, Fried’s objective was to rescue art from what he perceived as an existential threat emanating, from the minimalists, a.k.a. the “literalists”, who as artists were rebuking the tradition of the “shape” in and of artwork , as being something akin to window frame, a condition centered on the beholder. As Fried suggests, the painting or sculpture exists as an object unto itself the viewer can transcend, or suspend the condition of “objectness”: “but because at every moment the work itself is wholly manifest. It is this continuous and entire presenteness, amounting, as it were to the perpetual creation of itself, that one experiences as a kind of instantaneous; as though if only one were infinitely more acute, a single infinitely brief instant would be long enough to see everything, to experience the work in all it’s depths and fullness, to be ever convinced by it.” (14) In the work of the minimalists /literalists on the other-hand, Fried saw the work as
existing as an object amongst other objects in space, a condition whereby the internal threshold of the work was eclipsed by an external participation in space. “Whereas in previous art “what is to be had from the work is located strictly within (it), the experience of the literalist art is of an object in a situation-one that, virtually by definition, includes the beholder” (15) Fried considered this de-centering of the object of art, as antithetical, and he goes on to suggest that it is not art at all, but rather a form of theater: “theater addresses is a sense of temporality, of time both passing and to come, simultaneously approaching and receding, as if apprehended in an infinite perspective” (16)

Two important concepts in in Islamic art, and in work of Smithson, which facilitate an appreciation of the void, are: dematerialization, and centering. Sometimes used individually and sometimes used together, they represent a structural device that enables the viewer, participant to appreciate and integrate the void and the perception of transience into the experience. What I am calling dematerialization can be seen in many examples of Islamic art and architecture, particularly in the muqarnas, in Islamic architecture, like those at the Alhambra, where the stone or plaster finish of arches and domes have been ornately carved away, in a tapering fashion, also known as the “beveled style”, which materially display a gradient of density, from opacity to diaphanous penetrated by light or void, allowing for a graceful and poignant union between, matter and light. While considerably courser in nature, it is the same interface we see at the perimeter of the Palm Jumeirah, in this case though, and like the Spiral Jetty, the void is not so much the light, but rather water, that represents the void as it entwines with material of the land. The boundary here has a porosity by virtue of it’s construction that promotes aggregation, at the same time it accepts decay. The crescent breakwater presents a dematerialized buffer edge to the water, that through the use natural stone instead of the engineers proposed concrete, has in the same way that the contour of the palm maximized the coastline; maximized the underwater surface area and void into a “artificial reef” supporting and ideally revitalizing indigenous marine life.

In Islamic art the condition of decentralized position relative to an artifact, is witnessed in the “arabesque” a motif that finds representation architecturally in the tiled surfaces of walls. Here the repetitive patterning typically geometric or flora in design, defies the viewer’s ability to fixate on any singular or central position, the eye liberated from fixative viewpoint disengages from locating a center and instead is propelled to the perimeter, pondering the infinite. This condition is further enhanced by the tessellate format of the tiles and grout, the grid which while ordered and rhythmic act as a Teflon coating to any conceptions of hierarchy. Optically the wall as barrier is transformed into the void where mater and space coalesce into a condition that favors neither one over the other.

Artifact:

In 1970 Robert Smithson completed The Spiral Jetty, a project in which he and two local contractors, with 2 dump trucks a front-end loader, and 6,650 tons of basalt, spent 6 days to constructing. The spiral of desert basalt is intertwined with the spiral of water from the Great Salt Lake. The jetty itself is 1550 feet in length, and 15 feet wide, to accommodate the cycling of dump trucks. The photographs of the construction process bear a striking resemblance to the banded steel cages, filled with
stones, Smithson called “non-site” installations. The back of a dump truck, it is evidence of the “non-site” in a liminal contained/centered state before becoming “site,” and thereby subjected to entropy, which in turn de-centers it.

In 2006 the Emirate of Dubai in the United Arab Emirates completed the “Palm Jumeirah Island, classified by the construction and engineering professions as a “mega project”, a mega project is typically defined as a project costing 1 billion dollars or more, the Palm Jumeirah cost an estimated 12.3 billion US dollars to build. Anecdotally it has that upon visiting the site and seeing the first designs for the island, Sheikh Al Maktoum, the ruler of Dubai first response was simply “bigger”, he then according to legend, sketched the outline of a palm tree in the sand. The island takes the shape of the “Palm Tree” a form with a 2 km axial trunk, that is bilaterally bisected by 17 palm fronds. The palm shape land mass was formed by a construction technique called rain-bowing; a method of spraying dredged sand from the floor of the gulf and then compacting it in lifts, through a process called Vibro-compaction. This was then surrounded by a crescent shaped “breakwater”, built of large boulders. It should be noted that while the civil engineers originally consulted that the island for structural reasons be built from concrete, Sheikh Al Maktoum, insisted that it be constructed from “natural” materials. The largest artificial island in the world, coincidently can be considered the largest reclamation project in the world, 100 million cubic meters of rock and sand were aggregated together to a level 4 meters above sea level. The construction of the island took 5 years, using a labor force of 40,000 mostly South Asian workers. In addition to adding substantial land area to the emirate, the palm island by virtue of it’s contour adds 78.6 KM of coastline to existing total 72 KM of the emirate, more than doubling the amount of beach front real-estate, for the development of international residential community of global business nomads, and peripatetic ex-pats and tourists.

Both the Spiral Jetty and the Palm Jumeirah are symbolically charged. With the Palm Jumeirah there is the Palm Tree, the palm tree design is symbolic in Arab culture (as well as many cultures worldwide) as a symbol of peace and paradise, which seems entirely appropriate given that the islands ambitions to build an international tourist destination. But additionally the palm tree is indicative of Islamic tradition, the “Tree of Paradise” figures prominently in Islamic art and architecture. Raya Y. Shani in her article, “Paradise Glimpsed by the Muslim Believer at Prayer” points to a connection between the tree of paradise motif and the use and form of the mihrab in mosques, like for instance at the Mosque of al-Khassaki, in Bagdad, where the conch shell, resembling the fronds of palm tree canopy, is combined with the trunk of palm tree, to form the mihrab. “The two are in fact connected with sanctity and fertility. One stems from the ancient shell motif that fills the niche heads of sacred shrines; the other is the palm-tree representing the Tree of Life in paradise. By placing both together, with the candelabrum motif, in the mihrab context, these iconographic types seem to have acquired heavier iconological weight; they have become symbols of paradise, providing shade and fertility to the virtuous. At the same time the omnipresence of God is also conveyed, so it would seem, by the radiating conch.” (17)

At the Spiral Jetty the obvious connotations of the symbolism are apparent in it’s form. The spiral suggestive of fundamental organic growth patterns (the nautilus shell), to the basis of sacred geometries (the Fibonacci sequence), and a comprehension of the trajectory of time, (the vortex). As already suggested Jenifer
Roberts points out the conscious geographic juxtaposition of the spiral jetty turning counter-clockwise, to the nexus of the linear east and west railroad tracks. There is also in its form, specific to its location, a conjuring of the Native American creation myth of the Great Salt Lake, which was formed accordingly by an underground conduit which linked the Ocean to the Great Salt Lake connecting the middle of the lake, and the ocean by two vortices (spirals). As a graphic the spiral intertwines matter and void into a dynamic continuum where there is neither beginning or end, where a center is in constantly catapulted by a sense of the abyss, invoking Michael Fried, “as if apprehended in an infinite perspective”

While not a spiral, the Palm Jumeirah nevertheless does carry with it a tradition found in Islamic calligraphic practices, of which the spiral is certainly apart. Calligraphy where text and gesture are coupled, text becomes ornament; ornament becomes text, each acting as a vessel for the other, each propelling the other and more importantly the reader to the threshold of the infinite and ineffable. ‘Calligraphy is the geometry of the Spirit’, the letters words and verses of the Quran are not just elements of a written language but beings or personalities for which the calligraphic form is the visual and physical vessel” (18) This physicality and emphasis on the interplay of the letter and the space between the letter, is seen in Smithson’s thinking on language as well, “My sense of language is that it is matter and not ideas” (19), This idea of language as matter, becomes literally apparent in in the drawing “ A Heap of Language” 1966, where letters and words, take on the appearance of geology, stratified like tectonic plates, and shaped by gravity. “words and rocks contain a language that follows the syntax of splits and ruptures. Look at any word long enough and you will see it opened up into a series of falls into a terrain of particles each containing its own void” (20)

The idea that the meaning of the word and or letter combined with how the word and or letter is expressed, the notion of intertwining the two, empowering both, is in part what Johann-Cristoph Burgel interprets in Islamic Art as a “super-imposed systems” whereby two or more systems, (calligraphy and architectural form) for instance, conflate and their synthesized reading magnifies both their potentials. Burgel goes on to point out that this idea of the conflation of mediums is part of a need for structure in Islamic Arts. In his article “Mightiness, Ecstasy and Control: Some General Features of Islamic Arts”, (21) he points out the “mightiness” of the arts, in their ability liberate the mind into a state of ecstasy. Outside the purview of the “creator” this was a problematic issue, the very definition of the word “Islam” has to do with submission and obedience, and any art that fell outside that obedience and acceptance of the creator would be considered a threat to a divine beauty. It was therefore necessary, that as Burgel points out a structure be implemented. This structure was, “ruled by the two poles of ecstasy and control, and thus imprinted by, and conveying a feeling of mightiness, which is attained through submission”. Two of the primary vehicles for structure, beyond super-imposition as Burgel points out are the use of repetition, which has been discussed relative to idea of de-centering, and conical structures, both of which superimpose themselves on each other in act of dynamic reinforcement, culminating not at a center per se, but at concentric horizons in the infinite and ineffable. This as Burgel shows can be witnessed in Islamic music and poetry where as he suggests there is a “tightening” particularly of what is repetitive, like a verse or a note, which if imagined visually becomes structurally conical. Additionally and literally this happens in architecture and ornamentation as well,
where as Burgel suggests there is a “tightening” of repetition, which is most obvious in the masonry architecture, where repetition (of the module) is a tectonic necessity in a dome for instance, and as a result a three dimensional space or “shelter” is formed, reinforcing the concept of concentric horizons by the now inclusion of interior and exterior.

While the teleological underpinnings of the “structure” Burgel describes in Islamic Art, are less obvious in writings by and on Smithson and his work, there is as Craig Owens asserts a “structure” not perhaps between the two poles “control and ecstasy” but between what he quotes the author Jorge Luis Borges as claiming “the distance between the present and an irrecoverable past.” This is what Owen’s describes as a return to the allegorical, which modernist art had essentially declared an anathema, and what he describes as Smithson’s genius. “Allegory first emerged in response to a similar sense of estrangement from tradition; throughout it’s history it has functioned in the gap between a present and a past which without allegorical reinterpretation, might have remained foreclosed.” (22) Allegory by definition of Owens is constituted by many of the same structural components suggested by Burgel: Super-imposition, repetition, and transience, as Owens explains the structure like the one Burgel describes is something that cannot be added post-facto, it must be implicit to the work, from it’s inception to it’s presentation. The difference between the two structures is what Owens describes, as allegory not being: hermeneutic, for in the structure of Islamic Art, the idea of obedience to the Koran pervades in all interpretations.

Allegory as Owens describes it “is consistently attracted to the fragmentary, the imperfect, the incomplete- an affinity which finds it’s most comprehensive expression in the ruin” Owens goes on to describe the “ruins thus stand for history as an irreversible process of dissolution and decay, a progressive distancing from origin”. It was here that he described the importance of what he saw in Smithson’s work as an “emblem of transience, the ephemerality of all phenomena” a “memento mori” of the twentieth century”. But it is the role of photography which Owens points out contains the impulse to fix images and memories from falling into the abyss that is at the heart of allegory. “As an allegorical art, then, photography would represent our desire to fix the transitory, the ephemeral, in a stable and stabilizing image.” Along with what Owens calls the “psychological resonance” of allegory, conjured by the myths associated with the Great Salt Lake, there is in the Spiral Jetty a further invocation of the allegorical process in it’s use of ruin, transience, and in use of media, and documentation as a way of advancing the allegorical resonance.

Since it’s completion the jetties appearance as sculpture already made difficult (in the art historical sense) by it’s remote location, (not in a gallery or museum) has appeared and disappeared under the lake with the ebb and flows of drought and flood. It’s existence as “artwork” has arguably less to do with it’s physical three dimensional presence, and more to do with it’s presence in media. The Spiral Jetty is known almost entirely by existence in media, either film, photographs, an or text. It is through a presence that is fundamentally conscientious of it’s interplay with it’s physical source, at The Great Salt Lake, but given that remoteness, it’s comprehension needs to be manifest through media, through the use of allegory and more particularly the inflected symbolism of the spiral. Smithson set the parameters which enable the dialectic between physical and conceptual dimensions through the
documentation of its construction, by means of film; celluloid frames spiraling behind a lens, both in their collection and projection, constitute a spiraling sequence of time. Add to that the fact that Smithson recorded much of the film from a Bell Helicopter, whose spiraling blades are both seen and heard as a sound vortex in the film, the spiral form manifested itself both viscerally and vicariously throughout the project; it exists in both real and recorded time.

Finally there is the question of scale; while in relative terms, the Spiral Jetty compared to the Palm Jumeirah is tiny, both project scales nevertheless require a perceptual distinction between what is immediately perceptible on the ground; a perception based on proximity, which identifies a courser reading of stratification and layers of earth. And the complete perception of form which can only take place from a disengaged vantage point, primarily from an hundreds of feet above in an aircraft. Thereby setting up simultaneity in perception that takes place in both readings, where the reified perception of totality is mixed with the intimate and tactile perception of “being on the landform” or vice versa.
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The Four Freedoms: Raising Awareness of Human Rights in the English for Academic Purposes Classroom

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Abstract
This paper introduces an approach to teaching students about human rights, a term-long project that is being implemented in an intensive English for academic purposes (EAP) program at a Thai university. The objectives of the project are to improve students’ language skills while also cultivating their knowledge of human rights. The project is informed by the theories of project-based learning, emphasizing student autonomy and constructive investigations. It introduces students to the history and development of human rights, focusing particularly on the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Four Freedoms. Students are each assigned a different country to research, and they analyze current issues in that country through the lens of the Four Freedoms. Under the guidance of a faculty advisor, the students prepare a term paper and presentation highlighting their most significant findings. Through engagement with human rights issues in countries around the world, students are able to transcend their learning space and become better citizens of Thailand, ASEAN, and the global community. The contents of this paper will be of special interest to language teachers, but a similar project could be applied in a range of courses across the high school or university curriculum.

Keywords: English for Academic Purposes (EAP), Human Rights, Project-Based Learning
Introduction

The importance of human rights education cannot be overstated as understanding human rights is a prerequisite to respecting them: “A sustainable world peace can only be assured through the universal actualization of human dignity; human rights concepts and standards are tools for the realization of the conditions necessary to human dignity” (Reardon, 2015). The vital concepts and standards of human rights can be taught in a wide variety of ways. The approach that educators take to human rights education will depend on their particular context and the resources at their disposal.

In response to the need for human rights education, this paper offers one approach to raising students’ awareness of human rights at the Preparation Center for Languages and Mathematics at Mahidol University International College. The center provides intensive English for academic purposes classes for students aiming to join the English-medium liberal arts program at the international college. Accordingly, although improving students’ language skills remains the primary goal, the center aims to develop students’ capabilities and knowledge in other areas as well, providing the foundation that they will need to succeed in a liberal arts program. The center’s mission statement encompasses these goals: “To provide educational experiences which cultivate students’ academic English communication skills, to foster their ability to be self-reflective and responsible learners, and to stimulate their curiosity about the world.”

The approach to human rights education outlined in this paper centers around a term-long research project based on Franklin D. Roosevelt’s Four Freedoms — freedom of speech, freedom of worship, freedom from want, and freedom from fear. The project, which is aligned with content-based language instruction and project-based learning (PBL), develops students’ academic English through content-based instruction. These approaches will be explained in the following section.

Literature Review

In recent years, content-based language instruction has become increasingly prevalent in language classrooms (Heidari-Shahreza, 2014). This approach to language teaching and learning integrates the learning of “real-world content” (Beglar & Hunt, 2011, p. 93) with language education (Brown, 2001). This stands in contrast with some earlier approaches to language education, such as the audiolingual method, which tended to use contrived dialogues to teach grammatical forms (Leaver & Willis, 2004). Content-based language instruction is consistent with the goals of the communicative approach to language, which focuses on the transmission of meaningful information rather than on the forms of language (Brown, 2001). Potential benefits of content-based instruction include increased attention, motivation and volunteering (Heidari-Shahreza, 2014), particularly when the right level of challenge is achieved (i.e., complex and challenging content for highly proficient students; less challenging material for less proficient students) (Stoller, 2002). That is, providing stimulating and meaningful content does not detract from language learning; it enhances language learning. The inclusion of meaningful content in language education is consistent with content-based language teaching, which aims to educate through realistic investigations of challenging questions.
The development and implementation of this project is also guided by project-based learning. This approach represents “a systematic teaching method that engages students in learning knowledge and skills through an extended inquiry process structured around complex, authentic questions and carefully designed products and tasks” (Markham, Larmer, & Ravitz, 2003, p. 4). Researchers have identified many benefits of project-based learning, including enhanced academic achievement (Buck Institute for Education, 2013) and attendance of classes (Creghan & Adair-Creghan, 2015). Project-based learning can be applied across the curriculum, including language courses, where it is effective in providing opportunities for students to acquire language: “By using authentic materials and focusing on self-guided, project-based learning, students notice target structures and practice them until they develop automaticity” (Grode & Stacy, 2015, p. 171). Because it requires a degree of autonomy, project-based learning is appropriate for learners who already have a strong foundation in the target language.

Project-based learning is best understood through the five criteria included in Thomas’ (2000) thorough and insightful literature review on the subject, which are centrality, driving question, constructive investigations, autonomy, and realism. The criterion of centrality means that the project must be an integral part of the course. A project completed at the very end of a course to reinforce learning would not meet this criterion, nor would a project completed over a short period during a course. The criterion of driving question means that the project must aim to provide a meaningful answer to a question that pushes students to engage with key ideas in a given subject area. This aspect of discovery — of finding a solution to a substantial question — can result in enhanced student engagement. The criterion of constructive investigations means that the project must push students to develop new skills or new content knowledge. An assignment that can be completed without the development of new skills or content knowledge does not qualify as a project; it is “busywork” (Larmer & Mergendoller, 2010, p. 34). The criterion of autonomy means that students must take significant responsibility for their own learning. Project-based learning is student-centered; teachers function as advisors or facilitators rather than as the focus of the classroom. Finally, the criterion of realism means that projects are not mere exercises. To the greatest extent possible, they should use real-world information and push students to engage with real-world issues. These five criteria have guided the creation and implementation of the human rights project described below.

**Human Rights Term Project**

The human rights term project that has been implemented in the intermediate course at the Preparation Center for Languages and Mathematics requires students to write a term paper of at least 1,200 words evaluating a country’s human rights situation in terms of the Four Freedoms mentioned above. The term paper includes in-text citations and references in the APA 6th Edition format. Additionally, students deliver a 5-7 minute presentation explaining their most significant findings. The project spans the entire 10-week term.

In the first week, students are randomly assigned a country from a list compiled by the teachers. Certain countries (e.g., small island nations) are excluded from the list because relatively little information about them is available online. The students are also assigned a faculty advisor, who will guide them through the research and writing
process. Because this project is the first academic paper that many of the students have written, all steps of the process are scaffolded. During the first week, students are also given an outline template containing explanations of all of the major components of the term paper and links to recommended sources, including the United Nations Development Programme, Reporters Without Borders, Freedom House, and other major NGOs.

In the first two weeks of the term, students read several short texts (4-8 pages each) about the history of human rights from ancient to modern times, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the Four Freedoms. They answer questions about these texts and discuss the texts in class. The purpose of reading these texts is to give students a basic understanding of human rights; a deeper understanding will be developed as they conduct their research.

Teachers provide a variety of materials to support students as they progress through the project, beginning with source analysis forms in Week 2. These forms, which are distributed and completed in Google Docs, require students to read source texts closely and respond to a series of questions about the source type, bias, and specific content that might be useful in their term paper. They are also asked to write a brief summary of each source. Students are asked to complete five forms about sources they have selected in their initial research; they are not asked to complete forms for all of their sources. Completing the source analysis forms early in the term pushes students to find appropriate academic sources and to engage meaningfully with the sources that they have selected.

The first draft of the term paper outline is due in Week 3. Students base their outlines on the template distributed in Week 1. They are not required to include all of the Four Freedoms in their paper; they may choose to write about two or three freedoms, depending on the situation in the country that they are researching. Often, students will need to complete more than one draft of the outline before receiving approval. Once the advisor has approved a student’s outline, he or she can begin writing the first draft of the term paper.

In Week 5, students submit the first draft of the term paper through Turnitin, an online service that checks their term paper for similarity with websites and previously submitted student papers. Submitting the draft to Turnitin allows teachers to address at an early stage any issues with insufficient paraphrasing, lack of quotation marks, or other forms of plagiarism. Once the first draft has been submitted, the term paper advisors give feedback about content and organization only (grammar feedback will be given on the second draft). Students then have approximately two weeks to revise their term papers for the second draft, which is due in Week 7.

Students submit the second draft of their term paper to Turnitin in Week 7. At this point, they should have addressed any issues identified by the teachers in Week 5. They should also have edited their term papers based on the similarity report from Turnitin so that all instances of poor paraphrasing have been corrected. Advisors give grammar feedback about the second draft by identifying all errors on the first page of the paper with editing symbols (e.g., “SVA” for subject-verb agreement) and giving overall comments about the entire paper. Based on these comments, students prepare the final draft of the term paper, which is due in Week 9.
Before submitting the final draft of their term papers in Week 9, students present their major findings orally to their classmates and a teacher. The students receive feedback about their term paper presentation from their advisor; however, the final presentation is marked by another teacher in the program. The teacher marking the presentation will ask questions and provide feedback, aiming to uncover any parts of the paper that require improvement. Once the term papers have been submitted in Week 9, the advisors mark them, paying particular attention to the evidence of the writing process. Students receive considerable support over the course of the term, and the development of their ideas and writing should progress clearly through the outline, first draft, second draft, and final draft.

While the human rights term paper represents a significant challenge, the vast majority of students who work on their papers consistently throughout the term produce satisfactory results. The project is heavily scaffolded using structured source analysis forms and an outline template. The students engage in guided research, and are able to discuss any problems with their advisor as they arise. The process approach to writing is also emphasized, and students complete multiple drafts of their papers and present their findings orally before submitting the final draft. Overall, the project is structured to facilitate students’ success.

Discussion
The human rights project at the Preparation Center for Languages and Mathematics meets all five of Thomas’ (2000) criteria for project-based learning: centrality, driving question, constructive investigations, autonomy, and realism. In accordance with Thomas’ (2000) criterion of centrality, the project is an integral part of the course. The project includes several components: source analysis forms, an outline, a first draft, a second draft, a term paper presentation, and a final draft. Class time is also devoted to completing core readings about human rights and completing other related activities. The other elements of the course, for example APA citing and referencing, are scheduled based on students’ need to complete specific parts of the term paper. In short, the human rights term paper is central to the course.
In project-based learning, students’ research is guided by a driving question (Thomas, 2000). In the case of the human rights term paper, students are asked to evaluate the situation in a given country. This question is relatively open, and the outcome is not predetermined. In order to answer the question, students must engage with the meaning of human rights.

Consistent with Thomas’ (2000) criterion of constructive investigations, students must develop new skills and knowledge in order to complete this project. To respond to the question guiding their research, they must develop a clear understanding of human rights as well as knowledge of current events. In terms of language, they improve their academic vocabulary, outlining skills, and drafting skills. Most students undertaking the project have no prior experience writing extended essays, so they must develop these skills to successfully complete the term paper.
The human rights term paper also meets the criterion of autonomy. The students do receive some scaffolding for their research, but the majority of the project is done independently. The teacher acts as an advisor, but each student must take ownership of his or her project. Assigning each student a different country than their peers also contributes to autonomy. Because students’ term paper topics are different, they can
discuss general ideas about human rights but cannot share information specific to their countries.

The project also meets Thomas’ (2000) criterion of realism. To answer the driving question that they have been assigned, the students must engage with real news that is written in authentic English. The content of the paper is based on historical and current events; no element of the project has been fabricated as a language-learning exercise.

This project, which aligns with Thomas’ (2000) five criteria for project-based learning, provides students with an opportunity to improve their language skills while learning about human rights. It uses content-based language instruction to simultaneously improve students’ language skills and content knowledge. In doing so, it meets all elements of the mission statement of the Preparation Center for Languages and Mathematics and develops students’ English skills while cultivating their autonomy and broadening their knowledge of the wider world.

Conclusion

This paper has described a project which aims to enhance students’ knowledge of human rights in the English for academic purposes classroom. The project, which is aligned with content-based instruction and project-based learning, could be adapted for use in many contexts worldwide. Through this and similar projects, language educators have the ability to empower their students to become engaged citizens of their home countries and of the world.
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Improving Nature of Science Understandings through Scientific Inquiry

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Abstract
The main goal of this study was to examine prospective secondary science teachers’ developing understanding of nature of science (NOS) while engaging in scientific inquiry. A computer simulation of inheritance processes was used in combination with small-group discussions to enhance participants’ understandings of NOS. Structuring scientific inquiry as investigation to develop explanations presents meaningful context for the enhancement of understanding of the NOS. The context of the study was a teaching and learning course focused on inquiry and technology. Twelve prospective science teachers participated in this study. Multiple data sources included pre- and post-module questionnaires of participants’ view of NOS, inquiry project reports, and semi-structured interviews with seven selected participants. Findings suggest that while studying important concepts in science, carefully designed inquiry experiences can help students to develop an understanding about the types of questions scientists in that field ask, the methodological and epistemological issues that constrain their pursuit of answers, and the ways in which they construct and share their explanations. Prior to this experience the prospective teachers held uninformed views of NOS. After the module, participants demonstrated extended expertise in their understandings of following aspects of NOS: a) the iterative nature of science; b) the tentativeness of specific knowledge claims; c) the degree to which scientists rely on empirical data and broader conceptual, metaphysical commitments; d) the need for conceptual consistency; e) multiple methods of investigations and multiple interpretations of data; and f) social aspects of science.

Keywords: Nature of Science, Scientific Inquiry

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Introduction

Implementing inquiry-based teaching in order to create a learning environment for students to become scientifically literate is a challenging task for science teachers. Science as inquiry standards suggest that students develop: (a) An understanding of scientific concepts, (b) An appreciation of “how we know” what we know in science, (c) An understanding of the nature of science, (d) Skills necessary to become independent inquirers about the natural world, and (e) The dispositions to use the skills, abilities, and attitudes associated with science (p. 105). In spite of all the efforts to promote inquiry teaching and learning in schools, the practice of inquiry has rarely been successfully implemented by practicing teachers (Yager, 1997). Science teachers’ perceptions of inquiry and their abilities to implement inquiry-based teaching may be reasons for this failure. After more than two years of classroom observations, Gallagher (1991) concluded in one study that the 25 science teachers he followed focused on the body of knowledge of science. Further interviews with the teachers revealed that they had limited understanding of how scientific knowledge is formulated and validated.

Considerable evidence shows that a teacher’s conception of the nature of scientific inquiry influences how they teach as well as what they teach (Brickhouse, 1990). Designing methods courses centered around an explicit emphasis on scientific inquiry and the nature of science helps prospective teachers develop adequate understandings of the nature of scientific inquiry (Bell, Lederman, & Abd-El-Khalick, 1998). Most prospective teachers have never experienced learning science as inquiry and never monitored an inquiry-based science classrooms (Boardman & Zembal-Saul, 2000).

Hypothesis testing has recently been presented very positively within the science education community, being promoted as a powerful context for supporting knowledge acquisition in science ( Howe et al., 2000). The drive has come from reform documents, which emphasize the integrated acquisition of conceptual and procedural knowledge. Because hypothesis testing provides context where students can formulate conceptual knowledge into researchable ideas, investigate ideas through manipulation, prediction, and observation, and evaluate ideas in the light of evidence, in principle, should allow integrated acquisition of knowledge. From a constructivist view of learning, inquiry based project work provides good possibilities for individual interpretation in the process of knowledge construction. In collaborating groups of students, negotiation of meaning and arriving at consensus are important tools to cope with discrepancies and disagreement.

Purpose and Research Question

The purpose of this study was exploring prospective secondary science teachers’ developing understandings of nature of science as they engage in scientific inquiry. Consistent with the views expressed in the Standards, an instructional module was designed to engage prospective secondary science teachers in investigation of inheritance patterns in domestic cats, using a computer simulation. The research questions for this study was “what is the nature of prospective secondary science teachers’ understandings of nature of science and in what ways do these understandings change after engagement in guided inquiry that includes constructing and testing hypotheses?”
Context and design of the study

Qualitative inquiry methods were used in this study. Qualitative research includes several forms of inquiry that helps us to understand and explain the meaning of social phenomena with as little disruption of the natural setting as possible (Merriam, 1998). Specifically, the research design was structured within a theoretical framework of a grounded theory inquiry tradition that is applied within case study design (Creswell, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

The context for the study was a teaching and learning course focused on inquiry and technology for prospective secondary science teachers. One of the challenges in helping prospective science teachers to learn about scientific inquiry is embedding their work in appropriate social context and creating a culture of collaboration and inquiry. A collaborative inquiry approach and socio-constructivist perspectives were employed to create a teaching and learning environment. Collaborative inquiry involves cognitive interactions between both teacher and students, and students with each other (Crawford, 2000). Pairs presented their findings and initial arguments, multiple relationships were generated by the pairs and presented to the whole class. Although pairs were working on different questions they were all dealing with the same set of genes. There was a lot of overlap in the findings; however pairs’ reasoning and explanations varied. Vigorous peer discussions arose when participants saw the anomalous data of others, and when they had different explanations for the data presented. After preliminary presentations, participants went back to work stations and continued their inquiry project evaluating new information and insights from their peers. Some participants tried to disprove their peers’ claims to make their own claims more plausible.

Participants collaborated between and within groups, as well as with the instructor. Sometimes pairs used someone else’s expertise to come up with an explanation for their data. As participants progressed with their investigation they tried to build a valid model for coat color and pattern inheritance in cats. Participants were constantly revising their models as they continued testing new hypotheses.

During the seventh and final class session of the module, the prospective science teachers shared investigation results with peers via computer projection. In order to provide each pair with enough time to present findings and to have discussions and criticism, presentations were done in two separate rooms with three pairs in each room. Each group presented findings and proposed inheritance models, highlighting models’ features and discussing what their model predicted for the particular traits.

The presentations provided an opportunity to discuss inheritance patterns and compare results across groups. At the end of the presentations, the instructor took the lead to combine all findings and come up with a grand model of inheritance for domestic cats. In this learning context, the role of the instructor was a participant of collaborative inquiry who contributed to the discourse with his expertise. To summarize, the key elements of collaborative inquiry in this study were: experimentation, social negotiation, and explanation-building.
Procedures of data collection
Interviews are useful way to elicit information about how people feel and interpret the world around them (Merriam, 1998). A list of questions or issues to be explored guides the semi-structured interview approach. However, neither the order of the questions nor the exact wording is predetermined. This protocol was decided to be most appropriate for this study because of individual differences in understandings within the case (Merriam, 1998).

Interview transcripts, pre-tests, and post-tests of views of scientific inquiry and inquiry project reports, and presentations were used as the primary source of data. Secondary supporting data consisted of homework assignments, and researcher’s journal. Data were collected throughout the duration of the module, and interviews with selected participants were conducted after the instructional module.

Findings and Discussion
Research findings suggest that prior to this experience, the prospective teachers held uninformed views of scientific inquiry and the nature of science. Following instruction, evidence suggested that the prospective teachers’ understandings of scientific inquiry and their abilities to do inquiry were enhanced. Initially, they viewed scientific inquiry as the posing of questions and investigation of them in order to learn the truths of science. They viewed science as a way of understanding nature and the world around them through use of the scientific method. They also viewed observation, exploration, and experimentation as a crucial part of this process. Science was also seen as a tool to solve problems in our world and help us in our everyday lives. Prospective teachers began to recognize the elements of scientific inquiry and importance of data-driven evidence and use of models in science. Prospective science teachers demonstrated more informed understandings of several aspects of scientific inquiry and the nature of science after the module. Evidence of enhanced understandings included comparisons of pre- and post-tests of Views of Scientific Inquiry questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

Although scientific inquiry and nature of science are separate constructs, there is an inevitable overlap, due to the type of knowledge being assessed. One important component relating to both inquiry and the nature of science is that scientific knowledge is tentative, being continually subject to change and revision. Tentativeness of scientific knowledge arises from the very process of science (a) knowledge has a basis in empirical evidence, (b) evidence is collected and interpreted based on current scientific theory-laden observations and interpretations as well as personal subjectivity due to scientists’ values, knowledge, and prior experiences, and (c) knowledge is the product of human imagination and creativity (Schwartz et al., 2001).

Pre- and post-VOSI analysis showed that participants developed more informed understandings of the following aspects of scientific inquiry: a) valid multiple interpretations of data (this aspect of scientific inquiry relates to interpretive, subjective, and tentative aspects of nature of science) b) distinctions between data and evidence; c) multiple methods of scientific investigations; d) importance of consistency between evidence and conclusions; e) data analysis as directed by research questions, involving multiple representations of data and the development of
patterns and explanations that are logically and conceptually consistent; f) social aspects of science, peer interaction, and the role of communication in the development and acceptance of scientific knowledge, and g) degree to which scientists rely on empirical data as well as broader conceptual and metaphysical commitments to assess models and to direct future inquiries.

**Valid Multiple Interpretations of Data**

Analysis of the pre-VOSI questionnaires revealed that most of the participants recognized that scientists working on the same problems may not reach the same conclusions, even if they use the same experimental procedures. Prospective teachers’ responses generally reflected an informed view. In post-VOSI interviews all of the prospective science teachers demonstrated a firm understanding of the role of the interpretation, subjectivity, and creativity in science; they all recognized the role scientists’ backgrounds and worldviews play in data analysis. They were more articulate and their responses demonstrated more informed view of this particular aspect of scientific inquiry.

Scientists are going to interpret data differently based on prior knowledge and/or experience (Lisa, Post-VOSI);

Even if they follow the same procedures to collect data, they will still have personal biases that will affect the outcome (Ashley, Post-VOSI).

As reflected in above quotes, participants hold an informed understanding of multiple valid interpretations of data in science and the important of the theoretical commitments and assumptions in data analysis process. Observations and inferences are theory-laden; therefore, multiple and subjective interpretations of data are inevitable. Interview question helped to elicit participants’ conceptions of subjectivity, inference, creativity, and the empirical nature of scientific inquiry.

**Nature of Experiments**

Responses in the pre-VOSI indicated that prospective science teachers’ definitions of experiments varied from a naïve uninformed view to a somewhat informed view. Most responses indicated that participants viewed experiments as following particular steps and that scientists conduct experiments to prove or disprove theories:

Specific set of steps taken to support or refute a hypothesis for a specific goal (Valerie, pre-VOSI);

When a position or belief is taken on a topic and steps are taken to test that belief (Kate, pre-VOSI);

Stating something you believe to be true and then do a test of some kind to either prove or disprove your idea (Karen, pre-VOSI).

Some participants emphasized that experiments try to disprove rather than prove hypotheses, for instance; Rachel’s definition was:
A test or series of tests and observations done to disprove a hypothesis (Pre-VOSI);

Following the module prospective teachers stated more informed views. They mentioned the use of controls, and they emphasized multiple processes, rather than a set of pre-determined steps:

It is a procedure that is performed to investigate scientific phenomena. This procedure does not necessarily have to follow a specific set of steps. Some experiments can be hands-on and often involve data analysis and working with peers. They often lead to conclusions or theories (Ashley, post-VOSI);

Scientific inquiry in a very general sense refers to the several systematic approaches used by scientists in order to answer research questions. Entering the module, numerous participants had uninformed view of experiments. That is, a fixed set of steps that all scientists follow when trying to answer scientific questions. After the module, in exit interviews, participants articulated the contemporary informed view that the research questions guide the approach and the approaches may vary within and across scientific disciplines.

**Multiple Methods of Scientific Investigations**

Analysis of the pre-VOSI revealed that the majority of the participants initially held positivist views of science. Eleven out of twelve participants stated that there was one scientific method. They had more informed views at the end of the module.

Semi-structured interview transcriptions helped to describe participants’ views of what constitutes “scientific.” Interview question number 26 was about a bird study (see Appendix G.) Nearly all participants agreed that it was a scientific investigation because the person gathered data through observation and drew conclusions. However, it was not an experiment, because the person did not test any hypothesis. The following excerpts provide evidence for their developing understanding:

I think it was scientific in that he did collect a lot of different data and it was all observation; it was not an experiment, but it does not have to be an experiment to be scientific (Ben interview);

It’s definitely scientific, but I don’t really think this is an experiment. So it’s scientific in that he saw these things and he kind of hypothesized (Karen interview);

I say the investigation is definitely scientific, because a lot of science is an observational data that is how you learn in science, you link things together, I would not call it an experiment, because he just observed (Wilson interview).

The aspects of scientific inquiry are closely related. Participants’ views about experiments and multiple interpretations directly related their views of scientific methods. Although, in the beginning, some of the participants showed more informed understandings about experiments and multiple interpretations they still believed there is one scientific method. Inconsistencies in participants’ understandings disappeared when they made connections between aspects of scientific inquiry and developed more informed understanding of all aspects of scientific inquiry.
**Distinction between Data and Evidence**

Prospective teacher’s understandings’ of data, evidence, and data analysis were more articulate at the end of the module. In the beginning, some of them had informed understandings of data and evidence, yet most of them demonstrated some confusion or uninformed understandings. When they were asked about data, difference between data and evidence, and data analysis, most of them demonstrated informed views of these concepts in the beginning. A typical response associated data with only numbers and data analysis with mathematics and statistics.

Half of the participants were aware of the difference between data and evidence in the beginning. However, in the post-tests, all of them were able to further articulate the difference, referencing the analysis process and building an argument for the results and conclusions.

Representative examples include the following:

Initially, Ben defined data as: “A set of known facts” (Pre-VOSI).

Valerie’s definition of data was: “Information, the numbers, measurement, and raw untouched results of an experiment or observation” (Pre-VOSI).

Similarly Mary responded: “Numbers, observations etc. that are used to prove or disprove a hypothesis” (Pre-VOSI).

Nearly all participants showed more informed understandings of data in post-test; however some participants still focused on the numerical nature of data. For example, Ben’s definition of data changed as: “A set of gathered information “(Post-VOSI).

The following quotes provide evidence of change:

Data is the information gathered/collected during an investigation (Lisa, post-VOSI)

Data is empirical evidence that is collected or obtained that can be analyzed to form conclusions about where the data came from (Kevin, post-VOSI).

Data is used in science to support or disprove a theory. Data can be anything that is observed and recorded, either during an experiment or just during observation and investigation (Ashley, post-VOSI).

On the other hand others had uninformed understandings. For example, Mike said: “I would consider data and evidence to be one in the same” (Pre-VOSI) and Karen stated: “Evidence is something you look for before you conduct the experiment to help you write your hypothesis” (Pre-VOSI).

While distinguishing between data and evidence Lisa and Kate could not articulate the difference stating

Data is not the same as evidence. If you can repeat your data and others repeat your data then your data can be used for evidence (Lisa, pre-VOSI).
I would say different. Evidence can be more opinionated and pervasive (Kate, pre-VOSI).

The post-test indicated that all participants acquired an informed view of the difference between data and evidence. For example, Mike, Karen, Lisa, and Kate gained a more informed understandings, as we can see in the following quotes:

Data can serve as evidence or data can support or deny existing evidence (Mike, post-VOSI).

Evidence is something that constitutes proof. Data can lead to evidence (Karen, post-VOSI, line 119).

Those who had initial informed understandings to begin with were able to further articulate their views. For instance:

Data is row, evidence is data that has been analyzed and is used to support as disprove a hypothesis (Ben, post-VOSI).

Data is un-interpreted. Evidence must be interpreted (Valerie, post-VOSI).

Initially, most participants recognized a difference between data and evidence; however a majority of them could not articulate the difference. Generally they associated data with numbers and measurements and evidence with proof.

**Data Analysis**

When asked about data analysis, most of the prospective teachers initially mentioned making calculations, statistics tests, and making sense of numbers. Yet they were not able to specify what data analysis comprised:

Data analysis is using statistical tests to analyze your data (Karen, pre-VOSI). Making sense of numbers/observations finding trends, percents etc., usually it involves a lot of Excel work (Mary, pre-VOSI).

Data analysis is a process of taking nonsensical numbers and measurements and making some practical sense of them. It involves asking, “Why?” (Valerie, pre-VOSI).

The interpretation of data, it mostly involves calculations like seeing whether numerical data fits into one standard deviation of the expected (Ben, pre-VOSI).

In post-VOSI questionnaires, prospective science teachers explained data analysis as a process of examining the data, looking for patterns, comparing and contrasting, and seeking for an explanation for the problem using critical thinking. Data analysis is the process of looking over the data that has been collected and making conclusions based on that data, includes using mathematics, methods of comparing or contrasting data, drawing conclusions about the data (Ashley, post-VOSI).
Prospective science teachers became aware of the importance of the research questions, procedures, and the theoretical lenses in the process of data analysis. Data analysis cannot be done without guidance from the purpose of the research. All aspects of scientific inquiry are very closely knit together and the holistic view should be communicated to learners in science classrooms.

**Empirical Aspects of Science**

Interview responses highlighted the difference between inquiry in science and inquiry in other disciplines, such as philosophy and religion. All participants emphasized the empirical aspects of science:

Scientific knowledge is more reliable because of supporting data and evidence, in science things are tested many times before they are accepted as a general knowledge so most people have pretty good faith that those experiments were done well and data is correct (Rachel).

Scientists use logic and evidence; they apply the logic to the evidence (Ben interview).

In science there are facts and knowledge you can see on the table and you can go into inquiry looking at the data and interpret it and come up with a conclusion that you can prove over and over again (Wilson interview).

**Social Aspects of Science**

The most consistent responses in the questions concerned the social aspects of science, peer interaction, and worldview of scientists. For example, when participants were asked “If scientists, working independently, ask the same question and follow the same procedures to collect data, will they come to the same conclusions? All participants responded “No” and articulated several reasons. For example Ashley, John, and Wilson stated that since scientists have different worldviews and biases their interpretation of the data would be different:

Even if they follow the same procedures, they will still have personal biases. Biases and personal feelings can influence what material scientists study and the conclusions they reach (Ashley, post-VOSI).

They are influenced by their own knowledge and backgrounds. They have biases just like everyone else. They are influenced by their values as well as things that are going on in the world (John, post-VOSI).

No, because the scientists will be using different data and different methods of analyzing the data. Personal biases would also play a role (Wilson, post-VOSI).

Similarly Mary, Mike, and Valerie drew attention to theoretical commitments and assumptions that are inherent in scientific investigations. They also mentioned the different theoretical perspectives that scientists in different fields would use to evaluate data on the same matter:
Unless they are all making the same exact assumptions, using the same data/sights/computer programs/equipment, they probably will get similar but not identical answers (Mary, post-VOSI).

During interviews Rachel and Mary emphasized the subjectivity in science and how scientists discount some data:

There is no way to separate subjectivity out of science. People approach anything they do with past experiences they cannot close out everything all they prior knowledge when they are researching (Rachel).

But data is subjective, you can discount evidence, you can say, “Oh, we’re not going to take that evidence because it was taken in Arizona, and we just aren’t including Arizona in this study.” People do that all the time (Mary).

According to participants, scientists’ activities included developing hypotheses, experimenting, collecting data, and collaborating, debating, modeling, building upon and may perhaps even change previously accepted facts, publishing. Participants listed personal interest, needs of society, funding, job requirements, ambition, political factors, ethics, and religion as the factors that influence what scientists study.

**Important Role of Preliminary Presentations**

In the middle of the module I interjected a time for preliminary project presentations. Participants had a chance to see what other pairs had done, up to that point. Pairs reported on what kind of data they collected and on explanations they constructed, as well as strategies they used and their preliminary conclusions. They had an opportunity to compare and contrast their data, findings, and conclusions with their peers and evaluate their developing project. This activity proved to be very valuable as it provoked heated discussions and debates between pairs. Some of the participants saw more evidence that supported their claims and models, while others saw alternative as well as contradictory explanations and models.

Ben and Kevin also valued the preliminary presentations and their role:

Presentations gave us different ways of looking at things; we'd say maybe that can apply to our model (Ben interview).

We enjoyed arguing because it made us think about more of our ideas (Kevin interview).

Similarly, Karen expressed a positive opinion about the preliminary presentations stating:

It was really good how we met a couple times go over, we didn’t agree with everything from the other groups, but then, we found out by going back and testing out their hypotheses, it actually helped us, so if another group found something, and we didn’t really understand what was going on, we could go ask them and they would show us their process and we could compare results. So that was really good.
Preliminary presentations also influenced prospective science teachers’ understandings of science and nature of science. Their understandings became more process-oriented rather than product driven. In their explanations, they put more emphasis on data and evidence and the multiple inquiry procedure that scientists might use in their research. Most of the participants stressed social aspects of science and scientific communities that share similar interest and work together.

In addition to creating ideas, the participants’ social interaction facilitated to generate problems and clarifications.

**Debate and Discussion Leads to Consensus and Understanding**

Although they did not have compelling evidence, in their preliminary presentation, Ben and Kevin introduced the most radical and thought shifting idea: what they called the Dark & Light gene. According to their inheritance model, if a cat has a dark allele it would be Orange or Black. If it has a light allele, then it would be Cream or Gray. This gene was independent from any other color gene.

As soon as Ben and Kevin introduced the idea, all the biology majors were harshly critical and they did not even consider the possibility of such a gene. There was a very heated discussion. In fact, right after presentations, biology majors, especially Lisa, stopped their investigations and they tried to disprove Ben and Kevin’s dark & light gene idea. Such competition reflected real scientific endeavor for participants. During his interview Kevin said:

I thought that was neat, because they did not necessarily accept it but it was something that came up with an explanation that people had not thought of so right away, I mean, it was just kind of the real science, you know, someone comes up with a new theory and people do not want their theory to be wrong so they try to prove it wrong.

It was funny, because when we did the preliminary presentation, Ben and I, we were talking we did not want to share what we had because we had not fully explained everything so we wanted to be the first ones to do it. We really did not want to give hints to people so that they might jump at it, in a way I really felt like a scientist

Ben also commented on competition between groups:

We had a little bit too much fun and got really competitive because we were both earth science majors and we weren't to beat the biology majors. They seem to so sure that they were going to get all the answers and we were doing well, that was matter of pride.

After conducting numerous experiments, the biology majors failed to disprove dark & light gene. In fact they realized that it was very useful idea and could help them to explain their data as well. However, they did not accept it as dark & light gene. The following interview quotes are from biology majors. Karen described the process:

We hadn’t really ever thought about dark & light gene until they brought it up, and we didn’t agree with it. We were so against it that we went into Catlab and we started testing it.
Secondary education biology majors renamed the dark & light as dilute & undiluted and claimed that their language was more scientific. Rachel said:

Lisa and Wilson modified it like dilute & un-dilute. Until that point we were thinking all the genes were separate and not affecting each other. Changing the language helped Lisa and Wilson to make it more scientific.

Lisa said that prior knowledge of genetics actually prevented them from being as open-minded as others in class, and they assumed too much, instead of using actual data and evidence. She also had a problem with the language that Ben and Kevin used:

Wilson gave credit to Ben & Kevin for their idea, however he too emphasized that their language was not scientific:

When Kevin started talking about dark versus light I thought it was an interesting idea, I didn't see so much as dark and light I was a little more scientific about dilute and un-dilute and how colors are changing and thought there might be a gene affecting the amount of color and that's what's changing it. As soon as that idea came about, it explained so much and so much became clearer, because it explained so many aspects. It was the idea that was needed.

On the other hand Lisa was upset because she could not add non-tabby cream cat into the litter. She insisted that her friend has a non-tabby cream cat and she saw a couple of others so CATLAB was limited. In fact, genetically, all orange and all cream cats are tabby cats; solid cream cats look like non-tabby because we cannot see the mackerel stripes or blotch pattern. After building their inheritance models participants recognized that information they entered into the simulation corresponded to genes they were trying to discover. In their comments, they noted surprise and resentment for not being able to recognize such an obvious procedure:

Participants tended to be more critical about their explanations and models when different ideas were presented to them by their peers. On the other hand they tended to ignore discrepant data in favor of their explanations.

**Acknowledgement**

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The Study of Behaviors, Attitudes and Satisfaction of High School Students in M. 6th Grade in the Bangkok Region in Accessing News and Information About Mahidol University International College Through Online Social Media

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Abstract
This research has the objective of studying the behaviors, attitudes and satisfaction of high school students in M. 6th Grade in the Bangkok region in accessing news and information about Mahidol University International College through online social media.

The results of the research will be used in the development of specific guidelines and policy framework for public communication of MUIC concerning online social media including improvement of media to be better adapted to the changes in the 21st century.

Research results indicate that a sample group uses mobile phone with an Internet network at home. Students spend an average time of 3 to 4 hours per day searching for information, on Facebook and Line, looking for messages with attached charts, news stories, images and video clips. Their attitude in receiving information on online media shows that they prefer timely, fast, and convenient and delivery of news, any place and time. For satisfaction, they want to know about details of application/examination, course per subject that are offered, student activities with photographs and videos, stories about the educational institution and a study prefers data concerning knowledge, such as English and Mathematic subjects as well as youth camp etc. From testing results of hypothesis, it is also found that the attitude has relation with requirement for opening to get information of MUIC through social media which is a positive relationship. Therefore, a student has good attitude to MUIC that affects satisfaction with respect to getting news and information.

Keywords: social media, news, and information, high school student
Introduction

Currently, the online social media is counted as a communication device that becomes a source of knowledge, information and opinion exchange and sharing. A person can access it directly and use it to expand social group networks. Also, it also provides changes in communications modes, from traditional to one that uses communication technology in the digital era. Under this era, a large number of people around the world can join groups in online social networks through communication programs (or applications), such as Facebook, Twitter, Youtube, and Line. It becomes a phenomenon of communication connectivity among persons in the Internet world which covers every groups and ages.

Online social media is a much favored channel that has become a cultural part of online social media users. Social media is influential in accessing news as well as information. It makes accessing of news or information easy and fast and also provides options for the consumer on what form the information comes in which is quite different from more traditional media like print, radio or television. It is able to represent data in multiple formats of mixed media with messages, images, graphics, animation and movies. Social media has also an important role in changing the communication behavior of both sender and receiver of messages. Representation of various news and information through online social media, thus, should be considered carefully for impacts both positive and negative. Pushing the “Like” button as a sign of agreeing with a social media message may establish mutual feelings and create popular current to be brought away, criticizing or creating a virtual society of an online social network. It stimulates the communication behaviors of a message receiver and sender, affecting their living among such media, a message, a receiver and a sender who plays a role as well as an action through social media which may have impacts both directly and indirectly by being compared to a sword with two sharp edges that has either advantage or disadvantage. In order to know and understand in a social media very well, firstly, we should truly learn and understand its background, meaning, territory, characteristics and role.

Therefore, studying the behaviors, attitudes and satisfaction of high school students in M. 6th Grade in the Bangkok region in accessing news and information about Mahidol University International College through online social media necessary for learning, studying and understanding to be accepted in behavior, attitude of a target group, specially a student in current era that popularly uses and growing in environmental situation with communicational technology. Thus, knowledge of opening to get news and information, building up motivation that will affect and establishing to create image of MUIC to be accepted, trusted, interested, helped for public relationships or further telling through online social media or being a data base of a decision for selection of continuing education in MUIC onwards.
Objectives

1. To study demographic types of a student in high school M.6th grade level in Bangkok region with sex, age, family income and an educational region which affects the interaction with online social media with respect to accessing news and information.
2. To study behaviors with respect to accessing news and information through online social media which are communication devices, places, period of time, kinds or types of online social media including experiences of a sample group in opening to get news and information of an educational institute.
3. To study attitude with respect to get news and information through online media that affects with respect to accessing news and information against satisfaction for opening to accessing news and information.
4. To study presentation of news and information contents through online social media which affects against opening to accessing news and information with satisfaction in opening to accessing news and information.

Research Scope

This research surveyed selected high school students in the M.6th grade level of selected schools in the Bangkok region. The scopes of the study and research are:
1. The population comprises elected high school students M.6th grade level of selected schools in the Bangkok region.
2. A sample group high school students in the M.6th grade level of selected schools in the Bangkok region were selected from each school by choosing among the numerous applicants for college education at MUIC in each year according to the Taro Yamane Method at confident level of 95% (Yamane, 1973 referenced in Samranjai, Jakkrit. (2001).
3. Study parameters
   3.1 Independent parameters include the respondents’ sex, age, the class level, average income per month of the respondent’s family, and the school of each respondent.
   3.2 Dependent parameters include attitude and satisfaction with respect to accessing news and information about a university through online social media. By using survey questionnaires as a tool for data collecting by the used format of a questionnaire will be the “closed-ended question” type with a question structure using “Rating Scale” and “Check List” question formats which consist of the four parts as follows:
   Part 1. General data of the respondent including sex and age, class level where the respondent is studying at, average income per month of each respondent’s family, and the respondent’s school.
   Part 2. Survey data concerning with behaviors with respect to get online news and information, such as:
      - Communication devices that you use often with respect to accessing online social media.
      - The place where you always stay while accessing news and information through online social media.
      - Period of time by average per day that you access news and information through online social media.
      - Which interval of time that you use with respect to accessing news and information through online social media.
- Types/ kinds of programs or applications which is mostly used often in each day in accessing news and information through online social media.
- If it is requirement with respect to accessing news and information from an international college that you would like to study in the future, a university should send news and information through programs or applications on online social media.
- Experience with respect to accessing news and information from an educational institution through online social media.
- A format that is suitable in opening for requirement with respect to accessing news and information about an international college that you require.

Part 3. Surveying of attitude with respect to accessing news and information about a university through online social media, Measurement levels are divided into 5 = Agree extremely, 4 = Agree, 3 = Not sure, 2 = Not agree, 1 = Not agree extremely, There are 12 examinational questions.

Part 4. Satisfaction survey of contents against with respect to get news and information of an university through online social media. Score levels of satisfaction are as follows: Most = 5, Much = 4, Medium = 3, Less = 2, least = 1 by dividing into 4 subjects with having 32 questions.

Advantages Expected

1. Being able to gather valuable demographic data and also the respondents’ online media activities vis-à-vis the university in accessing news and information of MUIC in order to use these for developing specifying guidelines for a College communication policy regarding online social media,
2. This research data will build up understanding of various news and information presentation through online social media in the areas of content, point of view, a suitable format for presenting news and information, acknowledging and learning of attitudes and behaviors regarding opening of acknowledgement, accepting and taking results of this research to be used for improvement of MUIC’s presentation of data of online media with a sample group and making it popularity, acceptance, trust and interesting to help public relations or further telling and sending through online social media.

Method Regulations

The main tool used for data collection is a questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed among the respondents. After the respondents wrote their answers, the questionnaires were collected and their data entered into a computer and were processed using a statistical program in order to analyze the results.

Data Analysis Method

Data analysis method is divided into two types: Descriptive analysis and inferential analysis, by taking the received data to be used in determination of data summary in order to explain a type or enumerating data as collected in the proportion table format, enumeration of frequency, percentage, mean average determination, measurement of relationship between quantitative variables to be explained demographic data and taking received data to be used in data analysis from a partly sample group (populations in testing of hypothesis by using a test and One-way
ANOVA in different tests as a popular type with tendency that will be presented out of student behaviors in high school M.6th. grade level

Research Results

The study of the behaviors, attitudes and satisfaction of high school students in M. 6th Grade in the Bangkok region in accessing news and information about Mahidol University International College through online social media was based on a total of 429 questionnaires collected from six schools in the Bangkok region which includes the following: Teaw Pai Ngam School, Bangplud District; Phothisan School, Taling Chan District; Assumption School, Bangrak District; Bangkok Christian School, Sathorn District; Wat Nai Roong School, Bangkok Noi District; and Satriwitaya School, Pranakorn District. According to research results:

Part 1. It was found that a sample group of students in high school M.6th grade level from six schools in the Bangkok region consists of more males (247 or 57.6%) than female (182 or 42.4%); regarding their, a clear majority comprise 17 years (68.8%) while those who are over 17, comprise 31.2%. Almost half of the students (42.7 %) in the sample group has average family income of 3,001-5,000 Baht per month. On the other hand, 25.6 %of the students have a family income of less than 3,000 Baht per month while 12.6% have a family income of 5,001-7,000 Baht per month, respectively.

Part 2. In the survey of behavior for accessing news and information through online social media, it has been found that the communication device that is widely used by the is a mobile phone with 323 respondents or 75.3%. The next most widely used device is a desktop computer with 54 respondents of 12.6%, followed by a notebook computer with 26 respondents or 6.1%, and finally a mobile computer with touch screen with 26 respondents or 6.1% ,respectively. For the places that a sample group popularly uses most often in accessing news and information through online social media is house (329 respondents or 76.7%), school (52 respondents or 12.1%) and while riding a bus (23 respondents or 5.4%), respectively.

The average period of time per day that respondents accesses news and information through online social media is by 3-4 Hours (18.2%), 11-2 Hours (16.3%), 1 Hour (15.4%) and 2-3 Hours(13.1%) with the specific time identified as follows: 20:00-23:00 Hours(45%), 17:00-20:00 Hours (37.5%) and 11:00-14:00 Hours (5.4%), respectively.

The types/kinds of programs or applications that the respondents uses often in accessing news and information through online social media are Facebook (47.1%), Line (26.1%), Twitter (9.1%) and Instagram (7.5%). The universities from which news and information through online social media have been accessed are Chulalongkorn University (17.7%), Thamasart University (12.6%), Mahidol University (6.5%), Srinakarinthraravio University (3.5%), Kasetsart University (3.3%) and Silapakorn University (3.0%), respectively. The most requested news and information through online social media of MUIC include a short message format (45.5 %), attached image (24%) and video clip (13.1 %), respectively.

Regarding the sample group’s attitude (Part 3), it has been found that the most important criteria on using online media to access news and information about an international college, the most important points are
1. Getting up-to-date news and information, instant and in real-time;
2. Convenience in accessing news and information in all places and time;
3. Helping save expenses and time in travelling;
4. News and information has advantage with guidelines to further education; and
5. Presenting news and information in mixed media, can present either through messages, photo, moving images, graphics, games as well as being able to reply to the respondent.

Survey shows that regarding satisfaction (Part 4) with respect to accessing news and information of MUIC through online social media by the respondents, details and procedures for application/examination which are so important in getting news and information following with interval of time for opening of new student application, opening of a house, careers in future and being communication / contacting channels to advise further education of the International College respectively.

The results of the survey include respondents’ satisfaction with respect to accessing news and information of MUIC through online social media. Research found that the details and procedures for application/examination are so important news and information. This is followed by the interval of time for opening of new student application, schedule of an open house, future career and contact channels through which the respondents can receive advice on applying for admission at an international college. The general data offered by a university, which includes course data and available subjects, certification of educational assurance and travelling. Moreover, photo and video should have stories about the university such as history of courses opening for teaching, facilities in studying/teaching, school buildings, a library, computer rooms, laboratory rooms, teaching technologies and livelihood of a student in a university, pictures of students and club activities and interview of students and teachers in each subject.

**Explanation of Research Results**

After receiving research results and performing descriptive analysis, it is found that in respect to accessing news and information of MUIC through online social media with a student in high school M.6 grade level who is studying in schools in the Bangkok region as the results, it is still used family basic, income, a level of education, educational region or district by tendency of devices will be using mostly a mobile phone more and using it at home with respect to accessing news and information, interval of time for playing online media is longer including interval of time for receiving of online media during early in an evening and the most popular program is still Facebook, by having Line becomes more popular, this is matched with a research work of the tendency for using online social media report from the National Statistic Office which has performed to survey for having IT and communicational technology using in a household more (The National office of Statistics, 2013).

Reungsawat, Pattra. (2010) and Charles (K. Atkin, 1973:208) as mentioned that “a person who opens to get news and information a lot, shall have widely sights and senses, having knowledge/understanding in environmental conditions and being a modern person with in time for an event more than a person who opens to get less news and information. A person shall not get every news and information which is passed through a person at all, but shall select and get to know only some parts that
are thought it is advantage to such a person. News and information is always selected every time, interesting advantage news and information which is suitable as receiver’s opinions will be news and information that creates success in communication and matching an article from a website “Mylife.com” saying Facebook is a top level program for searching various news and information including educational points of view.” It is also found that quantity of students in USA who use online social media for talking and exchanging comments in the matters of education.

Hemminth, Amika. (2013) studied behaviors of using and commented concerning with results getting from using. From social online networks of people in the Bangkok region, it is found that most respondents use “Facebook” most often, matching with the research results that the interval of time that people use online network the most is during 18:00-06:00. Most respondents use online social network for 1-3 hours per day. The service which most people like is getting more news and information faster. All features are matched with this research including a research work taking to be concerned with other researchers such as, Nitipornmongkol, Panicha. (2010), Reungsawat, Pattra. (2010), and Phongsupab, Reudeeporn. (2008), who mentioned communication through online social networks at home every day more than 2 hours by using network websites in online social networks in order to have conversation with friends for updating of status/personal data/picture and searching / exchanging news and information.

Summary of Research Results

The research results should be used for developing the integration of strategy and technique in order to create maximum satisfaction for high school students who are interested in studying at MUIC. The contents of essential news and information about MUIC should be matched with a social media theory resulting in changing communication behaviors of both message senders and receivers. Propagation of news and information, images, and video clips through social media should be considered to create positive impact. Target groups should find easy access through these communication channels to be able to build up their motivation in accessing news and information as well as providing them with the services of MUI. The development of a long-term relationship with the target group and the group of persons who are influential to a students’ decision making—including parents, siblings, relatives, friends, advisers, alumni and other groups—should also be developed. This research finds that a group of respondents of almost the same age, enrolled in high school, and are comprised of both males and females, who live with their parents, usually use social media at home in accessing news and information about international colleges. Having a good relationship, attitude and satisfaction with accessing news and information through online social media can result in higher satisfaction in their experience of acquiring more information through social media from Mahidol University International College (MUIC).
General Suggestions

1. Studying of behavior, attitude and satisfaction with respect to accessing news and information through online social media must spend a period of time in research for long period of time moderately and an interval for performing that research will be close to educational midterm examination, so it will have an objection in going into an area for surveying and delivering of questionnaires.

2. A target group shall cover over many educational areas or distributing into many regions which are located by schools and by some important provinces.

3. If having further researches, a researcher will perform researching in a matter of contents, news and information which affect with respect to get them for a student in a secondary class level which has influence to selection of further education in an university in a part of any communicational channels that are suitable for transmitting of various news and information of an university which will access a target group mostly and having satisfaction in such news and information.
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Association of Engagement, Drive and Self-beliefs to Academic Resilience: 
An Analysis of Data from PISA 2012

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Abstract
This article explored the association of three broad themes – students’ school engagement, drive and motivation, and self-beliefs, dispositions and participation in mathematics activities - to academic resilience. The analysis was based on the mathematics performance of students in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012. Academically resilient students (RES) were disadvantaged in terms of their economic, social and cultural status but have transcended their circumstances to perform above expectations. On the other hand, disadvantaged low achievers (DLA) were disadvantaged students who have performed below expectations. The differences between RES and DLA students in the indicators under each theme were first examined individually. A logistic regression model was next used to explore which of the indicators, when analysed simultaneously, were associated with higher likelihood of academic resilience. A cross-country comparison using multidimensional scaling analysis was made of the similarities and differences in the indicators which were associated with academic resilience. Results showed that students’ self-efficacy has the strongest association to academic resilience. Students’ self-concept and intrinsic motivation were also positively associated with resilience but the associations were weaker. The limitations and implications of the findings were discussed.

Keywords: academic resilience, engagement, drive, self-beliefs

Note: The views expressed in this article are the authors’ and do not necessarily reflect those of the Ministry of Education, Singapore.
Introduction

This article explored the association of three broad themes – students’ school engagement, drive and motivation, and their self-beliefs, dispositions and participation in mathematics activities - to academic resilience. The analysis was based on students’ mathematics performance in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012.

In the context of PISA, academically resilient students (RES) were defined as belonging to the bottom quartile of economic, social and cultural status (ESCS) in their countries but scored within the top quartile when ranked by the difference between actual and expected performance based on the regression of all students’ mathematics scores on ESCS. On the other hand, disadvantaged low achievers (DLA) were those who belonged to the bottom quartile of ESCS but scored within the bottom quartile when ranked by the difference between actual and expected performance.

This article first examined the differences between RES and DLA students in each of the indicators under the broad themes. A logistic regression model was next used to explore which of the indicators, when analysed simultaneously, were associated with higher likelihood of academic resilience. A cross-country comparison was made of the similarities and differences in the indicators associated with academic resilience using multidimensional scaling (MDS) analysis. Implications for educational practice and research were discussed.

Factors Associated with Academic Resilience

Data from PISA 2006 (Science) showed that, for the theme of approaches to learning motivation to learn science, engagement in science activities outside the school, confidence in science abilities, and perspectives towards science-related careers - students’ confidence in their academic abilities exhibited one of the strongest associations to resilience, in particular, self-efficacy (strongest association) and self-concept. Motivation, and in particular internal rather than instrumental motivation was also associated with resilience but the association was weaker (OECD, 2011). PISA 2009 (Reading) did not have these measures of confidence (OECD, 2010). Instead, a cross-country analysis of PISA 2009 showed that among the approaches to learning – memorisation strategies, elaboration strategies, control strategies, metacognition (understanding and remembering) and metacognition (summarising) - the awareness of both metacognition strategies were among the strongest associations of resilience (Chua, 2013).

Data from PISA 2006 also showed that, for the theme of engagement in science courses – the number of science courses students took, and the amount of time they spent learning science at school - the associations were strong between attending a compulsory general science course (second strongest association) and more learning time at school in science with the likelihood of being resilient (OECD, 2011). In the cross-country analysis of PISA 2009, results showed that for the theme of engagement in reading activities, students’ enjoyment of reading and diversity of online reading activities were among those indicators exhibiting stronger associations to resilience but not the time spent reading for enjoyment (Chua, 2013). Perhaps it’s the quality of the activity rather than the amount of time spent that mattered more.
Research Questions

The research questions addressed in this study were: (i) What were the differences in the indicators of engagement, drive and self-beliefs between RES and DLA students? (ii) Which particular indicators were associated with higher likelihood of academic resilience? and (iii) What were the similarities and differences of resilient students across countries?

Methodology

Participants

Data used in the study came from the PISA 2012 database. About 510,000 students completed the assessment in 2012, representing about 28 million 15-year-olds in the schools of the 65 participating countries and economies. The ESCS index, used in this study, captured aspects of a student’s family and home background by combining information on parents’ education and occupations, and home possessions. The focus of the study was however on the 43,000 disadvantaged students from the top performing countries in terms of their percentages of resilient students. The countries selected for analysis include countries from the regions of Asia (9 countries/economies), Europe (11) and North America (1) (OECD 2013a).

Procedure

From the regression of PISA plausible mathematics scores against ESCS (including its squared term), residual scores for each student were obtained. These residuals which measure the differences between actual and expected performance were used to identify two groups of students: (i) Resilient (RES) students - students who were in the bottom quartile of ESCS but were among the top quartile of mathematics residual scores; and (ii) Disadvantaged low achievers (DLA) - students who were in the bottom quartile of ESCS and also among the bottom quartile of mathematics residual scores.

Student weights were normalised such that the sum of weights for each country was the same for all the countries. In the normalisation, the sum of weights across the countries was made equal to the number of students in the dataset while maintaining the same proportion of weights as in the original student weights within each country. Variance estimations were done using the balanced repeated replication (BRR) method. Only one plausible value was used in this study as this does not really make a substantial difference when large samples are involved (OECD, 2009).

The PISA indices which represent the indicators of students’ engagement, drive and self-beliefs were compared to provide insights into the profiles of the two groups of students. Tests performed on the mean value of the indicators for each group indicate if there were any statistical differences between them. To better understand the associations of these indicators to academic resilience, they were then considered together in a logistic regression with the logarithm of the odds of being academically resilient as the response variable. To study the similarities and differences in the profiles of resilient students across the countries, a multidimensional scaling (MDS) analysis was performed on those indicators associated with academic resilience.
Measures

The indicators used in the analysis could be categorised as: (i) control variables e.g. ESCS and gender; (ii) school engagement e.g. truancy (which reports on the number of times students had skipped classes or days of school in the two weeks before the PISA test) and sense of belonging (students’ feelings of social connectedness, happiness and satisfaction at school); (iii) drive and motivation e.g. self-responsibility for failing in mathematics (which students with high value in this index tend to attribute failure to themselves and not to other factors) and intrinsic motivation (whether students enjoy mathematics and work hard because they enjoy the subject); and (iv) self-beliefs, dispositions and participation in mathematics activities e.g. mathematics self-efficacy (the extent to which students believe in their own ability to handle mathematical tasks effectively and overcome difficulties) and mathematics self-concept (students’ beliefs in their own mathematics abilities) (OECD, 2013b). The list of indicators is shown in Table 1.

Missing Data

ESCS is a critical indicator in this study as it was used to identify the resilient students. As such, students with missing ESCS values were excluded from the analysis. For all other indicators, multiple imputations were done to account for the variability introduced by the process of selecting a value for the missing data point (Rubin, 1987). The imputations were necessary as otherwise the sample size would be severely reduced when it comes to the logistic regression model.

All analyses were performed in SAS which includes PROC SURVEYMEANS, PROC SURVEYREG, PROC SURVEYLOGISTIC, PROC MI, PROC MIANALYZE and PROC MDS. Multiple imputation and analysis of imputed data were done in three steps: Step 1 - multiple imputation of missing data using PROC MI (five sets of imputed data were produced); Step 2 – the imputed data sets were then analysed using the appropriate SAS procedures e.g. PROC SURVEYREG; and Step 3 – the analysis of the estimates and standard errors from Step 2 were done using PROC MIANALYZE (Berglund, 2009).

Results

What were the differences in the indicators of engagement, drive and self-beliefs between RES and DLA students?

On average, there were statistical differences (p<0.05) between resilient students (RES) and disadvantaged low achievers (DLA) in all the indicators of interest except one (sense of belonging to school). For students’ engagement, RES students scored higher in their attitude towards school (both in terms of what they have learned, labelled as “learning outcomes” and what they think about their school, labelled as “learning activities”) but were late for school, skipped school and skipped classes less often. For students’ drive and motivation, RES students scored higher in perseverance, openness to problem solving, both intrinsic and instrumental motivation and control in success for mathematics but scored lower in their perceived self-responsibility for failing in mathematics. For self-beliefs, RES students scored higher
in self-efficacy, self-concept, mathematics intentions and mathematics behaviour but were lower in mathematics anxiety and subjective norms.

While the results were within expectations, RES students reported that they encountered more negative social norms towards mathematics (mean score = -0.214) compared to DLA students (mean score = -0.111). They nevertheless have transcended these negative norms to perform above expectations.

Table 1 presents the detailed descriptive statistics of RES and DLA students in the indicators of interest.

| Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Resilient Students (RES) and Disadvantaged Low Achievers (DLA) |
|---------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------|
| Indicator                                                      | RES             | DLA             | Difference Tests |
|                                                               | Mean (SE)       | Mean (SE)       | t Value         | Pr > |t|     |
| Reading score                                                 | 565.51 (0.72)   | 331.55 (1.00)   | 183.75          | <.0001 |
| **Control variables**                                         |                 |                 |                 |       |
| Economic, social and cultural status (ESCS)                   | -1.465 (0.011)  | -1.242 (0.017)  | -10.77          | <.0001 |
| ESCS squared                                                  | 2.726 (0.044)   | 1.930 (0.055)   | 10.95           | <.0001 |
| Gender (Female=1; male=0)                                     | 0.481 (0.006)   | 0.499 (0.014)   | -1.21           | 0.2307 |
| Immigration background (Yes=1; No=0)                         | 0.186 (0.006)   | 0.242 (0.014)   | -3.55           | 0.0004 |
| Home language (is test lang=1; otherwise=0)                  | 0.154 (0.005)   | 0.235 (0.014)   | -5.28           | <.0001 |
| Grade (compared to modal grade)                               | -0.181 (0.008)  | -0.690 (0.027)  | 18.19           | <.0001 |
| **Engagement with and in school**                             |                 |                 |                 |       |
| Truancy - Late for school                                     | 1.293 (0.006)   | 1.738 (0.024)   | -18.09          | <.0001 |
| Truancy - Skip whole school day                               | 1.110 (0.004)   | 1.382 (0.016)   | -16.65          | <.0001 |
| Truancy - Skip classes within school day                      | 1.130 (0.005)   | 1.374 (0.018)   | -13.01          | <.0001 |
| Sense of Belonging to School                                  | -0.180 (0.012)  | -0.212 (0.028)  | 0.95            | 0.3459 |
| Attitude towards School: Learning Outcomes                   | -0.066 (0.012)  | -0.230 (0.029)  | 4.98            | <.0001 |
| Attitude towards School: Learning Activities                 | -0.220 (0.015)  | -0.343 (0.034)  | 3.22            | 0.0022 |
| **Drive and motivation**                                      |                 |                 |                 |       |
| Perseverance                                                  | 0.052 (0.011)   | -0.324 (0.028)  | 11.75           | <.0001 |
| Openness for Problem Solving                                  | -0.225 (0.011)  | -0.535 (0.028)  | 10.35           | <.0001 |
| Self-responsibility for Failing in Math                       | -0.184 (0.013)  | 0.166 (0.039)   | -8.79           | <.0001 |
| Control of Success in Mathematics                            | -0.032 (0.014)  | -0.358 (0.038)  | 7.49            | <.0001 |
| Intrinsic Motivation for Mathematics                         | 0.178 (0.014)   | -0.267 (0.028)  | 14.07           | <.0001 |
| Instrumental Motivation for Mathematics                      | -0.045 (0.012)  | -0.378 (0.027)  | 11.38           | <.0001 |
| **Mathematics self-beliefs**                                  |                 |                 |                 |       |
| Mathematics Self-Efficacy                                     | 0.082 (0.011)   | -0.743 (0.041)  | 19.92           | <.0001 |
| Mathematics Self-Concept                                      | 0.053 (0.011)   | -0.511 (0.026)  | 20.00           | <.0001 |
| Mathematics Anxiety                                           | -0.053 (0.012)  | 0.405 (0.021)   | -17.00          | <.0001 |
| Mathematics Intentions                                        | 0.067 (0.013)   | -0.275 (0.025)  | 11.81           | <.0001 |
| Subjective Norms in Mathematics                               | -0.214 (0.012)  | -0.111 (0.038)  | -2.58           | 0.0115 |
| Mathematics Behaviour                                         | 0.069 (0.016)   | -0.158 (0.032)  | 6.90            | <.0001 |
Which particular indicators were associated with higher likelihood of academic resilience?

Results of the logistic regression model showed the following indicators to be statistically significant (p < 0.05): (i) positively associated with academic resilience - intrinsic motivation for mathematics, mathematics self-efficacy and mathematics self-concept; and (ii) negatively associated with academic resilience - truancy (all three indicators), sense of belonging to school, self-responsibility for failing in mathematics, control of success in mathematics, mathematics anxiety and subjective norms in mathematics. The details of the logistic regression analysis are given in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of Logistic Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t for H0: Parameter=0</th>
<th>Pr &gt;</th>
<th>Odds Ratio (OR)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>0.410</td>
<td>0.115</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic, social and cultural status (ESCS)</td>
<td>-0.998</td>
<td>0.123</td>
<td>-8.09</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESCS squared</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.035</td>
<td>-3.59</td>
<td>0.0003</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (Female=1; male=0)</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.3205</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigration background (Yes=1; No=0)</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.054</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.8710</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home language (is test lang=1; otherwise=0)</td>
<td>-0.331</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>-6.03</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade (compared to modal grade)</td>
<td>0.674</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Engagement with and in school</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truancy - Late for school</td>
<td>-0.318</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>-13.27</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truancy - Skip whole school day</td>
<td>-0.506</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>-12.69</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truancy - Skip classes within school day</td>
<td>-0.211</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>-5.29</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sense of Belonging to School</td>
<td>-0.149</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>-5.17</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards School: Learning Outcomes</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>-0.78</td>
<td>0.4444</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude towards School: Learning Activities</td>
<td>-0.003</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>-0.1</td>
<td>0.9211</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Drive and motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perseverance</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>0.9303</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness for Problem Solving</td>
<td>-0.046</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>-1.74</td>
<td>0.0922</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Responsibility for Failing in Math</td>
<td>-0.092</td>
<td>0.020</td>
<td>-4.51</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control of Success in Mathematics</td>
<td>-0.154</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>-4.62</td>
<td>0.0004</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation for Mathematics</td>
<td>0.093</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>0.0178</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrumental Motivation for Mathematics</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>0.1086</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mathematics self-beliefs</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>0.724</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>2.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics Self-Concept</td>
<td>0.198</td>
<td>0.033</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics Anxiety</td>
<td>-0.101</td>
<td>0.027</td>
<td>-3.67</td>
<td>0.0005</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics Intentions</td>
<td>0.030</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>0.1966</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective Norms in Mathematics</td>
<td>-0.165</td>
<td>0.023</td>
<td>-7.06</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics Behaviour</td>
<td>-0.014</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>-0.56</td>
<td>0.5752</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 highlights that among the indicators, self-efficacy has the strongest positive association with academic resilience and is the only indicator of interest which has a moderate effect size (odds ratio, OR = 2.06). Students’ self-concept (OR = 1.22) and intrinsic motivation (OR = 1.10) were also positively associated with resilience but the associations were weaker.

The results from the logistic model (Table 2) were in general agreement with the analysis on the mean differences between RES and DLA students (Table 1). Where RES students scored higher - e.g. in intrinsic motivation, mathematics self-efficacy and self-concept - the logistic model showed that these indicators were associated with higher probability of resilience. On the other hand, where DLA students scored higher - e.g. in truancy, self-responsibility for failing and mathematics anxiety - the logistic model showed these indicators were associated with lower probability of resilience. Possible explanations for indicators which appeared to be not in agreement between the two analyses - e.g. perseverance, openness for problem solving and control of success - would include the presence of other indicators in the model exerting confounding or mediating effects on the indicator of interest.

The results of the logistic model from this resilience study based on PISA 2012 (Mathematics) showed some similarities to that from PISA 2006 (Science). In both studies, students’ confidence in their academic abilities was evidently associated to resilience, in particular, self-efficacy (strongest association in both) and self-concept. Similarly, intrinsic motivation was found to be statistically associated with resilience, though weaker, in both PISA 2012 and PISA 2006.

What were the similarities and differences of resilient students across countries?

The results of the logistic regression analysis showed that there were characteristics among resilient students, measured by the indicators, which were common across the countries being studied. In the following, an ordinal multidimensional scaling (MDS) analysis, based on the covariance matrix of the indicators, was used to study the relationship among these characteristics and to facilitate the classification of country profiles into clusters with similar characteristics exhibited by their resilient students.

For this purpose, indicators positively associated with resilience were examined. In addition, those of truancy and anxiety were included but the sign of these scores were reversed such that higher scores were now interpreted as being more favourable. The scores of indicators were ensured to be on the same scale.

The fit of the resulting model to the data was acceptable with the measure, stress=0.03 (Kruskal, 1964). Figure 1 shows a visual representation of the structure of the indicators in a two-dimensional space where indicators close to one another tend to be more strongly correlated. The indicators of self-beliefs were posited at the negative or west end of dimension 1 while those of engagement were at the positive or east end of dimension 1. The sole indicator from the drive and motivation category i.e. intrinsic motivation was posited in close proximity to the indicators of self-beliefs. The data thus showed that the indicators concerned could be grouped roughly into two clusters – the self-beliefs and drive/motivation in one cluster and the engagement indicators in the other cluster.
Figure 1: Visualizations of the positions of indicators on Dimensions 1 (x-axis) and 2 (y-axis). 

Figure 2 shows the positions of the 21 countries corresponding to the indicator positions in Figure 1. In general, most of the European countries were clustered on the west side of dimension 1 where the prevalent indicators were those of self-beliefs and drive/motivation while most of the Asian countries were on the east end of dimension 1 where the prevalent indicators were those of engagement. There is a small cluster of countries near the middle of the map where the prevalent indicators were from both clusters. The data thus seemed to indicate that the geographical or cultural context has an influence on the prevalent indicators associated with resilience.

Discussions

Implications

The results of the study suggest that schools can play a role in promoting resilience by fostering disadvantaged students’ self-beliefs, in particular self-efficacy. Fostering students’ self-beliefs could involve, for example, restructuring learning to maximise opportunities for success (Martin & Marsh, 2003). Restructuring learning could...
include breaking schoolwork into components so that students can experience small successes and individualising tasks to match students’ capacities (McInerney, 2000). In addition, schools should also take steps to reduce truancy rate and anxiety as these were associated with lower likelihood of resilience.

Limitations

While the logistic regression analysis surfaced indicators associated with academic resilience, the associations do not imply causal relationships between these indicators and academic resilience. Furthermore, the indicators analysed were largely confined to the student domain. School, family and community factors could also influence the academic resilience of disadvantaged students (e.g. Siraj-Blatchford et al., 2011, Novotný, J.S., 2011). The findings should be interpreted with caution as by PISA 2012 design, information was available for only two thirds of students per question in the rotated parts of the student questionnaire (OECD, 2014), necessitating the need to impute missing data especially when the indicators were analysed simultaneously.

Conclusion

This study on PISA 2012 showed that students’ self-efficacy has the strongest association with academic resilience. Students’ self-concept and intrinsic motivation were also positively associated with resilience but the associations were weaker. In contrast, students’ truancy rate and mathematics anxiety were associated with lower likelihood of resilience. The prevalent indicators associated with resilience were observed to be influenced by geographical or cultural context.
References


Human Rights as an Introduction to Academic Research

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Abstract
Being asked to conduct academic research comes as a shock for many undergraduates, especially when the research is to be conducted in a second language. This paper puts forward an engaging and practical method of introducing research theory and practice to undergraduate students participating in an intensive English for academic purposes program at an international university. The research is couched in a human rights context, therefore serving the dual purpose of exposing students to the wider world and the human rights issues that many people face globally. Students are required to research a country’s human rights record based on Franklin D. Roosevelt’s Four Freedoms. Having researched their country, they then use a process writing approach to produce a minimum 1,200-word term paper, incorporating evidence from academic sources to support their findings and conclusions. Understanding what human rights are, where to find reliable information, and how to analyze and use evidence in their writing all present a steep learning curve for students; however, they are carefully guided through each stage of the process with handouts, explanations, and exercises before applying those same skills to their term paper. This paper will be of interest to teachers (EFL or otherwise) interested in developing their students’ understanding of human rights and introducing their students to the practice of academic research.

Keywords: Introduction to Academic Research, Human Rights, Critical Thinking, Process Writing, English for Academic Purposes
Introduction

Many students entering higher education have never written an academic research paper before. As a result, they do not usually possess the necessary skills to critically analyze and evaluate the information they find and then write an academic essay discussing their findings with correctly cited and referenced evidence, especially in a second language. This is critical as deficiencies in any of these areas, not just language skills, can have a detrimental impact on students’ education and prevent them from achieving their full potential.

The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to present a project that we have been using at Mahidol University International College’s Preparation Center for Languages and Mathematics to introduce our students to their first experience of academic writing. As an intensive English program for students wishing to raise their level of English to one at which they might be able to cope with higher education at an international university, our primary goal is to improve our students’ English. However, we have two other important objectives; we also want to provide them with the academic skills they will need in order to meaningfully comprehend, analyze, and respond to what they learn in class and to empower them with a greater understanding of the world at large and how we as individuals fit into the big picture.

Human rights are a key concept that everyone should understand and value if we are to make progress as a race. However, human rights is a complex topic and so must be broken down into a more manageable set of ideas, a framework that guides research and response as espoused by Benjamin Bloom and Lois Broder (1950), as well as Marcia Heinman and Joshua Slomianko (1985). Therefore, rather than using the Universal Declaration of Human Rights’ full 30 articles as the basis for the paper, the assignment is designed around the Four Freedoms concept first introduced by Franklin D. Roosevelt in his 1941 speech to U.S. Congress in an attempt to appeal to the American people’s sense of humanity and convince them to join World War II. In his speech, he referred to four basic human rights, all of which were being violated at the time across the rest of the world: freedom of speech, freedom of worship, freedom from want, and freedom from fear.

The project described in the following paper provides a highly structured introduction to academic writing and guides students through every step of the research and writing process using the Four Freedoms framework, around which they structure their research and their response to the assignment. As a result, we have observed significant improvement in our students’ understanding of and ability to produce academic writing. In addition to this, the project also has a dramatic impact on their critical thinking skills and their ability to organize their thoughts and write a coherent and supported report of their findings. Finally, the project also necessarily requires that students learn about different social issues and come to a greater appreciation of reality and their place in the world by asking them to research, analyze, and report on a specific country’s human rights situation in terms of the Four Freedoms.
Literature review
The traditional linear model of process writing involves brainstorming, outlining, writing and reviewing (prewriting, writing, and revising). However, there is significant disagreement as to just how linear the process really is (Flower & Hayes, 1981), and, if in fact the process is in no way linear, whether we can ever really hope to fully understand how the brain processes information and produces good writing (Cooper & Holzman, 1983).

Indeed, Charles Stallard (1976), in his paper Composing: A Cognitive Process Theory, sums up the writing process in this way:

The initial search of cognitive structure promotes a chain of events. The result is a series of searches, each going deeper and becoming more thoroughly exhaustive of the potential within the changing cognitive structure. These searches will continue until little new change in the message or concept is evident. When the changes cease to be evident, the writer can proceed with the business of encoding the message into a communicable form. (p. 183)

Stallard (1976) goes on to say, “It is only at this point, and not before, that consideration must be given to organization, style, and method of paragraph development” (p. 183), but I would argue that this same process also happens at the paragraph, sentence, and even individual word level as writers seek to convey their message precisely through carefully chosen words, clauses, sentences, paragraphs, and essays. In other words, the big picture gradually, step by step, narrows the focus, but then the final detail must complete the circuit and match up with the big picture, which may in turn also change (at the sentence, paragraph, or essay level) as a result of the thought processes behind explaining and supporting an idea.

The process of writing seems to be an organic one in which the writer delves deeper into their thought processes, but must invariably return to their starting point in order to close the loop and confirm the logic of their development. All of this must depend on so many external and internal influences that, in fact, it would seem impossible to compartmentalize and delineate each stage of the process.

Stallard (1976) seems to agree with this hypothesis, saying, “Composing is a product of creative capabilities of the mind and complicated beyond understanding or analysis” (p. 181). This view is also supported by Richard Gebhardt (1983), in his paper Writing Processes, Revision, and Rhetorical Problems, in which he states, “The processes of writing are sufficiently complex, and sufficiently variable from writer to writer that they cannot be reduced to simple formulas” (p. 296). I would argue that this search for ideas and structure is actually a critical thinking process rather than a writing process, and is utilized throughout the writing process as good writers continually revisit goals, ideas, structure, development, grammar and mechanics, and revise what they have written.

Therefore, it would seem that the traditional linear model of process writing, in which the process is blocked off into separate, identifiable stages has been largely disproven. According to Gebhardt (1983), “Researchers investigating the nature of audience awareness, the operations of revision, and the cognitive processes within writing as a
whole all agree that identifying the rhetorical problem is central in the writing process,” (p. 295). However, “identifying the rhetorical problem” is the foundation of critical thinking, in which case our students may achieve better results if we combine the key elements of critical thinking with the structure of the writing process.

Researchers and educators really began to take an interest in and conduct serious investigation into critical thinking and problem solving in the 1950s, when B. S. Bloom and L. J. Broder (1950) studied the differences between successful and unsuccessful graduate students. What they found suggested that there are four essential characteristics/approaches that predicted student success:

1. Understanding the nature of the problem
2. Understanding the ideas contained within a problem
3. Being systematic in their approach
4. Being enthusiastic towards the task of solving the problem

Similarly, in their book Critical Thinking Skills, Marcia Heinman and Joshua Slomianko (1985) defined critical thinking as “raising questions, breaking up a complex idea into smaller components, drawing upon prior knowledge, and translating complicated ideas into examples” (p. 8). Heinman and Slomianko (1985) also emphasize the Learning to Learn System, which was one of the most comprehensive thinking-improvement programs available at the time, according to Krapp (1988). The Learning to Learn System contains three stages, “the input stage, the organization stage, and the output stage,” (Heinman & Slomianko, 1985, p. 16), and a general guidelines section (p. 19). The guidelines encourage teachers to:

1. make critical thinking skills relevant
2. make learning an active process
3. show students the big picture and how to break a complex idea into components
4. focus on the process, not on memorization and
5. reinforce students for appropriate performance

If we accept that the idea of writing being a strictly linear process is largely unrealistic and that critical thinking plays a key role in determining when and how writers “plan, translate, and review” (Flower & Hayes, 1981, p.376), we must look for ways of encouraging students to practice and improve these skills in a context that gives them a certain degree of freedom, but also provides structure and feedback along the way. This is where a highly scaffolded project allows us to tackle each stage of the critical thinking and writing processes by introducing the underlying concept students will be dealing with and then helping them to divide a complex whole into more manageable ‘jigsaw pieces,’ as supported by Heinman and Slomianko (1985), before we then start to structure, develop and support ideas in the form of a written composition - the term project.
The project

The approach we have taken is to assign our students a 1,200-word research paper designed and scaffolded around the Four Freedoms framework. Having this underpinning framework allows the teacher to introduce the project to the class as a whole before students are then assigned their individual countries to research. As a result, students better understand the nature of the problem (human rights) and the individual ideas (rights) involved, these being the first two determinants of student success as stated by Bloom and Broder (1950). In other words, having the Four Freedoms framework enables us to pre-teach the “big picture” as espoused by Krapp (1988), before helping students to comprehend the concept by breaking the complex whole into more manageable parts (Heinman & Slomianko, 1985).

The first two weeks of the ten-week course are spent introducing the broad concept of human rights and the Four Freedoms that will be the guiding framework for their research through graded readings, lectures, videos, presentation projects, and discussions. This enables us to introduce and explain the issue of human rights and key vocabulary to the class as a whole and help them to understand what each of the Four Freedoms might encompass in terms of the situation inside any particular country.

Once the students have a reasonable understanding of the underlying concept of human rights and how different social issues might be categorized in terms of the Four Freedoms, they are given a detailed explanation and timeline for the whole project together with a highly structured but flexible example outline. The outline includes recommended sources and guiding questions for each paragraph of their essay to help them research, assess, organize, explain, and support their paper with pertinent and reliable information, correctly cited and referenced using APA 6th Edition formatting. When the teacher has explained the outline and shown an example paper, the students are each given a specific country to begin researching in order to ascertain which of the Four Freedoms are an issue.

However, before they commit too much time and effort to writing their essays, we first ask them to submit a source analysis document at the end of week two in which they analyze five or more sources that they might use in their paper. This source analysis document asks them to summarize the information, identify key opinions and facts that they may wish to use in their paper, assess the quality of the sources, and identify the organization, author, and date, which they will need for their citations and references. Once their advisor has approved their source analysis document and given feedback on what they may want to omit, include, or improve, the students can then start to develop a more detailed outline, which is due at the end of week three.

The essay structure as described in the outline includes an introduction paragraph explaining what human rights and the Four Freedoms are and why they are so important, ending with a thesis statement stating the country they will be assessing and which of the Four Freedoms it has problems with. This is followed by a background paragraph explaining the general character of their country, including any major influences on human rights, such as the geography/climate, level of prosperity, and the political/religious system of governance. The body paragraphs might constitute an individual paragraph for each of the Four Freedoms or multiple...
paragraphs for just one Freedom, depending on what information the students find. The concluding paragraph then summarizes the main findings and makes any pertinent observations, predictions, or recommendations that the student feels add weight to their paper.

After feedback on their outline concerning which of the Four Freedoms the student wishes to write about, the organization they have chosen, and the supporting evidence they intend to use, they are instructed to start writing their essay. They submit a total of three drafts to Turnitin.com to check for similarity with previous papers and online material, with their final draft due in week nine of the course. This gives most of them their first opportunity to see the consequences of plagiarism, intended or otherwise, which is one of the fundamental purposes of the entire project, and it gives their instructor multiple opportunities to give feedback on content and organization, supporting evidence, citations and references, and language control.

Discussion

Having run this project for the last 18 months, we have seen the potential of it in terms of students understanding the value of academic research and being able to produce a reasonably good first attempt at an academic expository essay.

Although there is significant disagreement as to how well we understand the thinking process that goes into an effective piece of writing (Gebhardt. 1983), we must still attempt to provide a structure that hopefully ensures our students comprehend the topic and what is being asked of them, and provides multiple opportunities along the way to receive feedback and review as appropriate.

The idea that writing is a purely linear process with each stage clearly compartmentalized and distinct, I would argue, only makes sense with a timed handwritten essay under exam conditions, where it is hard to go back and alter what has been written, in which case careful planning beforehand and time at the end to review are vital, but necessarily separate stages. In the wider context of academic writing, however, where students do the majority of the writing in their own time on a computer, the process is much more organic and influenced by multiple factors at unpredictable stages in the process. Indeed, Flower and Hayes (1981) claim that writing is actually a hierarchical set of thinking processes that “may be called upon at any time and embedded within another process or even within another instance of itself” (p. 375). Similarly, Faigley and Witte (1981) conclude that writers constantly move back and forth between the different processes of writing. This idea that writing has so many complex, personal, and unpredictable influences and processes that it seems impossible for us to ever really understand the process instinctively feels more logical than the traditional linear model of writing.

If, as Gebhardt (1983) asserts, “identifying the rhetorical problem” (p. 295) is the key to good writing, students must employ critical thinking in order to achieve this. This is where the human rights project comes into its own as the first week or two are devoted to ensuring that students understand the general concept and the Four Freedoms, which they then use to filter and categorize the information they find. In other words, the project ensures that students understand the nature of the problem and the ideas therein and are given a systematic way of approaching, analyzing,
categorizing, explaining, and supporting their findings with facts/statistics, expert opinions, and examples. As a result, the project fulfills the first three of Bloom and Broder’s (1950) determinants of student success: understanding the nature of the problem and the ideas it contains, and having a systematic approach to the process (although the fourth determinant, student enthusiasm, we have much less control over).

Similarly, the project also satisfies Heinman and Slomianko’s (1985) critical thinking goals of “raising questions,” (What are human rights and why are they important?), “breaking up a complex idea into smaller components,” (the Four Freedoms and, additionally, what each Freedom may include), “drawing upon prior knowledge” (primarily imparted by the teachers during the first two weeks of the project), and then “translating complicated ideas into examples” (p. 8) (such as specific examples of human rights violations under one or more of the Freedoms in a particular country).

Finally, the project also adheres to the Learning to Learn system’s three stages: the input stage (introductory materials and activities related to human rights and the Four Freedoms), the organization stage (the structured and detailed outline), and the output stage (regular feedback and guidance at multiple milestones throughout the process). However, it also meets all of the Learning to Learn system’s general guidelines as it “makes critical thinking skills relevant, it makes learning an active process, it shows students the big picture and then how to break down a complex idea into components, it focuses on the process, not on memorization, and it reinforces students for appropriate performance” (Heinman & Slomianko, 1985, p. 19). In other words, by encouraging critical thinking, providing a highly structured framework and outline, and requiring students to constantly review their work, the project effectively combines critical thinking and the writing process, and also makes students more aware and appreciative of the world in which they live.

**Conclusion**

In summary, the project achieves all three of our stated objectives. The language students gain and practice throughout the process achieves our first objective of raising their level of English. In addition, the framework and highly structured process teach them the value of critical thinking and the academic process of supporting opinions with evidence in a correctly referenced paper. Finally, the fact that the project is based on human rights worldwide forces them to consider the plight of others and, hopefully, reflect on their own situation, as a result.
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Resocialisation and Change Implications for Inservice Teacher Professional Development

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Abstract
A sociocultural perspective on teacher education highlights the process of resocialisation (Johnson, 2009) faced by experienced teachers returning to the institutional teaching context following the provision of inservice teacher education and training (INSET). Similar to the initial socialisation of novice teachers, resocialisation involves potential constraints at the level of the institution that teachers may encounter when attempting to implement changes in their classroom practice, and sustain changes in their beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and learning. Such constraints to change may be classroom-based (such as resources and students’ needs), and may also involve the practices and expectations of the institution (such as norms, values, and power relationships).

This paper presents findings from a longitudinal inquiry into the process of change in beliefs and attitudes, and change in classroom practice, for experienced teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in China, and these are discussed in relation to theories from the research literature. It then makes suggestions about how the process of resocialisation may be mitigated by teachers in a range of institutional contexts, including examples from the research findings which demonstrate ways in which teachers successfully implemented intended changes in their classroom practice. It concludes by recommending methods by which teachers can work within potential constraints present in their institutional teaching contexts.

Keywords: Resocialisation, INSET, China, EFL, teacher change
Introduction

Teachers are likely to take part in professional development activities over the course of their career, including inservice teacher education and training (INSET) courses, which may be designed to improve some aspect of teachers’ classroom practice, as well as (or alternatively) to change their beliefs and attitudes about aspects of teaching and learning (Guskey, 2002; Mulford, 1980). The nature of INSET is that it is provided for inservice teachers, and these are teachers who have experience, who work in institutional teaching contexts, and who have existing beliefs, attitudes, and classroom practice. This paper reports findings from a recent longitudinal inquiry into the process of change for experienced inservice teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in the context of Chinese tertiary institutional teaching contexts, and an external INSET course in Macau. In particular, this paper reports on the constraints to teacher change in the resocialisation process that teachers experience when returning from INSET to their teaching context in their institutions (James & McCormick, 2009; Johnson, 2009), a process which is likely to reduce teacher change. This paper reports on the implications for teacher change provision of resocialisation, and suggests ways in which any negative impacts may be mitigated by teachers in their institutional teaching contexts.

Inservice teacher professional development

Teacher professional development for inservice teachers is marked by diversity. This may be in the professional backgrounds of teachers (i.e., what and how much teaching experience they have); their ages, educational levels, and qualifications; and the beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and learning that they hold prior to any professional development activities, such as INSET (Benson, 2010; Borg, 2006; Fullan, 2007). It is likely that teachers will come to INSET with different levels of motivation for change, depending on their professional context, and on their perceived need for change (Freeman, 1992; Waters & Vilches, 2001). INSET may take place at any stage of a teacher’s career, so the effect of diversity may be intensified if teachers attend INSET from very different backgrounds (Bolam & Porter, 1976).

INSET itself may be in different forms, and be designed for different purposes. A deficit approach presupposes that teachers lack certain skills or knowledge needed for classroom teaching, and thus attempts to fill this gap, typically at the insistence or demand of a school or educational system (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Richards, 2008; Sikes, 1992). A more developmental model of teacher professional development focuses on individual teacher needs, and the possibility of teacher change through reflection, knowledge, and adaptability (Pennington, 1990; Roberts, 1998; Wallace, 1991).

The aim of teacher professional development is teacher change—to change what teachers do, think, and know—and for change that is an improvement over previous practice or knowledge (Bailey, 1992; Richardson, 1996; Roberts, 1998), though this may not be assumed to always be successfully achieved (Rubin, 1978). Innovation diffusion theory (Rogers, 2003) notes how there are stages to the adoption and use of an innovation: knowledge, persuasion to use, intention to use, implementation, and eventual routinisation or institutionalisation. In the context of INSET for EFL teachers, an innovation in classroom practice may be introduced during INSET.
(knowledge of and persuasion to use), and teachers make decisions to use it when they return to their institutional teaching context (intention stage). However, any implementation of an innovation—or any change in teaching—only takes place once a teacher is back in their institution, and in their classroom setting (Fullan, 2007; Guskey, 2002; Rogers, 2003).

**Resocialisation**

The implementation of an innovation from INSET for experienced teachers therefore takes place not during INSET, but afterwards in the institutional context that existed prior to INSET. This return to their institutional teaching context post-INSET has been described as a process of resocialisation (Johnson, 2009), similar to the socialisation process that novice teachers are reported to experience when they finish initial teacher preparation and start teaching in a school or other institution (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2011; Freeman, 1992; Haritos, 2004; Jackson, 1986; Sarason, 1996). “Teachers’ knowledge and beliefs are constructed through and by normative ways of thinking, talking, and acting that have been historically and culturally embedded in the communities of practice in which they participate (both as learners and teachers)” (Johnson, 2009, p. 17). In the case of experienced, inservice teachers who participate in INSET that aims to change (and improve) their beliefs and attitudes, or their classroom practice, or both, the institutional context exists prior to INSET, and is the site of any innovation implementation post-INSET.

Resocialisation is likely to have an influence on teachers in various ways:

- the norms of behaviour in the institution (Avalos, 2011; Cuban, 1998; Johnson, 2009);
- the expectations from leaders, colleagues, students, and other stakeholders, on teachers and classroom practice (Hargreaves, 2001);
- the pressures and expectations from the educational system itself, notably high-stakes examinations (Underwood, 2012);
- defining what is quality or successful teaching (Fenstermacher & Richardson, 2005; Korthagen, 2004);
- the nature of the community of practice among colleagues (Borko, 2004; Lave & Wenger, 1991).

These may influence teachers in terms of shaping teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning, managing expectations of classroom practice, and mediating teacher change (Freeman & Johnson, 1998).

Researchers have reported resocialisation as a complex, constraining process on teacher change. Mulford (1980) made a jigsaw analogy—a new shape being fitted into an existing pattern—and Guskey (1989) and (Johnson, 2009) both noted the inherent difficulties and inner contradictions of this post-INSET process. While (Cuban, 1998) argued that schools themselves change teaching reforms, Shulman (1986) noted how collective responsibility in an institution may influence teachers, and Vulliamy and Webb (1994) suggested the teachers may feel loyalty to their institution and so not be willing to change common practices. In addition, the research literature reports how there is uncertainty and risk for teachers changing classroom practice (Cuban, 1993), for they may be vulnerable in their institutional context (Gao, 2008), and a teacher acting alone—a lone ranger (Taylor, 1998)—will be unlikely to sustain change without ongoing support (Pedder & Opfer, 2013).
Recent research findings

The author carried out research in the context of Chinese university teachers attending an external INSET course, and the impact on their beliefs and attitudes, and their classroom practice, one year afterwards. This was a longitudinal case study of a group of seven inservice Chinese EFL teachers from Xinjiang Province, China, attending an 11-week INSET course in Macau, in southern China, from February to May 2012. Case study methodology was used in order to investigate a process from the perspective of the participants in that process, and to provide an in-depth understanding of that process (Chapelle & Duff, 2003; Stake, 2000; Yin, 2003). Data were collected during the INSET course from in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, teaching practicum lesson observations, and field notes (e.g., post-teaching practicum feedback discussions run by the INSET trainers). Data on teachers’ beliefs and attitudes towards teaching and learning were additionally collected from a pre-course questionnaire adapted from Lightbown and Spada (2006), which was used again in May 2013 when the author conducted in-depth interviews with all seven teachers in Xinjiang in order to collect data on perceived changes in classroom practice, and sustained changes in beliefs and attitudes. Data were analysed inductively and iteratively—coding, analysis, reflection, memo writing, and so forth—and findings emerged from the interpretation of the data analysis (Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Wolcott, 1994).

Findings from this research suggest that teachers may not implement intended innovations in classroom practice post-INSET in their teaching contexts due to institutional constraints if:

• there are pressures from evaluation of their teaching (i.e., classroom practice), and a risk of criticism from students or leaders;
• there are a lack of opportunities to use innovations in classroom practice in their classroom settings, for example because the courses they teach have been changed by their leaders;
• teachers’ beliefs and attitudes remain incongruent with those of the INSET providers, and the aims of the INSET course, or any change in them is not sustained;
• teachers completed the INSET course without the opportunity to develop the skills necessary to implement innovations in classroom practice (e.g., classroom management techniques), or without the chance to trial and test an innovation during teaching practicum lessons during INSET.

For example, one of the teachers, COL (all names are pseudonyms), when asked about the support she expected from her colleagues when she finished the INSET course and returned to Xinjiang stated that: “The rest of my colleagues have finished this course, but most of them tell me that they won’t use the methods that they used here” (COL – Interview 1). Another of the teachers, POE, explained how her beliefs about teaching and learning were at odds with those of her leaders:

“I usually just don’t like some kind of teaching style in middle school, because I always think that they input something or force students to do something. So in my class it’s very free. You could just sit and answer my question, and you can just put up your hand and ask me any questions. But my administration don’t agree with such kind of teaching style. They think that you always control the classroom, and you
always just input a lot of information into your students, and you always just do
something like middle school teachers’” (POE – Interview 1).

At the same time, findings from the research indicate that a teacher may implement
intended innovations in classroom practice post-INSET despite potential institutional
constraints if:
• the teacher is already used to change, such as changed roles in their institution (e.g.,
promotion, or changed courses and students);
• the teacher is already a successful innovator in their classroom practice before
INSET, and thus has the skills and confidence to make changes in their teaching;
• the teacher has no high status to risk, or has a high enough status to not be at risk
from negative evaluations of changed classroom practice;
• the teacher’s beliefs and attitudes are congruent with those of the INSET course, and
hence the classroom practice innovations (and associated pedagogical beliefs).

One of the teachers, CAN, explained how she intended to implement more integrated
teaching into her classroom practice, and would work around potential constraints.
When asked what she would do differently in her Xinjiang classroom setting if she
could, she replied: “Integrated skills. Although I cannot change my textbooks, but I
still try to make it fun. That’s the question I’m thinking about: How can I use
integrated skills to teach those texts” (CAN – Interview 3). Similarly, VIN (another
teacher) remarked how she had changed her classroom practice after INSET even
though lacking the resources in Xinjiang that she had had in Macau: “So I add some
pages in my PPT, and sometimes the classroom is not equipped with a projector [so] I
just use handouts, make sure there’s a copy for each student, or each pair, and let them
practise” (VIN – Interview 4).

Institutions control “the organization of opportunity” (Lanier & Little, 1986, p. 561),
and findings in the present research show how this may have a negative impact on
teacher change if teachers do not have the chance to implement intended innovations
in classroom practice. For example, CAN (teacher) had been expecting to teach
English major students after the INSET course, for she had been teaching them prior
to INSET, and was planning changes in her classroom practice during INSET based
on this assumption. However, post-INSET CAN reported that she was teaching non-
English major students instead, students with typically lower levels of English and in
larger classes. FOX (teacher) was no longer teaching an anticipated business writing
class post-INSET, yet had been planning new teaching activities for this class during
INSET.

Communities of practice—that is, the colleagues of a teacher, and how they work
together to support one another (Borko, 2004; Lave & Wenger, 1991)—may constrain
or drive teacher change in their post-INSET teaching contexts. The present research
finds that colleagues may be a driver to change if the institution (or department)
encourages teachers to collaborate together and to share innovative classroom
practices; if teachers are supported in this collaboration and sharing by their leaders;
and if teachers feel that they are able to innovate in their classroom settings
without risk. However, communities of practice may constrain intended teacher
change if a teacher remains a lone ranger (Taylor, 1998), without collegiate support; if
colleagues have not experienced the same INSET as that teacher; and if colleagues
have experienced the same INSET but hold negative attitudes towards it.
Moreover, the present research identifies the resocialisation process not just occurring after INSET, that is teachers return to their institutional teaching context. As in the example above from COL (teacher) in which she stated that her colleagues did not consider the INSET course to be useful for their classroom settings, it is clear that the resocialisation process may be taking place before INSET even starts (e.g., COL’s negative evaluation of the INSET course before even arriving in Macau), and is taking place during INSET (e.g., CAN wondering about integrating skills in her lessons post-INSET). Therefore, teachers attending INSET are evaluating innovations in classroom practice during the course, basing these evaluations on their known prior teaching contexts, and planning for change (or no change) as a result of these evaluations.

**Implications and recommendations**

Implications and recommendations relate to institutions, to INSET, and to individual teachers. In order to mitigate the potential negative impact from the resocialisation process, it is suggested that institutions provide consistent opportunities for teachers to innovate in classroom practice following INSET, most simply by not changing classes and courses for teachers between their attendance on INSET and their resumption of teaching. Institutions can also provide the collaborative environment for positive communities of practice in which sharing and mutual support happen. One way may to ensure that there is a suitable weight of numbers—that is, enough teachers have benefited from an INSET programme that is itself appropriate to the teachers and their teaching contexts. In addition, institutions may need to consider how teachers are evaluated—by leaders, colleagues, and students; formally and informally—and to ensure that teachers do face threats to their status in the institution from innovating in their classrooms.

INSET providers should be making efforts to ensure that teachers’ beliefs and attitudes are congruent with those of the INSET trainers, and the overall pedagogical approach of the innovations presented during INSET, for incongruence between beliefs and attitudes and classroom teaching innovations is likely to lead to rejection or discontinuation (Ajzen, 2005; Rogers, 2003). Furthermore, teachers need not just knowledge of an innovation, but also the ability to reinvent and adapt that innovation to meet their known (as well as unknown) classroom settings (Johnson, 2009; Rogers, 2003). In addition, follow-up support after INSET is likely to be beneficial, helping teachers mitigate specific constraints in their particular institutional contexts, and providing greater opportunities for effective implementation (Pedder & Opfer, 2013).

At the level of individual teachers, the impact of resocialisation may be reduced by a focus on reinventing innovations to meet local needs and constraints, helping teachers to be effective adaptive experts (Johnson, 2009). This may include providing sufficient opportunities for teachers to trial innovations in non-threatening situations, such as INSET teaching practicum lessons. Teachers also need support post-INSET, as well as the time and resources to enact changes in their classroom practice (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Freeman, 1989).

In the context of the present research, drawing on the findings to support suggested new actions, in May 2014 the author (along with a colleague) was able to deliver a weekend of workshops in Xinjiang for teachers who had attended an INSET course in Macau (over 100 EFL teachers on courses from 2005). This went some way to
providing the long-term support for teachers who are making changes (or intend to) in their classroom practice. In autumn 2014, the Macau training centre ran a special INSET course for teachers from Xinjiang who had already been on the course in 2005 or 2006, and who now had more senior positions in their Xinjiang institutions. This was partly aimed at encouraging the development of more supportive communities of practice in those institutions.

Conclusion

Teachers can and do change, whether change in their classroom practice or in their beliefs and attitudes about teaching and learning (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Fullan, 2007). INSET can provide the means to develop teachers, and can present innovations that represent potential improvements in existing classroom practice. However, INSET is not implementation of innovative classroom practice, and the return of experienced teachers to their institutional teaching context is where innovation succeeds or fails (Guskey, 2002; Johnson, 2009; Rogers, 2003). The process of resocialisation is known to have an impact on teacher change (Johnson, 2009), but can be mitigated by policies and interventions from the INSET providers, as well as from the institutions themselves, and these should be taken into consideration when planning and carrying out teacher professional development activities for experienced inservice teachers, in the context of EFL teachers in Chinese tertiary institutions and beyond.
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The School Garden as a Learning Object and Learning Space in Primary Schools

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Abstract:
This article outlines the changing discourses on school gardening as a learning object as well as a learning space. Based on observations and interviews with different stakeholders it is understood, that Outdoor Education provides a meaningful multidisciplinary and multisensory learning space. The students learn to cope with issues like sustainability, innovation and social justice as situated learning. The main focus of the article will be on the interplay between the experience and reflection of the students. In the school garden the students learn how to grow and care for vegetables in an organic and sustainable way, and to understand the process according to their own capabilities. Relating scientific knowledge and social justice to everyday life, in a systematic way, is understood as the core of garden based learning.

Keywords: School garden, outdoor learning, sustainability, situated learning, social justice
Introduction
In Denmark, a small state in Northern Europe, 80% of primary education students have become urban citizens and therefore they no longer grow up with an intimate relationship to an outdoor environment and food production. Schools have responded by creating curriculum-based outdoor activities, for example specific subjects, or interdisciplinary approaches like school gardening, can be moved outside. The trend has spread into different types of courses for students aged 7-16, and in 2014 17,8 % of the public schools and 18.8% of the private schools offered outdoor learning as an alternative to indoor classroom education.

The increase of outdoor learning has taken place in the same period as primary education changed from contents based education to goal-based learning. Broadly speaking, there are two overarching education traditions in Denmark: An older German didactic tradition and a newer Anglo-American curriculum tradition. The German tradition originated in an understanding of schooling as bildung, meaning a process of personal formation that brings inner development of the individual through education. Schooling was not only seen as a process of acquiring knowledge but as an enactment of teaching and learning based on all senses. The local teacher was granted a lot of autonomy and could respond to the needs of the students according to his or her preference of pedagogical theories. The overall aim, however, was the same in all schools: A development of independent, authoritatively knowledgeable and responsible humans.

The Anglo-America tradition has often been focused on fixed contends driven curricula with the assumption that specific knowledge and skills are necessary to be an educated individual. Thus the German didactic tradition and the Anglo-American curriculum tradition are based on different approaches to learning, but during the last two decades the curriculum tradition has become more influential, however, personal formation still remain a core objective of the overall aim in Danish primary education.

Aims and purpose
This project examines the urban school garden as an outdoor learning space and learning object for primary school students. How can outdoor learning in a school garden meet the compulsory social and academic standards in primary education? This question was raised in a class, where my students were discussing alternatives to indoor classroom teaching. They were uncertain about being able to identify the interplay between the children’ experiences in the alternative learning space and their knowledge outcome. As teachers they would be expected to perform with visible results such as students' skills assessed using 'evidence-based' evaluation results in the form of national tests, final examinations and international assessments like PISA. To be able to deal with this dilemma I will examine the question:

How can a school garden as multidisciplinary and multisensory learning space and learning object stimulate primary students’ learning about sustainability and social justice in everyday life?
In the next paragraph I will introduce my theoretical framework drawing upon outdoor education
**Theoretical framework**

In this project, school gardening is understood as being included in the theoretical framework for outdoor education. The teaching approach to outdoor education is understood as an integrated part of mainstream education, and here it will be presented as a way of providing learning opportunities in the interplay between experiences and reflection based on concrete and authentic situations. The class will simply move outside to a nearby location either once a week or at least half a day every second week. If this approach is used year after year in primary education, the students will spend months learning from nature and society outside the classroom. The green space is understood as a resource in an urbanized society and providing physical activities as well as having an effect on social relations, motivation and psychological wellbeing. (Jordet, 2007)

In the article I am also using the concept of situated learning to understand the interplay between sensory experiences and book learning in a schooled way as understood by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger. (Lave & Wenger, 1991)

**Outdoor education**

In Scandinavia the concepts of outdoor education or outdoors teaching and learning used to be synonymously expressions for working outdoor on a regular basis. The concepts were referring to a grassroots movement on redefying education, and also understood as a teaching method. The local teacher found an outdoor setting for the students, topics to be taught, and then the teacher would introduce a commitment to human responsibility for stewardship of the land and the importance of understanding all facets of an ecosystem. Little was known about these pedagogical activities, approaches and programs taking place as part of the compulsory education in public and private schools. Today, outdoor learning has become an informed field by the research and theories on the subjects, and the students are supposed to work with clear goals and evaluation of the outcome. The institutionalization of school based outdoor learning has developed over the past 10 years in Denmark as well as internationally. (Mygind, 2008) In the article the understanding of outdoor education and learning as schooling will be understood according to principles developed by Arne N. Jordet from Norway, a pioneer of outdoor schooling.

“Outdoor schooling is a working method where parts of everyday life in school are moved out of the classroom – into the local environment. Outdoor schooling implies regular activities outside the classroom. The working methods gives the pupils the opportunity to use their bodies and senses in clearing activities in the real world in order to obtain personal and concrete experiences. Outdoor schooling allows room for academic activities, communication, social interaction, experience, spontaneity, play, curiosity and fantasy. Outdoor schooling is about activating all the school subjects in an integrated training where activities out-of-doors and indoors are closely linked together. The pupils learn in an authentic context.” (Jordet, 2008, p.1)
In outdoor learning compulsory education activities take place outside the buildings of the school on a regular basis, and researchers, who followed these activities, had gradually been able to provide an understanding of the outdoor learning processes. These activities will have a documented effect on student motivation, school-being, physical activity and health.

The classroom teacher has the authority to plan outdoor learning by making use of the outdoor environment near the school, when teaching specific curriculum areas. Parents’ permission is not required, but they are expected to support their children by proving adequate clothes and lunches. All school subjects are relevant, either individually or as interdisciplinary studies. The didactic is based on an understanding of the importance of places, people and activities, and learning is understood as social-cultural phenomena.

The ambitions of outdoor education are high, but research has documented that regularly a tension occurs between how things ought to be and how things actually are. A curriculum can be understood at different levels. When looking at this complicated process, it is obvious, that there will be room for making mistakes. (Bentsen 2010, p. 76).

**Situated learning**

In the school garden students step into a learning space so different from the indoor classroom, and it is an important question, how the context affect their ability to learn? To approach an answer to the question I will introduce the concept of situated learning as a matter of becoming involved in a community of practices with legitimate peripheral participation. Originally Jean Lave and Etienne Wegner introduced these concepts in order to analyse learning as a collaborative process in a specific context. The common understanding that knowledge can be taught decontextualized in a school is questioned and replaced by the approach, that schools themselves as social institutions and places of learning constitute very specific contexts. (Lave & Wenger, 2001).

By emphasizing participation in communities of practice as the cognitive starting point Lave and Wenger moved the analytical attention from the emphasis on the individual elements (cognition, knowledge and learning) to the influence of changing relations between the participants, tasks and tools. Here, learning is understood as a process the individual is taking part in by participating in the communities of practice. Knowledge is not just generated as transfer, but through active participation in changing types of practice and related to a specific context. In opposition to the prevailing theories, Lave and Wenger claim that knowledge and learning must be understood in a much more context sensitive way (Lave & Wenger, 2001, p. 34).

To understand the collaborative learning processes a concept of legitimate peripheral participation was introduced as an analytic tool to understand certain forms of learning dynamics, such as observing, listening and imitating in a community of practice and gradually becoming more and more skilled. In a school garden the students were engaged in the practice of gardening with limited responsibility of maintaining their own garden but also as a part of a
garden community with a shared goal for their activities, and gradually they were learning and becoming better at finding solutions.

Methods
The data for this paper comes from my fieldwork in a school garden, and I have used a mixed methods approach, including observation, questionnaires, and interviews with stakeholders. The observations of 27 students in grade 1-2 took place over a period of 5 month one morning per week. To include a child’s perspective the children were ask to answer a questionnaire with pictures and open questions about their experiences during the garden season as well as making drawings of the school garden experiences and an oral evaluation with the school garden teacher.

The Danish context
According to the national Danish School Acts the public and private schools are expected to provide academic knowledge as well as bringing up the next generations of citizens to understand their rights and duties in a democratic society, and thus the schools are expected to meet students in public schools and private schools with paired requirements.

The public schools system must provide knowledge and skills, promote creativity and independence and prepare students for further education. The daily activities, therefore, must be conducted in the spirit of intellectual freedom, equality and democracy. The School Act has goals for social skill as well as subject knowledge, and when dealing with issues like sustainability, innovation and social justice, a situated learning environment like a school garden is meeting the goals in accordance with the spirit of the law. In the school garden students learn to grow and care for vegetables in an organic and sustainable way, and to understand the process according to their own capabilities. Relating scientific knowledge and social justice to everyday life in a systematic way is understood as the core of garden based learning, but the local municipality will often have to be involved.

In Denmark, the public schools are run by a local municipality and the same curricular structure is used in all parts of the country. On one hand the local schools have freedom and can make their own syllabus, but always according to the aims and skills layered down by the central administration as the target for each subject. Each school is responsible for ensuring the quality of the education by conducting aim-oriented education, classroom management and supporting education to general subject-based teaching. The school is also expected to cooperate with the parents and the local community.

Revitalising the school garden
My fieldwork took place in an old school garden in Copenhagen, where 800 students come every week to care for their plants and the animals. The 14,000 square meters school garden is isolated from the city by old trees, scrubs and bushes, and has compost toilets. When the students enter through the gates, they walk into an environment so different from the surrounding 1930s working-class neighbourhood. In today’s school gardens the individual child as well as the common praxis embedding the individuals are in focus. The study of situated learning is based on the prior assumption that the context matters to learning and knowledge. In the
The school garden abstract knowledge is transformed and contextualized, and knowledge is connected to the praxis in a community, and thus in collaborative learning context and relationships matters to the student outcome.

The school garden program
The school garden is organized by a non-commercial organization called Københavns Skolehaver. The organization hosts the school garden programs for public and private schools and has a contract with Copenhagen Municipality on providing activities all year for children in kindergarten, primary and lower secondary schools. Around 30,000 students will be involved in activities throughout the year, and they mostly take place from April to October. On the school garden webpage students, parents and teachers are informed that at a point, where the world faces serious environmental problems such as climate change, it is important, that children experience the beauty and diversity of nature and learn that they can make a difference. It is important that children can see that it is matters, when they make an effort. In the garden, they learn in a very concrete way and they see, how it all develops from spring till autumn.

The school garden organization has a vision, and on weekly basis the students are encouraged to pay attention to the diversity of the biotope and to understand gardening in a broader context of sustainability. The webpage of Københavns Skolehaver tries to give its readers a wake up call about climate change, and the same message is conveyed) to all the users of the garden. The children are encouraged to be aware of local and global climate changes, not as an abstract discussion, but as a personal and practical experience, where everybody can take action. The students’ learning can be understood as a formation of new cognitive structures, but also as knowledge incorporated through all their senses into the body.

Activities in two seasons
The school garden has two seasons with different programs. During the winter season the students from the city visit the school garden to participate in activities like bird watching with binoculars or learning about the evolutionary history of the hens, their way of life and importance to humans. In the chicken coop they can feed the chickens and roosters, and if they want, they are also invited to help slaughtering a rooster or hen. The visit includes taking the guts out of the animal, and cooking it on a stove in the garden. The aim of the activities is, in one day, to provide new experiences for urbanized students, and make them aware, that poultry does not only come from the freezer at the supermarket. For some students, however, there was more at stake, they learned to take part in processes they never had dreamed of. To slaughter a hen is crossing a barrier for many urban children, and by doing this they exceeded their normal self and their own understanding of personal abilities. Thus the school garden organization can also be understood to provide opportunities for innovation and creativity for the students, two important tasks for the Danish school system to be able to deliver.

The main activities take place during the summer season from April to October. The students I met during my fieldwork came to the school garden accompanied by a teacher and an assistant every week for 3 hours. The teacher was expected to support the aims of the school garden by preparing and post processing the school garden activities in their home classroom. The school garden teacher for this group was an
agronomist, who had a detailed program for the season with concepts and skills to be learned according to the students’ capacity. Each student had their own garden with salad, carrots, onions, red and white potatoes, runner beans and sunflowers. They all had the same plants, because the garden was first and foremost a space for learning and only secondly a place for production of food. The plants were chosen to teach photosynthesis to young students.

All mornings in the garden were organized in the same way. The students began with circle time and the 27 students would sit in a circle on six simple benches listening and talking with the school garden teacher. In this way the teacher had 10-15 min. to prepare students for the activities, and make them understand that they were concept based just like in the school, but often in the form of a narrative. The circle group gave the school garden teacher eye contact, and complicated themes were introduced in a dialog with the students. She took on the master role, sharing her knowledge. On a good day the students were listening, watching and discussing with her and each other. No papers, pens or tablets were used. After the introduction the students worked in their own garden for 20-30 min, came back in the circle for food and more instructions, and followed before new tasks to be done in the garden. At the end of the morning a final circle time took place where the results were discussed. On the best days, the students had been part of investigative community, they circulated and possible solutions were tested in the dialogue.

The structure of the day was well known to the students from their own school, but the space was different, and their bodies were useful, not just something to decontrolled within a very limited space. In the next paragraph I will analyse some of social aims and knowledge concept to be target.

**Social aims in the school garden**
In primary education the formation of a democratic citizen is seen to be an integrated part of education, and these young students should learn to behave in a new social space, be able to work with partners they normally don’t work with, defend their rights, manages conflicts and their own emotions. In the beginning of the season the garden teacher focus on student behaviour in the unknown place. Before they arrived, the classroom teacher had laid out the topography of the school garden on the blackboard, and the students knew, that they were going respond to the rules in the garden in an adequate way. They also knew that there would be worms and insects in the garden, and that the limited space in their garden required cooperation with the neighbours.

During the season all sorts of social challenges were taken on by the students, and in the end pieces of land were more productive than the rest, and should all get the same amount of vegetables by sharing or could you bring home all you own vegetables and flowers?
One day a thief had stolen the children’s food from their bags, but no money or keys were missing. Are you allowed to steal, when you are hungry? Questions on morals issues were not abstract questions in these children’s minds. They could deal with the same question in the school, but then their experience would come out of a book. Social skills at a personal and mental level can be developed in authentic situations, and in the school garden they learn in a different way compared to the classroom. Empathy for others is an important part of being a democratic citizen in a welfare
state. But also conversation on existential topics took place in between weeding the plants or looking for insects, when the teacher has been asked to help solving a problem in one of the students’ garden. Parents were also welcome in the garden. They took part in activities as guests, helping a few students, but not commenting on the activities. In this way parents had a direct access to observe the way their children were thought in outdoor education.

**Knowledge and skills in the school garden**

The program on knowledge and skills was organized by the professional staff in the school garden in accordance with the national goals for primary education, and the students studied at their own level with topics related to the season such as seeds, weeds, and organic production. Ideally, the classroom teacher would prepare the students for the topic of the day, but in this class the math and the nature- and technology teacher preferred to use the student experiences at a later point in the classroom, and thus being able to connect to their knowledge from the school garden, when dealing with relevant topics throughout the school year.

In order to make an overview of some of the topics and activities taken on by the students in the school garden I will use a concept map. The map can illustrated how systematic a teacher can proceed even in a classroom without walls. A lot of time was spend on biological composition as well as practical activities

The learning goals in the garden were related to the change of seasons. In the beginning, students sowed in grey brown soil and at harvest time the garden was full of fruit, vegetables and flowers. When you are living in a big city, this is an unusual experience, and though out the season these experiences take place, while learning about topics from the national goals to be learned, for example
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Weeds Useful plants Bees</td>
<td>What are weeds? Where does it come from? Know and eat your weeds. The important role of bees in the garden.</td>
<td>Weeding in the garden Look at the hives Tasting nectar, Pollen and honey</td>
<td>Useful plants Pollination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Harvesting Photosynthesis</td>
<td>The miracle of growth. Nodule bacteria on the roots Repeat what plants need to grow</td>
<td>Harvest</td>
<td>Propagating Seed dispersal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table referred to a week from the beginning and at the end of the garden season. In week 22 the students were busy with categorizing plants. When were plants useful or just weed? Or perhaps a plant could be a weed as well as a useful plant depending on the context. Categorizing was an academic skill, and in the school garden it was obvious, that nettles were not nice to have in their garden, but fine for cooking soup on a fire later in the morning.

The students also learned about the organic cycle, when they were asked to through weeds on the wide garden path, where the plants would be degraded during the summer. Later in the season the weeds had to be brought to the compost heap, because it was too late for composting on the path. By doing these practical tasks and talking about them in circle time the student learned, that there was a connection between temperatures and composting, and maybe even more important, they also had this knowledge incorporated in their bodies.

Photosynthesis can be difficult to understand for students at the age of 7-8, but to the school gardeners the process became obvious, when they were introduce to the small bulges on the runner beans. The Nitrogen depot also referred to as lunches for the plants made the connection between the air and the plant understandable. The following week they students ran horse manure on the soil in wheelbarrows. The experience was challenging on a personal level to a few students, and for most students the experience was adding to the student knowledge on sustainable horticulture, but also adding to their sense of being good citizens leaving fertile soil for the next season’s users, and just as well prepared for a new season as they had received their gardens in the beginning of the spring.

The school garden experience was a process or a flow of incidents, referring to each other throughout the season. The flow of experiences was interrelated, and the added value was a sense of continuity throughout the season. Already John Dewey had described this way of active learning as an important experience, because something recorded in the previous experiences was improving the quality of the experience. (Dewey, 1991, p.56)
A student perspective on school gardening
At the end of the season the students were asked to evaluate their own school garden experiences by using three different approaches. These approaches were chosen to allow the students to express themselves according to their individual abilities as 1 and 2 year students. At first the students had an oral evaluation during the final circle time in the school garden. The students were asked to list the subjects they had learned about in the school garden, and they came up many different topics. At their return to the school in the afternoon they were asked to make drawings about the experiences in the garden, and four days later they had to fill in a questionnaire with images and short questions on their learning however, only 70% filled in the whole questionnaire and the rest partly or not at all.

In the classroom I asked the student to interpret their own drawings, and it became very clear to me that the social aspect of gardening was very important to them, however, some students had also reflected on the knowledge content or a combination of these two aspects. The drawing below is an example of a student telling about different experiences. In the middle she has depicted the class walking around in order to create a garden infrastructure. She was referring to the first day, when the students had to made paths between their small gardens in order to be able to move around without spoiling plants. This event was also the beginning of the school garden experience and thus placed in the middle of the paper. To the left the student has depicted a fire plus a pan with a baking pancake referring to a social event on a Friday afternoon with parents and friends visiting the garden. Above to the left the chicken house was placed next to the canopy providing shelter against rain and hail in the garden. Just below the walking group a reference was placed to a soup pot and the cups used for eating. The students had been asked to categorize weed, and afterwards they cooked soup using one of the plants previously categorized as weed plus vegetables. The students had also been cleaning the vegetables on the table on the right side of the paper. The images at the bottom are referring to a morning at the end of the season, when the students were transporting horse manure in wheelbarrows and spreading it on the soil with grips. In this drawing the student covered many experiences from the school garden season, and thus summing up important aspect of the intended learning outcome as a continuing story. The chosen format has similarities to a graphic tale.
Several of the drawings were referring to circle time on the benches and with a fire in the centre. The fires were often depicted in red and yellow colors, and thus reflecting observation of burning tree. Two boys made images of a game played during the brakes in the “wood area”, and these drawings had lots of details, however, the boys didn’t want to tell me about the details in their game in the wood. The content oriented drawings were focusing on bees, seeds and birds, often made in a less expressive style. The student’s drawings seem to emphasize the social aspect of learning and the importance of togetherness in a community.

**Conclusion**
My interest in school gardens was fostered by an incapability of simplifying and transforming a complex didactic professionalism into situated learning in a twenty-first century context. On one hand accountability was needed, and on the hand the students had to learn to work with problem based learning empowering them to navigate in an unpredictable future, and a school garden seemed to be a good place to start. Here the students learn to cope with sustainability and social justice in an authentic context. The main focus was on the interplay between the student experience and their reflections, and the school garden learning process can be understood as a flow of incidents, referring to each other throughout the season. In the school garden students learn to grow and care for vegetables in an organic and sustainable way, and to understand the process according to their own capabilities. Relating scientific knowledge and social justice to everyday life in a systematic way is understood as the core of school garden based learning. The school garden model can be different, adapting to the location environment and the people involved, and therefore also an option in different parts of the world.
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The Effect of I-Ching Education on the Temperament of Elementary School Children, Lifelong Learning Capability, and Bullying Behavior

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Abstract
The philosophical foundation of Chinese culture is based on the I-Ching. This study explores how promoting I-Ching education in elementary school will increase a child’s temperament, improve lifelong learning capability, and reduce bullying behavior. We used a stratified sampling method with 2,063 elementary schools affiliated with I Ching University. The response rate was 75.23%. The results showed that children’s temperament improved by implementing the high-frequency and initiative promotion in I-Ching education which outperformed that adopted by the high-frequency passive promotion, the low-frequency initiative promotion, and the low-frequency passive promotion. The findings reveal the importance of promoting frequency in I-Ching education. Hierarchical multiple regressions were conducted with three main findings are as follows. (1) The promotion frequency and promotion type of I-Ching education have positive effects on three characteristics of a child’s temperament which are persistence, attention, and mood. (2) The promotion frequency of I-Ching education has positive prediction effects on four characteristics of child temperament which are the rhythmicity, adaptability, approach versus withdrawal, and threshold of response. (3) The promotion frequency and promotion type of I-Ching education have shown positive effects on a child’s temperament. We also found that children’s temperaments have positive effects in facilitating the lifelong learning capability and improving bullying behavior.

Keywords: I-Ching Education, Temperament, Lifelong Learning Capability, Bullying Behavior
Introduction

In 1989, UNESCO held a seminar for the twenty-first century where it pointed out that the moral, ethical, and value systems were among the most important challenges facing humanity in the 21st century. The education for the New Century encourages students to become better, smarter, and competent (Zhou Huijing, 2003). Thus, shaping positive and optimistic citizens of high moral character has become the focal point of every country’s education. In 2003, Taiwan’s Commonwealth Magazine conducted a survey on character and moral education and found that 80% of the country’s junior high and elementary school teachers and parents think that the general moral character of society is inferior to that of a decade ago. And, that the influence of teachers and parents on students has declined, ranking behind television and the internet (Ho Qiyu, 2004: 22).

The modern environment is changing rapidly with scientific and technological progress; Students are overwhelmed with too much information but do not know how to digest and absorb it. Students lacking inherent guidance, and a sense of morality, questioning the value of their existence and self-worth will encounter many social problems such as school bullying, and an inferior value system. These are all precursors to adolescent deviant behavior. In October 2010, the first lady Zhou Meiqing in a column published in the Common wealth Parenting Magazine advices to show concern for school bullying, which aroused public attention of the school bullying problem. According to a release by the Child Welfare League Foundation in 2011, reported that 18.8 percent of elementary and junior high students were bullied by fellow classmates within the last two months. It found that 10.7% of students were bullies, and stated that they had picked on, ridiculed, or attacked their classmates within the past two months. The ridiculing of fellow students has gone up in the past four years by 60%, a total approximating over 80,000 children of which 20,000 are often bullied physically in school. The above survey shows the importance of prevention of school bullying. Therefore, in these times it is even more important for parents and teachers to foster children’s temperaments so they can cope with the challenges of modern society. But how can we foster a child’s temperament? This study proposes that reading the classics can enhance a child’s temperament and after the child’s temperament has been enhanced it can help to improve the child’s ability to learn and have good interpersonal relationships. From the aspect of children studying the classics, this study focuses on the impact the study of the I-Ching has on children. Given the preceding arguments, it is worthwhile to characterize the relationship between the study of the I-Ching, child temperament, lifelong learning capability, and bullying behavior, by exploring the promotion of I-Ching education in elementary schools. Therefore, this study proposes that Taiwan’s I Ching University can be a research case to examine such a model.

The education of children studying the classics

Possessing all valuable knowledge that is eternal is also known as a jing. “Du jing” (讀經) in the Chinese language is the verbal recitation of the classics. That is to recite out loud repeatedly using a child’s ability to memorize through uninterrupted repetitive reading with the ultimate goal of having the child memorize the classics (Wang Tsai-kuei, 1994). Children reading the classics are mainly to restore the traditional philosophical education of China which is thousands of years old and uses reading and recitation of the crystallized wisdom of the ancient sages allowing children to come in contact with the mind and world of the ancients. The imperceptible influence purifies
their minds, guiding them towards a better direction in life. Zhou Fei (1991) pointed out that after reading the classics the children can realize what an honorable life is. They realize what makes up norms of behavior in life. They retain perfect wisdom which is hidden everywhere within the classics. Children become versed in the classics resembling a mountain of treasure, a source of great wealth. Taking the endless treasures hidden within their hearts, by reading and recitation they can internalize them within their own lives. By emulating the actions of the sages they can achieve a good moral character.

In 1996, the German medical physicians Lin Zhuxiong believed that the manner in which children read the classics did not seek to understand but rather to memorize. Superficially, it may seem that it only trains the left side of the brain but, during the process of memorization because the children are interested and in a complete state of relaxation causes their brainwaves to transition from $\beta$ wave to $\alpha$ wave. Children that read and memorize the I-Ching, repeatedly show the ability to relieve physical and mental stress and during the $\alpha$ wave can strengthen creativity and the interaction with both subconscious and conscious brain, having a positive effect on inspiration, attention, judgment, and memory. Therefore, the process of reading the classics coincidentally utilizes both sides of the brain, and has a synchronistic effect on the function of the left and right sides of the brain. According to this study when both sides of the brain are able to synchronize the ability to learn increases 2-5 times.

The I-Ching is one of the oldest classics of China; it reveals three universal principles of life, that of change, unchanging and simple change. Confucius emphasized the I-Ching, by stating: “if some years were added to my life, I would give 50 years to the study of the I-Ching, and then I would be without great fault”. “Confucius and Chinese culture are not antiquities of life, but rather the wisdom of life, provided that you use a real-life and merge with it, then you will connect to the road of wisdom. By awakening to a true life one opens and establishes an ideal undertaking to seek knowledge and internally permeating the true source of this ideal by making this ideal real. This is the knowledge of life that arises from the interior to the exterior” (Mou Tsung-san, 1992). You can see that by allowing children to read the classics, not only allows the next generation of Chinese to have a deeper understanding of the value of their inherited culture but it also allows them to advance and conserve their lives investment allowing them to fully prepare to face life’s terrifying waves, not cringing or retreating from life’s journey but opening and expanding their life’s from the interior to the exterior.

The case

In 1994, I-Ching University was established with the mission statement of “raising and cultivating talented people” (養賢蓄才), “revitalizing and cultivating people’s morals” (振民育德), “refining ambitions” (高尚其志), and “creating universal harmon” (天下太平) through the development of Chinese cultural orthodoxy of the heart method of the I-Ching and Feng shui. In 2008, the University founder Master Huan yuan established the Children’s Promotion Center for the study of the I-Ching, allowing the next generation of children studying the elementary education of the I-Ching to take root. Master Huan yuan believed that to be a prosperous country, society needs to be in harmony. Basic education must start from the beginning, while primary education is where everyone’s formal education begins. The success or failure of the school’s
education can affect the future of the country. Chinese culture orthodoxy I-Ching is the key to inner wisdom. Master Huan yuan pointed out the importance of children learning the I-Ching by saying: The I-Ching is one yin one yang that is called “I” (易). He also said: The I-Ching is the heart of exchange was every heart has opposing points. My heart is the life of all living creatures, the life of all living creatures are for our life. The I-Ching is one yin one yang mutually containing each other, mutually receiving each other this is the basic condition for success.

There are five objectives for children studying the I-Ching promoted by I Ching University (1) To develop children understanding of Chinese cultural orthodoxy of the I-Ching. (2) Enlightened children and open their minds. (3) Follow the universal changes in the universe from the I-Ching and proceeding to foster within their hearts forgiveness of all living things. (4) Through the interaction of both parent and child they can achieve a better relationship and a better learning effect. (5) Starting from elementary education to foster the minds of children to obtain mutual respect and a harmonious society. The Children’s Promotion Center for the Study of the I-Ching designs their teaching materials in a simple to understand language for children. In order not to influence the original meaning the use of contemporary cartoon images are used which are similar to picture stories that children are fond of. Depending on the content of the teaching materials, musical activities with children singing and reciting poems and songs are recorded into educational DVD’s by Weixin television station. The current system of promotion by the center, are the use of afterschool programs in elementary and kindergartens were text and educational films are given for free. Parents are encouraged to take part by reading the classics. Wenxin televises programs for children studying the I-Ching, in addition the Center organizes children’s camps for the study of the I-Ching. In Taiwan, the Center has reached 1.8 million children who have undertaken studies in the I-Ching.

Temperament

Thomas and Chess (1977, p.9) defined temperament as: “how an individual behave which can be equated to the term behavioral style”. Rothbart (1989, p. 59) defined temperament as “constitutionally based individual difference in reactively and self-regulation”. Thomas and Chess (1977) identified nine dimensions of temperament: (1) activity – the motor and vigor of the child; (2) rhythmicity – the degree of regularity of biological functioning; (3) adaptability – the ease and speed with which a child adjusts to new situations; (4) approach/withdrawal – the tendency to approach rather than withdraw from a new situations; (5) response threshold – the level of stimulation to produce a response from the child; (6) intensity – the amount of emotional energy or vigor expressed by the child in a variety of situations; (7) mood – the amount of unpleasant, unfriendly behavior; (8) distractibility – the extent to which environmental stimulus can divert the attention and behavior of the child (9) persistence – the tendency to continue a task, despite obstacles and attention span of the child. Carey (1998) reasoned that temperament differs from behavioral adjustment which he described by five components: (1) relationships with people, (2) performance of tasks, (3) self-relations (e.g., self-esteem), (4) internal states such as contentment or disturbed feelings, (5) coping or adaptive style. Temperament has been recognized as an important factor in the general social function and competence of children, including their behavior with peers and peer acceptance in preschool and elementary school (Eisenberg, et al., 1997, 2003; Lengua, 2003; Stocker & Dunn, 1990) and in children’s
social and emotional development, and adjustment problems (Eisenberg, et al., 2001; Frick and Morris, 2004; Rothbart and Bates, 2006). In addition, temperament may also influence social development through the interaction between characteristics and the environment (Sanson er al., 2002). Thus, temperament also appears to be an important factor in how well a child adapts to school, including social competence and achievement (Carey, 1998; Martin, 1994). Rothbart and Jones (1998) described the impact of children’s ability to self-regulate their behavior, express positive and negative emotions, respond and adapt to demands of the classroom (i.e., reactively and adaptability toward novel experiences) regarding academic success and teacher’s attitudes regarding acceptable classroom behavior. Those students with issues in behavioral self-regulation, and who showed a relative higher negative temperament had more difficulty in adapting to classroom demands. Rothbart, Ahadi, and Evans (2000) advocate that temperament may influence the link between the self and external concepts, schemas, and life narratives which can also be related to self-regulation and positive motivation. Temperament comprises an important set of personal traits that are closely integrated with cognitive function and motivation. The association between learning and social emotional difficulties may be grounded in their common links with temperament. Considering the connection between children’s daily functioning and their academic progress (e.g., Welsh, Parke, Widaman, & O’Neil, 2001) it is not surprising that school-based interventions that address children’s social and emotional needs also improve academic performance (Graczyk et al., 2000).

Bullying

Bullying as a student being victimized and repeatedly exposed to negative actions by one or more students. Bullying is characterized by the following three criteria: (1) it is aggressive behavior or intentional “harm doing”, (2) is carries out “repeatedly and over time”, and (3) an interpersonal relationship characterize by an imbalance of power (Olweus, 1991, 1993, 1999). In 2010, Taiwan’s Ministry of Education invited scholars and experts, nongovernmental society groups, parents groups, teacher associations to conduct meetings for the prevention of bullying. The National Board of Education address important elements of school bullying: (1) Are there bullying behaviors. (2) Are there any injuries caused intentionally? (3) Is there physical or psychological harm. (4) Both sides forcing their position on the other. In 2011 the Ministry of Education issued a guideline to prevent school bullying. Pointing out that school bullying refers to one individual or a group repetitively using speech, writing, drawings, symbols, body gestures, or other means to directly or indirectly belittle another person. According to a study published in 2009 by the Taiwan’s Ministry of Education and the Child Welfare League Foundation, divided bullying into six categories: (1) Physical bullying; (2) Verbal bullying; (3) Relationship bullying; (4) Counterattack Bullying; (5) Sex and Gender Bullying; (6) Cyber bullying. Moreover, Sourander et al (2007) point out that those individuals who were bullied and bullied others as children for a period of time versus occasionally insulted or bullied or taken part in bulling are relatively more affected in early adulthood, and suffer from physical and mental conditions and deviant behavior. Deng Huang Fa (2007) pointed out that bullying was an effective future predictor of violence, and a key indicator of major crimes committed by individuals who were bullied compared to average teens.
Lifelong learning capability

UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Science, and Cultural Organization) is an outstanding contributor dedicated to the development of lifelong learning. In 1996 and 2003, the organization put forward the five pillars of lifelong learning: “learning to live together”, “learning to know”, “learning to do”, “learning to be” and “learning to change”. Hu Mengjing (1997) argues that Lifelong learning refers to the individual as a learner from birth to death between every stage of life and according to their interests and needs or whether it is self-directed learning or a group learning approach or carryout or plan learning activities. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development emphasizes personal lifelong learning from cradle to grave and being involved in purposeful learning activities aimed at promoting the integration of personal knowledge, ability and attitude (OECD, 2005). Taiwan’s Ministry of Education’s basic concept of nine years of elementary has also point out the basic capacity for lifelong learning hoping children can establish a sense for the concept of lifelong learning and actively use social resources and personal potential for suitable development in establishing one's direction in life.

Methodology

Research Hypotheses and Model

Based upon the viewpoints in the literature reviews the present study proposes that the promotion frequency and promotion type of I-Ching reading education has a significant effect on the temperament of a child. Changes in a child’s temperament lead to changes in the lifelong learning capability and bullying behavior. Therefore, we propose these hypotheses:

H1: The frequency of promotion and type of promotion in I-Ching education is positively correlated with improvements in child temperament.

H2: The temperament of a child positively affects their lifelong learning capability.

H3: The temperament of a child positively affects bullying behavior.

To study the research questions, we developed the following research model.
Sample and Data Collection

The samples for this study were selected from elementary schools in the northern, middle, southern, and eastern parts of Taiwan, where the study of the I-Ching has been promoted by I-Ching University. Data collection involved a series of contacts that comprised emails, phone calls, and face to face meetings over a two-month period. A total of 2,063 elementary schools agreed to take part in this study. School faculties also took part in the study. A total of 1,552 participants returned the questionnaires with a response rate of 75.23%.

Measurement

In evaluating the recommended frequency, the study takes children learning the I-Ching and divides them into two categories: (1) High Frequency promotion: refers to the number of times the school conducts I-Ching learning activities, which can occur once per week or at least once a month. (2) Low Frequency promotion: refers to the number of times the school conducts I-Ching learning activities which can be offered once every two to five months, or once every six months, or only once a year. The promotion types are divided into two categories: (1) Initiative promotion type: is where school teachers use the time during extra-curricular activities to teach and explain the I-Ching, or scheduled specific periods of time to teaching classes on the I-Ching. (2) Passive promotion type: refers to a school where there are no teachers to give explanations, but there are books available for students to read independently. To measure child temperament, we adopted the earlier work of Thomas and Chess (1977) from which we focus on the dimension of: (1) persistence; (2) rhythmicity; (3) adaptability; (4) distractibility; (5) approach/withdrawal; (6) threshold of response; (7) mood. The measurement of children lifelong learning capability was developed based on the core concept and competence of grade 1-9 curriculum in Taiwan, which comprise the capabilities in initiative exploration, problems solving, the application of information technology, and communication. Measurement developed for bullying behavior were based on the classification of the Ministry of Education and the Child Welfare League Foundation, which comprise body bullying, language bullying, social bullying, fight back bullying, sex bullying, and cyber bullying.
Findings

Descriptive Analysis

Based upon 1,552 respondents, more than 65.9% of respondents were female and 33.6% of respondents were male. Overall, most teachers were between 40 and 49 years of age (50.4%) or between 30 and 39 years of age (36.6%). The highest educational level obtained was a bachelor’s degree which counted for 51.4% of the respondents, followed by the master and doctoral degrees which counted for 45.6% of the respondents. The position’s in the school were divided into school president, department director, grade teacher, and subject teacher, the response rate came to 1,552 respondents 7%, 9.4%, 62.8%, and 20.9% respectively.

This survey and questionnaire looked at the frequency in which schools promoted the children's study of the I-Ching, with 44.7% of schools adopting weekly I-Ching classes, and 17% of schools adopting monthly I-Ching classes for children, and the remaining 38.3% of schools having classes once every two to five months. Within the school’s model for promoting children studying the I-Ching, 42.2% of schools placed reading material in specific areas allowing students to have free access. The other 59% of schools distributed I-Ching reading materials in class allowing students to read the material. 29.1% of schools arranged a specific time period within the school curriculum for the entire school to study the I-Ching together. 14.9% school teachers used the time for extra-curricular activities to teach the I-Ching, and give explanations. The results show that the pluralistic model was used more often in the promotion of I-Ching studies for children.

Table 1 Profile of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
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<td>65.9%</td>
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<td>Age</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Below 29 years</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39 years</td>
<td>567</td>
<td>36.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49 years</td>
<td>781</td>
<td>50.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59 years</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-65 years</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>797</td>
<td>51.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master or doctoral</td>
<td>707</td>
<td>45.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>President</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department director</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>9.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade teacher</td>
<td>972</td>
<td>62.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject teacher</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The frequent promotion of children's learning the I-Ching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a week</td>
<td>691</td>
<td>44.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a month</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>17.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once every 2-5 months</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After children study the I-Ching, their temperament, lifelong learning capability and bullying behavior statistically improve as seen in Table 1, the dimensions of a child’s temperament comprise persistence, rhythmicity, adaptability, distractibility, approach/withdrawal, threshold of response, and mood. The mean numbers of the seven factors range from 3.75 to 3.88, in which mood, adaptability, and threshold response are relatively improved. In addition, the overall degree of improvement of children’s temperament averaged 3.82. This shows that after a child learns the I-Ching, it can reliably improve the child’s temperament for the better. In this study four factors in lifelong learning capability improved, the means numbers ranged from 3.77 to 3.86. In which it used the applications of information technology and problem solving and showed relatively better improvement. The overall degree of improvement in children’s lifelong learning capability was an average of 3.81. In addition, the overall improvement in reducing bullying behavior was 3.81, showing that after children learned the I-Ching, not only their capability for lifelong learning improved but their bullying behavior was reduced.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Every six months</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Once a year</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>345</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Promotion types for children learning the I-Ching

- Book placed at specific areas for student’s independent learning 656 42.2%
- Schools distributing I-Ching reading materials in class for students to read 916 59.0%
- Teachers who specialize in teaching the I-Ching during extra-curricular activities 231 14.9%
- Course scheduled for the study of the I-Ching during specific time period for the entire school to participate 452 29.1%

Table 2 The means of improved markers in children’s temperament, lifelong learning capability, and bullying behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child temperament</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhythmicity</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distractibility</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach/withdrawal</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threshold of response</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lifelong learning capability</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Application of information technology</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiative exploration</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bullying behavior</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The different promotion types for children studying the I-Ching for the improvement of child temperament
In this study the frequency and promotion types of children learning the I-Ching are divided into four categories seen in Figure 2. Exploring which of these four models produces the most significant results for children’s temperament.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promotion Type</th>
<th>High-frequency Promotion</th>
<th>Low-frequency Promotion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initiative Promotion</td>
<td>Model A: High-frequency and Initiative Promotion Model</td>
<td>Model C: Low-frequency and Initiative Promotion Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive Promotion</td>
<td>Model B: High-frequency and Passive Promotion Model</td>
<td>Model D: Low-frequency and Passive Promotion Model</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2 The promotion matrix for children studying I-Ching

This study uses a one-way ANOVA analysis. Table 2 we found four kinds of promotion models for children leaning the I-Ching which improved the seven factors of children’s temperament, the results showed that the high-frequency and initiative promotion model was significantly higher than the other three models in improving child temperament levels and better than the two promotion models, low-frequency and initiative promotion, and low-frequency and passive promotion. It can be seen that the high-frequency and initiative promotion model can significantly improve child’s temperament levels. This indirectly shows that the promotion frequency of children learning the I-Ching can improve child temperament, and may be more important than the promotion type of I-Ching study.

Table 3 Examination of different promotion model for improving children’s temperament

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Promotion Model</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean S.D</th>
<th>Sources of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares of df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Post-hoc test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>A) High-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>4.05 .77</td>
<td>Between 148.18</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>49.39</td>
<td>87.13**</td>
<td>A&gt;C A&gt;D B&gt;C B&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B) High-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>287</td>
<td>3.97 .63</td>
<td>Within 806.70</td>
<td>1423</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Promotion Model</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>Sources of Variance</td>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Mean Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>954.89</td>
<td>1426</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhythmicity</td>
<td>C) Low-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D) Low-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>471</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A) High-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>628</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>Between</td>
<td>157.99</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>52.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B) High-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>Within</td>
<td>1064.16</td>
<td>1427</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C) Low-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1222.15</td>
<td>1430</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D) Low-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>A) High-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>628</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>Between</td>
<td>153.38</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>51.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>B) High-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>Within</td>
<td>867.93</td>
<td>1427</td>
<td>.608</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C) Low-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1021.31</td>
<td>1430</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D) Low-frequency</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Promotion Model</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>Sources of Variance</td>
<td>Sum of Squares</td>
<td>df</td>
<td>Mean Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and passive promotion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distractibility</td>
<td>A) High-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>628</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td><strong>Between</strong> 174.56</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>58.187</td>
<td>145.42**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>B) High-frequency and passive promotion</td>
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<td>4.04</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td><strong>Within</strong> 571.01</td>
<td>1427</td>
<td>.400</td>
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<td></td>
<td>C) Low-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
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<td>3.52</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td><strong>Total</strong> 745.57</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D) Low-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>.54</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach/withdrawal</td>
<td>A) High-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td><strong>Between</strong> 182.41</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>60.803</td>
<td>59.64**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B) High-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td><strong>Within</strong> 1455.80</td>
<td>1428</td>
<td>1.019</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C) Low-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td><strong>Total</strong> 1638.21</td>
<td>1431</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D) Low-frequency and passive promotion</td>
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<td>3.35</td>
<td>.56</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threshold response</td>
<td>A) High-frequency and</td>
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<td>4.12</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td><strong>Between</strong> 164.11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>54.70</td>
<td>88.01**</td>
</tr>
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</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Promotion Model</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>Sources of Variance</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F-value</th>
<th>Post-hoc test</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>initiative promotion</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>Within</td>
<td>886.95</td>
<td>1427</td>
<td>.622</td>
<td></td>
<td>B&gt;D</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B) High-frequency and passive promotion</td>
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<td>4.09</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>Within</td>
<td>886.95</td>
<td>1427</td>
<td>.622</td>
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<tr>
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<td>C) Low-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
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<td>.80</td>
<td>Total</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D) Low-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>1.02</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood</td>
<td>A) High-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>627</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>Between</td>
<td>167.994</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>55.998</td>
<td>93.44**</td>
<td>A&gt;C, A&gt;D, B&gt;C, B&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B) High-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>Within</td>
<td>854.044</td>
<td>1425</td>
<td>.599</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C) Low-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.90</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1022.038</td>
<td>1428</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D) Low-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>A) High-frequency and initiative promotion</td>
<td>624</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>Between</td>
<td>163.948</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>54.649</td>
<td>162.94**</td>
<td>A&gt;C, A&gt;D, B&gt;C, B&gt;D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B) High-frequency and passive promotion</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>4.07</td>
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<td>Within</td>
<td>472.902</td>
<td>1410</td>
<td>.335</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### The Relationship between Children’s Temperament and Promotion Model

This study used a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to inquire about the relationship between the promotion frequency (high and low), and promotion type (initiative and passive) on children learning the I-Ching, and the improvement of children’s temperament as seen in table 4.

#### Table 4 Hierarchical multiple regression analysis among different promotion models, and children’s temperament

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Persistence (M1)</th>
<th>Rhythmicity (M2)</th>
<th>Adaptability (M3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>β</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control Variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.072*</td>
<td>.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Promotions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency (High/Low)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.355**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Initiative /Passive)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( R^2 )</td>
<td>.159</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted ( R^2 )</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta R^2 )</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>.129</td>
<td>.152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( F(4,1406) )</td>
<td>66.469**</td>
<td>56.464**</td>
<td>63.646**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>1.534</td>
<td>1.537</td>
<td>1.545</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Note:
1. *p < .05 **p < .01
2. Regression coefficients here are standardized regression coefficients.
3. Gender: male=1, female=0; Age: ~20years=1, 20~29years=2, 30~39years=3, 40~49years=4, 50~59years=5, 60~69 years =6.
### Control Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>.031</th>
<th>-.047</th>
<th>.047</th>
<th>.050</th>
<th>-.005</th>
<th>.854</th>
<th>.039</th>
<th>-.050</th>
<th>.044</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.074**</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>.107</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Promotions

| Frequency (High/Low) | .043 | .440**| .000 | .070 | .331**| .000 | .054 | .388**| .000 |
| Type (Initiative /Passive) | .042 | .076**| .008 | .067 | .004  | .894 | .052 | .024  | .431 |

| $R^2$ | .240 | .111  | .167 |
| Adjusted $R^2$ | .238 | .108  | .165 |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .237 | .111  | .160 |
| $F_{(4,1406)}$ | 111.286**| 43.910**| 70.585**|
| VIF | 1.543 | 1.536 | 1.535 |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Mood (M7)</th>
<th>Total (M8)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Control Variables

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Sex</th>
<th>.038</th>
<th>-.048</th>
<th>.050</th>
<th>.029</th>
<th>-.032</th>
<th>.165</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.111**</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.098**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Promotions

| Frequency (High/Low) | .053 | .373**| .000 | .040 | .478**| .000 |
| Type (Initiative /Passive) | .051 | .064*| .034 | .038 | .056*| .048 |

| $R^2$ | .177 | .265  |
| Adjusted $R^2$ | .175 | .262  |
| $\Delta R^2$ | .170 | .261  |
| $F_{(4,1406)}$ | 75.824**| 125.364**|
| VIF | 1.536 | 1.531 |

In table 4 shows gender and age of teacher’s surveyed as control variables, and promotion frequency and promotion type included in the analysis as independent variables. It is evident from the following table M1 to M7, promotion frequency, and promotion types having a positive and significant effect on three factors of children’s temperament being persistence, distractibility, and mood. Which showed the high-frequency and initiative promotion model achieved relatively higher improvement levels for children’s temperament. In addition, the promotion frequency affected four factors rhythmicity, adaptability, approach/withdrawal, and threshold of children’s temperament. It also produced positive and significant effects showing that when the promotion frequency of the I-Ching is increased it can also enhance and improve the child’s temperament. From M8 we find the overall score of the promotion frequency and promotion type for children’s temperament which produces positive predictive effects. This shows that the high frequency and initiative promotion model positively enhanced the overall level of children’s temperament.

**The Relation among Children’s Temperament, Lifelong Learning Capability, and Bullying Behavior**
This study uses a hierarchical multiple regression analysis to inquire whether children’s ability to learn and bullying behavior improve after their temperaments improve. The analysis conducted in Table 5 show the gender and age of teachers surveyed as control variables. We analyzed dependent variables in children’s temperament and the degree of improvement in children’s lifelong learning ability and bullying behavior. M9 shows seven factors of child temperament generated significant positive predictive effects on (β = .088 ~ .299, p < .01) children’s lifelong learning capability. This shows that after the child’s temperament improves it can effectively enhance the lifelong learning capacity of children. In addition, M10 shows how the seven temperamental factors improve the level of bullying behavior with positive and significant predictive effect (β = .055 ~ .207, p < .05), this results show that children’s temperament are improved it can effectively improve the child’s bullying behavior. The results of this study found that children who studied the I-Ching actively with a high frequency model effectively enhanced overall improvement in child temperament. Then, the positive impact of children learning the I-Ching can significantly enhance the child’s lifelong learning capability and reduce bullying behavior.

Table 5 Hierarchical multivariate regression analysis among different children’s temperament, lifelong learning, and child bullying behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Lifelong learning capability (M9)</th>
<th>Child bullying behavior (M10)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SE  β    p</td>
<td>SE β   p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Control Variables</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>.014 -.011 .332</td>
<td>.030 -.029 .114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.010 -.009 .416</td>
<td>.022 -.008 .665</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Child Temperament</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistence</td>
<td>.014 .137** .000</td>
<td>.029 .145** .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhythmicity</td>
<td>.011 .088** .000</td>
<td>.023 .102** .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>.013 .199** .000</td>
<td>.026 .111** .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distractibility</td>
<td>.018 .299** .000</td>
<td>.038 .207** .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach/withdrawal</td>
<td>.009 .088** .000</td>
<td>.019 .055* .016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threshold of response</td>
<td>.012 .124** .000</td>
<td>.026 .139** .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mood</td>
<td>.013 .173** .000</td>
<td>.027 .116** .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R²</td>
<td>.817</td>
<td>.499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R²</td>
<td>.816</td>
<td>.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Delta R² )</td>
<td>.814</td>
<td>.496</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( F_{(9,1490)} )</td>
<td>739.446**</td>
<td>164.793**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>2.139</td>
<td>2.127</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:*p < .05. **p < .01.

**Conclusion and Discussion**

This study investigates the general situation of children studying the I-Ching in Taiwan. In 2008, I-Ching University began promoting the study of I-Ching by children, and now has 1,870,000 elementary school students benefiting from the study of the I-Ching. In this study the subjects took part once a week or at the least once a month for a total of 61.7%. The percentage of specialized teachers actively teaching and giving oral explanations amounted to 44.0%. From this it can be seen that Taiwan has been actively
and vigorously promoting the study of the I-Ching in children. In addition, the study found that after children studied the I-Ching, seven temperamental factors and four lifelong learning capability factors and school bullying behavior improved by more than 3.75. In terms of improvement, the average for temperament was 3.82, and also both averages for lifelong learning capability and school bullying behaviors were 3.81. The results show that the temperament of children learning the I-Ching significantly improved as well as the lifelong learning capability, and bullying behavior. This may be due to the recitation of ancient sagely wisdom, which allows children to be exposed to the moral character of the ancients influencing and purifying their minds and fostering the right values of life, and the development and strengthening of a sound moral character (Zhou Fei, 1991; Zhai Ben Rui, 2000). In this study we found that the high-frequency and initiative promotion model with an average degree of improvement was significantly better than the other three promotion models.

It shows that the promotion of I-Ching study by children at a high-frequency and initiative promotion model are the most effective in improving the temperament of children, followed by the high-frequency and passive promotion model which was significantly better than the low-frequency and initiative promotion and low-frequency and passive promotion models. This indirectly shows that when promoting the learning of the I-Ching to children the promotion frequency is more important than the promotion type. In addition, this study found that the promotion frequency of children learning the I-Ching influenced the total average of seven factors in children’s temperament which have a positive and significant predictive result. In addition the promotion type influenced the total average of a child’s temperament; three temperamental factors, persistence, distractibility, and mood were found to be positively affected. However, the results supports hypothesis 1. The results from this study pertain to an exploration for findings. In past studies we did not find similar results. It is recommended that when schools promote children’s learning of the I-Ching, they should increase the frequency of I-Ching learning activities, and use explanatory models of teaching to improve the child’s temperament.

Furthermore, seven factors of children’s temperament have produced positive and significant predictive result on lifelong learning capability and bullying behavior. These result support hypothesis 2 and hypothesis 3, which have been proposed by scholars in the past (Thomas and Chess, 1977; Carey, 1998; Lengua, 2003; Frick and Morris, 2004; Rothbart and Bates, 2006). It has already been proposed that one’s temperament can help improve individual interpersonal relations, learning and development, emotional management, environmental adaptation and problem solving. The results of the study also found that when children’s temperament improved it enhanced their capability for lifelong learning and reduced bullying behavior. Therefore, after learning the I-Ching not only do children’s temperaments improve but continue to have positive effects in lifelong learning capability and bullying behavior. Based on this, the present study suggests continued investigation of the aftereffects of learning the I-Ching, such as emotional intelligence, problem solving, and positive thinking.
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Online Interactions of Hungarian and Japanese EFL learners: A Critical Analysis

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Abstract
The aim of present study is to address how Japanese and Hungarian EFL learners co-constructed their social relations, identity and power through the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) online. Following the principles of critical discourse analysis (Gee, 1999), I analyzed ELF online interactions between six Hungarian teenagers with low socio-economic background and five Japanese university students. The five-week-long classroom research was launched in a disadvantaged school setting where Hungarian learners were given tablets.

Data was collected in three steps: three audio questionnaires were answered by the Hungarian participants at three-week intervals: before the launch of the project, in the middle and at the end. Audio questionnaires consisted of 27 statements on a four-point Likert-scale and further explanations were elicited in the recordings. Second, during the project, five English classes were recorded and transcribed. Finally, learners’ posts and interactions on the website served as the third source of data set.

The Discourse of ELF was co-constructed in participants’ interactions as they negotiated meaning and their identities. Situated meanings revealed a shift where ELF and the website acted as a liberating power, thus Hungarians could express themselves in L2 more freely. Japanese applied interactional strategies - estimating age appropriate language, negotiation of linguistic repertoire, paraphrasing, repetition - to achieve mutual understanding. Learners managed to accommodate to each other while their distinct identities surfaced. Findings suggest that ELF online should be encouraged in classroom practices as it extends geographical and socio-cultural boundaries and prepares students’ for global communication.

Keywords: ELF, e-learning, identity
Introduction

Globalization and rapid technological development made it easier to access English and it also changed the way people communicate. Moreover, digital devices are getting more and more popular among students in foreign language learning. The present study focuses on discourses emerging from the interactions of Hungarian teenagers and Japanese university students online, using tablets, within a socio educational setting. Following the principles of critical discourse analysis (CDA), it will be addressed how Hungarian and Japanese EFL learners constructed social relations, identity and power through the use of ELF online.

English as a lingua franca

The lingua franca of the twenty-first century is English, the medium of international communication for speakers who do not share the same first language (Phillipson, 2008, p. 250). Supporters of this position claim that one single language is essential to connect people due to current growth in mobility and globalization. On the other hand, language purists only recognize globalization and the expansion of English as a threat against their own language. A nation’s values are partly symbolized by their national language; therefore, English may lead to marginalization of other languages and identity loss (Phillipson, 2008, p. 251). For that reason, local English varieties need to be considered and adjustments have to be made in order to maintain balance in intercultural communication, as suggested by Phillipson (2008, p. 265).

One needs to know manners, to be polite, thoughtful, both culturally, and linguistically sensitive, when using English in an international conversation, regardless of the variety spoken (McArthur, 2001, p. 11). This approach treats ELF or “International English” as a way of “international communication across national and linguistic boundaries”, mostly, but not restricted to, the countries belonging to Kachru’s (1992, 2005) expanding circle (Jenkins, 2006, p. 160). In this paper, similarly to Jenkins (2009), I would like to refer to English as lingua franca in this functional sense, not as a linguistic variety (p. 200).

When English is used as lingua franca, between non-native speakers of English, usage and norms become less relevant (Jenkins, 2006, p. 161). ELF promotes successful intercultural communication and it is a useful tool to negotiate meaning with each other in order to achieve a common understanding by using a shared common
linguistic ground. Seargeant (2009) calls this approach the “repertoire paradigm of language use” in which speakers possess a wide variety of registers or situation-specific strategies to activate and apply in the appropriate context (p. 12).

According to Seidlhofer (2009, p. 196), in a successful ELF conversation participants need to balance cooperative and territorial imperatives. Speakers’ language use takes on a cooperative function, which means that one accommodates to other social actors in the conversation by using habitually pre-determined expressions, words, which are known to all of them, so that they can achieve mutual understanding. Their language use also acts as a territorial marker of social identity and signals group membership. Calling attention to differences points to one’s distinct identity while similarities signal group membership with the other community of speakers (p. 197).

The majority of previous studies explored online communication projects between native and non-native speakers of English, despite the fact that nowadays most English interactions occur between non-native speakers (Graddol, 2006, p. 87). Therefore, my project investigates communication between Hungarian and Japanese students, using English as lingua franca.

**Identity construction**

Important elements of intercultural interactions are to confront students with the fact that the success of communication is strongly dependent on how they are perceived by others, referring to Oetzel’s (2009) concept of ascribed identity, whether this is the one they wish to convey, meaning their avowed identity, and how they view their international communication partners (p. 62).

My study is embedded in a socio cultural framework (Vygotsky, 1978), with special focus on classroom interactions, collaborative learning and constructing knowledge through social interactions (p. 33). Further, I wish to take a dynamic, situation specific perspective, relying on poststructuralist notions of identity. Following this approach, Norton (2000) highlights identity as “dynamic and changing over historical time and social space” (p. 125) in her qualitative study, hence it is context dependent. This notion of identity includes the social dimension, in other words, identity is “co-constructed” through social interactions (pp. 12-13). Further, she connects her idea of investment with Bourdieu’s (1977) concept of cultural capital; she suggests
that if learners invest in their L2 learning, they know they will “increase the value of their cultural capital” (2000, p. 10). Also, investment in L2 entails investment in an L2 learner’s identity because learners are constantly organizing and reorganizing “their sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world” (Norton, 2000, p. 139). Baker (2006) also states that a person’s identity is not steady rather it is formed by social context and language through negotiating meaning and understanding. It is always re-constructed and shifts as situations change (p. 407).

Blackledge and Pavlenko (2001, p.12) claim that in the poststructuralist theory, language belongs to the ways in which people interact and influence others, therefore, power relations are relevant to consider in connection with identity negotiation. In line with this, Norton (2000, p. 7) refers to Foucault (1980) claiming that power relations operate on both macro and micro levels, on the level of daily interactions as well. Later on, Norton (2011) extends this approach by adding that subjectivity, in other words identity theories, has to be perceived within the web of relations and one’s position is constructed within a variety of discourses (p. 2).

Further, in an online project, public and private identities are also important to consider (Coleman, 2013, p. 24) because of the technological advancement, which surrounds the students and may determine their identity construction. Weintraub (1997) suggested that private facet is “hidden or withdrawn” while public refers to “open, revealed or accessible” (pp. 4-5). Nissenbaum’s (2004) idea of “privacy as contextual integrity” conveys the privacy of information about people, engaged with contexts or “life spheres” (p. 120). She further explains that contextual integrity is sustained when two types of norms: “norms of appropriateness” and “norms of flow” are equally supported (p. 120). Within an interaction, people understand what kind of information is adequate to inquire in a particular situation (norm of appropriateness) and also they expect others to know whether the gathered information should be shared with others (norm of flow) (p. 120). Let us take the context of human relationships as an example, in which a person shares confidential information with his or her ally, then in the “sphere of friendship” that person will expect that the friend will not give away the private message (pp. 131-132).
Nissenbaum (2004) adds that contextual integrity, being context-dependent by nature, differs across culture, moment and situation (p. 138). Thus, private identity is the one a person shares only in a certain situation with a limited number of people, while public identity is more open and accessible to a wider group of people.

**Critical discourse analysis**

Carmel (2009) defined critical discourse analysis (CDA) as a theory of language and discourse in social systems. Its aim is to examine “how social relations, power and identity are constructed within a larger social context”, while applying critical theory (p. 406). Other researchers added that CDA can be considered not only as a theory but also a method. (Rogers, Malancharuivil-Berkes, Mosley, Hui & O’ Garro Joseph, 2005, p. 370). Based on the theoretical position, one is able to grasp truth or reality through its formation and discursive construction by different social powers. In this sense discourses express interpretations of everyday life. On the other hand, CDA as a method serves as an instrument with which one may interpret and comprehend a social phenomenon as linguistic and social theories come into dialogue (Rogers, Malancharuivil-Berkes, Mosley, Hui & O’ Garro Joseph, 2005, pp. 370-371).

Rogers and her colleagues (2005) claim that critical discourse analysts, in addition to the interpretation of the function of language, provide answers to how it actually functions in a particular social context (p. 369). Moreover, they look at how participants of the interaction give their language use specific meanings in particular circumstances (Gee, 1999, p. 40). These are flexibly changeable patterns that construct knowledge as meaningful in certain ways and are referred to as situated meanings (p. 49). Situated meanings of language are often negotiated between social actors and as the interactions develop they revise their situated meanings (p. 52). Gee (1999, p. 17) distinguished discourse with capital D and discourse with lowercase d. Discourse with lowercase d refers to linguistic elements and how these are used in the action of interacting. Discourse with capital D refers to non-linguistic issues such as identity, which is co-constructed through discourse and also through non-language issues, for instance the participants’ way of thinking, believing, feeling (p. 17). These issues were dealt with in the analysis.
Research context and participants
The research project was implemented in a low SES elementary school, in Hungary, where ICT technology is barely provided. However, taking advantage of the brand new supply of tablets, I launched an online EFL communication project between Hungarian teenagers and Japanese university students. Communication sessions took place in the English classroom three times a week, while the virtual classroom space (Edmodo) made it possible for the Japanese partners to join, regardless of time difference. Edmodo, used as an online forum, served as a platform for virtual intercultural exchange, which lasted for five weeks. The school had previous Japanese cultural experience through a picture exchange partnership program; therefore, my attempt was to extend students’ authentic experience and to help them benefit both culturally and linguistically from the interactions. Prior to the project teenagers were taught how to use tablets in the IT classes.

The participants were six Hungarian EFL elementary school students from grade 7 and 8. Their ages varied between 13-14. In addition, from Japan, five university students, who are also learners of English, joined the project. For the sake of anonymity, pseudonyms were given for each participant.

Research questions
This study seeks to address the following research questions:
1. How do learners’ interactions online and in the classroom construct D/discourses about ELF?
2. How does ELF online affect learners’ identity construction?

Data collection and analysis
Data was collected in three steps. First, the Hungarian teenagers were asked to answer three audio questionnaires in three time intervals: before the launch of the project, in the middle and at the end. The audio questionnaires were in Hungarian and consisted of 27 statements on a four point Likert scale. Further explanations for their answers were elicited in the recordings. Second, during the project, five English classes were audio recorded and transcribed. Thirdly, learners’ posts on the website and their comments served as additional data. Multiple data sources ensure the validity in terms of coverage and agreement, while convergence is achieved by gaining answers to several questions under building tasks (Gee, 1999, pp. 93-94).
Data analysis focused on Fairclough’s (2003, p. 27) three aspects of text meaning: representation, action, and identification. Discourse becomes constructed in the representations of reality, it also appears in particular ways of being, and in certain ways of acting and interacting (p. 26). Fairclough (2003) views these aspects of text meaning in relational terms. He focuses on the social agents taking part in the social event and their relation to knowledge (representation), to others (action) and to themselves (identification) (p. 29). I investigated how these are realized in the texts in terms of culture specific vocabulary, agency, sentence functions and types.

Micro and macro analysis of texts followed a two-way process: moving from context to language and from language to context. While exploring situated and strategic online interactions, I looked at the language patterns (discourse with lowercase d) and their situated meanings to see how they connect to social themes and construct Discourse with capital D (Gee, 1999).

**Findings and discussion**

**ELF as a liberating power**

Texts revealed a shift where ELF and the website acted as a liberating power, so that Hungarians could express themselves in L2 more freely. At first students were hesitant and anxious towards mistakes and misunderstandings due to prior imbalance of power relations and the dominance of ELF as well as the demand to fulfill native speaker norms. However, as the interactions developed, students relied less on native English norms due to the mutual effort of meaning negotiation on both sides and it provided anxiety free environment. This approach of ELF enabled teenagers to feel more successful in English communication, which boosted their linguistic self-confidence. It also gave them a sense of comfort to express themselves in English, as the following audio questionnaire excerpts illustrate:

**Excerpt 1**

Emese (prior project): I am a bit scared that I misspell something. They might misunderstand me and I worry about that.

Aliz (during project): I knew that it is not a shame if I make mistakes…They are also learning English, like me.

Emese (after the project): When writing, I have more time to think… And the others help me too.
**ELF as an alternation of power relations**

In the online written interactions, language bits contain cues for the notion of politeness and respect, humble expressions, especially on the side of Hungarian teenagers. At the beginning of the project Japanese participants were perceived as the source of content and linguistic knowledge, providing the answers for the questions of Hungarians. There was a mismatch in terms of age between Hungarians and Japanese, which might have affected the teenagers’ humble way of acting. At first Hungarian students were anxious about expressing themselves in English and they were concerned about making mistakes, however, the threat was weakened by knowing that their communication partners also make mistakes. The spelling of the word “fireworks” in the following online excerpt (See: Excerpt 2) demonstrates this issue. The word “fireworks” was written by Yoshi separately at first and later he revised, as the Hungarian student repeatedly wrote it as one word. Equal opportunities for learning became apparent on both sides, and teenagers’ private identities reached the surface as power relations were shifting in the interactions.

In Excerpt 2 agency sheds light on Béla’s milieu, which refers to his private identity. In the next turn Yoshi gives a positive evaluative acknowledgement, but he only refers to “he” his stepdad in connection with fireworks. Later he shifts to “you” referring to Béla, when requesting him to teach him how to make fireworks. This is followed by Béla’s apology and indirect denial. His self-reference, “I just”, carries a humble way of expression. This indirectness shows similarity with Japanese culture specific way of expression.

Excerpt 2

Béla: I and my stepdad make **firework** New Years Eve and make three cannon.

Yoshi: wow, must be huge **fireworks**. How long does he need to make **fireworks**?

Béla: Some take a couple of hours but it takes a few weeks to prepare. You have training of fireworks in Japan?

Yoshi: We don’t have training… we like too see **fireworks**. Can you teach me to make it?

Béla: **Sorry, I just** prepare the raw material as gunpowder.
ELF as instrument for intercultural contact

First, ELF served as an instrument to get into contact with dissimilar others and to extend their knowledge about Japanese culture, people and language. Also Hungarian students perceived it as an important opportunity to break stereotypes. ELF made it possible for them to reduce the geographical borders and engage in global communication. However, they had to be online in order to use English as lingua franca, therefore, unfortunately Hungarian students did not have equal chances for communication at all times because some students did not have computers and internet access at home.

ELF as instrument for mutual understanding

Japanese students applied various interactional strategies, such as negotiation of linguistic repertoire through framing, paraphrasing, repetition, to achieve mutual understanding. The following online excerpt (See: Excerpt 3) is an example of initiating a cultural expression and based on the lack of contextual cues, Betti at first misinterprets the word “Kanji”. Rika provided the verb “master” which means to become proficient in something. This was the only verb provided as cue for Kanji so she came to the conclusion that Kanji is spoken Japanese. After that Rika framed the word to help Betti interpret Kanji and place it in the right context, which is written Japanese. As the interaction developed, Rika applied ELF strategies such as repetition, framing and paraphrasing to achieve common understanding. Betti’s last comment indicates that meaning was conveyed the word “Kanji” became shared repertoire.

Excerpt 3
Betti: What is very hard in Japanese language?
Rika: I think Kanji is hard in Japanese language. There is a lot of types of Kanji. And it is more complicated than Hiragana or Katakana. So it is difficult for even Japanese people to master Kanji.
Betti: And how did you learn speak Kanji?
Rika: Kanji is a character like an alphabets. It is also called Chinese character. There are thousands of Kanji you need to learn in order to understand written Japanese. We start learning Kanji from primary school and learn until the end of high school. We learn Kanji by writing repeatedly.
Betti: Yes, I think Kanji is very very difficult. We have alphabet, it’s easy. Can you write my name with Kanji?
ELF as cooperation and assistance

At first, the co-construction of the word “import” is apparent from the following online interaction (See: Excerpt 4). Betti modified the word “foreign” to “import” based on the Japanese students’ previous sentence, in order to make herself understood. Also “I think” shows some degree of uncertainty, the teenager is careful about providing information. However, her argument about foreign paprika in shops is well informed. On the other hand, Zoli does not want this fact to be known by the Japanese communication partner. The reason may be that losing face as a Hungarian would be really bad. “Paprika” in this interaction serves as a cultural symbol and signals Hungarian identity. Territorial imperative becomes emphasized by Zoli along with cooperative imperative, apparent on the side of Betti and Yoshi.

In the example, Yoshi gives assistance for Hungarian students. He is not relying on other participants’ familiarity with the word ‘piiman’. Therefore, he frames the word, provides explanation (“green”, “slim”, “bitter”, “looks like paprika”), describes the word to give contextual cues for visual representation of piiman. But he is not sure whether the word piiman for green pepper is universal so he writes: “we call”. He signals that the word is used by a certain community of speakers, “we” indicates “Japanese people”. With the following cues he assists Hungarian students to place piiman in context and construct meaning.

Béla’s last comment signals an attempt to create group membership with the community of Japanese children, when he admits that he does not like paprika similarly to Japanese children. Cooperative imperative is represented by the interpretation of piiman and also the way it became shared repertoire.

Excerpt 4
Yoshi: Why paprika is so famous in Hungary? Because everybody like it?
Béla: The soil be good for the rain and plenty of sunshine for paprika.
Betti: I don’t think because most paprika is foreign in shops.
Yoshi: We import paprika from good soil like Hungary.
Betti: But I think most paprika is import in shops.
Zoli: No, Hungarian paprika is very famous. We have delicious paprika.
Yoshi: In Japan we have more common to eat green pepper, which looks like paprika, but more slim. The green pepper we call piiman. Many kids don’t like to eat because
of bitter taste.
Béla: Oh, I don’t like paprika too.

Territorial imperative appeared in the following online mediated text (See: Excerpt 5 & 6) as Aliz highlighted her experience with the word “pocky”, and her knowledge about Japanese traditional clothes: “yukata” and “kimono”. She calls attention that the Japanese culture specific words are already within the shared repertoire. By sharing her experience she signals a wish to create group membership with Japanese people. She also acts as an expert who asks questions and tries to elicit another culture specific word, the “kimono”.

Assistance on the side of Japanese student is apparent in this excerpt as the participant provides illustrative examples to assist understanding. Takako assumes that her use of cultural reference is unknown to other Hungarian participants, therefore, she immediately provides frames and translation for the Japanese words. At first, she acknowledges the teenagers’ claim, to give her confidence, but also revises her knowledge by providing additional frames.

Excerpt 5
Aliz: I ate already pocky! It was chocolate and strawberry! You like pocky? What is your favorite?
Takako: Yes, but there are so many pocky, thin chocolate stick snack, in Japan. It is hard to choose. My favorite Japanese sweets is senbei (rice cracker) which is seasoned with soy sauce and sometimes with nori (seaweed). It’s so crunchy a tastes better with green tea 😊

Excerpt 6
Aliz: Yukata is clothes, which must wear a summer festival. ^^ But just summer. In winter something else to wear. You know what?
Takako: Right, that’s kimono. Nowadays they wear that mainly on formal occasions like graduation, coming of age ceremony, wedding, funeral. But older people still wear kimono as their everyday clothes. Clothes of kimono are thickly woven and more gorgeous than yukata.
Conclusion

This study approached the topic of ELF in an online communication project between Hungarian and Japanese learners of English, from a CDA perspective. ELF was an emergent Discourse within the online interactions between the participants. The Discourse of ELF was constructed by participants’ interactions, negotiation of meaning, use of cultural references, curiosity and their feelings towards being online and towards each other. Situated meanings revealed a shift where ELF and the website acted as a liberating power, thus Hungarians could express themselves in L2 more freely. Japanese applied interactional strategies - estimating age appropriate language, negotiation of linguistic repertoire, paraphrasing, repetition - to achieve mutual understanding. Cooperative and territorial imperatives were balanced, thus learners accommodated to each other while their distinct identities surfaced.

The findings suggest that ELF online should be viewed as a valuable opportunity for students to experience real contact with people from all over the world as it extends geographical and socio-cultural boundaries and prepares students’ for global communication practices, empowers them to use English, therefore, such implementations in classroom practices should be encouraged. These activities have the potential to provide the first step in building international relationships and to raise awareness of equality. However, for this to happen schools and students need to be provided with equal opportunities as well, to use ICT technologies. E-learning solutions should be implemented on a national level.
References


Abstract
English seems to have become the global language of business. Most companies across the world are now embracing English as their corporate language. Indian business embraced English, initially at the corporate level and later the whole company were found communicating within and outside, in English. Indian Business Schools, in the quest to create global managers, now focus on improving English of their students. Can the Indian business schools improve the English fluency of its students in such a short time of two years, and if yes, to what extent, and how? This paper proposes an implementation approach to improve English for Business Education in India, based on empirical evidence.

The implementation approach considers the Indian legacy of culture, tradition, ethnic pride and capability. The paper also looks at the willingness of Indians to embrace English over their native language, especially in Business Education. The paper finds that not only it is important to understand the level of English proficiency required for the business or job at hand, but also to understand the level of English proficiency that can be achieved during the business management course duration of about 2 years. For the proposed action plan, the paper affirms the resistance points from the students and their response; and also the reinforcing points considering the motivations, objectives and resources. This paper exemplifies a successful implementation of improving English for Business Education in India.

Keywords: English, Business Education, Self Reference Criterion, Ethnocentric, Communication
Introduction

In the ancient era, the Roman Empire through social refinement brought a major part of the known world into its order, and peace - Pax Romana. Roman society developed to an apex level ever known, and Latin became the refined language for all to learn. Roman invasion left back remnants of Latin. Even after the fall of the mighty Roman Empire, Latin words are still used in many languages including English.

In the modern era, the builders of the great British Empire similarly brought growth and extravagance to the world that was still coming out of the dark ages of the medieval times. British invasion came in the form of commerce that expanded their kingdom and extended their hold over the modern world. They imparted their refined culture and language (Bryson, 1990), and even after the Britain Empire contracted, their language English remained and embraced largely across the world. English in India remains a case in point.

English in the Society

It is easy to comprehend that the language English that British introduced in India was for their convenience. It was difficult to do business (as East India Company did) without communicating efficiently with the natives. Naturally, the early Indian English speakers were either the ones who studied in England or the ones who communicated with the English sailors and tradesmen at the wharf (sea ports). Slowly, British introduced their primary educational system in India and numerous primary schools in India started teaching English. Slowly, English became the first language for education and higher education in India, especially in professional courses, such as engineering, medical sciences and business. However, this did not happen without resistance. English was meted a status of the ruler’s language and the society (common people at large) resisted anything linked with English as a mark of Indian national pride. Interestingly, even after independence from the British, India continued with English in its educational system and slowly the society accepted it.

Indian usage of English, with its own trials and tribulations, is mockingly known as Indian English by the native speakers of English. Is Indian English providing the Indians, a sense of retribution, with the fair influence of Indianizing English through inclusion of Hindi (or other native Indian language) vocabulary and pronunciations? Did Indian English evolve as a dialect that has absorbed Indian culture and sensibilities? Some proponents of native Indian languages feel that English language brings in occidental/continental beliefs in people, which is not healthy for the cultural heritage of India. However, India (and its businesses) still remains an enigma for most western countries. Is there a change that through better communication using English, this puzzling Indian culture (and business) is better understandable for the westerners? This is likely to benefit all.

English for Business

English now has become an indelible language for modern business. Many non-English speaking companies, such as Nokia (Finnish), Renault (French), Samsung (Korean), Airbus (French-German-Spanish), Daimler (German), and so many more
have embraced English completely for their internal communications also. They felt that having English as the only language within the company has facilitated communication and efficient performance across their geographically diversified business units and subsidiaries. However, there is no dearth of companies who felt otherwise. Many companies, especially from Russia, China and Brazil felt that their company works efficiently in their local language. Indian businesses embraced English, initially at the corporate level and later the whole.

It seems that in order to be global, a firm (company) has to essentially embrace English as its official language. A global manager needs to be fluent in English to be efficient and effective. Naturally, business education institutes have English as their sole medium of instruction. Many of these institutes make additional efforts to improve the English fluency levels of their students. Institutes feel that the student’s contribution to the job severely gets restricted if the student is not fluent in English to communicate. However, it may not be essential for the student to have advanced level of fluency in English to communicate. Segregating speakers, based on the level of fluency of English in the number of words they have mastered, is a good starting point to ascertain the level of intervention.

Many experts feel that most students have a reasonable comprehension of English but lack more performance oriented English skills. It is important to map the performance oriented with comprehension oriented skills across reading, writing, speaking and engagement through English language for each student. Further the matters becomes complex when it found that all students do not take kindly to the forced language improvement initiative and many resist it.

**Measuring level of English in a B-School**

The functional level of English justifies the level of intervention required. This is critical as a mismatch between the level of English fluency state and the level of intervention may yield undesired results. Building a functional measure of level of fluency of English becomes essential before we realize how much of improvement is to be achieved. A ‘native speaker’ (mother-tongue) of English is expected to fluently speak, read, write and understand complex contextual English to meet and exceed the language requirements at social life and work. A ‘fluent speaker’ of English has advanced understanding of the language, can speak, read, and write English almost at a similar level to the native speaker and can meet the language requirements at social life and work. A ‘conversational speaker’ of English can speak, read, write and understand English with some effort and manages the language requirements at social life and work, functionally. Conversational speaker can communicate functional (basic) requirements. A ‘basic speaker’ of English can speak, read, write and understand English with considerable effort and has unsophisticated ability to communicate simple instructions. Basic speaker barely manage to communicate in English at social life and work. The functional level of English, from high to low cited above (Neeley, 2012), justifies the level of intervention required.

It is essential to segregate speakers, based on the level of fluency of English in the number of words they have mastered. The segregation is found on four counts - Native speaker, Advanced speaker, Intermediate speaker and Beginner. A Native speaker, who can communicate fluently and idiomatically, is deemed to master more
than 10,000 words. Whereas, an Advanced speaker, who can communicate comfortably with nuances, is expected to master above 3500 words till it matches the native speaker. An Intermediate speaker, who is reasonably expressive and has functional communication, is expected to master words in the range of 1500 to 3000. A Beginner, is someone who can communicate at basic level and can cope with basic situation, is expected to function with less than 1500 words (Neeley, 2012; Economist, 2013).

It is important to map the performance oriented (ranging from Awareness to Understanding) with comprehension oriented (ranging from Engage to Skill) in light of five dimensions - Presentation, Report Writing, Interview, Speech and Body Language will put Speaking as orientation towards skill and awareness, Reading as engage and awareness, Writing as skill and understanding, and Listening as the measure of engage and understanding (Neeley, 2012).

Moreover, all students do not take kindly to the forced language improvement initiative and sometimes resist. Many felt that “We already know English, why learn it again?” Student’s response to improvement is English also comes from their mindset and belief of their uncertainty of achieving result (Maybe) and certainty of achieving results (Yes). Based on the Capability (Can Do) and Belief (Good Idea), the students can be segregated as Frustrated, Oppressed, Inspired and Indifferent. The Frustrated student lacks the capability to learn English, yet feels that English will help him in his job. The Oppressed student is close to giving up on improving English as he lacks the capability and does not see any benefit in learning English for his job. The Indifferent student has the capability to learn English but does not see any benefit for himself and his job. The Inspired student is capable to learn English and feels that improvement in English is good for him and his job (Neeley, 2012; Frendo, 2005).

Research Question

Should institutes, such as business schools in India, try to teach (business) English to the students so that they achieve a level of fluency comparable to native English speakers? During placements, companies do insist on English fluency as eligibility. How does one improve English in Indian business schools, given the legacy of culture, tradition, ethnic pride and capability? Will the Indians embrace English similar to their native language? Overall, how should the business schools in India improve the English proficiency of their students to Advanced levels?

It is important to understand the level of English proficiency required for the business or job at hand. It is also important to understand the level of English proficiency that can be achieved during the business management course duration of about 2 years. Further, before implementation of the proposed action plan, it is important to understand the resistance points from the students and their response. Finally, it is typical to build an implementation plan, considering the achievable level of English proficiency, considering the motivations, objectives and resources.

Methodology

Quantitative techniques cannot be used as the empirical study on improvement of English in a business school, as the interventions are not identical, are infrequent and
have far too less composite instances for any statistical relevance. Hence the elements of the process of improvement of English are described here with detailed qualitative importance. It is natural that any change in the process of improvement of English amongst business school students will not have a linear impact on their overall learning of business English. Hence, the research outcome is likely to be inductive in nature. Keeping this in view, Grounded Theory method (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003) is proposed in this research to answer the research questions outlined in the previous section.

Grounded theory emphasizes the generation of theory from data and the empirical data is provided in this paper as a starting point to generate and reconfirm the proposed theory. Although analytic induction technique can also be used to iteratively build of theory from data (Denzin, 1978), but Grounded theory approach is preferred in this paper as an implementable approach is achieved for the benefit of the students with large certainty.

Stern (1995) suggests that grounded theory provides a novel perspective to the situation, giving way to a plausible theory that can be tested empirically. The approach to formulate—and then reformulate—hypotheses or explanations based on conceptual ideas is used to refine the theory based on data generalization (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This paper tries to confirm the proposed theory, but does not try to generalize the theory. However, triangulation of data, from published sources, interviews from the faculty members, participants (students) and companies who hire the students, increases the validity of this research, a process that is suggested by Denzin (1978).

Grounded theory method oriented results may not confirm the concepts or hypotheses developed from empirical data (Glaser 1998). However, validity in grounded theory is judged by conceptual fit, relevance to theory and practice, and ease of implementation (Glaser & Strauss 1967, Glaser 1998). This paper has considered grounded theory to generate a learning approach that is essential to transform the capability of business school students in improving their business English.

In most empirical and action research, individuals are the unit of analysis, whereas in grounded theory driven research, the incident is the unit of analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The unit of the study is ‘individual’, where multiple interrelated interventions or incidents affect individual and the class, and co-exist (Garud & Van de Ven, 1989:204). Further, the functions of the individual (elements) define the boundaries which is not arbitrary (Easton et al, 1993:3). This way, not only the process of learning business English and its constituent parts are analyzed longitudinally, but also their beneficiary interactions to provide an approach towards implementation.

**Analysis**

There are three primary reasons for improving English in businesses: Competitive Pressure (need to communicate with buyers-suppliers-other business partners more efficiently than your competitors); Globalization of Tasks and Resources (geographically dispersed employees now need to work closer on a regular basis); and Mergers and Acquisitions across National Boundaries (cross-cultural integration becomes easier with fluency in the accepted business language – English).
It is essential to consider the primary reasons for improving English in businesses, before finalizing the implementation plan for improving English fluency. One needs to also look at the primary obstacles in improving English in business education. Teaching business English comes as a shock to students who feel they already know English and feel withdrawn when forced to go through a course, such as business communication. Some implement their learning from the subject – Business Communications, while others seldom do and sometimes avoid, which makes the compliance checkered. Students may feel that their worth has diminished, regardless of the English fluency level; they may often underestimate their capabilities. Overall, there may be a general resistance when students feel it is not very efficient to avoid Hindi (or their mother tongue) for business English; moreover their poor English language skill may become conspicuous and this may lead to a fear of making mistakes, thereby making them resist the language outright.

Hence, it becomes important to have a clear comprehension of the legacy that we have incurred after our freedom from the British and their language English. It is important to note that students need not have an advanced level of proficiency every time to contribute to business. Hence, an acceptable level of English fluency target needs to be ascertained by each student in their quest to improve their English. The focus of the students should be turned to the finalization of their individual objective, based on their capability and confidence. Armed with this, implementation plan can be drawn considering the linkages with the problem, alternatives and recommendations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Fluency</th>
<th>Subjective Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother Tongue (Native Speaker)</td>
<td>Can fluently speak, write, read and understand complex English with ease. Able to meet and exceed language requirement at work and social life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluent (Advanced)</td>
<td>Can speak, write, read and understand English with comfort. Able to meet language requirement at work place. Can effectively participate in conversations in English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversational (Intermediate)</td>
<td>Can speak, write, read and understand English with effort. Able to manage language requirement at work place. Can communicate functionally with native speakers. Can use English to communicate basic requirements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic (Beginner)</td>
<td>Can speak, write, read and understand English with considerable effort. Lacks fluency but can respond to simple instruction in English. Has unsophisticated ability to communicate in English and can understand when spoken slowly.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Fig. 1]

The objective of the English level fluency can be achieved by considering the functional measure of level of fluency (Fig. 1) and also by considering the quantitative measure of level of fluency in English (Fig. 2), as given in the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Fluency</th>
<th>Mastering Words (Count)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native Speaker (Fluently and Idiomatically Communicate)</td>
<td>10000-15000 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced (Comfortably Communicate with Nuances)</td>
<td>3500-10000 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate (Functional Communication, Reasonably Expressive)</td>
<td>1500-3500 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginner (Basic Communication, Cope with Basic Situations)</td>
<td>&lt;=1500 words</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Fig. 2]
From the above two tables, it becomes clear that advanced level of English proficiency, although desirable, is seldom needed to perform efficiently on the job for a business management graduate. Hence, a proficiency level of 4000 words (which is largely achievable) may be kept as a target to achieve during the course.

The student’s response to English comprehension and performance towards improvement is given in the following:

![Fig. 3](image)

From the above Fig. 3, it is important to note that during most primary and secondary education, focus and due importance on listening and reading. But in fact, most modern businesses demand refined skills across speaking and writing. The later is more performance oriented than the former, which is more comprehension oriented. For speaking and writing, it is important to refine the ‘train of thought’ before something is spoken or written. A structure, a logical flow, and so on is expected, naturally for the performance oriented English, and modern business workplace demands extempore performance.

Some of the actions in English communication, based on general experience would be to know who is the target audience is, how and how much to communicate with them, a mechanism for a feedback. Fig. 4 highlights the student’s response to the improvement in English, given in the following:

![Fig.4](image)
A typical misstep by many business schools is their focus on doing traditional English communication development activities, such as the traditional passage speaking, memo-writing, letter writing, application writing, and précis writing skills. The preferred way to improve English for the current business school students should focus more on social media type communications, e-mail etiquettes, and so on.

**Conclusion**

It becomes clear that it is essential to make students understand the importance of English language in conducting business transactions efficiently and effectively. This will make the ‘indifferent’ students category to move to the ‘inspired’ category. For the ‘oppressed’ category, foster positive attitudes towards English. This can happen when students see around them others who have positive experiences with the change. Fluent English speakers (and the teaching faculty) can positively influence the confidence of this category of students. This will make the ‘oppressed’ students category to move to the ‘inspired’ category. In addition to the above, for the ‘frustrated’ category, more opportunities are to be provided to gain experience with the language, especially in a business setting. For this, the student may be encouraged to undergo internship in a company that depends more on stakeholder interaction in English. Opportunities can also be provided through real-life projects and international exchange for the student. Under crunch situation, it is likely that the student realizes his/her potential and feels that the targeted level of English proficiency (Intermediate level) is in fact, achievable. Confidence of the student can be restored by appreciating their efforts. This will make the ‘frustrated’ students category to move to the ‘inspired’ category. Once, the critical mass for improvement is achieved, peer pressure and support will achieve the rest. Finally, make the student appreciate and feel the benefit they derive from improving their English communications. The skill that is being developed should immediately help them in their corporate life.

**Implications**

Making students appreciate the need for English language refinement during their business management course is tricky. Students mostly feel that they already have the adequate level of fluency in English. However, it is important to make them understand the importance of high level of proficiency in English for a global manager that every business management school strives to deliver. The need of business communications as a course is imperative, considering the demand from the prospect companies at the time of hiring business management students.

It is important to understand the softer factor of resistance and indifference from the student’s side and link them to deeper factors of culture, ethnic pride and the usefulness of this refinement of fluency in English. This paper brings out an implementable plan that makes the business communication course achieve one of its primary objective – English fluency requirements for business management. Linking the culture and history to English language and its development in India makes the student understand the inherent resistance for refinement. Many students still feel that English as a language should not be taught in Business schools and its refinement cannot be achieved in the short span of two years.
Limitations

Extensive use of data from all plausible sources—essential in grounded theory studies—ranging from field interviews, to research from noted scholars, with divergent richness of instances, remains an important limitation. Bringing the primary and secondary data to a common platform is essential in this research, as is typical with grounded theory research. However, as the theory is built from the data instances of the study, more iterative instances would refine the conclusions, better. Grounded theory is preferred as a research method in this paper over an equally strong approach to similar study, the analytic induction technique.

The explanation and findings presented in this research, is done with respect to idiosyncratic instances, which may not be applied empirically in its current state to other study of similar nature. This is because; the certain attributes enjoyed by the subject under study may not exist in others. This research may not identify the portability of findings over other organizations. Further, research bias in similar studies is difficult to completely neutralize, which is also a limitation of this paper.
References


The Effect of Taxation Supplementary Measure for the Performance of the Elementary School Teachers

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Shu-Hung Tsai, University of Kang Ning, Taiwan
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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to understand the job satisfactions and performances of the elementary school teachers after cancelling tax-free policy and implementing taxation supplement measure. According to Dr. F. Herzberg’s Two-factor theory (Motivators-Hygiene Factors Theory), the work discusses how the two factors affect the teaching performance and service using different demographic variables and environment variables. The study sampled public elementary school teachers, dividing into northern, central and southern areas in Taiwan, using a questionnaire survey (Likert five-point scale). 353 questionnaires were responded, out of a total of the 380 that were issued, making for an overall response rate of 92.8%; 335 valid questionnaires making for an effective response rate of 88%.

The statistic methods used descriptive statistics, reliability analysis, factor analysis, t-test, one-way ANOVAs test, correlation analysis, Stepwise regression analysis, and path analysis. The results show as following:

After implementing taxation supplementary measure, the motivator factor overall average of 4.06 points for the elementary school teachers classifies the upper level of satisfaction; hygiene factor overall average of 3.60 points also classifies the upper level of satisfaction.

In motivator factor aspect, it shows significantly different circumstances in different background variables, such as years of teaching experience, hold office, school size, school district and location.

In hygiene factor aspect, it shows significantly different circumstances in different background variables, such as gender, educational background, years of teaching experience, hold office, school size, districts and school district and location.

In both motivator and hygiene factor aspects, it doesn't show any significantly different circumstances in different age or marital status.

The overall related impact coefficient on the teaching is .244 in motivator factor aspect. The related impact coefficient on continue education is .334 in sub-factor aspect with the most influential; the related coefficient on service work is .184 in sub-factor aspect with less influential.

The overall related impact coefficient on the teaching is .487 in hygiene factor aspect. The related impact coefficient on taxation supplementary measure is .552 in sub-factor aspect with the most influential; the related coefficient on service work is .422 in sub-factor aspect with the most influential.
1. Introduction

In response to teachers' taxation system, the Ministry of Education set allowance taxation policy and drop the simultaneous implementation of Practical Points. According to Shi Huang Yu (2012) research report, the supporting policies and not in line with the expectations of teachers, Where the most of the "salary adjustment" policies do not meet the expectations, But the teacher was willing to cooperate and teaching the current education, Obviously saw teachers for teaching work still hot pillow. Xu Zhiwei (2007) pointed out that senior high school teachers of health factors in which "education policy" for the senior high school teachers dissatisfied main factor at work; Shao Sheng xiong . Zhou Jue (2012) According to tax payment system for teachers Implementation, teachers who impact school administrative positions will to explore, they think external factors influence individual intrinsic factors. When extrinsic motivation factors promoted, will enhance the teachers serve as school administrative positions. According to Kyriacou and c Chien (2004) research report, In Taiwan's elementary school teachers is one of the major sources of stress changes in the Government's education policy; Against this background, national education policy is the beginning of the development of education. The reforms related to the teachers a great impact for their own work. How to improve the quality of Church and education competition will be the subject of concern.

Professor Hong ran (National Central University, Director of the Institute of cognitive neuroscience) Once in the wait for investments referred to this article of "a country's money, if not in terms of education, must be used on a prison", Teachers involved in the education sector and education responsibility as the masters of the country's future, a subtle indoctrination responsibilities of the mind, but ambition, position plays an important role in China's basic education, However, teachers in tax policy is imperative, the new system started serving minority teachers, it's not only salary levels by reducing the impact of the teachers accompanying measures implemented by the Ministry of education, on teaching as a positive incentive is negative impact, is the initial motivation of this research. In addition, after the implementation of tax policies, develop accompanying measures national one for the Ministry of education, teachers can work in real time in adjusting to the reform? whether teachers' morale and emotional by the interference? Relative to how willing work? or personal career planning, behavior will change? Is taxed to the studies supporting the teaching relationship to a topic worthy of study, is the second author's motives. In cancelling the teacher tax exemption issue category, the literature of the past, domestic research on teachers in tax issues, from policy or understanding marketing, tax policy, supporting measures finance and investment levels to explore (Zhang Xiuzhen, 2005, Cai PeiWen, 2006, Wei Yu, 2006, Lin Hong, 2007; Chen Minghong, 2010; gwo seal, 2010; Chen Suju, 2011) Teacher work after which the tax effects of integration with the incentive to explore rarely found, so this review of teacher assessment background literature on the one hand, two aspects of motivation factors and health factors of the policy since its introduction, whether the teachers' work has a direct impact, exploring relationships, can contribute to academic research and teaching practice. This is three of the author's motives. In conclusion, this study was to apply Herzbger after the implementation of two-factor theory to explore the taxation of ancillary, effects of teachers' work, for the following reasons: 1. Two-factor theory includes the external and internal factors, motivating factor when you have satisfying, lack of feel does not meet, and factor it was not meet for lack of health care, but was not met and,
therefore, tax policy and taxation support for teachers, attributable to external factors will be considered as health factors, Therefore, tax policy and taxation support for teachers, attributable to external factors will be considered health factors, it is necessary to make good use of satisfaction of the cause factors, so as to stimulate teachers' motivation in teaching, on the other hand also required to eliminate or reduce the factors that cause disappointment, to enhance the enthusiasm of teachers' work. 2. Two-factor theory is widely used in the education sector, to teachers, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement and motivation, such as: Xu Jianjin (2010), Tang Wenling (2011), Chen Qiongyun (2010), Rao Rui Huang (2009), Guan Yiting (2009), Huang Xiaoping (2008), Fu Shengkun (2007) and Xu Zhiwei (2007). This study hope to do their best effort for the education sector. 3. Based on the two-factor theory salary variables are summarized in health factors, which belongs to the external factors, most of the researchers supported this argument, but there is still disagreement, noting that salary as a motivational factor, belonging to intrinsic factors, Xu Zhiwei (2007) some studies showed that "salary" for high school teachers of different background variables, as a health factor in the Northern, southern and Eastern regions for the incentive factor, in the central region is neither incentive or non-health factors, is based on this research considered health factors and supporting tax reduction in number and correlation between mentor gives merit further study.

Research purposes
Referred to for background and motives, this study aims to explore the elementary school teachers in tax policy after the implementation of teaching is influenced, through aiming at supporting policy analysis results are clarified, and Herzberg's two-factor theory as proposed by State basis points into policies, the implementation of teaching effects of taxation, it is objective are as follows:
Understanding of elementary school teachers for cancelling the teacher salary income tax and tax measures implemented, the current status of teaching and service work.
Explore different background variables of primary school teachers, in motivating factors and differences in the health factors of job satisfaction.
Investigate the elementary school teachers in tax policy on teaching and service relevance.

According to the research results to make concrete proposals, for reference by education authorities and related academic research.

2. Literature review
According to the national legislation database (2012.12.01) check an overview of evolution of the income tax Act Amendment 53 times, which published related to the fourth amendment more than 16 times, from this point of view, career, identity and difference for tax, the appropriateness of the legislation ultimately is based on principles of taxing on capacity (ability-to-pay) and tax fairness (equity) comprehensive review of the amendments.

1. Teacher tax exemption related to empirical research as shown in the following table:
Table 2-1 cancellation of elementary school teachers in tax-related studies
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researchers</th>
<th>Era</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wu Xue-Qin</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>Study on the assessment of teachers in small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang Hui-Ping</td>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Framework and tax evasion – prospect theory in the study on the assessment of teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhang Xiu-Zhen</td>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Study on policy marketing-to cancel the tax allowance for elementary and junior high school teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cai Pei-Wen</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Elementary school educators, Tainan City to cancel teacher tax exemption policy advice research and Management Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wei Yu</td>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Taichung City elementary school educators on &quot;cancelling the teacher tax exemption policies and supporting measures&quot; opinion research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lin Hong-Chen</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>National education officer to cancel tax research-related attitudes of teachers in Tainan City as an example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chen Mei-Fang</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>To cancel &quot;the army teaches tax&quot; on welfare and economic impact study-application of computable general equilibrium model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huang Yu-Jie</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Taxation of School Teachers Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huang Cuo-Chang</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Response to small cancel the duty-free policy, teachers' finance and investment strategies of research-mainly in Kaohsiung area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jiang Sen-Yu</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Roland Barthes R. Barthes semiotic interpretation of &quot;abolishing the military tax programme&quot; means</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chen Su-Ju</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>Impact assessment for elementary school teachers' finance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chen Zi-Ling</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Taxation measures impact on acting teachers of teachers-the case of Taichung city in the country</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data source: to arrange Taiwan masters or PhD thesis knowledge and value systems
Recalling these events and related studies can be deduced, to maintain the "tax fairness" principle of fulfilling our constitutional obligations imposed by national tax, cancel special tax treatment of the body, respectively, and professional-level, has been the community consensus, teachers' income tax bill delayed more than 60 years, eventually ending under the influence of the political environment and social atmosphere; However, event does not so and stop, synchronization implemented of tax supporting Shi original purpose for "improved overall education environment", and class of Yu teachers, fill of Yu education of intent is eliminate China national education environment of drop, is not for was tax of teachers award-winning help measures of nature, is to, implementation near a years of tax supporting, what on school and the teachers work follow-up series of effect level has more wide, following will discussion the supporting of connotation. Discussion on teachers in tax measures related documents

"Teacher assessment to support" dates back from 1990, the Ministry of finance amend the income tax Act, proposed abolishing the military staff identity duty-free treatment, the Ministry of education also plans to have 1, 2, 3, 4, four bills, national teachers' Association, relevant packages including schools are required to have a full staff, lower class, reducing additional work for the prototype of the tax package. Lester
Stewart (2000) pointed out that the formulation of public policy development is a complex process, especially in the interests of different groups involved, that is the evolution of taxation measures after the Government departments, offices of bureaucrats and vested interests among the Group of teachers continue to review so far, 2011 was a consensus. Chen Qirong (2007) from the legal principle of trust protection principle teachers discussed tax policy, came to the conclusion to support "teacher tax exemption should be eliminated, but should research and develop relevant measures in advance."

Prior to supporting implementation of assessment research
Teacher tax exemption should be abolished, researchers mainly measures of assessment of the literature in the past according to the author, year, subject, participants and supporting arguments and so on, sort list as shown in table 2-4, in order to help researchers to understand and focus their attention.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researchers Era</th>
<th>Research themes</th>
<th>Research object</th>
<th>Research methods</th>
<th>Summary of the argument</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cai Pei-Wen 2006</td>
<td>Taichung City elementary school educators on &quot;cancelling the teacher tax exemption policies and supporting measures&quot; opinion research</td>
<td>City of Tainan County elementary school educators</td>
<td>Take a survey and interview</td>
<td>Reduce the number of elementary and junior high school teachers' teaching per week. Implementation of the elementary school guidance, building heart the auxiliary social work manpower. Increased junior high school and kindergarten teachers ($1,500 per person and month). Grant country on private small hired administrative manpower.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wei Yu 2006</td>
<td>Taichung City elementary school educators on &quot;cancelling the teacher tax exemption policies and supporting measures&quot; opinion research</td>
<td>Taichung City elementary school educators</td>
<td>Questionnaire and semi-structured interviews</td>
<td>Improving minority staffing. Reducing the number of teaching periods. Exempt teachers teaching has nothing to do with the work item. Reducing class size. Increase the fees for instructors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lin Hong-Chen 2007</td>
<td>National education officer to cancel tax research-related</td>
<td>Tainan City, national education</td>
<td>Take a survey and interview</td>
<td>Lower medium and small class sizes to 30 students per class</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
attitudes of teachers in Tainan City as an example

following. Junior and teacher staffing increase for two or more students per class, to reduce elementary and junior high school teachers on the weekly number of lessons. After income tax on teachers, the Government should be earmarked, on improving teaching equipment. About hiring additional administrative manpower, reducing the administrative burden on teachers. Should be exempt from work other than teachers and mentors for teachers returning to the teaching profession.

(Continued next page)

Table 2-4 (front page)

| Jiang Man-Tang, Wu Jia-Zhen, Xue Guo-Zhi, Zhang Jian-Hong 2009 | Resume assessment survey | Taiwan's 2009 minority teachers | Questionnaire surveys Qualitative surveys | Tax proceeds should be used to raise teachers' wages. Taxable income should be used to adjust the pay of teachers and improving the working environment. Taxation should give priority to increasing after preparation of the |
Director-General. After the implementation of assessment, class 6 the following additional guidance manpower. After the implementation of assessment, teachers the number of teaching periods per week should be reduced 3~4. Small class number should drop to 20~25 people.

Data source: the researchers themselves finishing

Overview above research, overall supporting measures nothing more than to "reduced teachers taught section number", and "improve mentor fee" and the "increased contracts hired administrative human and the counselling human" for spindle, but overall thinking still to teachers can return teaching professional and the improved education environment for core value where, the items supporting decision whether let teachers in teaching work or school administrative of school operation brings more big of effect, will is next chapters discussion of focus.

Supporting the implementation of assessment studies after Shi Huangyu (2012) for the supporting points for the overall policy analysis and research, found after the assessment of the overall policy does not meet expectations; "Salary" does not meet the expectations of teachers, but teachers still willing to work and put into education, taxation reduction policy, after the teacher preparation time than a week before the tax increase, but it increases the time difference; teachers are willing to become an Executive are less willing. In addition, "reducing the number of teaching periods per teacher per week" and "increase the special fee" may impact, make the following conclusions:

Policy lacks a complete set of matching measures, affecting the quality of education in the future. Treatment of working conditions change, affecting their willingness to future teachers into administrative work. Preparation time to be improved to comply with the policy to promote core values Implementation of assessment for elementary school teachers, Ministry of education, the Ministry of Internal Affairs and other relevant ministries to develop supporting measures, Teachers give a part-time system reduction conception of goodness, but the differences between urban and rural resources national one without an overall assessment of the application, In this school year (101) since the actual implementation, "the total number of students" unchanging premise teachers reduced clock the "difference" How to do? "The total number of teachers" lines at the time of the original number, the other provision to cover cost overrun the hour, reducing pay rise to annual expenditure of the budget problems. No doubt let the schools facing new issues started, looking at the discussion above, supporting primary education after the implementation of assessment related matters, just enough to echo the motivation for this research interest.
Herzberg Discussion on the two-factor theory of motivation theory developed between the 1950 and entered a boom period, which appeared in the content of these views and procedures, this research will be in the content view of the two-factor theory, stating as follows:

Background Theory
United States scientists Herzberg (Federick Herzberg) is the founder of two-factor theory, In 1959, and Bonade·Mosina, Babala·Sinaideman to share the work incentives in 1966 and the work presented in the book, and human nature theory of motivation and hygiene factors, arguing that when managers motivate subordinates, should distinguish between "stimulating factor" and "health factors", collectively referred to as "two-factor theory". Its theory can also be shown in Figure 2-1.

Figure 2.1 two-factor theory

Data sources: Chen Yi, Luo Kaiyang 2011, P159 Ding Mao management case analysis-theory and practice Hygiene factor content.

Hygiene Factors: Including company policies, administration, supervision, interpersonal skills, working conditions, wages and personal life ... And so on, most of the class factor itself is not directly related, when lack of these external factors will cause the employee at work does not meet, but there are also unable to increase satisfaction, in other words, these factors themselves have no incentive can only prevent employees' grievances, which belongs to the lower levels of demand, also known as "dissatisfier".

Motivators factors connotation
Motivators Factors: Include a sense of accomplishment, recognition, responsibility, jobs, growth and development and promotion ... This class factors most directly concerned with their work, when these internal factors exist, can make employees feel job satisfaction improve workplace morale, but will not be not meet for lack, belong to a higher level of demand, also known as "satisfier".
Taiwan education using the two-factor theory of empirical research
Two-factor theory in the late 1950 of the 20th century after the introduction of across half a century ago, Taiwan to Herzberg's two-factor theory to field a wide range, including education, health care, business and industry, financial services, and implementing research methods to quantify it, only few supplemented by interviews, the theory referred to employees in addition to the inherent psychological factors that can affect their job satisfaction in addition to external environmental factors also play a factor.

According to Herzberg (Herzberg) two-factor theory of the factors that influence the work was divided into two:
Directly associated with its influence on the degree of job satisfaction factor attributable to internal factors, called "motivational factor" teachers may encourage inspiration, can improve the work or willing to work, therefore, elementary school teachers in this study of the motivational factor to contain "job satisfaction", "responsibility" and "continuing growth" three dimensions. The definition as follows: Job satisfaction: refers to when engaged in teaching and services, to successfully achieve their set goals or tasks assigned by supervisor, solve problems, or to see their work.
Responsibility means responsibility and sense of Mission of teaching work amount of weight. Continuing growth: refers to teachers through school or participation in other bodies to organize professional development workshops, where they can be multiple growth opportunities.
And itself has indirect associated then effect on work not satisfaction degree of factor belonging Yu external of factor, called "health factor", and teachers personal may because health factor of not exists led to on work input degree reduced and raised not satisfaction, so, above this research will country small teachers of health factor its to degrees contains "relationships", and "salary system", and "school administrative", and "tax supporting" four level. The definition as follows: Relationships: refers to the teachers for their work with colleagues, students and parents to interact with the associated satisfaction levels.
The pay system: refers to the implementation of the pay system after the tax reduction policy, includes teachers pension (longevity pay), title given and bonuses.
School administration: refers to supporting the implementation of assessment, teachers for school administrative operations can provide related support satisfaction.
Assessment support: refers to assessment for primary and secondary school teachers, the Ministry of education awarded the book tax reduction is essential, teacher to the satisfaction of supporting.

Study on design and implementation of the study, in order to understand the elementary teacher faced challenges of assessment regarding the implementation of measures actually caused satisfied or not satisfied with the factors associated with the variables of motivation factors and health factors, to achieve the aim of this study is the questionnaire survey, Public elementary school teachers to survey data collected; this section will discuss the research framework, hypotheses, and research and its target, research tool, questionnaire survey and data processing, six sections, as described below:
Research framework

Architectural background containing teacher background this study background and school environment variable, independent variable the motivational factor is divided into three levels and health factors are divided into four levels, according to teachers' work is divided into two levels of teaching and service, to understand the relationship between variables. Constructed according to the motivation and purpose of the study and literature review, the study of architecture is shown in Figure 3-1:

![Diagram](image)

Figure 3-1 study chart

Research hypotheses

Based on questions and literature research hypothesis of this research, as described below:

H1: different background variables of elementary school teachers in "motivational factor city hills are significantly different.
H1-1: the "gender" teacher incentive factors have significant differences.
H1-2: different "ages" teacher incentive factors have significant differences.
H1-3: different "education level" teacher incentive factors have significant differences.
H1-4: the "marital status" teacher incentive factors have significant differences.
H1-5: different "teaching experience" teacher incentive factors have significant differences.
H1-6: different "positions" teacher incentive factors have significant differences.
H1-7: different "school" teacher incentive factors have significant differences.
H1-8: different "teach" teacher incentive factors have significant differences.
H1-9: different "school" teacher incentive factors have significant differences.
H2: different background variables of elementary school teachers in "health factor city hills are significantly different.
H2-1: the "gender" teachers in health factors have significant differences.
H2-2: different "ages" teachers in the health factors have significant differences.
H2-3: different "education level" teachers in health factors have significant differences.
H2-4: the "marital status" teachers in the health factors have significant differences.
H2-5: different "teaching experience" teachers in the health factors have significant differences.
H2-6: different "positions" teachers in the health factors have significant differences.
H2-7: different "schools" teachers in the health factors have significant differences.
H2-8: different "teaching" teachers in the health factors have significant differences.
H2-9: different "schools" teachers in the health factors have significant differences.
H3: Teachers' Incentive Factor "and" teachers 'There was a significant correlation.
H3-1: "job satisfaction" and teachers were significantly correlated.
H3-2: "accountability" is significantly correlated with teachers.
H3-3: "continuing growth" significantly correlated with the teachers' work.
H4: Teachers "health factors" and "teachers" There was a significant correlation.
H4-1: "interpersonal" There was a significant correlation with the teachers' work.
H4-2: "pay system" There was a significant correlation with the teachers' work.
H4-3: "school administrators' work significantly correlated.
H4-4: "Taxation supporting" There was a significant correlation with the teachers' work.
H5: teachers' motivation factor "in the" teachers "have significant predictive power.
H5-1: "job satisfaction" in the teaching work have significant predictive power.
H5-2: "sense of responsibility" in the teaching work have significant predictive power.
H5-3: "Continuing to grow" in the teaching work have significant predictive power.
H5-4: "job satisfaction" in the service work have significant predictive power.
H5-5: "sense of responsibility" in the service work have significant predictive power.
H5-6: "Continuing to grow" in the service work have significant predictive power.
H6: Teachers "health factor" in the "teachers" have significant predictive power.
H6-1: "interpersonal relationships" in the teaching work have significant predictive power.
H6-2: "payroll system" in the teaching work have significant predictive power.
H6-3: "School Administration" in the teaching work have significant predictive power.
H6-4: "Taxation supporting" work in teaching have significant predictive power.
H6-5: "interpersonal" work in the service have significant predictive power.
H6-6: "payroll system" work in the service have significant predictive power.
H6-7: "School Administration" in the service work have significant predictive power.
H6-8: "Taxation supporting" work in the service have significant predictive power.

Scope and Object
Scope of the study
In this study, 20 cities and counties of Taiwan Island public elementary schools for the sampling range, the preparation of the school year 101 counties national table based on the number of elementary school, Ministry of Education and Statistics Department, a total of 2,585 national primary schools. First, the range is divided into North (north of Hsinchu), Central District (Taichung County, Changhua County, Nantou County, Yunlin County) and Southern (Chiayi County, Tainan county, Kaohsiung counties) as a total of three regions standard partition, adopt convenience sampling approach to research. Formal questionnaire sent measure confined to manpower, resources and other factors, unable to carry out large-scale survey in Taiwan, according to school size, divided into small (12 classes or less), medium (13 to 48 classes), large (49 or more classes) school three class, take a convenient way to extract the 21 schools, a total of 380 samples, 353 recovered, the recovery rate was 92.8%, 335 valid
questionnaires, the utilization rate of 88%.

Data Processing
In this study, data processing is divided into two parts, the first questionnaire for the quantization process; secondly among multiple choice questionnaire respondents to open qualitative data handling, SPSS 18 software package as an empirical analysis tool, based on research objectives and hypotheses need, effective Sample coded and logged in, using descriptive statistics analysis, factor analysis, reliability analysis, validity analysis, t test, analysis of variance and other data analysis product research method, as described below: Quantitative description of statistical analysis questionnaire

In frequency allocation table and the percentage of law, amendments to the expert content aggregated and analyzed.
Arithmetic mean, standard deviation scores were calculated for each situation and ask facets of entry.
Independent t-test (t-test) the following test:
Teachers of different "gender" in the "incentive factors, health factors, teachers and Services" whether there are differences.
Teachers of different "marital status" in the "incentive factors, health factors, teachers and Services" whether there are differences.
One-way analysis of variance (One Way Analysis of Variance) the following test:
Different teachers of the "Age", "highest level of education", "years of teaching", "Positions", "school size", "teaching area", "school location" and other background variables, respectively variables from "motivation factor" "health factor" and the dependent variable 'teaching and service "in the overall level of each dimension carried out if there are significant differences. If the analysis of variance reached significant level, we will be further analyzed with multiple compared to determine differences in the case of the study sample.
Pearson’s product-moment Correlation the following test:
Incentive Factor and "teachers and Services" whether relevant.
Health factors and "teachers and Services" whether relevant.

(6).Multiple Stepwise Regression the following test:
1. Motivation factor for "teachers and Services" whether significant predictive power.
2. The health factor of "teachers and Services" whether significant predictive power.
Information: Use descriptive statistics for qualitative data the way collate be analyzed, and the resulting data is used to interpret the results of this study.

Study results and discussion
This chapter uses a questionnaire after investigators recovered from the data, and based on research purposes and to be answer questions, perform data processing and analysis, in order to understand the relationship between national primary school teachers to implement assessment supporting teaching and service work on the Influence.

Chouce 21 schools, a total of 380 questionnaires sent, 353 recovered, the recovery rate was 92.8%, excluding invalid and blank questionnaire 10 parts volume eight, 335 valid questionnaires, the utilization rate of 88%.
Gender: female predominance
Subjects were valid sample, men 83 people, accounting for 24.8%; female 252 people, accounting for 75.2%.
Age: 41 to 50 years old, mostly
Subjects were valid samples, 15 were 30 years of age, accounting for 4.5%; 31 to 40 years old 147, accounting for 43.9%; 41 to 50 years old 152, accounting for 45.4%; 51 to 60 years old 20 people, accounting .6 %; 61 to 65 years 1, accounting for .3%.

Highest level of education: University of majority
Subjects were valid samples, Dr. 2, accounting for .6%; MA (40 credits including course completion) 162, accounting for 48.4 percent; university 168 people, accounting for 50.1%; three specialist representing .9%.

Marital status: Married majority
Subjects were valid samples, married 251, accounting for 74.9%; unmarried 84 people, accounting for 25.1%.

Years of teaching experience: 11 to 15 years, mostly
16 subjects were valid samples, five years, accounting for 4.8%; 82 people 6 to 10 years, accounting for 24.5%; 11 to 15 years, 97 people, accounting for 29.0%; 16 to 20 years, 63 people, accounting for 18.8%; 77 more than 21 years, accounting for 23.0%.

Positions: grade teacher any majority
Subjects were valid samples, teacher and director of 20 people, accounting for 6.0 percent; teacher and head of the 44 people, accounting for 13.1%; grade any tutor 222 people, accounting for 66.3%; 41 subject teachers, accounting for 12.2%; leader and grade any teacher eight people, accounting for 2.4%.

School Size: 13 to 48 classes, mostly
Subjects were valid samples, the following 12 classes of 46 people, accounting for 13.7%; 13 to 48 classes 189, accounting for 56.4%; 49 classes over 100 people, accounting for 29.9%.

Teach Region: Northern majority
Subjects were valid samples, the northern 152 people, accounting for 45.4%; the central 67 people, accounting for 20.0%; Southern 116 people, accounting for 34.6%.

School Location: Downtown majority
Subjects were valid samples, Downtown 249 people, accounting for 74.3%; general township 50, accounting for 14.9%; 36 people in remote areas, accounting for 10.7%.

V. Conclusions and Recommendations

In this study, Herzberg (Herzberg) Two-factor theory point of view by empirical investigation, according to the findings of the survey of further statistical analysis, research results are summarized as follows:

Distribution of school teachers of background variables
Samples of this study mostly female teachers, about three-quarters; teach 40 to 50 years of age the majority, followed by the 31 to 40 years; the highest level of education in the University of the majority, followed by the master; accounting for about a quarter of married teachers III; years of teaching in 11 to 15 years in the majority, followed by 6 to 10 years; Positions to level any tutor majority, followed by the teacher and leader; school size of medium 13 to 48 classes in the majority, followed by the large 49 or more classes; teach Region In the northern part of the majority, followed by the southern region; the majority of schools position in the urban area, followed by general townships.
Teachers encourage small factor in the current situation has on satisfaction perception. School teachers of different background variables in incentive factor, the health factor of difference circumstances. Teachers encourage small degree of correlation factors, health factors and Teachers Work.

School teachers incentive factor between all levels and teaching work, showed a positive correlation, and reached significant levels. Health factors among school teachers and teaching at all levels, showed a positive correlation, and reached significant levels; factor at all levels between school teachers and service incentives, showed a positive correlation, and reached significant levels; which "Lesson tax package "the most significant correlation, thus informed, health factor for a small country to influence teachers' work satisfaction level of consciousness due to the higher degree of recognition of teaching work will also higher.

School teachers incentive factor, health factors and predictive power of teachers Work Hypothesis verification results

Based on the hypothesis of Chapter III and Chapter IV of the statistical analysis of each section, finishing validation results are summarized in Table 5-2

Table 5-2 hypothesis verification result table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research hypotheses content</th>
<th>Validation results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1: National primary school teachers of different background variables in the &quot;incentive factors&quot; have significant differences</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-1: the &quot;gender&quot; teacher incentive factors have significant differences.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-2: different &quot;ages&quot; teachers with significant differences in motivation factor.</td>
<td>Not support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-3: different &quot;education&quot; teachers with significant differences.</td>
<td>Not support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-4: Different &quot;marital status&quot; teachers with significant differences in motivation factor.</td>
<td>Not support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-5: different &quot;teaching experience&quot; teacher incentive factors have Partially significant differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-6: different &quot;positions&quot; teacher incentive factors have significant Partially supported differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-7: different &quot;school&quot; teacher incentive factors have significant Partially supported differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-8: different &quot;teach&quot; teacher incentive factors have significant Partially supported differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1-9: different &quot;school&quot; teacher incentive factors have significant Partially supported differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: different background variables of elementary school teachers in &quot;health factor city hills are significantly different.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-1: the &quot;gender&quot; teachers in health factors have significant Partially supported differences.</td>
<td>Not support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-2: different &quot;ages&quot; teachers in the health factors have significant differences.</td>
<td>Not support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research hypotheses content</td>
<td>Validation results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-3: different &quot;education level&quot; teachers in health factors have significant differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-4: the &quot;marital status&quot; teachers in the health factors have significant differences.</td>
<td>Not support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-5: different &quot;teaching experience&quot; teachers in the health factors have significant differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-6: different &quot;positions&quot; teachers in the health factors have significant differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-7: different &quot;schools&quot; teachers in the health factors have significant differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-8: different &quot;teaching&quot; teachers in the health factors have significant differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2-9: different &quot;schools&quot; teachers in the health factors have significant differences.</td>
<td>Partially supported</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>H3: Teachers' Incentive Factor &quot;and&quot; teachers &quot;</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There was a significant correlation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3-1: &quot;job satisfaction&quot; and teachers were significantly correlated</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3-2: &quot;accountability&quot; is significantly correlated with teachers.</td>
<td>Not support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3-3: &quot;continuing growth&quot; significantly correlated with the teachers' work.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>H4: Teachers &quot;health factors&quot; and &quot;teachers&quot;</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There was a significant correlation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4-1: &quot;interpersonal&quot; There was a significant correlation with the teachers' work.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4-2: &quot;pay system&quot; There was a significant correlation with the teachers' work.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4-3: &quot;school administrators 'and teachers' work significantly correlated.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4-4: &quot;Taxation supporting&quot; There was a significant correlation with the teachers' work.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>H5: teachers' motivation factor &quot;in the&quot; teachers &quot;</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>have significant predictive power on.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5-1: &quot;job satisfaction&quot; in the teaching work have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5-2: &quot;sense of responsibility&quot; in the teaching work have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5-3: &quot;Continuing to grow&quot; in the teaching work have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5-4: &quot;job satisfaction&quot; in the service work has significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5-5: &quot;sense of responsibility&quot; in the service work have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>Not support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5-6: &quot;Continuing to grow&quot; in the service work have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
H6: Teachers "health factor" in the "teachers" have significant predictive power on.

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H6-1: &quot;interpersonal relationships&quot; in the teaching work have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6-2: &quot;payroll system&quot; in the teaching work have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6-3: &quot;School Administration&quot; in the teaching work have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6-4: &quot;Taxation supporting&quot; work in teaching have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6-5: &quot;interpersonal&quot; work in the service have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6-6: &quot;payroll system&quot; work in the service have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6-7: &quot;School Administration&quot; in the service work have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6-8: &quot;Taxation supporting&quot; work in the service have significant predictive power.</td>
<td>support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: This study finishing
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Teaching Positive Psychology: Successes and Challenges in Implementing Two Introductory Short Courses at Waseda University, Japan

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Abstract
Diverging from the ‘deficit’ model prominent in much of 20th century psychology, positive psychology may be defined as the scientific study of positive human phenomena - including happiness, hope, and human potentials. Since its emergence in the 1990s, positive psychology has undergone a rapid proliferation in theory, research, and applications. Parallel with this, there has been an ‘explosion’ of taught positive psychology programmes, particularly at tertiary level. Several of these (e.g., at the University of Pennsylvania and the University of East London) are Master’s degree programmes with more extensive curricula, while many others take the form of certificates, diplomas, or ‘short’ courses. This paper reviews the structure, content, and implementation of two 8-week short courses - titled ‘Introduction to Positive Psychology: Theory and Research’ and ‘Introduction to Positive Psychology: Issues and Applications’ - at Waseda University, Japan. Successes and challenges in the implementation of the courses are discussed.

Keywords: positive psychology, teaching, higher education, Japan, curriculum development, learning, culture
Positive psychology

Positive psychology may be broadly defined as the science of wellbeing – the psychological study of positive emotion (e.g., happiness, joy, contentment, pleasure), positive character (e.g., kindness, optimism, resilience, wisdom), and, to a lesser extent, positive institutions (e.g., family, schools, community, civic organisations). Sheldon and King (2001) describe positive psychology as “the scientific study of ordinary human strengths and virtues” and note that it “…revisits the ‘average person,’ with an interest in finding out what works, what is right, and what is improving” (p. 216).

The inception of positive psychology in the late 1990s is commonly credited to Martin Seligman (e.g., Seligman, 2002; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), though it should be noted the discipline’s name, ontological and epistemological positions and subject matter are not new. Shapiro (2001), for example, points out that Abraham Maslow discusses a study of human strength and virtue in a chapter entitled ‘Toward a Positive Psychology’ in his book *Motivation and Personality* (Maslow, 1954). Positive psychology’s widespread adherence to empiricism also follows the traditions of mainstream 20th century psychology (e.g., Rowan, 2005). Furthermore, as several critics (e.g., Fernández-Ríos & Cornes, 2009; Kristjánsson, 2012, 2013; Lazarus, 2003) have noted, the study of wellbeing, happiness, strengths and virtues did not begin with positive psychology in the 2000s, but rather have been studied both empirically and otherwise in older disciplines such as philosophy, anthropology, and humanistic psychology.

Although many of the above criticisms are valid, some strengths of positive psychology should also be noted. For example, despite its tendency to put “old wine in new bottles” (Kristjánsson, 2012), positive psychology has produced a vast array of empirically grounded interventions which reliably decrease depressive symptoms and increase wellbeing, often for extended time periods (e.g., Seligman, Ernst, Gillham, Reivich & Linkins, 2009; Seligman, Steen, Park & Peterson, 2005; Sin & Lyubomirsky, 2009; Waters, 2011). The discipline has also served to bring together the modest range of wellbeing research existing within mainstream psychology in the 20th century (e.g., that of Csikszentmihalyi, Diener, Ryff, etc.) and led to a strong expansion in the generation of research focused on the positive aspects of psychological phenomena (e.g. mental health versus mental illness, positive emotion versus negative emotion, human strengths versus weaknesses; Seligman et al., 2005). In the last 15 years, researchers in positive psychology have also embarked on investigations of relatively novel topics such as positive aspects of time perspective (e.g., Boniwell & Zimbardo, 2004), ‘happiness economics,’ (e.g., Diener, Lucas, Schimmack & Helliwell, 2009; Layard, 2005; Veenhoven, 2008), and post-traumatic growth (e.g., Joseph & Linley, 2008). This work has complemented the large volume of psychological research which has focused on deficits and pathology during the 20th century.
Teaching positive psychology

The foremost example of positive psychology teaching at higher education level is the Masters in Applied Positive Psychology (MAPP) programme, an MSc-level postgraduate course which introduces students to basic and advanced theory and research in positive psychology and in which students engage in furthering positive psychological knowledge through their own theoretical and research projects. The first MAPP programme was founded by James Pawelski at the University of Pennsylvania in 2005/6, where it is currently co-directed by Martin Seligman. Shortly after the founding of MAPP at Pennsylvania, a similar MAPP programme was created by Ilona Boniwell at the University of East London in 2006/7. Both the US and UK MAPP initiatives have grown in size and popularity since their inceptions, and consistently attract students from diverse demographic and occupational backgrounds, including from industries such as education, consulting, business, and the voluntary sector (e.g., Hefferon, 2012). Although the two programmes differ considerably in terms of their modes and methods of delivery, assessments, and teaching staff, students on both programmes tend to be highly engaged with the subject matter and frequently give positive evaluations of the courses as enabling openness to learning and self-transformation. A recent qualitative study of students on the MAPP programme at the University of East London found that their experiences were consistently positive, highlighting benefits such as close bonding among classmates, opportunities for personal reflection, a safe and meaningful learning environment, and a sense of having ‘come home’ (van Nieuwerburgh & Lech, 2015).

Since MAPP opened its doors on either side of the Atlantic, other positive psychology courses have emerged at universities in different parts of the world, including both undergraduate and postgraduate level courses. Mihalyi Csikszentmihalyi and Jeanne Nakamura run graduate-level programmes in positive developmental psychology and positive organisational psychology at Claremont Graduate University in California. Also in the US, Tal Ben-Shahar taught an undergraduate-level programme on positive psychology which famously became the most popular course in the history of the university (Russo-Netzer & Ben-Shahar, 2011). There is a Graduate Certificate in Applied Positive Psychology run by Anthony Grant at the University of Sydney and a suite of graduate-level positive psychology courses at the School of Positive Psychology in Singapore. City University in central London offers a 10-week short course of introductory positive psychology, run by Tim LeBon. Ilona Boniwell has recently launched a new Executive Certificate in Positive Leadership at the École Centrale in Paris. Finally, several new comprehensive MSc-level positive psychology programmes have been launched – including at the University of Aarhus, Denmark, Anglia Ruskin and Buckinghamshire New Universities in the UK, and the University of Melbourne, Australia.

Together, the growth in positive psychology courses at universities around the world signals that the popularity of the discipline is increasing, which will, in the future, contribute to more graduates applying its frameworks to diverse sectors, areas of industry, and teaching and research at doctoral level (Hefferon, 2012).

Positive psychology short courses at Waseda

Positive psychology has been a little slower to gain ground in Japan, though this has been changing with the increasing publication of positive psychological research from...
within Japanese education, industry, and community contexts (e.g., Naito, Wangwan & Tani, 2005; Otake, Shimai, Tanaka-Matsumi, Otsui & Fredrickson, 2006; Shimazu, Schaufeli, Kosugi, et al., 2008) and through the activities of organisations such as the Japan Positive Psychology Association and the Japan Positive Education Association.

To the best of the author’s knowledge, there are currently no courses at tertiary level in Japan which offer instruction relating to positive psychology, meaning there appears to be a gap in positive psychology teaching in Japanese universities. In order to begin to remedy this, two positive psychology short courses were initiated at Waseda University in Tokyo during the spring semester of the 2015 academic year. The courses, running consecutively for eight weeks each, were titled *Introduction to Positive Psychology: Theory and Research* and *Introduction to Positive Psychology: Issues and Applications*. The former course was designed with the aim of introducing students to several of the major positive psychology topics, giving them opportunities to discuss both theory and examples of research in these areas. The latter had two aims: to introduce students to several of the applied fields of positive psychology and to challenge them to think critically about positive psychology as a discipline. A summary of the topics addressed in the courses appears in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>Introduction to Positive Psychology: Theory and Research</em></th>
<th><em>Introduction to Positive Psychology: Issues and Applications</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective wellbeing</td>
<td>Conceptual and historical issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological need fulfilment</td>
<td>Positive psychology in the workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental health</td>
<td>Positive psychology in education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow</td>
<td>Public policy for wellbeing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character strengths</td>
<td>Diversity and social justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resilience and post-traumatic growth</td>
<td>Philosophical issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student presentation day</td>
<td>Student presentation day</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Course topics

Due to time and scheduling constraints, some selectivity was required in choosing the topics to be covered in both courses. In *Theory and Research*, for example, topics such as subjective wellbeing, mental health, flow, and character strengths were given priority over gratitude, hope, and mindfulness because it was felt that these topics have a longer history within (and prior to) positive psychology, have been more extensively researched, and may have more far-reaching influence in the various applied domains of positive psychology. In *Issues and Applications*, the workplace, schools, and public policy were selected due to their prominence as domains of applied positive psychology, while the key critical issues selected for coverage were conceptual and historical (for example, the degree to which positive psychology acknowledges, or fails to acknowledge, the influence of its predecessor disciplines),...
diversity and social justice (for example, the degree to which positive psychology is or is not characterised by racist or classist underpinnings), and philosophical (ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions underpinning positive psychology).

In both courses, classes included a variety of different formats, generally consisting of lecture segments, individual, pair, and group activities, and class discussions. These were combined with one another rather than being used separately. For example, classes usually began with a lecture segment in which a topic would be introduced; this segment would then be interspersed throughout the class period with pair, group, and discussion activities to give students opportunities to ‘break down,’ question and critique each section of the lecture. This was encouraged through the use of both critical questions (e.g., “Can you identify three ‘pros’ and three ‘cons’ of applying positive psychology to educational settings?” in Issues and Applications) and reflective exercises (e.g., “How do you feel about your life satisfaction scale score? Do you think it accurately reflects you?” in Theory and Research). Some pair and group activities also involved creative tasks in which students were asked to design or draw original positive psychology initiatives (e.g., a ‘wellbeing policy’ for the local community in Issues and Applications).

Finally, assessments on the courses were each divided into three components. A written component required students to compose a 1500-word critical essay on one of two topics (their learning journey through the course or how they intended to apply the course to their future career for Theory and Research; classism or racism in positive psychology for Issues and Applications). This was aimed at encouraging students to read independently in the area of positive psychology and develop persuasive arguments on key positive psychology issues. A practical component required students to conduct a creative group assignment in which they independently researched and designed an original positive psychology project (with a ‘mental health in Japan’ theme in Theory and Research and a ‘positive psychology interventions in the workplace’ theme in Issues and Applications). Students then presented their projects to their classmates in the final class. This component was aimed at developing skills such as teamwork, critical and creative thinking, and public speaking and presenting. A class participation component assessed students on their participation within in-class activities, for example in terms of their contributions to class discussion, input in pair and group tasks, and effort given to learning exercises.

The students

The courses were offered in affiliation with Waseda’s Global Education Center, an interdisciplinary ‘hub’ department offering university-wide courses to students of any level and from any disciplinary background, including some from other universities. This meant that the courses attracted a diverse group of students. Total enrolment for Theory and Research was 24 students (four males and 20 females), consisting of undergraduates in their first to fifth year at Waseda, of whom five were of International status (three from South Korea; two from China), two were exchange students (from Singapore and Sweden), and those remaining were of domestic (Japanese) status.
For *Issues and Applications*, total enrolment was 18 (five males and 13 females), consisting of undergraduates in their first to fifth year at Waseda, of whom four were of International students (three from South Korea; one from China), two were exchange students (from Singapore and Sweden), and those remaining were of domestic (Japanese) status. Most (16) students enrolled on *Issues and Applications* were existing students who had been enrolled in *Theory and Research* in the previous quarter; two were new.

For both courses, students came from a variety of departments and faculties; many were based at Waseda’s School of International Liberal Studies, whilst others came from social sciences, political science, education, English, psychology, and economics backgrounds.

**Successes in implementing the courses**

The implementation of the courses was largely successful, as indicated by several factors including students’ responses to the courses (both in person and through assessments) and their involvement with an ongoing evaluation of the courses. Some of these successes are summarised below.

*Informal feedback was positive.* Informal feedback solicited from students was largely positive. This included written feedback such as comments made on course evaluation forms distributed by the Global Education Center. These related mainly to the critical content of courses and the discussion-based methods used (such as “opportunities to ask questions” and “asking students’ opinions”). In addition to written comments on evaluation forms, several students also made comments in person or communicated their feedback via email.

*Several students volunteered to be interviewed for an ongoing pilot study.* Following the implementation of *Issues and Applications*, a class-wide invitation was made to recruit participants in an interview-based pilot study evaluating students’ experiences on the course. This resulted in several students volunteering to be interviewed about their experiences on the course, including their decision to apply to enrol on the courses, their expectations regarding the course content and delivery methods, and their impressions of their learning journeys. Interviews in this pilot study are ongoing and are undergoing analysis using a Thematic Analysis approach (Rombs, 2016, forthcoming).

*Quality of assessment submissions was generally high.* The vast majority (21 in *Theory and Research* and 15 in *Issues and Applications*) of students submitted work for assessment. Of the 24 students enrolled on Theory and Research, most (19) submitted work of a quality to meet the grading criteria and other standards publicised to students at the beginning of the course, thus achieving pass grades (three students achieved a C grade, 11 achieved a B grade, and five achieved an A grade). Of the 18 enrolled on *Issues and Applications*, most (13) also met pre-publicised criteria and standards, achieving pass grades (four achieved a C grade, four achieved a B grade, with the remaining five achieving an A grade).
Students’ participation increased over time. Over the combined 16-week course implementation period, students’ in-class participation increased in the areas of both pair and group activities and class discussions. This may have been associated with increased familiarity with course content and teaching methods.

Retention was generally good. Student retention rates were generally good for both courses. For Theory and Research, three students were consistently absent from class and did not submit work for assessment, with the remaining students both attending class (being absent no more than three times during the quarter) and submitting work for assessment. For Issues and Applications, three students were consistently absent from class and did not submit work for assessment, with the remaining students both attending class and submitting work for assessment.

Challenges

Although students’ response to the courses were generally positive, the courses also posed a number of challenges. These related mainly to discrepancies between teacher and student expectations of acceptable workloads and teaching methods, and constraints posed by language and the physical environment.

Content quantity and workload. On the course evaluation forms distributed to students by the Global Education Center at the end of each course, some students noted that they felt the workload assigned to them was too great in relation to the length or scope of the courses. These comments appeared to be associated with weekly homework or reading assignments rather than course assessments.

Discrepancies in English language level. English language proficiency (including spoken and written English) was generally sufficiently high for most students to engage with the content and requirements of the courses. However, two students (one South Korean International student, one domestic student) commented on several occasions during the courses that they frequently struggled to understand class activities or were concerned about preparing their assessment work in English. Of these, the domestic student solicited help from an English writing center at Waseda and was able to achieve a pass grade. The International student solicited additional teacher assistance during office hours, however subsequently made the decision not to continue attending the Issues and Applications course. Although the number of students struggling with English language requirements was low relative to the total enrolment size, discrepancies between required and actual English language level remain a challenge in the implementation of both courses for students who do have concerns within this area.

Discrepancies between expected and actual teaching methods. Many students (including domestic status students) enrolled on the courses had existing experience of overseas (especially Western/Socratic) teaching methods and were accustomed to the conversational, discussion-based teaching format used in classes. However, such teaching methods may have been more challenging for students accustomed to Asian/Confucian teaching formats in which focus is given to acquisition of essential knowledge rather than to questioning or critiquing such knowledge to create new knowledge (Tweed & Lehman, 2002).
Constraints posed by physical environment. Constraints posed by the physical environment related mainly to the number and arrangement of desks and seats in the assigned classroom. Seating tended to be arranged in rows facing the blackboard or projector screen, with the number of seats and desks in the room making it impractical to rearrange seating into ‘pods’ or ‘islands’ to facilitate group work and greater student interaction.

Conclusions

Although the teaching of positive psychology has successfully ‘taken off’ in many parts of the world, courses available in Japanese universities remain limited and there appears to be a need to expand positive psychology teaching in the region. Despite a number of cultural, environmental, and expectation challenges, the implementation of two positive psychology short courses at Waseda University in the 2015 academic year was successful and presented opportunities to gain insights into the learning needs of two diverse groups of students. The pilot study currently being implemented to evaluate the courses will be essential in understanding students’ experiences of these courses in more detail and, vitally, from the perspective of students themselves. Findings yielded by the pilot study are planned to be used to inform the development of the courses for re-implementation in the 2016 academic year, during which they may also be re-evaluated with regard to student learning and experience.
References


**The Educational Philosophy and Teaching Style Preferences of College Faculty at the University of Perpetual Help System DALTA**

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Lopita U. Jung, University of Perpetual Help System DALTA, Philippines

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Official Conference Proceedings

**Abstract**

This study aimed to determine the educational philosophy and teaching styles of the college faculty of the University of Perpetual Help System DALTA in the campuses of Las-Piñas, Molino, and Calamba, south of Metro Manila, Philippines. Specifically, it sought to determine the relationships between the college faculty educational philosophy and teaching styles and the University’s philosophy and teaching style preferences. One hundred and five faculty members from the College of Education and the College of Arts and Sciences responded to the survey during the academic year 2014-2015. The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) designed by Zinn (2004) was used to measure the faculty’s preferred educational philosophy whereas the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) developed by Conti (2004) was used to measure the faculty’s teaching style preferences.

Findings showed that the University and its faculty members did match with the progressive and humanistic educational philosophy. The differences were evident in the preferred teaching styles of both groups, the University and the faculty. This study revealed that majority of the faculty members hold the progressive educational philosophy in which their preference for the teacher-centered teaching style seemed to contradict their own belief and the University’s preference for a learner-centered teaching style. This implies that teachers are certain of embracing the progressive educational philosophy, but they do not apply this philosophy’s central tenet, i.e., the learner-centered teaching style. Hence, the researchers recommend that a high degree of support in the form of continuous faculty development activities which range from seminars, trainings, team-building activities, retreats, and the like be initiated and extended by the institution to its faculty members. These activities will help both the institution and the faculty to enhance their sense of commitment toward achieving the institutional goal.

**Keywords: Educational Philosophies & Teaching Style Preferences**
Introduction

Learning is the purpose of all education. This is the main reason why teachers must always be conscious of their teaching practices. How teachers extend and share knowledge to their students is vital to this fast-changing society. As Bain (2004), signified, the teachers are the engineers in the learning environment, and no matter how they differ in the way they engineer their classroom environment, what truly counts is the outcome of their teaching, that is what makes a great difference in every teacher.

Too many educators have already expressed their concern on the role of teachers in the education process (McCarthy & Anderson, 2000; Andreescu, 2009; and Brookfield, 2012). They were certain in clarifying that if a teacher acts as the transmitter of knowledge, he or she is considered as a teacher-centered persona, but if the teacher allows the students to construct knowledge based on his guidance, he or she is considered a live performer of a learner-centered approach. In their effort to shed light in the issue between teacher-centered and learner-centered approaches, Conti, (2004), Elias and Merriam, (1995), Galbraith, (2004), Kauchak and Eggen, (2008) all agreed that teacher-centered may be considered an authoritative approach of teaching practice, but a conservative one in a sense that it gives importance to the values and knowledge that have survived through time. They all advanced that the major teacher-centered educational philosophies would be liberal and behavioral, while the student-centered would be democratic, self-regulated, problem-centered, and collaborative. The student-centered approach is focused on engaging students for challenging activities which are responsive to their individual needs. The belief that the learner must be the center of the teaching-learning process is what progressivism, humanism, reconstructionism and existentialism hold. These philosophies embrace the ideal of having the students and the teachers work together in determining what must be learnt and in learning how to learn.

To put some order on these foregoing concepts, Bago,( 2010), Henschke,( 2010), and Petress, (2003) concluded that educational philosophy must be the basis in shaping the structure as well as the goals of the teaching relationship between the teacher and the student. Thus, the concept of teaching, with all its descriptions of how it should be delivered by the teacher constitutes every single teacher’s teaching philosophy and beliefs on education.

Relative to the above is the University of Perpetual Help System DALTA’s (UPHSD) institutional philosophy. The University fosters the belief that national development and transformation is predicated upon the quality of education of its people. Thus, it is committed to the ideas of teaching, community service and research, with “Character Building is Nation Building” as its guiding principle (UPHSD handbook). In its effort to achieve its goals, the University maintains and provides for sustaining excellence in education. However, as many educators would agree, no institution or organization is ever perfect. The institution may have instituted an extensive network of national and international linkages in Higher Education and Business, but this study reveals that the area which is often considered as the backbone of every educational institution, the faculty teaching practices, has not yet been fully instituted. It is through this context and the researchers’ exposure as teachers in the tertiary level that they took cue in conducting this study. Moreover, the researchers were interested...
in shedding some light to what most faculty members in the University may consider progressive and a healthy teaching practice, but in reality may not be helpful and supportive of the current educational environment that this fast-evolving society dictates. The results of this study would be beneficial not only to the faculty in general, but also to the University in particular as the findings would be a significant information for the teacher’s awareness of their most preferred educational philosophy and teaching styles and of the University’s as well.

Research Objectives

The main objective of this research was to investigate whether the college faculty members’ general educational philosophy is congruent to the institution’s philosophy.

The specific objectives of were:

1. To identify the educational philosophy dominant among the faculty members of the University;
2. To examine if the general educational philosophy of the faculty is parallel to that of the University's philosophy;
3. To identify the teaching style preferences of the faculty members;
4. To determine the relationships between educational philosophies and demographic factors of the faculty such as gender, age, and length of teaching; and
5. To identify the relationships between educational philosophies and teaching style preferences of the faculty.

Hypotheses

1. There are no statistically significant relationships between educational philosophies and demographic factors.
2. There are no statistically significant relationships between educational philosophies and teaching style preferences.

Methodology

A mixed-methods sequential explanatory design was used in this study. This design consists of two distinct phases, the quantitative followed by qualitative (Creswell et al. 2003). Survey method was utilized in the quantitative phase, while document analysis and interview method was used in the qualitative phase. One hundred five (105) college faculty members were randomly selected and responded in the survey during the 2nd semester of school year 2014-2015. Educational philosophy was measured using the Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) (Zinn, 2004) and teaching style was measured using the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) (Conti, 2004).

The Philosophy of Adult Education Inventory (PAEI) was developed by Lorraine Zinn in 2004. It measures five educational philosophies namely: liberal, progressive, behaviorist, humanistic, and radical. This inventory consists of 15 sentences with five different options for completing the sentences. Each options has a 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree with (4) neutral point in completing each sentences. According to Zinn (2004), there are no right or wrong
answers; the participant will simply choose the response that he or she most likely or most frequently does. If someone scores high in three or more orientations or evenly among all of them, the individual may need to clarify their educational beliefs and values and look for possible contradictions between them (Powell, 2006; and Zinn, 2004). The highest scores represent the philosophy the participant is most likely to exhibit in teaching. The lowest scores represent the educational philosophy the participant is least likely to practice. A score of 95 to 105 indicates that the participant strongly agrees with that educational philosophy. A score of 15 to 25 is considered a low score and indicates that the participant strongly disagrees with that particular philosophy (Zinn, 2004).

Table 1
Description of the Five Educational Philosophies Used in PAEI
Lorraine Zinn (2004)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Philosophy</th>
<th>Key Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behaviorist</td>
<td>Education is for behavioral change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive</td>
<td>Education is for the development of practical problem-solving skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radical</td>
<td>Education is for major social and economic change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>Education is for intellectual development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanist</td>
<td>Education is for self-actualization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PALS (Conti, 2004) on the other hand, was developed by Gary Conti in 2004. This instrument determines the teaching styles of adult educators. It identifies how often an educator practices a teacher-centered or learner-centered approach and to determine the frequency an adult educator practices teaching style. It consists of 44 items with a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 0 to 5 (0= Always, 1= Almost always, 2= Often, 3=Seldom, 4=Almost never, 5=Never). According to Conti (2004), the lowest possible score on PALS is zero, and the highest possible score is 220. The teaching style of the educator and how strong that style can be determined by comparing the educator’s score to 146. Whereas, a learner-centered approach is indicated by a score higher than 146 and a score lower than 146 indicates a teacher-centered approach. The further scores are from 146 indicate a stronger commitment to a particular style. It is possible to have middle-range scores indicating the educator exhibits a learner-centered as well as a teacher-centered approach to teaching (Conti, 2004).

This study had focused only on the following dependent and independent variables: gender, age, and length of teaching experience as independent variables; while faculty member’s philosophical orientation and teaching style preference as dependent variables.

The relationship of educational philosophy and teaching styles to demographic variables was investigated using one-way ANOVA. A separate one-way ANOVA was conducted for each of the independent demographic variables and were tested at the .05 significance level. Chi-square Test of Independence was used to determine the relationships between the two teaching styles with the five philosophies.
Results and Discussions

Based on the objectives of this study, the following summary of findings were drawn:

Table 2
Distribution of the Five Philosophies of the College Faculty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Philosophy</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>47.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radical</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>105</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that nearly half of the teachers (47.6%) have a strong support for progressive philosophy. Faculty members were not equally distributed among the five educational philosophies. Five (4.8%) had radical philosophy, and fourteen (13.3%) have two or more philosophies.

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics of PAEI Scores (n=105)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Radical</th>
<th>Behavioral</th>
<th>Liberal</th>
<th>Progressive</th>
<th>Humanistic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>71.88</td>
<td>80.12</td>
<td>75.86</td>
<td>86.82</td>
<td>80.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>73.00</td>
<td>81.00</td>
<td>76.00</td>
<td>87.00</td>
<td>79.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>68°</td>
<td>80°</td>
<td>76°</td>
<td>85°</td>
<td>77°</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>11.56</td>
<td>7.78</td>
<td>9.02</td>
<td>9.22</td>
<td>9.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>133.66</td>
<td>60.63</td>
<td>81.45</td>
<td>84.93</td>
<td>95.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
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<td>Minimum</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>55</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 depicts that the highest mean score of the respondents in the PAEI is 86.82 which is under the progressive type of educational philosophy. The above findings showed that the faculty members favored a progressive philosophy, and to a lesser extent the Behavioral and humanistic philosophies.
Table 4
Cross-Tabulation of Respondents’ Philosophy and Teaching Styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Philosophy</th>
<th>Teacher-Centered</th>
<th>Learner-Centered</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanistic</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radical</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>68</strong></td>
<td><strong>37</strong></td>
<td><strong>105</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that 68 of the faculty claimed to practice a teacher-centered teaching style, while the rest (37) claimed to be learner-centered.

Table 5
Pearson Correlation of Philosophies and Demographic Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Liberal</th>
<th>Behaviorist</th>
<th>Progressive</th>
<th>Humanist</th>
<th>Radical</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Liberal</td>
<td>.81**</td>
<td>.59**</td>
<td>.38**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviorist</td>
<td>.72**</td>
<td>.42**</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive</td>
<td>.55**</td>
<td>.26**</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanist</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radical</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at 0.05 level**

Table 5 depicts that gender and teaching experience were the only two demographic variables which had a statistically significant relationship with philosophy ($p < .05$). There was a statistically significant gender difference (see Table 6 in the appendix) for humanistic philosophy ($F = 4.890, p=0.032$). The female faculty members have a stronger support of humanistic philosophy than males because females scored higher on humanistic philosophy on the PAEI than males.
Table 7
Chi-Square of Philosophies and Teaching Styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Chi-Square</td>
<td>2.610</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.625</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Likelihood Ratio</td>
<td>3.446</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linear-by-Linear Association</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N of Valid Cases</td>
<td>105</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 depicts that there is no statistically significant association ($X^2 = 2.610$) between the five philosophies and teaching styles among the faculty.

The Educational Philosophy of UPHSD

Based on context analysis, as stated on the institution’s philosophy, the following keywords that are high-lighted were analyzed to be progressive and humanist views of philosophies: “The UPHSD believes and invokes Divine Guidance in the betterment of the quality of life through national development and transformation, which are predicated upon the quality of education of its people. Towards this end, the institution is committed to the ideals of teaching, community service, and research as it nurtures the value of “Helpers of God,” with “Character Building is Nation Building,” as its guiding principle.

Consequently, based on the result of the researchers’ interview to a random sample of the faculty, it was found out that most of the faculty have a dominant philosophy of being a humanist and progressive which really matched the institutions’ alignment to these philosophies as well.

Discussions

The above findings showed that the faculty members in this survey favored a progressive philosophy, and to a lesser extent the humanistic philosophy, yet they prefer a teacher-centered teaching style. Demographic variables of the faculty could be one factor of this mismatch. This is because teaching experience and gender found to have a statistical significant relationship to educational philosophy. These associations may indicate that those faculty members who had teaching experience of more than 5 years tend to commit on a progressive and humanist philosophies, yet they practice a teacher-centered teaching style.

Another contributing factor that the researchers looked at was the previous teaching experiences of the faculty who participated in this study. Some of them are former basic education teachers who had previous teaching experience in one or more grade/high school level in the basic education curriculum; such as in the college of
education and Liberal Arts. Literature reviewed stated that most preschool, elementary and secondary schools are a culture of a traditional and teacher-centered academic environment.

Statistically, those who scored lower than the PAEI mean or in the “low level of commitment” to their educational philosophy could be a possible explanation for those who had mixed philosophies.

Furthermore, based on context analysis, the stated philosophy of the UPHSD was determined to be progressive and humanistic, this is a match with the the result in PAEI survey and interview among the faculty. On the other hand, based on the OBE framework, the teaching style preference of the UPHSD is determined to be learner-centered which did not match with those of the faculty members’ preference for teacher-centered teaching style.

The UPHSD do not clearly declare that the college faculty must have an educational philosophy which matches the institution’s philosophy. It is not delineated by the institution if it is necessary for faculty to commit to learner-centered teaching, although there were trainings provided for them with regards to learner-centered teaching style and also the OBE curriculum favors it. If the institution made it clear to the faculty whether or not they were expected to model the learner-centered, then the need for faculty commitment to it would be established and at the same time would fuel the University’s drive for a sustainable educational excellence.

**Conclusions**

Conclusions in this study are based on the findings concerning the college faculty members of UPHSD. These were stated as follows:

1. The results of the PAEI indicate that most of the faculty had dominant educational philosophies of progressive and humanist. Statistically, based on findings, demographic variables such as age and teaching experience found to have significant relationships to educational philosophies. This implies that age and teaching experience is one contributing factors to educational philosophy. The higher the age and teaching experiences of the teachers, the more likely they tend to be progressive or humanist in their teaching ideology.

2. The PALS results showed that majority of the faculty are teacher-centered. Statistically, both the learner-centered group and the teacher-centered group had the largest portion of their scores in PALS which indicated a statistically “moderate commitment” to one of these teaching styles. This implies that the faculty members of UPHSD in this study tend not to stick on either of the teaching styles or they are more likely to use more than one teaching method.

3. The statistical significant gender difference for humanistic philosophy implies that the female faculty members tend to have a stronger support for humanistic philosophy than males because females scored higher on humanistic philosophy on the PAEI than males.
4. The statistical significant association of age to teaching style implies that faculty in this study whose ages are from 40 and above and had previous experiences teaching in different levels/grades in the basic education curriculum are still opt to use teacher-centered teaching style.

5. There was no statistical significant association between the educational philosophies and teaching styles. Statistically, the variables are independent or no association at all; this means that those faculty members in this study who have more than one educational philosophy also tend to have a mixed teaching method.

6. Despite the obvious match between the school and teachers’ educational philosophies on progressive and humanist, the actual teaching strategy does not match the school’s philosophy of being progressive and learner-centered.

Recommendations

Based on the analysis and conclusions, the following recommendations are given:

1. The professional development of the faculty at UPHSD can be strengthened through trainings or workshops on the conceptual framework of the learner-centered teaching style embedded in the OBE curriculum. This could mean that with exposure and knowledge about these can increase the level of commitment to practice learner-centered activities.

2. Further research should be conducted to investigate whether the classroom application of teaching methods and teacher-learner exchanges of the college faculty at UPHSD are teacher-centered or learner-centered. This would expand the results of this study to discover if the actual classroom behaviors of the teachers is similar to their educational ideology.

3. Further research should be conducted to investigate whether the students at UPHSD believe their teachers employ teacher-centered or learner-centered teaching styles.

4. Further research should be conducted to determine if there is disagreement between the educational philosophy and teaching style among college faculty at other universities. It could broaden the scope of this study’s conclusion. This would either confirm the findings of this study.

5. Further research should be conducted to determine if there is association between other personal factors such as age and the field of specialization of the college faculty is teaching to their educational philosophy; and to their teaching style.
References


## Appendix

### Table 6 ANOVA of PAEI and Gender

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. *</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Radical</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>227.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>227.2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>131.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Behavioral</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>4.44</td>
<td>.072</td>
<td>.790</td>
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<td>61.93</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>10.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.67</td>
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<td>103</td>
<td>83.09</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>83.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>426.8</td>
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* *p < .05 level

### Table 8 ANOVA PAEI & Teaching Experience (N=105)

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
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<th>F</th>
<th>Sig. *</th>
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<td><strong>Radical</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>89.003</td>
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<td>134.697</td>
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<td><strong>Behavioral</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>177.803</td>
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<td>177.80</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Liberal</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
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<td>492.336</td>
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<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>7405.39</td>
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<td>71.897</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<td></td>
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<td><strong>Progressive</strong></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>22.003</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>.255</td>
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<td>Total</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Humanistic</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Between Groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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*p < .05 level
Table 9  
Demographic Variables

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Age</th>
<th>F</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
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<td>4.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>17.1</td>
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<td>56-60</td>
<td>13</td>
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<td>61-65</td>
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<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gender
- Female: 81 (77.2%)
- Male: 24 (22.8%)

Length of Teaching Experience
- Less than five years: 34 (32.4%)
- Five and above years: 71 (67.6%)

Contact e-mail: grace.severo2012@gmail.com
The Relationship between the Motivation for I-Ching Learning, Life and Family Satisfaction in a Lifelong Learning Program of I Ching University

Li-Yueh Chen, Weixin Shengjiao College, Taiwan
Chen-Mei Li, Weixin Shengjiao College, Taiwan
Po-Chang Lin, MingDao University, Taiwan
Ying Lee, National Kaohsiung Marine University, Taiwan

The Asian Conference on Education 2015
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The purpose of this study is to explore how adult perform high level of learning motivation in I-Ching study, which facilitates life satisfaction and family satisfaction. I Ching University, a nonprofit social education oriented organization is the pioneer of lifelong learning in Taiwan. The University contributes to the promotion of I-Ching education. The sampling method conducted comprised of, 473 responders enrolled in the Weixin master’s program at I Ching University. The result indicated that (1) Female responders in both family togetherness of learning motivation and overall learning motivation were significantly higher than male responders. (2) Age, family togetherness and social stimulation of learning motivation have a positive relationship. (3) Social contact, social stimulation, and cognitive interest of learning motivation have positive prediction effects on life satisfaction. (4) Social contact and cognitive interest of learning motivation and overall learning motivation have positive prediction effects on family satisfaction. This finding signifies the differences in both age and gender will have different perception on the importance of learning motivation. Increasing the levels of social contact and cognitive interest of I-Ching learning motivation effectively facilitates life satisfaction and family satisfaction. Recommendations for future research on adult lifelong learning are also included.

Keywords: I-Ching education, Learning motivation, Life satisfaction, Family satisfaction
Introduction

In 2008, the US sub-prime mortgage-linked debt triggered a global economic crisis leading to the global outbreak of unemployment. According to Taiwan’s Labor Quarterly (2009) reported that the 2008 financial crisis could influence the job market causing cyclical unemployment which could rapidly deteriorate and bring about widespread unemployment. This would affect the young and highly educated population. This could develop into a long-term issue affecting unemployment and would require attention in finding a solution to the problem. The statistical data from the Directorate General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics, Executive Yuan, R.O.C. showed that in 2008, the average number of unemployed people in Taiwan was 450,000 and the average number of weeks of unemployment was 25.3 weeks. Forty-five to sixty-four year olds had the highest unemployment rate among all age groups. The reduction of monthly family income visibly is putting pressure on family life and a source of social instability and worry. In additional, In December 2009, one of the world’s three major credit rating agencies - Fitch Ratings downgraded Greece’s credit rating, thus igniting the EU debt crisis that expanded to Portugal, Italy and Spain and other countries. The Economist magazine reported that Greece’s financial problems spread to Portugal, Spain, and other countries, creating turmoil on the global financial market. Some Member States fear the problems in the financial market will cause some euro zones to become unstable and feel it will threaten economic stability.

In the eve of May 13, 2014, anti-Chinese riots took place in Vietnam, losing control of the situation, large crowds stormed into the Taiwanese industrial zone destroying and burning buildings and equipment. Vietnam has always been a significant place of investment for Taiwan in Southeast Asia. Soong Jenn-jaw (2014) pointed out that Taiwan’s businesspersons were the most affected and suffered great loss during the riot. With a total of 2,287 Taiwanese investments in Vietnam, more than 224 companies were affected. According to the R.O.C. Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the total number of Taiwan businesspersons in Vietnam amounted to 40,000 people. Taiwan provided some 1.4 million jobs to the Vietnamese locals. The Taiwanese investment in Vietnam injected a lot of money and technology to the local economy, promoted local economic development and provided many jobs contributing to Vietnam’s economic development. The individuals involved in the anti-Chinese riots in Vietnam not only lost their jobs but also destroyed the country’s economic development. If international investors withdrew from Vietnam, the results would be catastrophic to the Vietnamese economy.

In the systematic environment of society, the family does not exist alone but is part of a pulsating environment. In 2008, the global financial crisis led to a global unemployment problem, and then in 2009 Greece’s fiscal problems occurred and spread to Portugal and Spain, and put the global financial market in turmoil. Then in 2014, the anti-Chinese riots occurred in Vietnam. All these derive from the financial, fiscal, political, economic and cultural environmental changes. This affects employment opportunities of individuals, thereby, affecting families’ own resources and source of pressure. So, every individual should learn how to deal and cope with environmental change, this will aid individuals and their family to a large extent.
Lifelong learning has become significant in the shaping of national and international education policy, linked with both global economic competition and goals of equality and social cohesion (Holford et al., 2008). Research shows that motivated learners are more likely to undertake challenging activities, to be actively engaged, to enjoy and adopt a deep approach to learning, and to exhibit enhanced performance, persistence, and creativity (Schunk, et al., 2008). Jagodzinski (2009) has reported that life satisfaction is directly related to goals and wishes for today and the future, as well as personal expectations of reaching or fulfilling such goals. Research on family satisfaction is widely believed that both personality and interpersonal orientation are shaped by the crucible of the family. Family satisfaction is a person’s felt experience of perception about the quality of the relationships and life within a family. The I-Ching is one of the oldest classics in China. It reveals three universal principles of life, that of Change, unchanging and simple change. The character 易 (I) contains three layers of meaning. Although the universe is in a constant state of change its essential principle is eternally unchanging. Whoever is able to understand and penetrate the simple words and deep meaning of the classics will use simple words to explain complicated things. By mastering and adhering to the principles, one can follow the right direction in life and attain a state where one is able to cope with constantly changing situations. I Ching University in Taiwan has contributed to promoting the Chinese culture I-Ching. However, the purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between the motivation for I-Ching learning, life satisfaction, and family satisfaction in the set of an adult lifelong learning system.

The case: I Ching University

The I Ching University was founded in 1994. By adopting the way of religious education to promote lifelong learning, the University has been a pioneer of the lifelong education in Taiwan. The establishment of I Ching University was in part to carry forward the wisdom of the ancient sages of China and to inform our generations of the importance of our Chinese cultural heritage towards humanity. The meaning of I Ching University derives from a text called “the Great Learning (also called Da Xue)”, this text indicated that “What the Great Learning teaches”. What is call “Da Xue” does not only refers to an individual’s scope of learning but includes learning reciprocally between two people, between a person and a group, between a person and society, and between a person and a nation. Learning to get along with each other, and all humankind. However, the idea of I Ching University has corresponded with the five pillars of lifelong learning, which was proposed by United Nations Educational, Science and Cultural Organization, UNESCO. The five pillars of learning consisted of learning to live together, learning to know, learning to do, learning to be, and learning to change.

The founder of I Ching University, Master Huan-yuan believe that the book of changes is a beacon of peace for the world. In 1985, Master Huan-yuan while discussing a passage in the I-Ching which clearly points out that the origin of the book of changes in China goes back 7’000 years, and has not been abandoned, it will have its essential meaning, in which could not be overturned. It is an indispensable method still in existence for the good of humanity. We also hope that all human beings are able to recognize that in order to preserve the human race we also need to live in peaceful coexistence and compassion with one another. We also need to realize that constancy and change of conscience of the human race is peace, and only then we will
be able to reach eternal constancy. Only the human race has the ability to change or remain constant, and continue to move forward. When each individual’s mind is at ease and in balance it will manifest outwardly resulting in a universal brotherhood and an environment of peace around the world.

I Ching University popularizes the concept of a lifelong learning society; this can be demonstrated by the taiji picture in Figure 1. According to the Statistics Department of Ministry of Interior, R.O.C. (2015), under 21 years old (inclusive) population is the total population of 23.22% and above 21 years, old (inclusive) population is the total population of 76.78%. Most people are around 22-year-olds after they graduate from University, they work until retirement at age 65, and this is proximally 1,513,000 people amounting to 62.44% of the total population. This shows that Taiwanese people under the age of 21 on average spend a quarter of their life in formal institutions of education. Therefore, about 62% of the populations currently from all fields of workplace are given work responsibilities and challenges of professional capabilities.

Figure 1 The lifelong learning in I Ching University by taiji figure

An individual adopting the knowledge and skills, which they received 21 years ago in formal school education to face another 60 years of life’s challenges will not be enough. In the era of ever-unpredictability, may not be able to afford the social, economic and technological, environmental challenges and changes. Master Huan yuan pointed out that “Everyone study the I-Ching, behave and feel at ease; Everyone study the I-Ching, be healthy and carefree; Everyone study the I-Ching, do your work with satisfaction; Everyone study the I-Ching, every adult and child will be intelligent; Everyone study the I-Ching, every company and customer will feel secure; Everyone study the I-Ching, the family will be satisfied and of one mind; Everyone study the I-Ching, practice what you have learned and you will see the way; Everyone study the I-Ching, the country’s society will see peace.” Based upon the “eight instructions”, the I Ching University has constructed an education system for lifelong learning to meet the social environmental change in Taiwan. The education system consisted of five dimensions. There are faculty education, which raising and cultivating talented people, social education, which promoting community lifelong learning, student education, which cultivating younger generation, enterprise education, which strengthening the capability of organization sustainable development, and religious practice, which advocating the idea of grateful practice in the daily life. Additional, the cloud classroom in the International College of I Ching University has been constructed to promote Chinese culture, I-Ching and Feng Shui globally.


**Lifelong learning and learning motivation**

Looking at the global development of lifelong learning within China’s ancient traditional culture there is a concept which states “You’re never too old to learn”. Lifelong learning is deeply rooted in Chinese society. Confucius was China’s greatest and most important educator 2,500 years ago. His ideas about learning contained an abundance of contemporary ideas for lifelong learning. Confucius said: “Is it not pleasant to learn with constant perseverance and application? Illustrating that learning is an enjoyable activity. When I was fifteen, I became dedicated to my studies. When I was thirty, I could stand on my own. At forty, I was no longer confused. By fifty, I truly understood the ways of the world. At sixty, I could judge correctly whatever I heard. At seventy, I could do whatever my heart desired and not violate the dictates of morality” (The Analects, Weizheng). “Who in eager pursuit of knowledge forgets about food, who in the joy of attainment forgets his sorrows and does not perceive the coming of old age” (The Analects, Shu Er). Confucius considers that a person should study throughout his life, and have a practical and realistic approach to study. This is the attitude which a learned society should have regarding lifelong learning. Confucius advocated a learning process combining study, action, and thinking, starting an energetic principle of practice.

With regard to the concept of lifelong learning, the I Ching University founder Master Huan Yuan in the Year of Jiawu Weixin Shengjiao Puja Praying for Peace and Thanking the heavens (December, 2014) stated, “The sect is established by heaven and earth, which is called “Heaven” and “Yang”. The principles were established by the sages for all the creatures of the world. The established principles are “Yin”. Within heaven, earth and humans, humans stand between Yin and Yang. From conception until the age of sixty, we exist within yin on earth. After sixty years of age you surpass, and return to heaven, this is after age sixty-one. Therefore, living sixty years and not knowing how to correct one’s self. When we are sixty years old, we still do not know all the rules, within there is a spirit. We are in the earth for sixty years; this is our body, heart, and soul. We are on earth haggling for fame and fortune, and complaining of a life full of love, hatred and sorrow. Sixty years, and not knowing how to correct one’s self, or not correcting one’s self and making it right, is six decades of erroneous thinking with bitterness and resentment. If we surpass sixty years of age, we should cherish it! Dying at sixty years of age is called a natural death, one can die at peace. If a person dies within sixty years without not knowing how to correct themselves, that is really a tragic life, a real pity. We come from the world of heaven, and once we enter a body, we have a form and color that allows our heart to feel pain, that is a real pity. Therefore, when facing the masses, we can say that dying at sixty years of age or above is dying without regret.

In the year of Kimi Weixin Shengjiao Ninety-nine Puja (September, 2013), Master Huan yuan stated that “A turtle has a lifespan of 360 years, and some live even longer, but a turtle does not possess the faculty of thought, therefore, no thought of an intelligent existence. Humans have wisdom of life but a limited lifespan. The structure of the human body has a very subtle life intelligence that is wisdom. Therefore, we read countless of books, people who read more books and leave behind the true words, even our life's are brief, our life wisdom is boundless. When Sakyamuni Buddha reached 81 years of age, the number of heaven and earth, he returned to the great earth, returning the flesh back to the earth. Sakyamuni Buddha had used forty-nine years to...
expound Buddhist sutras, and to speak out the language of every person’s soul, the wisdom of the spirit which constitutes life wisdom.

Research on what motivates adults to participate in education has revealed that the motivations of adult learners to participate are diverse. Houle (1961) focused on the research in adult learners participating in continuing education activities. As a result of the interviews, Houle identified three subgroups of adult learners: (1) the goal-oriented, (2) the activity-oriented, and (3) the learning-oriented. Goal-oriented adults pursue education as a means of achieving an objective such as taking a course to get a better job. Activity-oriented adults engage in learning for social reasons unrelated to the purpose or content of the activity, such as making friends and escaping unhappy relationships. The learning-oriented adults seek knowledge for its own sake. Hori and Cusack (2006) pointed out that older adults’ attitudes toward aging are intricately connected to their motivation to participate in social activities. Those who hold positive attitudes are more willing to participate in social activities, and consequently, enjoy a richer lifestyle. The activity theory suggests that encouraging older adults to voluntarily join social activities is conductive to improving their satisfaction towards life.

However, taken together, Barbara McCombs (1991) suggested the following key characteristics of motivation and lifelong learning: (1) Learning and motivation to learn are natural human capacities in social contexts and relationships supportive of the learner and in content domains perceived as personally meaningful and relevant. (2) What and how much is learned is a function of each learner’s unique views of themselves and learning process, including their goals, expectations, and interpretations of task requirements. (3) Insecurities and other forms of negative cognitive conditioning interfere with or block the emergence of individual’s natural motivation to continually learn, grow, and develop in positive and self-determining ways.

**Life and Family Satisfaction**

In psychology, life satisfaction is conceptualized as an individual’s “mental” (Tennant et al., 2007) or “subjective/psychological” well-being (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008). Life satisfaction is defined as a general judgment or evaluation of a person on his or her own life (Pavot, Diener, Colvin, & Sandvik, 1991). Weinstein & Laverghetta (2009) pointed out that life satisfaction refers to the judgmental process whereby individuals compare their real-life situations and ideal situations. Studies have showed that life satisfaction is related to mood clarity (Extremera, Duran, & Rey, 2009), self-esteem (Shek, 2005), perceived social support (Edwards & Lopez, 2006), parental support (Suldo & Huebner, 2006), material adjustment (Celik & Tümokay, 2012), religious beliefs, optimism (Acun-Kapikiran, 2012; Türküm, 2005), positive affectation (Busseri, Sadava, & Decourville, 2007), self-compassion (Deniz, Arslan, Ozyesil, & İzmirli, 2012, self-esteem (Taysi, 2000), and openness (Sheldon & Hoon, 2007). Family satisfaction is defined as “the degree to which one is satisfied with one’s family of origin and the constituent relationships embedded therein” (Carver & Jones, 1992, p. 72). Rossiter and Pearce (1975) note that “satisfying relationships with other people are established through communication and that our ability to communicate well is important” (p. 3). The type of family communication, environment and daily conversations occurring among family members influence this
perception of quality or satisfaction (Schrodt, Witt, & Messersmith, 2008). Religious beliefs, values, and practices play a significant role in many family systems and in the development of adolescent worldviews (Smith, Denton, & Regnerus, 2002). Individuals with strong religious faith reported higher levels of personal happiness (Ellison, 1991). Families who are a part of a religious organization often report increased closeness between parents and children (Snider, Clements, & Vazsonvi, 2004). Family religious activities can facilitate better family interaction and provide opportunities to communicate desires, shared goals, and emotional healing between children and parents (Mahoney, Pargament, Tarakeshwar, & Swank, 2001).

**Research hypotheses and model**

Based upon the viewpoints in the literature reviews the present study explores how adults perform during the high level of learning motivation in I-Ching study, and how it facilitates their life satisfaction and family satisfaction. Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses and research model:

H1: The level of learning motivation in I-Ching study is positively correlated with life satisfaction.

H2: The level of learning motivation in I-Ching study is positively correlated with family satisfaction.

To study the research questions, the following research model was developed.

![Research model diagram]

**Figure 2 Research model**

**Sample**

The sample participants for this study were students enrolled in the Weixin Master’s Program at I Ching University. The Weixin Master’s Program, established by Weixin Shenjiao (唯心聖教) with the purpose of cultivating future teachers for I Ching University. A total of 519 students agreed to take part in this study. A total of 473 participants returned the questionnaires with a response rate of 91.13%. 
Measurement

To assess the characteristics of the participants and their lifelong learning motivation for I-Ching learning, life satisfaction, and family satisfaction in I Ching University, the questionnaire was divided into four sections. Section one solicited socio-demographic information such as level of education, age, gender, and year of learning in Weixin master program. The second section of the questionnaire was a modified version of Boshier’s 1991 Education Participation Scale (EPS, A-form) to measure participants’ lifelong learning motivation in I Ching University. The modified final version of the EPS used in this study contained five dimensions: (1) social contact, (2) family togetherness, (3) social stimulation, (4) cognitive interest, and (5) social contribution. The third and fourth part of the questionnaire was to measure the perception of the participants’ life satisfaction and family satisfaction. The SWLS (Diener, et al., 1985) was designed to measure individuals’ overall satisfaction with their lives. The SWLS is composed of five items (e.g., “In most ways my life is close to my ideal”), which are rated on a 7-point scale from 1=strongly disagree to 7=strongly agree. The measurement of family satisfaction, was adopted from part of wellbeing questionnaire (Lu, Gilmour, Kao, Huang, 2006). Participants were asked to rate their family satisfaction on two questions: “My family life is very enjoyable” and “All in all, I am satisfied with my family”.

Research Findings

Gender, Age and Learning Motivation Analysis

This study analyzed gender differences in learning motivation and found that men and women achieve significant differences in the family togetherness factor with an overall average score ($p <0.01$), the other four factors were not significantly different. After inspection, we found that women’s learning motivation and overall learning motivation scores for Family togetherness was significantly higher than men. Overall, the results show that women had higher learning motivation than men and more obviously within Family togetherness.

Table 1 Examination of gender for learning motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LM</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social contact</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>3.679</td>
<td>0.620</td>
<td>-1.838</td>
<td>445</td>
<td>0.067</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family togetherness</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>3.190</td>
<td>0.762</td>
<td>-2.743**</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social stimulation</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>2.547</td>
<td>0.724</td>
<td>-1.496</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>0.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive interest</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>4.047</td>
<td>0.541</td>
<td>-0.803</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>0.423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social contribution</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>4.157</td>
<td>0.430</td>
<td>-1.261</td>
<td>443</td>
<td>0.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Score</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>3.514</td>
<td>0.458</td>
<td>-2.781**</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of LM</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>3.644</td>
<td>0.471</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *$p < .05$*, **$p < .01$**
This study conducted a Pearson correlation analysis on age and learning motivation, it found that age and Family togetherness \((r = .127, p < .01)\) and Social stimulation \((r = .127, p < .05)\) have a significant relationship in learning motivation, indicates that older participants, in general, have more learning motivation in Family togetherness and Social stimulation. In addition, the higher the age, the higher the level of life and family satisfaction.

Table 2 The Pearson correlation analysis on age and learning motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Social contact</th>
<th>Family togetherness</th>
<th>Social stimulation</th>
<th>Cognitive interest</th>
<th>Social contribution</th>
<th>Overall LM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ages</td>
<td>-0.030</td>
<td>0.127**</td>
<td>0.120*</td>
<td>-0.037</td>
<td>-0.086</td>
<td>0.044</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *\(p < .05\), **\(p < .01\)

Table 3 The descriptive statistics analysis of life and family satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Life Satisfaction</td>
<td>4.738</td>
<td>1.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Satisfaction</td>
<td>5.413</td>
<td>1.185</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regression analysis on the effect of learning motivation on life satisfaction

This study used seven scales to measure the degree of family and life satisfaction, the results show a (Mean = 4.738) in family satisfaction and a (Mean = 5.413) for life satisfaction, both measures presented slightly above average levels of satisfaction (see Table 3).

Table 4 The descriptive statistics analysis of life and family satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Life Satisfaction</td>
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<td>Family Satisfaction</td>
<td>5.413</td>
<td>1.185</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 Hierarchical multiple regression analysis between learning motivation and life satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Life Satisfaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>M1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SE 3 p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Variables</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.569 .044 .318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Predictors</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social contact</td>
<td>.088 147* .019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family togetherness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social stimulation</td>
<td>.094 140* .012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive interest</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social contribution</td>
<td>.183 048 .363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall LM</td>
<td>.022 .390** .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R^2$</td>
<td>.223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted $R^2$</td>
<td>.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\Delta R^2$</td>
<td>.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$F$-value</td>
<td>16.408**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIF</td>
<td>1.416</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .05. **p < .01; VIF = Variance inflation factor.

Regression Analysis on the effects of learning motivation on family satisfaction

This study used multiple hierarchical regression analysis to conduct prediction analysis on the effects of learning motivation on family satisfaction. Gender and age had significant differences and significant correlations in learning motivation. The participant’s gender and age were the control variables, and the five factors of learning motivation were the independent variables and family satisfaction was the dependent variable. The analysis results showed that within learning motivation model’s 3 and 4 of social contact ($\beta = .151, p < .05$), cognitive interest ($\beta = .159, p < .01$) and overall learning motivation ($\beta = .276, p < .01$) all could significantly predict family satisfaction (see Table 5).
Table 5 Hierarchical multiple regression analysis between learning motivation and family satisfaction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Family Satisfaction</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M3</td>
<td>SE</td>
<td>β</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.227</td>
<td>.108*</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.162**</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social contact</td>
<td>.035</td>
<td>.151*</td>
<td>.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Family togetherness</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td>.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social stimulation</td>
<td>.038</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cognitive interest</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.159**</td>
<td>.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Social contribution</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.045</td>
<td>.418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall LM</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.276**</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .05. **p < .01; VIF = Variance inflation factor.

Conclusion and Discussion

Each individual is part of a family, and families make up the social and cultural systems. Different social and cultural systems have a mutual effect that influences world peace. Faced with highly competitive global trends, and financial, political, banking, economic, socio-cultural, and industrial unrest, and a rapidly changing environment. I Ching University begins its education from each body and soul by teaching the I-Ching and allowing individuals to have positive energy and knowledge of wisdom to adjust to the rapid changes in the environment and promote harmony within every family and social stability, thereby achieving the ultimate goal of world peace. This study tries to understand the different backgrounds and learning motivations of the participants, and what kinds of learning motivations can improve the lives of individuals and their family satisfaction. This is an important reference as to the enhancement of student learning and their ability to respond to the environment. First, this study found that the overall learning motivation of the I-Ching and Family togetherness motivation by women to be significantly higher than men, this shows that women have higher learning needs and hope that through learning the I-Ching they can enhance their ability to manage their household. Second, the study found that the older participants’ Family togetherness and Social motivation were also significantly higher, their family satisfaction and life satisfaction was generally better. This showed that older participants hoped that through the study of the I-Ching they could enhance their problem-solving ability to solve and manage family issues and expand their social networks increasing family satisfaction.
Third, the study found that the overall learning motivation can positively predict life satisfaction. Again, we used the social contact, social stimulation, cognitive interest to study the predictive results of learning motivation which made it even clearer the results echoed by Türküm (2005) and Acun-Kapikiran (2012) which found that religion significantly enhance the individual’s life satisfaction. In addition, from Hori and Cusack (2006) activity theory, which points out that participation in social network activities or learning activities can promote life satisfaction. Therefore, I Ching University satisfies participant’s interpersonal relations and the quest for knowledge actively promoting social education, enterprise education, and religious practice. Fourth, the study found overall that learning motivation can significantly predict family satisfaction. Past studies by (Ellison, 1991; Smith, Denton, & Regnerus, 2002) have pointed out that religious beliefs can produce higher levels of happiness benefiting the family. I Ching University stresses the educational concept of the “unity of knowledge and practice” this concept is not only for the study of the I Ching but also to allow students all over the world to together, making friends, growing in spirit and maturing in wisdom, hoping students will learn the magnificence of the I-Ching and can have a happy family and be actively engaged in servicing society. Finally, we suggestions that future research explores the different learning effects, such as job satisfaction, physical and mental health, or explore the different groups, such as college youth and teachers.
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De-colonizing Canadian Post-Secondary Education

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Kathy Snow, Cape Breton University, Canada

The Asian Conference on Education 2015
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
In Canada, the recent Truth and Reconciliation Committee of Canada Report (2015) revealed the devastating impact of over a century of forced assimilation on Indigenous peoples. In the educational context, assimilation manifested itself in the residential school system, a system which existed from the late 19th century until 1996 and whose mandate was to “Kill the Indian in the child” (Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada [TRCC], n.d.). Though the closure of the last residential school marks a significant shift in Indigenous educational policy, many scholars argue that the Canadian post-secondary education system continues the process of colonization by excluding culturally relevant content and maintaining Eurocentric teaching approaches. In this paper we will examine the ongoing process of Truth and Reconciliation in Canada by first outlining the impact of colonial practices on the current participation of Indigenous students in post-secondary education as measured by enrollment and completion rates. In the second half of the paper, we will use a case-based approach to illustrate more inclusive post-secondary educational practices that can benefit both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students. More specifically, we demonstrate decolonization efforts in two course initiatives in history and education. We aim to illustrate how the inclusion of Indigenous pedagogy facilitates cross-cultural understandings when the four Rs (respect, relevance, reciprocity and responsibility) of Kirkness and Barnhard (2001) are applied as a framework to course design.

Keywords: Indigenous Education, Qualitative Research, Case Study, Instructional Design
Introduction

Released in June 2015 following an exhaustive seven year study, The Truth and reconciliation commission of Canada report revealed the destructive impact of centuries of assimilationist governmental policies on the Indigenous communities of Canada. These policies are most dramatically embodied in the residential schools system, which has left a legacy of physical and mental abuse impacting not only individuals but the social fabric of communities for generations. Moving forward, the report called for a “process of truth and healing” in order to encourage reconciliation between both Indigenous and non-Indigenous communities (TRCC, 2015, p. 23). The report called on Canadians “to practise reconciliation in our everyday lives” and encouraged reconciliation in all Canadian institutions, including the education system, based on the fundamental premise that healing can only occur when colonizer and colonized share a mutual understanding of past wrongs and a sense of mutual respect (TRCC, 2015, p. 21).

In our paper we begin with a brief overview of the Truth and reconciliation commission of Canada report (2015) and then examine the reasons suggested by current literature for the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous completion rates within Canadian educational institutions. In the second half of the paper, we propose some suggestions for moving forward at the post-secondary level through two cases studies, which illustrate practical applications of the report recommendations in teaching in the humanities and education. Our analysis will show how with some modification to pedagogy and content it is possible to create a more inclusive educational environment that meets the needs of both Indigenous and non-Indigenous learners.

The authors

Before we continue with our analysis, we feel it is important to stop at this juncture and, in the tradition of Indigenous teaching, outline the position of the authors, both of whom stand in a precarious position as privileged others, or members of the colonizing class. By presenting the bias we bring to the analysis it prepares you, the reader, to better interpret the lens we have applied in our discussions (Wilson, 2008).

Robert Lawson is a fourth generation Canadian of European descent who works as an instructional designer at the University of Manitoba. Given his background, he has mixed feelings about researching and writing about Indigenous pedagogy. As a non-Indigenous person, one can feel as though one is trespassing into an area they have no right to speak about, particularly given Canada’s legacy of colonization. On the other hand, an instructional designer has an obligation to create courses that are universally accessible to every student regardless of ethnicity or physical limitation.

Kathy identifies herself as a third culture child, having been raised in Inuit communities as a non-Inuit, she neither feels fully at home in the “south” nor the “north” of Canada. Positioned in this liminal space, much of her research and teaching is guided by critical pedagogy as she seeks to explore the inherent biases dominant culture brings to learning spaces.
The Legacy of Colonialism and Indigenous Approaches to Education

The truth and reconciliation commission of Canada report presents a depressing portrait of the legacy of Canadian residential schools, which were part of broader government efforts since the 19th century to assimilate Indigenous peoples into Canadian society by extinguishing their culture. Indigenous children were forcibly taken from their homes and sent to boarding schools in order to destroy cultural links with their families and their communities. Upon arrival at a school, they were forbidden from speaking their native language and in many cases deliberately separated from siblings or other relatives. As the report attests, conditions in the schools could be horrific:

Schools were for the most part badly constructed, poorly maintained, overcrowded, insanitary fire traps. Many children were fed a substandard diet and given a substandard education, and worked too hard in manual labour tasks. For far too long, they died in tragically high numbers [that went unacknowledged by the larger populace of Canada]. Discipline was harsh and unregulated; abuse was rife and unreported. It was, at best, institutionalized child neglect. (TRCC, 2015, p. 43).

In sum, over 150,000 Indigenous and Métis children were sent to residential schools, 6,000 of whom perished from malnutrition, disease and other causes (TRCC, 2015).

Given the horrific legacy of residential schools, it doesn’t surprise that a large portion of the Indigenous population feels both angry and powerless towards both the government and educational institutions. Not only are those who experienced the residential schools impacted, but also their children and their childrens’ children. This is exemplified in statements made by Wab Kinew, the son of a residential school survivor and public speaker in Canada:

I went out into the world as an angry young man in my high school and early university years. I ended up getting into a lot of trouble. Not just mom-and-dad-trouble, like real, legit, getting arrested trouble, for drinking and driving or getting into fights…. My father was put into a situation where he was powerless. It unleashed anger and rage inside of him, and that unleashed something in him that overtook a big chunk of his life. My experience growing up wasn't as severe as his was by any means, but it was similar in that I was made to feel powerless. Instead of a priest and a nun, it was my father. (Kinew, 2015)

Wab’s story begins to explain the discrepancy between Indigenous and non-Indigenous student completion rates in higher education, which is statistically significant. According to Parkin (2015), 29% of Indigenous Canadians have no high school leaving certificate vs. 12% for non-Indigenous; further, 48% of Indigenous vs. 65% of non-Indigenous Canadians have completed some form of post-secondary credential (2015, p.18). Parkin goes on to note that the gap between Indigenous and non-Indigenous student university completion has widened by about 5% since 1996 (p. 19). He attributes these lower graduation rates to the legacy of colonialism (as cited in Sachgau, 2015): “You’ve got generations of grandparents and parents who were scarred by their experience in education,” he said, referring to Canada’s
residential schools. “They’re hardly going to trust that system when it comes to educating their children.” (n.p.).

Beyond the legacy of colonialism, there are other proposed reasons for lower Indigenous completion rates at Canadian universities and colleges. The Indigenous population of Canada is made up of many diverse cultures, from the Inuit of the north to the Haida of the west and the Mi’kmaq of the east; there are more than fifty language groupings found among the Indigenous People of Canada and greater still are the number of cultural groupings. Yet educational initiatives have often erroneously been reduced to a one size fits all approach to “Indigenous education.” At the risk of sounding reductionist, which is the very issue at the heart of the critiques of Indigenous education, there have been some common pedagogical characteristics identified among the varied nations, as there are also some commonalities for teaching and learning found across the varied western/European cultures. Many of these accepted common characteristics contrast sharply with traditional university teaching methods, particularly with respect to relationships. In traditional European classrooms, a “pyramid” symbolizes the relationship between students and teacher; the professor is an expert who transmits information to learners and has “power over” their class (Alberta Education, 2005, p.18). In Indigenous approaches, there is a reciprocal relationship between the teacher and the learner. The circle, a prominent symbol for many Indigenous communities, is emblematic of this reciprocity or “power with” (Alberta Education, 2005, p. 18) because the circle symbolizes equality. In line with this model, Indigenous educators strongly encourage group work: “Cooperative learning, where students work in small groups to complete tasks or projects, is an effective strategy to use with Indigenous students because it reflects the sense of cooperation and community that is a vital aspect of Aboriginal cultures” (Alberta Education, 2005, p. 91). However this must be approached with a word of caution, as teamwork in European cultures is again approached in a very different way than in Indigenous cultures and so simply adding collaborative opportunities does not constitute Indigenous pedagogical approaches because of the different understandings around relationships (Battiste, 2002). A second application of Indigenous teaching methods is the development of experiential and authentic learning tasks and assessments (Battiste, 2002; Alberta Education, 2005). Reflection and metacognition, the practice of monitoring one’s learning, are also extremely important (Alberta Education, 2005). Indigenous educators often emphasize storytelling and a holistic worldview that adds context to the purpose and place of learning. More pragmatically, guidelines for Indigenous education advocate for clearly delineated instructions on assignments and activities, including the use of rubrics, which is good teaching practice generally, but critically important when working with Indigenous students who may have past negative experiences associated with formal learning (Battiste, 2002; Alberta Education, 2005).

One proposed solution to the achievement gap which aims at directly responding to the legacy of colonialism and cultural differences in approaches to learning is the establishment of Indigenous run and controlled post-secondary institutions often referred to as tribal colleges/universities. Tribal colleges may be associated with larger post-secondary institutions in Canada or may be independent; however, their success has also been heavily critiqued when measured by cost/student and graduation rates (Maltest & Associates, 2002). Action item 62 from the Truth and reconciliation
call to action report asks not only for funding and specialized programs for Indigenous students but for the adoption of Indigenous pedagogies into mainstream educational offerings (TRCC, 2015b). Part of the path to reconciliation, they suggest, is that Canadian post-secondary institutions need to move away from a strictly western-centric approach to education and promote respect for Indigenous culture and knowledge systems by adopting less colonial approaches to education. Across Canada there is a call from Indigenous and non-Indigenous scholars for “Indigenizing the curriculum” at all levels of education; however, the means to do this are still under debate both in terms of best practices and administrative constraints. This call is not new, nor is the research, but it is gaining traction in mainstream educational provisions. As early as 1991, educational researchers Kirkness and Barnhart described how universities could cultivate respect for Indigenous culture by incorporating Indigenous knowledge into the curriculum through a framework they defined as the four Rs, which includes the concepts of Respect, Relevance, Reciprocity and Responsibility. Further, they have evaluated how the relationship between Indigenous students and their institutions must evolve to the point where education is reciprocal and not simply based on the one-sided transmission of information and cultural expectations to the learner. Instead, there should be a genuine exchange of ideas and culture between instructors and students. It is this second aspect we have attempted to explore through the cases presented. How can we flip the power pyramid as it were, and develop educational experiences that foster collaboration and build relationships in a way that is respectful, reciprocal, relevant and responsible?

More Inclusive Content: Case study 1

The first case study presents an analysis of the introductory distance education Canadian history course at the University of Manitoba: History 1440 -- History of Canada. History 1440 is a two semester course, which examines Canadian history from the end of the Ice Age and the arrival of the first Indigenous peoples in North America to the 21st century. For many years, introductory history courses, the ones that hopefully engage students enough to study the subject further, have either ignored or diminished Indigenous contributions to Canadian history. As Paul Chartrand writes:

The Canadian story about 1885 is the symbolic ‘driving of the last spike’ or the completion of the trans-Canadian railway. Our stories are different and sinister. If we are to develop better relations between Aboriginal peoples and other Canadians, it might be a good idea to start by talking about our stories and see if we can create better stories for a common future: a common story of Canada. (2007, p. 18)

There needs to be a complete story; for example, how did the Métis and Indigenous peoples view treaty making, how did they see Confederation. A more complete story will benefit all Canadians, not just Indigenous peoples.

Seeing their stories and culture reflected in educational materials is extremely important to Indigenous learners: “To Aboriginal students especially, Aboriginal content—whether in a story, a math example or a problem-solving technique—can have a profound impact on how they see themselves. It can also affect their understanding of how others see them and their cultures” (Alberta Education, 2005, p.
Given the past colonization of First Nations people and consequently their stories, content must not only include Indigenous topics but also Indigenous voices.

At first glance, History 1440 appears rich in Indigenous content. Upon accessing the course’s HTML web pages, students will immediately notice a banner depicting a train, the 19th century symbol of national progress, and a series of teepees:

One could interpret these images as symbolic of the subject matter expert’s attempt to balance non-Indigenous and Indigenous historical content.

Of History 1440’s eight units, only Unit 2, entitled “Aboriginal –European contact,” focuses entirely on Indigenous peoples, introducing students to “Aboriginal migration to Canada and later Aboriginal contact and interrelationships with the Europeans” (Young, 2011, “Unit 2: Introduction”). Tracing Aboriginal history back 10,000 years, the subject matter expert details the rich cultural diversity of Indigenous peoples, the importance of oral stories in reconstructing First Nations history and makes it clear that cultural contact with Europeans was reciprocal: “Aboriginal-European contact was a two-way process” (Young, 2011, “Unit 2: Synopsis”). Later, she singles out Aboriginal women for their strong contributions to the fur trade: (Young, 2011, “Unit 4: Synopsis”) and addresses other events in Indigenous history, such as the Métis uprising, the residential schools and modern First Nations movements towards self-government.

Despite the inclusion of many First Nations topics, the course needs more material and references that directly reflect Indigenous voices. The inclusion of stories depicting Indigenous spirituality, culture and history using a range of media would give students a more holistic portrait of the First Nations and appeal to learners who require a diversity of teaching approaches beyond simple reading and writing activities.

Textbooks
The Indigenous content in the principle course text, J.M. Bumsted’s *A history of the Canadian peoples* (2011), is impressive in scope. There are a total of 21 text boxes, which are often used to profile prominent Aboriginals in Canadian history, such as the Miq’maq leader Henri Membertou or Tecumseh, and 17 illustrations, and 4 maps or graphs with Indigenous themes. Similar to the course units, the author begins by tracing the origins of Indigenous peoples in Canada and acknowledges that “Thousands of years of human development preceded the appearance of Europeans” (2011, p. 4). Later, he describes the importance of oral traditions and includes a Cree origin story from Western James Bay. When detailing Cabot and Cartier’s early exploration of Canada, Bumsted demonstrates his even-handed approach to Indigenous issues: “While most Canadians could, if pressed, name one or two of these explorers, it is very doubtful whether they could offer the name of a single comparable First Nations explorer” (2011, p. 33). In later chapters, Bumsted details
the “good deal of racism and prejudice” that guided the opening of the West (2011, p. 241) and the “abuse and intimidation” of the residential schools (2011, p. 525).

Strangely, Bumsted’s choice of illustrations do not reflect the relatively unbiased approach of his text. The images in the first part of the book reinforce the stereotype of the “aggressive, primitive Indian,” likely because of an over-reliance on non-Indigenous sources. On page 20 we see the Inuit attacking English explorers and on page 44 a group of First Nations torturing and executing French missionaries.


One wonders why the author would not balance these illustrations by depicting the impact of disease on Indigenous-Canadians; surely, more Aboriginals died from European diseases than Europeans at the hands of Aboriginals. Alternatively, the author could have chosen images of cooperation; had it not been for the First Nations, many Europeans would have had great difficulty surviving in Canada’s harsh climate.

Other images reinforce the positive aspects of Canadian paternalism, including the following photograph on page 378:

Here we see Indigenous peoples from a village on Hudson’s Bay receiving medical treatment. However, we do not see any photographs of residential schools nor the squalid conditions found on some reservations. These omissions are startling.

There are four other required books, three of which deal partly or wholly with Indigenous themes. W. Stewart’s (2007) *The Ermatingers* details the experiences of an Ojibwa-Canadian family in 19th century Quebec and Afua Cooper’s (2006) *The Hanging of Angelique* sheds light on the colonial slavery of African Canadians and Aboriginals. Wayne Warry’s (2008) *Ending denial: understanding Aboriginal issues* provides insight into the issues impacting contemporary First Nations in Canada. Notably, none of these authors are Indigenous. In his introduction, Wayne Warry, an anthropologist who has worked closely with Aboriginal communities, acknowledges this fact but believes that the “challenges” facing First Nations “cannot, and will not, be met by Aboriginal peoples alone” (2008, p. 19). Among other things, Warry’s work is invaluable for describing the failure of assimilationist policies in Canada, for critiquing contemporary neo-conservative arguments in favour of further assimilation and for demonstrating media bias with respect to First Nations issues. Some of his facts are shocking, including his reference to the “forced sterilization of Indian and Inuit women” in the 1970s (2008, p. 58).

**Assessments**

Though History 1440’s assignments are strong in Indigenous content, there is room for a more authentic assessment approach. There are a total of four essays, each worth 15%, four discussion forums worth a total of 10%, and a final exam worth 30%. Many of the discussion and essay questions require the application of higher orders skills, such as reflection, analysis and synthesis, appropriate for a first year class. However, Discussion Forum 2 is the only assignment that asks students to work directly with primary documents. Here, students must critically assess original French images and text, if they can read the language, from New France: “Identify at least five aspects of life in New France in this period that are evident in the images” (Young, 2011, “Discussion assignment”). As a preface to this forum, the course should give students more opportunity to practice more authentic history by analyzing primary documents. The essays are largely book reports that focus on the four required texts that supplement the course and the textbook. The first essay is on Afua Cooper’s the Hanging of Angelique (2006) and the second focuses on the Ermatingers (2007). In preparing the latter essay, students are asked to focus on Ojibwa culture.
and their contributions to the fur trade. The third essay looks at Winnipeg 1912 (2005), a book that presents a snapshot of early twentieth century Winnipeg, and the final essay relates to Wayne Warry’s *Ending denial: Understanding Aboriginal issues*. The following is an example of an essay question from this last assignment:

“Canadians need to demand more of our media, educate ourselves, and seek out information that is based on solid research and first-hand understandings of Aboriginal communities. But we must also think creatively and, as Aboriginal people would suggest, with our hearts as well as our minds” (*Denial*, p. 186).”

Do you agree/disagree with Warry? Use Warry’s arguments to develop your answer. (Young, 2011, “Essay 4”).

More First-hand accounts in History 1440 will help produce the “first hand understandings” to which Warry is referring. Two final adjustments I would make to History 1440 would be the addition of stronger grading rubrics. As it stands, students are given grading criteria and excellent essay writing tips but not full scale rubrics with detailed specifications for each grade.

**More Inclusive Approach: Case Study 2**

One of the growing concerns in education is the continued alienation of Indigenous students in the public school system. Students report a sense of disconnect from school based on both social factors, such as racism and socio-economic status, but also in the way in which learning is approached. Recognizing this problem, particularly with regard to science education, Elders Albert and Murdena Marshall of Unama’ki (Cape Breton) Canada proposed the concept of Etuaptmumk (two-eyed seeing). Two eyed seeing, as described by Bartlett, Marshall, Marshall (2007), refers to learning to see from one eye with the strengths of Indigenous ways of knowing and from the other eye with the strengths of western knowledges and ways of knowing and using both eyes together for the benefit of all (p.4).

In this case, the application of two eyed seeing to the design of a blended teacher education science methodology course will be discussed. This case is unique in that the class consisted of two separate cohorts who did not physically meet each other because face to face sessions were held at different locations, depending on cohort membership (in community or on campus). As such, the only time students were all together was during the online portion of the course, which consisted of both synchronous and asynchronous events. This design was contingent on the course’s primary student demographic -- 60% of the students self-identified as Indigenous -- leading discussions from an Indigenous perspective that could not authentically be shared by the non-Indigenous instructor. Therefore, the main consideration of the design was to create a safe space for the discussion of student perspectives, which were variously informed by the teaching of science education from both Indigenous and non-Indigenous sources. This approach was facilitated by “low risk” tasks that provided scaffolding to allow for deeper discussions in “higher risk” tasks, as well as by the design of holistic and experiential activities. The function of each of these within the course design will be discussed in turn.
Low risk activities were defined as activities where participation was optional, was not for assessment and took the form of face to face classroom discussions, asynchronous sharing within discussion forums and participation in live virtual meetings. Though the expectation of participation in activities without assessment as a reward might seem problematic, regular participation in education courses is expected as part of the development of the professional persona of a teacher. From week one to week thirteen the asynchronous low risk participation activities were designed to facilitate community building within the online space and were also designed to encourage cross-cohort communication and two-eyed seeing. For example, the first online task asked students to draw and share a picture of a scientist. Using images to explore bias in science rather than text was both less intimidating for students new to the online forum, but also engaging as students were able to laugh about drawing skills and began to critique and question perspectives in a lighthearted manner. Students then moved to evaluating literature and, finally, to discussing educational choices made by members of the group in the high risk tasks.

The synchronous online meetings, hosted on Blackboard Collaborate, comprised the second low risk activity set. Students were told these were optional sessions in the form of tutorials where issues around assignments or general questions could be posed. These were very well attended and offered the two cohorts another opportunity to mix and develop understanding of one another around the shared objective of doing well in the assignments. The meetings were recorded and shared back into the LMS for students unable to attend the live session.

Finally, the face to face sessions incorporated at least one activity during each meeting where students could discuss issues and learning from the asynchronous events. These were designed to allow students from the respective cohorts to share concerns that were relevant to their cohort and that may have been too distressing to share in the larger class. They were also designed to allow space for debriefing the experience of the mixed class.

High risk tasks were defined as the culminating assessment tasks for the course. Typically in science methodology courses this assessment involves the design and presentation of a sample lesson. Given the blended nature of the course, students were asked to complete this assignment by presenting the lesson and recording it on video. I did not anticipate the full extent of the value of this task. Students recorded not only demonstrations from typical classrooms but also outdoor experiences and field trips to local museums. The lessons, however, not only highlighted different approaches to teaching but different living conditions as many students filmed lessons in their own homes, which allowed students to learn about each other and their home lives. Students were asked to upload videos into our shared online space and review and evaluate the videos for their own learning in an “interactive notebook,” which is a form of journaling that incorporated structured observations and reflection. Without explicit instruction this became an interesting study in contrasts as on campus students presented lessons in the traditional “learn the parts, then the whole” approach to science education while Indigenous students presented the reverse. In other words, each student presented from the eye of his or her own dominant culture. Students were encouraged to discuss pedagogical choices made by the creators of the videos in the larger discussion forum; however, this assignment was designed to allow for the interrogation of two-eyed seeing on a personal level through the journaling activity.
Leading up to the activity described above, a second high risk activity asked students to identify and research an issue in science that was of particular importance to them individually and share this in the format of a research presentation poster. The student teachers were then asked to discuss the poster and their learning around the issue in a five minute video and share this in the course LMS. Student teachers were then asked to review the videos of others and again the activity was debriefed in the discussion forum.

At the end of the course, the culminating assessment task asked students to integrate all of their learning from the semester by developing an interdisciplinary unit of work that addressed aspects of four of the courses students were taking concurrently. This was a group task, which was presented face-to-face in individual cohorts at the end of term. To celebrate their accomplishments, this session was collapsed into a one day event and lunch was provided to the students.
Conclusion and Discussion
In an examination of Kirkness’s and Barnhardt’s (1991) Four Rs framework as applied to these two cases we see acknowledgement of cultural respect. In case one this is done through presenting balanced content that more accurately reflects history from multiple perspectives while in case two we see respect applied through the positioning of the students as leaders in the course, which facilitates the acknowledgement and encouragement of cultural perspectives on an equal footing. For many years in Canada, history courses have presented an unbalanced account of the history of our country, which has been a major factor in preventing reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Canadians.

Relevance is attempted through the design of assessments that reflect future work practices in the respective disciplines represented by the cases, but also with regard to developing students’ self-identity and ability to see self within the institutions as a whole. A more inclusive curriculum and a more truthful national story will benefit all learners.

Reciprocity was particularly represented in case two with the application of a two-eyed seeing course design. This approach encouraged the empowerment of both Indigenous and non-Indigenous students with respect to their own perspectives and those of their fellow students. Using their other eye they could develop a binocular vision that allowed them to appreciate Indigenous and non-Indigenous approaches. This approach would be difficult to implement in many classrooms because students require a high degree of self-efficacy. Students are expected to function as “experts” both in terms of lesson design and cultural competence from the position of their respective cultures and be willing to bring this forward as the subject of course discussions. This approach also requires the careful scaffolding of relationship building tasks.

Finally, engagement in the concept of shared responsibility both on the side of the course design and the student was facilitated in case one by teaching the students to evaluate the source of their history, the images used and the biases they present through course design that encourages dialogue around the objects of our history. This design gives students an opportunity to begin the process of deconstructing the traditional power structures at play in university settings. While in case two the students themselves were celebrated and affirmed through the culture of the course. Through shared participation, students were given the opportunity to shape the direction of their learning.
References


Double-Talk: A Bakhtinian Take on the Code-Switching Practices of English Language Teachers In China

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Abstract
It is common in many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts for teachers to code-switch between the students’ first language and the target language. However, the extent to which and the ways in which such code-switching practices support student learning of English have yet to be subjected to scrutiny via the analytic lens of classroom discourse analysis. With the introduction of China’s National English Curriculum Standards for Nine-year Compulsory Education and Senior High School Education in 2001, it is now timely to ascertain if these policy and curricular reforms have been effectively translated into classroom practice. Adopting the lens of Bakhtin’s theory of dialogism, this qualitative study aims to explore the extent to which and the ways in which code-switching practices among EFL teachers in China support student learning of English and reflect China’s new curriculum goals. Data comprising 30 hours of audio-recorded classroom discourse of 8 EFL teachers from 2 middle schools in 2 different Chinese cities was examined. Findings reveal little evidence of dialogic interactions being generated or encouraged by teachers; instead, the teachers’ code-switching seems motivated mainly by procedural imperatives rather than pedagogic principles. Code-switching was found to be typically focused on decoding and simple meaning-making tasks rather than developing a deep and critical understanding of the target language and culture. The implications of these findings are discussed in relation to EFL education in China and, more broadly, the role of teacher talk in promoting language learning and cognitive engagement.

Keywords: Bakhtin, Dialogue, Teachers’ Code-switching practices, Chinese EFL Context
1 Introduction

It is a common phenomenon in many English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts for teachers to code-switch between students’ first language and the target language, as it is often assumed that this would ease novice learners into the target language. In fact, many researchers, such as Atkinson (1993) and Cook (2001), have argued for the use of the L1 in the L2 classrooms, which purportedly brings forth numerous benefits (see Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2005; Moore, 1996; Schweers, 1999; Turnbull, 2001). However, the extent to which and the exact ways in which such code-mixing practices support and contribute to student learning have yet to be examined via the analytic lens of classroom discourse analysis.

With the introduction of the National English Curriculum Standards for Nine-year Compulsory Education and Senior High School Education (NECS) launched more than a decade ago, this is a good time to find out if the paradigm shift intended by the curriculum reform has been effectively enacted by teachers in EFL classrooms in China. China’s 8th curriculum reform (NECS) is distinct from earlier reforms (Zheng, 2012; Zhong, 2006). Being student-centric, the NECS focuses on students’ learning and holistic development (Zhong, 2006). Three transformations were proposed namely, from “centralization’ to ‘decentralization’ in curriculum policy” from “scientific-disciplined curriculum” to “society construction-centered curriculum” and from “transmission-centred teaching” to “inquiry-centred teaching” (Zhong, 2006, p. 374). It aims to develop students into active, collaborative and reflective individuals by encouraging them to dialogue with themselves, the world and others (Sato, 2004; Zhong, 2006). Teachers are therefore expected to relinquish their authoritative position in class, co-construct knowledge with their students, and concentrate more on the teaching process rather than the acquisition of an examination-orientated outlook (Cheng, 2011; MOE China, 2001).

Such radical changes would require time to take root in the school system due to a variety of reasons (see Zheng, 2012; Zhong, 2006). For instance, China is historically an examination-oriented and authoritarian society and is heavily influenced by Confucianism (Cheng, Moses & Cheng, 2012). Influence from Confucianist values may result in teachers and students being less receptive towards lessons that are interactive, learner-centred and being less keen in embracing pedagogical approaches which “de-emphasize the transmission and mastery of authoritative knowledge” (Hu, 2002, p. 37).

This paper reports the findings of a qualitative study on the classroom talk of EFL teachers in China. The study aims to provide a better understanding of how Chinese EFL teachers’ code-switching practices contribute to student learning and to ascertain the extent to which these practices reflect the goals of the NECS. The theoretical lens through which the study has been undertaken relates to Bakhtin’s concept of dialogism, which views dialogue as the principal means for meaning-making and learning. In this study, ‘dialogism’ is operationalized in how teachers move between Chinese and English in order to facilitate students’ learning of the target language. It is hoped that the analysis will produce findings that can shed light on when and how (if at all) the code-switching practices of EFL teachers contribute to student learning. The implications of these findings will be discussed in relation to EFL education in China and, more broadly, the role of teacher talk in promoting language learning and cognitive engagement.
2 Literature Review

2.1 Code-switching in L2 classrooms

"Code-switching" is a term which has been used in the field of sociolinguistics in various ways and its meaning has also evolved over time. Traditional conceptions of code-switching or code-mixing allude to a person who is proficient in more than one language and is able to switch between these languages “in contextually appropriate ways with rhetorical and social significance” (Canagarajah, 2013, p. 10; Romaine, 1989). However, in a bid to stay abreast with contemporary forms of multilingualism, scholars have attempted to redefine or extend the meanings of code-switching, acknowledging the possibility of individuals code-switching without bilingual competence (Canagarajah, 2013). Despite these differences in conceptualization, it is generally agreed that code-switching involves the switching between two or more languages in a variety of contexts for various purposes or effects.

In the context of the L2 classroom, teachers often find themselves engaged in discussions over whether or not to weed out the use of L1 in the teaching of the target language. Proponents of Krashen’s (1981) theories on the natural order of acquisition and the hypothesis of comprehensible input would advocate the exclusive use of the target language in L2 classrooms. However, researchers like Auerbach (1993), Cook (2001) and Schweers (1999) would advise against this, citing a range of reasons for and benefits in using the L1 to facilitate or ease learners into the target language. The favoured teaching practice - amongst teachers in the United States and possibly round the globe - is maximizing the use of the L2 without the exclusion of the L1 (Grim, 2010).

2.1.1 Theoretical justification for the use of L1 in L2 classrooms

The theoretical framework which justifies the use of L1 is typically supported by sociolinguistics and multilingual competence models (Grim, 2010). The sociolinguistics model highlights that code-switching is ubiquitous in bilingual or multilingual societies. Individuals from such societies would typically code-switch to deliver their intended message (Grim, 2010). Therefore, researchers or educators should not preclude the usage of the L1 in L2 classrooms as teachers might intentionally choose to code-switch to the students’ L1 in order to gain their acceptance and cultivate understanding (Grim, 2010; Myers-Scotton, 1993). Furthermore, the multilingual competence model proposes that two or more languages co-exist in the minds of bilinguals or multilinguals (Grim, 2010). Researchers who subscribe to the view of languages not being distinctly separated but are tightly interwoven in a multilingual learner’s mind further justify or legitimize the mixing of languages during instruction (Grim, 2010).

2.1.2 Functions and benefits of code-switching

Numerous researchers have vouched for the use of the L1 in L2 classrooms by surfacing various benefits (see Auerbach, 1993; Anton & DiCamilla, 1998; Cook, 2001; Kern, 1994; Liu, 2010; Macaro, 2005; Ross, 2000; Schweers, 1999). Researchers who have conducted research in various ESL/EFL contexts are largely in agreement on the functions or roles of the L1 in L2 classrooms (see Cheng, 2013; Cook, 2001; Duff & Polio, 1990; Grim, 2010; Levine, 2003). These functions include switching to the L1 to teach or talk about the abstruse features of the L2 language, engage in comparisons between the first and target languages and their accompanying
cultures, engage in comprehension checks, clarify or ensure understanding of instructions, subject matter or lexical items, give feedback to students, establish rapport, manage the class, and so on (see Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2001; Grim, 2010; Jiang, 2004; Lin, 2013; Liu, 2010; Macaro, 1997; 2001; Nzwanga, 2000; Pennington, 1995; Tang, 2002; Wilkerson, 2008).

For instance, Liu (2010) sought to identify the functions of the use of L1 in her mixed-methods study conducted in the EFL classroom of Chinese universities. Motivated by the desire to see if the findings of similar studies conducted in English-speaking countries are replicated in the EFL context of Chinese universities, she found that the L1 functions observed, such as “translating vocabulary items, explaining grammar, managing class and building close relation with students” (Liu, 2010, p.21), were generally consistent with what was found in previous studies, such as Levine (2003) and Macaro (1997). Additionally, her study also identified factors that were important in the teachers’ decisions to switch to the L1. These factors, which aligned with what Duff and Polio (1990) found, include differences between the L1 and L2, “lesson contents and objectives” as well “as department policy of the TL use” (Liu, 2010, p. 21). Liu (2010) found that students’ English proficiency was the principal factor for teachers decide to code-switch to the L1.

In spite of the numerous studies on code-switching to identify the functions, benefits and factors pertaining to code-switching practices among EFL teachers, little has been done to examine the extent to which and the ways in which such practices actually support student learning or not via the analytic lens of classroom discourse analysis. One framework within which classroom discourse can be analysed is dialogic education.

2.2 Dialogic education

There is a burgeoning interest in dialogic education amongst researchers and much has been done in examining the role of dialogue in classrooms across various disciplines such as Science, Mathematics and English (see Alexander, 2001, 2003, 2005a, 2005b; Haworth, 1999; Lyle, 1998; Mercer & Dawes, 2010; Mercer & Sams, 2006; Mercer, Dawes & Staarman, 2009; Skidmore, 2000). These researchers have identified a myriad of benefits in dialogic instruction. These include attaining better results for standardised tests, boosting critical thinking amongst students, developing language and problem-solving skills, and has the “potential to enable student voice to be accessed and legitimated” (Alexander, 2005c; Lyle, 2008, p. 233; Mercer & Dawes, 2010). They typically draw their inspirations from Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory of education as well as Bakhtin’s “conception of dialogue as the root of thought and language” (Xu, 2012; Higham et al, 2013, p. 2).

Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory has spurred researchers to conduct studies on children’s talk that require collaborative interaction, since he asserts that all forms of learning takes place in sociocultural and historical contexts (Lyle, 2008). Bakhtin too acknowledges the connection between the individual and the social (Lyle, 2008; Xu, 2012), and recognizes the mediating role of language in identity formation and cognitive development (Xu, 2012). However, Bakhtin’s perception of dialogue goes beyond verbal interactions by arguing that even individual thoughts are dialogic since “thinking occurs through appropriating and using social forms of speech that are imbued with the accents, values and beliefs of previous speakers and speech
communities” (Renshaw, 2004, p.4; Xu, 2012). In other words, written and verbal utterances are always “two consciousness, two language intentions, two voices and consequently two accents participating in an intentional and conscious artistic hybrid” (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 360; Lyle, 2008).

Bakhtin sees monologic discourse and dialogic discourse as binary opposites (Lyle, 2008). Monologic discourse is characterized by features akin to traditional instruction, in which teachers are knowledge holders empowered to transmit knowledge to students who are perceived as passive receivers of knowledge (Stewart, 2010). In contrast, dialogic discourse “creates a space for multiple voices and discourses that challenge the asymmetrical power relations constructed by monologic practices” (Lyle, 2008, p. 225). Researchers like Alexander (2005c) and Stewart (2010) contend that Bakhtin’s theories are transferrable to classroom pedagogy. Alexander (2005c) posits 5 principles of dialogic teaching, namely, collective, reciprocal, supportive, cumulative and purposeful (p.14). Teachers are no longer depicted as sole knowledge proprietors, as students’ ideas are taken into consideration and built upon collaboratively with the teacher and other students (Alexander, 2005c, 2006; Lyle, 2008).

2.2.1 Application of Bakhtin’s Dialogism to EFL contexts
An increasing number of researchers have conducted studies based on Bakhtin’s theory of dialogism in EFL contexts. These studies ranged from determining the amount of authoritative and persuasive discourse in EFL contexts to examining the type of questions asked by teachers in EFL contexts (Ghasemi, Adel & Zareian, 2015; Xu, 2012). For instance, Xu (2012)’s qualitative study is based on Bakhtin’s conception of dialogue. She examined the type of questions asked by teachers who taught an Intensive Reading (IR) course for EL students pursuing a Bachelor’s Degree at the Harbin Institute of Technology, China. Three female instructors participated in the study and a total of 564 questions were coded. From her coding analysis, it was found that IR classes were predominantly monologic in nature. The teachers frequently asked questions to elicit facts or recite information derived from texts. Students rarely asked questions and, if they did, they would ask content-oriented questions pertaining to texts that they have read rather than to propose (or counter-propose) ideas that might challenge the knowledge being presented in textbooks. Students therefore have “little ownership and voice in the meaning making process of reading the text” (Xu, 2012, p. 104). Xu explained this phenomenon on the basis of teachers’ perception of their learners’ low language proficiency and their preference for a unilateral transmission of knowledge due to institutional pressures like the need to complete a syllabus within a stipulated time frame (Xu, 2012).

3 Research Aims
Despite studies like Xu (2012), which examined classroom discourse from the theoretical lens of Bakhtin’s dialogism, little has been done to investigate the common feature found in many EFL classrooms, namely code-switching. In a way, code-switching can be seen as a kind of dialogic interaction between the L1 and the target language, whereby the use of one code illuminates and interanimates the other. ‘Dialogism’ in this study is therefore operationalized not so much in the dialogue that transpires between the expert teacher and novice learner, but in how teachers shuttle between Chinese and English in order to facilitate the interanimation of the two languages. It is argued that such ‘double-talk’ in the EFL classroom would contribute to the goals of the NECS by helping learners negotiate between their first language and
target language, in order to let them experience and embrace the English ‘language in its concrete living totality’ (Bakhtin, 1984, p. 181).

Specifically, the study seeks to address the following questions:

1) What are the functions of teacher code-switching in EFL classrooms in China?
2) To what extent does teacher code-switching help students to develop and negotiate links, both linguistic and cultural, between their L1 and target language?

4 Research Design
The study adopts a qualitative approach to analyse EFL classroom discourse data in 2 middle schools in China. One is a large city situated in a prosperous region, while the other is a relatively small city situated in a more remote part of the country with a large minority population. The classroom discourse data was audio-recorded, transcribed and coded by paying close attention to the teachers’ code-switching behaviors in order to ascertain plausible functions and effects of using the L1 in the EFL classrooms.

4.1 Participants
A total of 8 middle school EL teachers participated in the study. All participating teachers have attended teacher training programmes, either a three-year diploma course or a four-year undergraduate course. One is a male teacher while the rest are females. Their teaching experience ranged from one to 7 years. Participation in the study was voluntary and informed consent from the teachers and their students was obtained prior to data collection.

5 Analysis of findings
From the analysis of the classroom data, it was found that the code-switching functions of the 8 participating teachers generally reflect and corroborate the findings of previous studies (e.g. Cook, 2001; Franklin, 1990; Grim, 2010; Liu, 2010; Pennington, 1995; Polio & Duff, 1994). Table 2 presents the 5 main types of code-switching functions instantiated in the data and Figure 1 shows their relative frequency.

Table 2: Code-switching Functions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Function</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Clarifying meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Giving instructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Explaining grammar</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Conducting translation exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Giving feedback</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Clarifying Meaning (Function 1)

It was found that 7 out 8 (or 87.5%) of the EFL teachers in this study used the L1 to clarify the meanings of words or sentences in the target language. This could be motivated by their desire to be efficient in their teaching, since the L2 learners of this study would have a reasonably well-established lexical and conceptual L1 system which the teachers could tap on to clarify meanings in the L2 (Cook, 2001; Jiang, 2004). The following examples illustrate the different ways by which the teachers endeavoured to clarify the meaning of target words. The words in brackets represent a translation of the Chinese words used by the teachers.

Example 1: Explicating phenomenon

T: So we say “we should protect our environment from being polluted”, right?
So after seeing so many pictures about pollution, there is a cartoon showing that phenomenon.
这儿 (here) phenomenon means 现象 (phenomenon), OK?

Example 2: Comprehension Checks

1 T: This man is holding certificate.
   Do you know certificate?
Certificate. 证书 (certificate).
This certificate reads “wining a scholarship fifty-five thousand.”
So...can you guess what does scholarship mean?

2 S: 奖学金 (scholarship) ?

3 T: Yes! Right! 奖学金 (scholarship).
So, wining a scholarship
So read after me. Scholarship.
In example one, the teacher immediately provides a translation to elucidate the meaning of a L2 target word (“phenomenon”). Similar instances like example one, as argued by Moore (1996), could aid in facilitating communication or averting communication breakdowns. Example 2 illustrates the teacher’s attempt in engaging in comprehension checks (in this case of the words “certificate” and “scholarship”). Such instances provide students with opportunities to hone receptive skills - like reading skills which include word recognition and comprehension. This finding is consistent with Grim (2010), who has categorized such occurrences as instances of delayed translations. He asserts that delayed translations are much more pedagogically sound when compared to providing bilingual glosses immediately (Grim, 2010). This is because students would be given more time to notice lexical forms as well as process the meanings of L2 words before they get translated (Grim, 2010).

5.2 Giving instructions (Function 2)

Another major function of code-switching as instantiated by the teachers in the study relates to instruction giving. 7 out of 8 teachers switch to the L1 to translate L2 instructions, a phenomenon observed by researchers as well (e.g. Atkinson, 1987; Cook, 2001; Grim, 2010). In this case, it could be interpreted that the teachers’ code-switching was motivated by procedural purposes rather than to facilitate the interaction and interanimation of the two languages.

Examples 1 and 2 are excerpts extracted from different lessons taught by different teachers.

Example 1: Giving English instruction before Chinese translation

T: So take out your worksheet, and see Part One. In Part One there are five five eh... Yes, there are five words here, and I will play the tape and you listen to it. Then give me your answer. Which one is truth and which one is false. 大家做一道判断正误的听力题 (Let’s complete a listening task which requires us to decide if it’s true or false).

Example 2: Giving Chinese instruction before English translation

T: 那你看这个词啊 (Then, look at this word ah) look at this word, now 后面加了个 (At the back, add a) ‘s’说明它是 (and it would be)?

These examples of instruction giving which involve code-switching could primarily be motivated by the teachers’ desire to convey instructions lucidly to the students in an efficient and effective manner. This is especially so when some of them have revealed, for instance during a post-lesson conference, that they perceive their students to be weak in English. This perception could have motivated them to tap on the L1 (Chinese) as a resource to provide students with Chinese instructions that would aid the students’ understanding of what is required or expected of them.
7 out 8 of the teachers showed a preference for giving instructions in L2 before providing translations in L1. In contrast, only 2 out 8 (or 25%) of the teacher participants chose to give instructions in Chinese (L1) before they provided the equivalent instructions in English (L2). That the majority preferred to give instructions in the target language first followed by the translation in the students’ L1 is significant. This would encourage students to attempt to decode the meaning represented in the L2 before checking if their decoding was correct when the teacher gives the translated version in their L1. This pedagogic opportunity would be lost if the teacher had given the instructions in the L1 first, as students would be less keen to pay attention to the repeated L2 translation of the instructions since they already know what is expected of them. For this reason, Grim (2010) stresses the importance of maximizing target language input via instructions giving. In the same vein, he recommends that inexperienced teachers should not be overly dependent on the L1 to provide comprehensible instructions (Grim, 2010); instead, they should hone their skills in conveying instructions in the L2 so as to ensure that students have more exposure to the target language.

5.3 Giving Feedback (Function 5)
Another frequent use function of code-switching as seen in this study is using the L1 to give feedback to students. This could be construed as an attempt by teachers to provide students with feedback in a ‘real’ or authentic manner, which students can relate to more easily than if the feedback were given in a foreign language (Cook, 2001, p. 416). Examples 1 and 2 are exemplars of such occurrences extracted from different lessons conducted by the same teacher.

Example 1: Giving Feedback

1 S: H is (is) Soup.
2 T: H should be what (should be)? //Green tea.
3 Ss: //Green tea.
4 T: Green tea 哦, 有错误了哦 (Oh, there’s a mistake).
Example 2: Giving Feedback

1  S: In my group, Wang Haiqing has been to an amusement park. He went-, he went there last month. Wei Min has been to a water park. He went to there last year. Liang Rundi has been to-, has been to a space museum. He-, she went to there last year and- and- and me, and I-, I-, I have been the-, I have been to an aquarium. I went to there last-, three days ago.

2  T: Ok, good, sit down please. Yes, now so and also one mistake 有一个小小错误 (there’s a minor mistake).

3  Ss: Went there.

4  T: Yah. Went there or went to there?

5  Ss: Went there.

6  T: Yah. Read after me. Went there.

The above examples illustrate the teachers’ attempt at providing feedback in the students’ native language to convey a sincere or genuine desire to help their students improve by correcting their answers or sentence constructions. In so doing, the teacher could be attempting to create a conducive learning environment that is non-threatening so as to encourage students, especially the weaker or more diffident ones, to participate in the lesson.

However, example 1 exemplifies a typical follow up move provided by teachers which focus on providing “feedback about the task” rather than feedback on the “processing of the task” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 90). Hattie and Timperley (2007) argue that teachers should provide feedback on the processing or how students make sense of the task and not merely on the product or outcome of the task. They cite studies which have shown that feedback at the processing level is more productive than feedback provided at the task level, as it would enhance deeper learning (e.g. Balzer et al., 1989). In the case of example 1, the teacher should therefore focus on how the student had arrived at the erroneous answer (“soup”) and not merely on giving what the correct answer ought to be (“green tea”).

6 Discussion of findings

The code-switching functions identified in this study largely corroborate with those identified in earlier studies. They echo the generally pragmatic and efficient motivations behind teachers’ code-switching behaviours; at the same time, they also reflect their desire to ease EFL learners into the target language. Close analysis of the data reveals that EFL teaching in the Chinese classroom typically concentrates on practices like pronouncing an unfamiliar word and knowing its meaning. This positions learners merely as code-breakers or meaning-makers, rather than learners who can use a newly acquired word or structure in specific contexts (meaning-users) or even question or challenge its usage in particular situations to serve particular purposes (meaning-analysts). This aligns with the four levels of competencies.
conceptualised by Luke and Freebody (1999) in their ‘four resources model’. By providing students with literal translations of target words and engaging in comprehension checks, the teachers in the study are merely providing students with a means to engage in simple meaning-making rather than meaning application or critique (Anderson & Freebody 1981; Zeegers, 2006). Moreover, it is evident from the data that students are typically asked to repeat the target language after the teacher in chorus (“so read after me”). They have few opportunities to practise using the target language in new or authentic contexts which would enhance their understanding of the cultural context within which language use is necessarily embedded (Rush, 2004).

An examination of the overall code-switching practices adopted by the EFL teachers in the study suggests little evidence of dialogic discourses being generated or encouraged by teachers. This is because teachers’ code-switching practices are often motivated by procedural imperatives to ensure that students understand and are able to carry out instructions efficiently, rather than by pedagogic principles that enhance learning of the target language. These practices do little to develop students’ ‘thinking, imagination and innovation’, ideals which are enshrined in the NECS (MOE, 2001). Despite the NECS’ initiation in 2001 of a curriculum that proposes a paradigm shift from traditional, authoritative, knowledge-based transmission to a problem-solving, experiential and student-centred mode of teaching (Zheng, 2012), there is manifestly a disjuncture between government policy and classroom practice. The findings of this study reveals a gap that needs to be filled if EFL teaching in China is to move beyond the deeply entrenched practice of “Chinese traditional receptive learning” (Zheng, 2012, p.8) to the ideals envisioned in the NECS.

To achieve this, educators need to grapple with multiple issues surrounding the backwash effects of examinations, a possible clash of eastern and western educational ideologies, and inadequate professional support for teachers in China. In addition, the tendency among many EFL teachers to equate their students’ low linguistic proficiency with their inability to engage in productive dialogic discourses is something that needs to be addressed, since a deep engagement in meaning is not necessarily dependent on or limited by one’s linguistic proficiency as argued by Luke and Freebody (1999). Indeed, if EFL teachers continue to limit their students’ opportunities to practise and use the language in code-breaking or literal meaning-making practices rather than challenging them with more engaging and eminently more meaningful language-using activities, their belief that their students are weak will probably be a self-fulfilling prophecy. Instead, teachers should be equipped with the skills and strategies to nurture students to be active, collaborative and reflective individuals by encouraging them to have dialogues with themselves, the world and others (Sato, 2004; Zhong, 2006). More fundamentally, teachers should be encouraged to reflect on their own discursive practices and behaviours in the classroom. This could be facilitated through recordings (audio or video) of their own teacher talk to raise their awareness about what is taking place and unfolding in their lessons while they teach and the effects of their talk on students’ uptake. While EFL teachers are generally encouraged to maximise target language input in the classroom, this does not preclude the use, albeit judiciously, of the L1 even in the new NECS curriculum (Zhang & Liu, 2014). Such use could be to encourage students to reflect on and thereby enhance their understanding of the situated use of target words and structures in particular contexts. This would not only encourage flexibility and even creativity in the use of the target language, but also enhance cross-cultural awareness which is also one of the express goals of the NECS. This will cultivate students who
can appreciate the nuances of meaning not only of the target language but also invite them to appreciate those of their mother-tongue to arrive at a deep understanding that language is not just a pragmatic tool for communication but a social and cultural product.

7 Conclusion
While the findings from this small-scale, qualitative study cannot be generalised across the vast EFL landscape in China, what we have seen from the excerpts illustrated here does raise some alarm bells. Although it was not the intention to compare the code-switching practices of the teachers from the two Chinese cities, which are differentiated in terms of their relative wealth and access to more modern forms of educational technology and expertise, what is interesting and perhaps counter-intuitive is that there is no significant difference between their practices. Neither was there evidence to suggest that the more experienced teachers were able to encourage more productive dialogues than their novice counterparts. Again, due to the small sample size of the data, one should refrain from drawing definitive conclusions from this. However, what remains clear from the data is how deeply entrenched practices and values that promote the ‘repeat after me’ mode of language teaching are resistant to change even after more than a decade of educational ‘reform’ catalysed by the NECS. To borrow a metaphor used by Cuban (1993), the NECS is akin to the “hurricane winds” sweeping across the sea “tossing up twenty foot waves”, but while the “surface turbulent waters swirl, on the ocean floor there is unruffled calm” (cited in Curdt-Christensen and Silver, 2013, p. 246). But if the double-talk that EFL teachers traditionally favour can go beyond procedural or pragmatic imperatives to the kind of dialogic interactions that Bakhtin envisaged, then perhaps policies can finally penetrate beneath the ‘unruffled calm’ to effect deep-seated and enduring changes in classroom practices.
References


The Research and Development of an Internal Quality Assurance System for the Faculty of Education, Burapha University

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Abstract
This study aimed 1) to develop a new Internal Quality Assurance System for the Faculty of Education Burapha University, and 2) to try out the system to see its effectiveness. This study was designed in 3 phases. The first phase was the analysis of the Faculty’s Internal Quality Assurance System. The population for the data collection in this first phase was 30 people. They were a group of Faculty management people, a group of Faculty committee, a group of Faculty senior consulting people and a group of senior expert teachers. In the second phase, which very much focused on the development of an Internal Quality Assurance System, the researchers used the focus group technique to collect data. The people who participated and shared their viewpoints in this phase were 10 Faculty management people, 17 Faculty committee, and 12 Faculty senior consulting people (six of whom were people from outside and the other six were people working inside the Faculty of Education). In addition, while 17 Faculty senior consulting people were asked to evaluate the proposed system, the researchers asked around 10 Faculty senior consulting people to become internal auditors. The last phase intended to implement the developed system and evaluate it. This study found that the developed Internal Quality Assurance System of Faculty of Education consisted of 4 main activities and 3 mechanisms. This system was designed to have 2 Internal Quality Assurance teams. The first team was called “the management team”, which was comprised of Faculty management people, all heads of departments and Internal Quality Assurance committee. The second team was called “the operational team”, which included lecturers, the faculty staff members, Internal Quality Assurance committee, most of whom were lecturers and faculty staff members passing the Internal Quality Assurance training program, all heads of departments and all heads of study programs in the Faculty of Education. The main arranged activities by the Faculty of Education, were 1) the Internal Curriculum Quality Assurance activity and 2) the Internal Faculty Quality Assurance activity. Both activities were planned to ensure the readiness of all study programs and the Faculty when being evaluated by quality assurance teams from outside. These were approved and run by 2 teams. While team A included 10 people from the Faculty management team and Faculty senior consulting people, team B took account of 17 members of the Faculty committee. It was shown in this study that on average, the suitability of this Internal Quality Assurance System was significantly found in both the high and the highest level. Keywords: research and development, Internal Quality Assurance
Background of the Study
Since 2014, it has been announced that the focus of the Internal Quality Assurance for all higher educational institutes would be changed and the 3 main quality assurance levels which were examined include 1) the curriculum level, 2) the faculty level, 3) the institute/university level. As the Faculty of Education, Burapha University has been known as one of the leading faculties offering high quality education courses and continuously improving internal quality assurance to meet national quality standards, ensuring the high quality assurance of all offered programs and the Faculty’s internal quality has always been one of their main priorities. To make the best decisions in managing National education quality and remaining one of the best quality leading faculties, the School of Education, Burapha University has realized the importance of having in place effective internal quality assurance systems which allowed all faculty members to take part collaboratively and permitted the Faculty management teams to make use of feedback and useful suggestions sent by our stakeholders.

The researchers, therefore, decided to conduct one research and development project to draw up a potential internal quality assurance system for the Faculty of Education as well as evaluate its effectiveness so that some remarkable findings could be utilized to help to improve the internal quality assurance system which leads the Faculty to remaining a high-quality-standard faculty.

Research Objectives:
This study aimed
1) to develop an Internal Quality Assurance System for the Faculty of Education Burapha University and
2) to test out the developed internal quality assurance System.

Research frameworks and procedures
This study was divided into 3 phases.
Phase 1: The analysis of the Quality Assurance system used by the Faculty of Education. In this phase, the data was collected from 30 people who were management people and faculty committee.
Phase 2: The Development of an Internal Quality Assurance System. The key informants in this phase included
- 30 people from both Faculty management people and Faculty committee.
- 2 Groups of Faculty senior consulting people (six of whom were people from outside and the other six were people working inside the Faculty) were asked to participate in focus groups
- 17 Faculty senior consulting people were asked to evaluate the draft of the system
- 10 faculty senior consulting people were asked to become internal auditors.
Phase 3: Implementation of the Internal Educational Quality Assurance System and the evaluation of the system.
**Research Findings:**

It was found in this study that the Internal Educational Quality Assurance system of the Faculty of Education was generally found suitable at the highest level. When considering each item, 14 items were found suitable at the highest level (Mdn between 4.21 and 4.69), 1 item, which was the mechanic system item involving the work by educational quality assurance committee from each department was graded suitable at a high level (Mdn = 4.20) and the activities taking place for Educational Quality Assurance Evaluation was rated the highest (Mdn = 4.69).

This Internal Educational Quality Assurance system model was approved by two teams of experts. The first team was the faculty management people who approved the proposed system in their meeting on March 10, 2015. The second team was Faculty committee also agreed on the system on March 12, 2015.

**Systems and Mechanics for the Internal Quality Assurance of the Faculty of Education**

To support and ensure the effectiveness of running all Education programs and management of the Faculty, the Internal Quality Assurance of the Faculty of Education has set up the following mechanics and activities.

1. **Assessment of Educational Quality Assurance System of the Faculty of Education.**

The faculty has assigned a team to become the Faculty Quality Assurance committee. These include experts and knowledgeable teachers from each study program offered by the Faculty of Education. They play the following vital roles:

1) Discuss and initiate educational quality assurance policies of the Faculty of Education
2) Draw up procedures, steps and guidelines concerning the Faculty’s educational quality assurance for faculty members to follow
3) Scrutinize and assess internal educational quality assurance of all study programs offered by the Faculty of Education
4) Improve and suggest the Faculty’s Educational Quality Assurance Systems.
5) Continuously evaluate the effectiveness of Educational Quality Assurance Systems of the Faculty.

Basically, this team would try their best to run the Internal Educational Quality Assurance of the Faculty of Education thoroughly, guarantee the system’s correctness and ensure its continuous improvement, keeping it up to date as well as checking to make sure that they strictly fell under the umbrella of both Burapha University Education Quality Assurance plans and the one suggested by the Office of the Higher Education Commission.

2. **Educational Quality Assurance systems of the Faculty of Education, Burapha University**

To operate this Educational Quality Assurance System, the Faculty of Education, Burapha University set up subcommittee teams whose roles were monitoring and scrutinizing the quality of the Educational Quality Assurance. These same groups were later asked to evaluate the educational quality. Each team comprised 3 experts and the number of teams was based on the number of educational programs the Faculty offered. All 3 experts in each team were selected according to the following criteria.
The first member must be an expert in the field in which each program offered. The second member must be an expert in educational evaluation and measurement or an auditor, passing the Educational Quality Assurance Auditor Training course arranged by the Faculty of Education. The third member must be an expert in curriculum and teaching or Educational Administration or somebody who used to work in one of the faculty management teams. All the subcommittees would seriously play the following major roles in checking and evaluating the quality of all Educational programs offered by the Faculty of Education. Their working process consisted of

1) Studying the Self-Assessment Report submitted by the heads of program
All programs must submit their Self-Assessment Report to the subcommittee to study 2 weeks before the evaluation date so that the report could be thoroughly read beforehand.

2) Meeting to design a quality evaluation plan for the subcommittee.
In week 2, the evaluation team (subcommittees) read and evaluated the quality of the submitted Self-Assessment Report. The evaluation was done by comparing between evidence based results and a quality standard indicator. The team prepared and wrote questions, feedback and suggestions to give to the heads of program for their better improvement and preparation.

3) Visiting the site to evaluate the educational quality assurance of the program To evaluate the program, the evaluating team made at least a full day visit to meet and discuss with committees of the evaluated program. The schedules for program evaluation were presented in the appendix. The data collection or evaluation guideline which served as an evaluation manual was developed only for the use of the faculty internal educational quality auditor.

4) Giving feedback to the programs
To provide some useful suggestions and ways to improve the quality of the program to the program committee, not only did the evaluation team provide the program committee with oral comments and feedback in a friendly way, but the committee also gave another written report presenting the results of this evaluation.

5) Reporting results of program quality evaluation.
The subcommittee evaluating the quality of the program wrote a report presenting the results of each program evaluation and submitted it to the Educational Quality Assurance committee of the Faculty of Education for their further consideration.

3. Department Internal Quality Assurance System
At the level of Department Internal Quality Assurance, to ensure the ongoing quality assurance of all programs under each department, the Faculty of Education set up team members to monitor and improve the quality of each program. The team members consisted of the Program management people, Head of the program, and supporting people and all of whom exercised the following mechanics:
Set up the quality assurance policy of their program;
Plan and analyze an effective working process to ensure the high quality assurance of their program;
Evaluate the quality of their offered educational program by comparing the evaluated result to the set of standard criteria set by Burapha University and the one set by the Office of the Higher Education Commission.
Undertaking the Internal Education Quality of their offered programs at least once a year, every year. Also integrating the following 5 effective management principles
which were PDCA, Quality Control, Quality Audit, Quality Assessment and Quality improvement into their evaluation practices.

1) Integrating PDCA Cycle concept as the procedure for ensuring the Educational Quality of the Faculty of Education, Burapha University.

To drive and monitor the work to ensure the highest Educational Quality standard in all study programs, the Faculty of Education followed the PDCA cycle concept which started from planning, doing, checking and acting.

Quality Assurance Dimension in the Faculty of Education

The faculty emphasized certain management principles called Quality Control, Quality Audit, Quality Assessment, and Quality Improvement in all operational procedures as the way to ensure that all working dimensions could meet the standard set by the Office of Higher Education Commission, all Educational Policies of Burapha University and Quality Assurance in Education according to the 1999 Education Act.

The benefits of having an Internal Educational Assurance System for the Faculty of Education

1) The system allowed the Faculty of Education to show high Educational quality leading to confidence in the Faculty quality.
2) The system helped the faculty to collect certain information which was necessary for quality improvement and the development of the Faculty as a whole as well as the Faculty’s teaching quality.
3) The system allowed faculty members to work collaboratively in producing Self-Assessment Reports for their courses.
4) The system raised the awareness of faculty members to the necessity of helping improve everybody’s work and ensuring high educational standards to the level accepted by society.
5) The system allowed the Faculty to realize certain strengths and weaknesses as well as creating the necessary information for its future external assessment within the 2015 academic year.
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Abstract
Traversing the matrix of ‘education’, ‘power’ and ‘empowerment’ brings us to some understanding of each and their nature, for example, all of them have some implicit value dimension. Interestingly, ‘empowerment’ has ‘power’ as core word, but ‘empowerment’ is widely preferred, used and more valued than ‘power’. An evolving and comprehensive conception of power is one with four dimensions: ‘power over’, ‘power to’, ‘power with’ and ‘power within’ (VenKlasen & Miller).

The idea of ‘power within’ comes to mean empowerment. Being significant yet not so tangible a notion, ‘Empowerment’ seems to largely overlap with, if not same as, autonomy, an expression used earlier. They are about courage to make life- choices and being responsible. Both notions stand on appreciation of limits of mind/reason. This has implications for how we see ourselves, world and knowledge. And Education, being necessarily based on some conception of human nature and worthwhile knowledge, can possibly gear for empowerment, if it is so valuable.

An important question emerging here is, whether or how far our education has power to empower. By observing some educational scenarios both at macro and micro levels we try to analyse and get insights about what in education stands for what kind of power and what stands in way of/limits empowerment. What kind of conception of education and its implementation may be suited to promote empowerment may be complex to address (yet worth looking into alternatives ventures to educate) and remain an issue of lasting concern, perhaps in newer terms.
It seems quite justifiable to look at education as a powerful means to empower people or bring about any change. What is it about education that makes it powerful? How do we conceive empowerment of people, is it different from their power? Does education have power to empower?

To understand the power of education we try to look at the nature and concept of education. It's meaning can range from acquiring skills, developing capacities, dispositions or qualities and potentials, yet all of these lean on some understanding of what is learnable, what is worth learning and what is to be educated. The idea of education is necessarily tied to how we perceive learner/ourselves, as well as what is worth learning/knowledge.

Is learner a person, human agent or simply evolving species of human being? How can human beings be conceived? What is pre-determined for humans and what are they free to determine about themselves? If educational concern is the promotion of personhood, ultimately autonomous, what form should education take? But if learner is to develop into a social, rational being, then enculturation and socialisation are the educative processes.

We do come across contrary conceptions of education- both descriptive (of learning experiences and situations) and prescriptive/normative(based on desirability). Some view of human betterment always guides educational decisions, whether utilitarian ends, external to activity where education is viewed as an instrument, or the non-instrumentalist view, wherein education is intrinsically good(like for autonomy), not a device designed to produce humans of a certain kind(like civic or productive) for some end. Yet both understandings are normative in character (Carr, 2003). Some value reference (desirability or worthwhileness) is inherent to educational decisions and to any educational theory (Moore, 1974).

Arriving at three criteria central to the concept of education, Peters says, the first is concerned with the development of desirable states of mind in the transmission of what is worthwhile to those who care about it. Secondly, education is concerned with the acquisition of a body of knowledge and understanding that gives some kind of cognitive perspective to person’s activities, transforming their outlook. Thirdly, the process of education involves at least a minimal voluntary participation in the process (Peters, 1966).

Hence education has power due to its essential normative nature, it has power to transform people for their betterment, and such transformation is not possible without willingness on the part of learners (assumption on learner).It is in the freedom and responsibility of choosing what to value and envision for human existence that empowers education. Education, through the curriculum and teaching-learning activities can exercise some power to influence learners for envisioned life.

Power may be understood as ability to meet ends, get the wanted (Boulding, 1989). Empowerment lies in choosing our ends and wants rightly. The wants and ends are human valuations and decisions or choice, a potential to be realised, a vision of life and world integral to it (Boulding, 1989).In choosing our orientation guides us to be productive, destructive and/or integrative (later ref). Therefore, all choices partly
depend on our capacity to generate possibilities and will to choose kind of power. This capacity is affected by our learning (education).

The power, in one of its dimensions (Lukes, 1974), can work as visible and open enforcements that can take form of conflicts, domination, resistance and violence. Power can also be structurally played to control, and lastly most unobservable form of power that becomes willing compliance, where the interests of the dominated seem to be met through the dominant. It is important to observe that these are all zero-sum models of power, because when power of one increases, that of other(s) decreases, total remains constant.

Somewhat wider understanding of power comes from Boulding (Boulding 1989; Susann, 1992; and Rowlands, 1995) who distinguishes three kinds of power with their interesting representations:

Threat power represented as ‘the stick’ is the power to destroy which sufficiently covers all three versions given by Lukes, where exploitation and injustice are inherent along with lack of trust and respect. Hatred and competition are at its base. Economic power as ‘the carrot’ which is the’ power to’ do things, is about abilities and capacities and therefore generative or productive power. The power here is about strengthening and developing, to produce and enable, and not to control or overpower. There is often no conflict of interests and encouragement, persuasion, trust work well. Integrative power or ‘the hug’ is the most energising of all as it is “the power to create such relationships as love, respect, friendship, legitimacy, and so on” (Susann, 1992). It is self-generated, expansive and works to empower many more.

The three powers co-exist in multidimensional, complex, vague and qualitative manner, yet are observable. The sources, objects and responses to power can be very many (Boulding, 1989).

Boulding (109-117) finds important aspects of integrative power as love, which at best is general benevolence or concern for welfare, as mutuality, respect, and inclusiveness or expansiveness which makes us relish differences and variety and helps us face uncertainties or resolve dilemmas. With this, even bullying, punishing, regulating and production can be gainful and effective, and without it, the other two also lose and harm.

He places the integrative power as the ultimate power which legitimises all other powers. I see a lot of integrative power as ‘power within’ (VenKlasen and Miller, 2002) which has to do with a person’s sense of self-worth and self-knowledge. It includes an ability to recognise individual differences while respecting others. It involves capacity to imagine, generate possibilities, hope in search for dignity and fulfilment.

The power of domination expressed as ‘power over’ is seen to stand on fear and grounded in absence of trust and respect and therefore destructive stands opposed to ‘power with’ which is an expression of empowerment as construed by Kreisberg (as cited in Jucevicienė and Vizigirardiutė, 2012). For him, empowerment, in general is about being able to influence, sharing and expanding in both personal and political

1 Empowerment in political sense, means power to participate in the decision making process, make changes and is needed for democracy. Psychologically, empowerment is about self-esteem and confidence.
aspects and leads to increasing control over one’s life, and in decisions related to their own life.

Rowlands (1995) examines ‘empowerment’ emerging from the root notion of power, can have a range of meanings according to the intentions, explicit or implicit, of the user, which get expressed in the four forms (Rowlands, 1995) of ‘power’, i.e., ‘power over’, ‘power to’, ‘power with’ and ‘power within’.

Power, with the intent to control/dominate keeps some powerless or disempowered, thus sustaining inequalities and injustice. This keeps people conditioned and governable (befitting Luke’s zero-sum conceptions). Power when enables for certain ends, empowers to certain extent (to produce and earn, thereby develop some abilities in people). Power with intention to generate love and respect are most empowering as it makes people deeply confident, free, expansive and responsible. Empowerment may be seen on a continuous range of power towards positive conceptions, like those by Boulding, where power is depicted as increasing freedom from control, conditioning, violence and divisive forces and has the courage to live responsively with love and in harmony. Empowerment is always seen as an intrinsically valuable state to live, the most responsible way to live/be, therefore, a worthwhile aim of education. It enables to choose better things for better life, is about sharing and integrating all within us and at its core, empowerment is fundamentally a psychological or psycho-social processes involving development of self-confidence and self-esteem, a sense of agency, and ‘dignity’, almost meaning self-respect and self-worth (Rowlands, 1995).

Kabeer (as cited in Rowlands, 1995, p 211) considers that "Such power cannot be given; it has to be self-generated", and that is why it is ‘power within’ because it requires the 'un-doing' of 'internalised oppression' and appears to be the transformative 'key' that opens 'locks' on the empowerment door. This develops with voluntary analysis and reflection besides “social networks, organisational strength, solidarity and sense of not being alone”. Empowerment is essentially personal; the other dimensions of empowerment are the relational, and the collective dimensions2 (Rowlands, 1995, p188). The personal dimension of empowerment is most important, also because he saw that collective empowerment is possible only with some critical mass of personally empowered individuals.

The normativity in notions of power and empowerment is quite clear, although can be viewed as continuous or contrasting. We see that power can exist in opposing forms, destructive and generative, oppressive and empowering/emancipating. This comes from Boulding, Lyotard and Foucault, although Lyotard and Foucault do see power besides intention also.

Personal empowerment, the core of all empowerment amounts to seeing what really matters to us, thereby willfully taking responsibility of conscious choice of one’s own state and letting go off the rest. It makes us more sensitive, compassionate, connected to our surroundings, respectful, fair, and free from fear and thus need to conform or

2 The personal-developing then sense of self and individual confidence and capacity (which involves undoing the effects of internalised oppression); the relational- of close relationships and support through them; and the collective dimension based on a co-operative rather than a competitive model.
urge to protest. One becomes free from manipulations and conditions and need to manipulate.

These seemingly characterise what we call, autonomy (an old notion and concern in education). Autonomy, originating in Greek, means self-rule or self-governance, meaning self-determination and close to self-regulation and self-directedness. Freedom of individual is implicit in these ways of living, and so is responsibility.

This can require and imply a range of human abilities – rationality, critical thinking, reflection, reasonability, (which lead to ownership of ones beliefs, deliberations, judgment and thus self-reliance, self-sufficiency), individuality (identity, subjectivity), reaching potential or excellence, authenticity, being true to oneself, integrity, consciousness, agency, purposiveness, and more.

How these differ and relate or which is central has many debates in its discourse. Whether it is a state of mind or of being, how far is it possible, what can be done (through education also) to develop autonomy are relevant questions.

Pring (1984) quite comprehensively deals with various conceptions of autonomy, considering it to be an ideal, such that to be educated would mean to be autonomous in personal, social and moral aspects of life. In one sense it means the ability to make up one’s own mind about what is right or wrong, thereby not depending on authority or tradition and standing by one’s thoughts and values for oneself because of free choice, and not social props. Crudely speaking, autonomy is about the quality of thinking and will.

Autonomy is viewed by Piaget and Kohlberg as a transformation necessarily preceded by heteronomy, a non-autonomous stage. Without initial respect for experience and understanding of our tradition, the authoritative assertions, the reflection and thought may not be mature enough to make us autonomous. It would take all of one’s authentic rational, critical and reflective abilities to create values for oneself and not change with fashion or under pressure, in the complex world full of contradictions (Pring, p74). These do not develop with disrespect for others, or with rigidity or rebellion.

Kant sees the human agency as rational agency, which enables him to be a morally autonomous person (Carr, 2003). It is implied that mind is not logically prior to agency. Human person in some way is normative than a biological construct. Further, ‘moral goodness’ and ‘rational self’ are desirable and found compatible with personal autonomy (Cooper, 1986), like autonomy is compatible with communal life (Peters, 1973). Autonomy, as self-governance, may be seen as a constellation of relatively deep rooted important dispositions, knowledge of which helps anticipate and explain actions...in the stretch of total behaviour, in some sense expression of core self (Kaufman, 1973). Education can contribute

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4 Heteronomy: that is, prescribed rules and values from social agencies play important role in developing freedom from them. Another meaning refers to the sense of personal identity (individuality). One grows up to be a distinct person such that with one’s own values and sense of purpose in life, one does not go astray smothered by differences, changes around or popular trends.
to develop some of these dispositions, even if cannot take total responsibility for autonomy.

Autonomy is demonstrated by high self-actualisers, and is based on human motives, that is, our degree of understanding and awareness of ‘why we want what we want’ determines the way we become. We can see that addressing the question ‘why we want what we want’ involves choosing to think critically, reason, reflect, which can lead to clarity in intent, responsible decisions and values. Some “inner-directed dimension” is demonstrated in all our decisions in self-actualisers (McMartin, 1995).

The term ‘self-actualisation’ came with humanistic theorists, namely, Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Our goal-directedness and intentions play a strong role in creating ourselves through seeking self-fulfillment, expressing our need for self-actualisation in our unique ways (as cited in McMartin, 1995).

Maslow and Rogers characterise self-actualising persons as those who live in the present, experience fully, not rigidly go by rules or in automated mode. They resist enculturation, decide which norms they will follow and live by ‘law of their own’. Being honest, open to all experiences- ecstatic to painful, they trust themselves, are at ease, emotionally stable and live without pretence. They are more willing to extend, expand and learn on even through bad situations, are simple and spontaneous, creative and ‘fully-functional’. Their choices are intrinsically guided and therefore favour fulfilment, satisfaction, psychological and social well-being, acceptance and respect rather than money, success, fame, approval or power (McMartin, 1995). Their capacity to distinguish the means from ends enables them to transform means to ends. They pay respectful attention to their inner selves to determine whether they really like something.

The kind of ‘goal orientation’ determines our kind of motivation (intrinsic or extrinsic). We can conceptualise goals as possible selves. The extent and nature of our efforts to reach goals that are especially important to us are internally related to our self-concept and self-esteem (McMartin, 1995). These are basic to our ‘power within’ and Integrative power.

We notice that being empowered, autonomous or self-actualising, though come from diverse discourses, are overlapping and connected notions, if not equivalent. But surely these are desirable ways to be and live (however unreal they may seem today), thereby non-instrumental aims of education (although not beyond debate).

Yet few important questions arise:
What power does education today have to empower? What is the role of power in pursuit of empowering/educating? How to exercise which power to empower people? How do power and education interact to empower people in which ways and how well?

We are so occupied in fairing well (competing, comparing) that many such questions pass unattended (Apple, 1995). We often neglect some important issue like ‘what is

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5 Maslow expressed self-actualisation in terms of a state when ‘inner requiredness’ coincides with ‘external requiredness’, when the difference between “I want to” and “I must” diminishes. Rogers (as cited in McMartin, 1995, p 162) sees self-actualisation motive as ‘the urge to expand, extend, develop and mature’.
good’ (normativity) and ‘what might be’ (possibilities), but just engage with ‘what is’ (fact).

Given the increasing inequality, levels of poverty and other crisis areas, society doesn’t seem empowered. May be education has failed to contribute to creating a just and humane society, given the structures of domination and its legitimation. Therefore it is important to examine the relationship between education, economy, government and culture (Apple, 1995).

It has been increasingly clear that education serves the dominant forces/ideologies and works towards “knowledge- economy”. Economic decisions and market set values and direction for education. So” what is good for business is good for the country and its people” (Apple, 1995, p xxvi), and that determines which and how knowledge will be selected, organised, taught and evaluated.

The credible goal of economic development (power now) can be gained by ‘performativity’, not by truth. Knowledge that helps perform is valued, produced, sold and bought, not as a value itself, but for the power it gets. The performativity and consumption of knowledge efficiently improves through technological tools which facilitate to quantify, store, miniaturise knowledge. The way learning and knowledge is acquired, classified and made available are fast changing. Neoliberalism has brought sponsorships, vouchers, privatisation to educational institutions. The alliance of education and employment situates education as well as students as both resources and instruments of development (Sharma, 2012).

Lyotard (Roberts, 1998) foresaw all this and that societies will have computerised knowledge and knowledge will be increasingly exteriorised, with its sale or exchange value, losing even its ‘use value’ and far from ‘an end in itself’. Thinking and reflection are rendered useless. (Sharma, 2012)

The reforms in education are strategic interventions to promote modernisation, enhance viability of economic systems within world market and link macro issues of regulation with micro patterns of socialisation and child rearing (Popkewitz, 2000). Power is exercised through curricular and pedagogical regulations, like through techniques of accountability, measurement, management of education/schools. All changes are guided by the idea of ‘what is good’ for us (Apple, 1995). ‘Good schools’ are dynamic, responsive to the clients’ demands, and perform as per external judgments. (Apple, 2003) Similarly, ‘good teachers’ are construed and shaped to meet what favours dominant value.

The strategies reinforce competition through mobility in and outside schools, along with economic insecurity and cultural indiscipline, by ‘popularising’ some new form of normalcy, a form of social-Darwinist thinking which then drives people to befit changes (Apple, 2003). Normalisation favours and justifies competition, standardisation, centralisation, national curricular goals for modernisation leading to marketization. Universalisation of reason is an inscription of power, appears natural and essential, but is constructed as phenomenon of normalisation and thus legitimises exclusion. Normativity expresses through rules of the normal and universal, silently (Popkewitz, 2000). All these phenomena are in tune with modernisation, progressivism, pragmatism and social constructivism.

The same phenomenon works to form new professional identities wherein competence means being productive, efficient, pragmatic, flexible and performative as wanted. People continuously respond to changes to meet the needs of state and
under constant surveillance as well as ‘performance appraisal’ public assessment to live up to mark, therefore are governed with hardly any criticism, reflection or alternatives. The enterprising and competitive individual is ‘homo economicus’, who is ‘manipulable’ in the ‘marketized individualism’ with tacit control (Apple, 2003).

Pedagogy as a tool and technology of power has implications for governing children, their subjectivities, also teachers’ identity. Teacher is intervened in new ways to ensure work output and appraised in terms of being “efficient and productive” (Apple, 1995) shrinking the scope for self-regulation. In this system with governmentality people are treated as puppets with strings pulled by structural forces beyond their control and little understanding. They are totally formed out of ‘discourses and hence having no real agency’.

Governmentality is strategic action which Foucault saw actually saw as “action on the action of others” and for this, it needs to be calculated, rationalised, shaping conduct and desires, and is oriented to certain ends. Education, being state issue is guided and governed through such strategies and techniques (Barnett etc. 2008). This raises the questions of ethics, freedom, autonomy, given the games and contests inherent in the strategic action.

Even if power is not against anything or domination (unintentional), through governing action, the subjectivity is being governed (Barnett etc. 2008), strategies play on people’s choices and desires, affecting their motivations, beliefs and values, making individuals conform to norms and trends who then work and live without critical judgment. Rest is done by the force of socialisation, through everyday communication⁶, invisibly.

The governable person is constructed through governmentality. If educated person is conceived as self-governed, he/she cannot become easily governable/manipulable.

Comparing the scenario with classical liberalist terms of freedom, care and role of state and assumptions behind each, Apple analyses that individual was considered autonomous and wanting to pursue his interests best known to himself. State intervenes minimally allowing individuals their freedom and interests. The governance was to encourage self-governance.

But Apple (1995) perceives people as actors/agencies, individually and collectively, historically and currently. He holds that people can think critically through the tricky structural conditions as the strategies and techniques are not neutral and generate healthy and defensible alternatives.

Foucault (Stickney, 2007) talks of self-transformative potential and sees the infinite possibilities of subjectivisation as self-stylised and original despite similarly constituted selves. This is due to diverse ways in which subjects relate to rules because human subjects can develop ‘a capacity for freedom and decision-making slowly, progressively, heteronomously and with different success. Freedom is a political skill or power to be exercised’.

Freedom is as possible in and from all relations, from everyone as power is. Power is relational, as in our ways of living, interacting, is multi-layered and everywhere, comes from everything and everyone. Power and freedom coexist, operate and transform. Depending on how subjects are capable of altering, transforming or reversing, rapid evolution is possible to form agency, self and reality (Wong, 2010).

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⁶ Called ‘lay normativity’
With multiple material causes, many transformative practices in education are commendable as shown in the book reviewed by Stickney.

Education in the modern world cannot go for either authority or tradition, yet must proceed in a way that is neither structured by authority nor held together by tradition. This requires autonomy, because political will and resources are deficient for creating such possibilities (said by Arendt, as cited in Pitt, 2010).

Pitt (2010) goes with Kant’s views on education being imperative for the development of mankind. Education is justifiably taken as a means to nurture human freedom and creation of peaceful and orderly nation-state. She observes that the educational aim of developing rationality may be sufficient basis to make persons productive. But autonomy, understood as responsibility, as a worthwhile aim of education, demands much more than capacity to reason and produce. The ‘mature enlightenment’, idea by Kant, is interpreted as autonomy beyond reason, involving affective zones. Yet self-incurred immaturity has been a serious concern for both Kant and Freud.

Pitt considers that teacher-autonomy is crucial for developing student-autonomy. She studies how the achievement of maturity becomes elusive for new teachers when immaturity of individual meets immaturity of profession. In developing maturity, which plays very significant role in teaching-learning situation (Benson, 2005), the way we relate to others and allow others to relate to us matters.

In the way, ‘individuals direct their actions and those of others’, Foucault refers to the ‘techniques of self’ to govern ourselves that get better by being reflective and watchfully evaluative of self and direct us to what we deeply care about, making us moral/ethical agents and become more cohesive, satisfied, self-directed individuals with social responsiveness. For Foucault, being constructed and being autonomous are not mutually exclusive (Wong, 2010). Similarly, he sees autonomy as both instrumental and intrinsic.

It comes clearly that being watchful/aware and reflexive our concerns, values and how we relate to rules as well as self and others, our orientation are largely upto us and not so governed externally. This can free us from dependence, helplessness, fear of social annihilation and lack of confidence, and increases new teachers’ capacity to deal with frustration, complexity, challenges. It takes all- skill, understanding, will, interaction among social and cognitive aspects with affective. Stengel (2010) also reiterates that escaping from affect-inspired ambiguity and our quest for cognitive certainty keeps us from autonomy.

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7 Friedman sees personal autonomy in three dimensions- normative (rooted in values, intentions), relational (rooted in social context/web) and larger liberal-political dimension

8 Foucault analyses governing actions as having two poles one where state directs actions of groups and individuals through both relation of power and disciplinary techniques; and the other with the individual.

9 Foucault, in his later works looked up history to find these and compared the three models - Christian, which stands on sacrifice and service, Platonic which demands transcendence, and Hellenistic that is about spiritual practice and requires watching and evaluating oneself. The last one he preferred most.
Pitt senses urgency about education being at a point where we have to decide whether we love the world enough to assume responsibility for it (just reminding of Boulding’s ‘integrative power’). When love of children, knowledge, and ability to know (authentically) become our reason to decide, choose, and act/practice in education, then autonomy seems natural. Our deep concerns (autonomous) play pervasively in all our choices and actions. When transformed, we live, see and work differently.

Kant sees humans living according to their nature, which is being rational, self-conscious, reflexive and therefore responsible. Hare places integrity of judgment as central to autonomy and contrasts it with socialisation. We make judgments and choose accordingly. Choices presuppose possibilities, options, alternatives and thus our agency. Any of cognition, rationality, moral rules is not enough because we decide in face of uncertainty also, through our judgment. Reflectivity and values help improve it (Scheffler, 1985).

In teaching situations, teacher agency is important and can develop better when both head and heart are trained, says Palmer (as cited in Liston, 2010). Clear understanding and courage with vision lead to inner wisdom and practical insight and unique response in any teaching situation, real challenges and dilemmas. Better role orientation and consciousness is needed than possible through teacher education or within system.

Creating non-political alternatives becomes not only important but necessary for autonomy of humans and education. Many shades of contemplative stance, such as self-reflection emerge now as a way to help develop power of attention, which is required for proper perception and motivation (Caranfa, 2010). This brings clear direction to learning and integrity to live learning. Self-knowledge, along with self-love and self-will become self-worth.

Mond’s (2013) educational experiment justifies the need for quietening the mind which becomes noisy in the fast changing society and life where competition and instability are continuous in everyday experience that threaten, frighten and tire students who have to remain vigilant in the distrustful environment. This can make them violent also. They need to experience calmness and be able to share and care in respectful and trustful environment which activates their insightfulness, brings confidence that life can be otherwise than stressful and can direct their rational mind also better.

Believing strongly that empowerment is conscious self-inducement, it comes from within, and cannot be acquired, Taliaferro (1991) cautions teachers against the imposed ‘teacher empowerment programs’, which have hidden agendas to disempower/control.

She finds that great teachers feel powerful, rather than helpless, understand their work, are attentive, motivated, participative, engaged and responsible. They feel fulfilled beyond rewards and recognition, they empower students by creating a ‘freedom niche’ where teaching and learning are nurtured. These are all characteristics of autonomous and self-actualising persons.

But most teachers feel power only from outside, not from their own motivation, evaluation, but from evaluation and accountability mechanisms that can dissuade most from doing things for oneself (beyond acknowledgement and rewards, towards autonomy).
This, according to Krishnamurti (1953), who led a unique form of education in India, is due to the urge to conform, a desire for security rooted in fear which in turn invites power to dominate in some form, be it political, religious or social and further encourage subservience. Fear may take the form of respect and submission to the powerful often in forms of an individual, group or ideology and denies any intelligence to ourselves. We become mere ‘cogs in the social machine’ devoid of capacity to think creatively or attend wholly. Gradually we become indifferent, alienated, insensitive and increasingly dependent on external regulations. We passively hope for freedom while conforming, without caring to see which means can leads to what ends.

The problem with present day education, as he sees, is over-emphasises on technique which is destroying man (Krishnamurti, 1953). Cultivating capacity and efficiency without understanding life, without having a comprehensive perception of the ways of thought and desire can only make us increasingly ruthless and can bring many crises. Right education, Krishnamurti (2002) said, is for the transformation of individuals and society. It is total education for total life with total self. Learning, then, is by and for whole being, and involves free inquiry and exploration which comes to children naturally, they being curious. The inquiry is authentic and free from authority, external discipline, norms of obedience, conformity or dogma, or fear often generated by comparison and competition or for incentives. For this, teachers need to be open, growing, reflective, patient and loving themselves (empowered, autonomous) 10. This total development occurs beyond mind’s limitations, in which teaching is about the cultivating inquiring mind. Learning begins from self and is about knowing self also. That way, child is sensitive and responsive to totality without being self-centred. Solitude, study and dialogue also help to develop sensitivity and encourage an integrated whole perspective.

“Government control of education is a calamity” (Krishnamurti, 2002,p77). Government is training youth to be efficient. Regimentation and prejudice are being cultivated and enforced through mass instruction. Only education of individual can make individuality possible, and that is volitional.

Education, in its intrinsic sense is about empowerment or autonomy. And educational institutions run on certain ideologies and to ensure or promote their continuity through directives, regulatory mechanisms that can increasingly become subtle/invisible. Empowerment, at core is about inward direction, self-knowledge, self-love, self-worth being central. It is essentially an individual’s volitional pursuit for one’s own freedom and control in one’s life. Neither can any system provide it, nor can nations in global race afford to educate to be persons who are integrated, free and self-governed, not so governable.

Analysing with reference to few meanings of education, whenever we want to make certain kind of persons (e.g., productive, efficient, good citizens), it is for certain purpose, to serve the powerful ideology, and therefore the valued aspects will be played in education. And whatever plays, stays. His/society’s peace, harmony and well-being may not stand so relevant. Education, just an instrument for reproducing

10 Teacher has to be alive, responsive and open to whatever can help develop students’ intelligence and encourage experiencing fully. Teaching is not a technique, a profession, but a way of life. An authentic teacher is not instrument of politicians, is not after power in any form (position, money, fame or honour). He just encourages students to exercise their intelligence freely and not be dependent on teacher, or see him as ideal.
power remains contested and choicelessly disempowered. If it is transforming due to forces outside of it, it loses power to transform. Education has to be empowered enough to empower; overpowered, it cannot empower.

But empowerment has as many original possibilities because freedom co-exists with power at multiple levels. Education can also be empowered as power of education lies in its normativity, and that too, in its intrinsic meaning. Engaging in reflection about ‘what should education value’ is necessary to regain its transformative potential, and by generating meaningful alternatives.

The human power to discern what is worthwhile, his will to develop perspectives need to be activated. Otherwise this ‘power within’ remains dormant and succumbs to the subtle play of external powers. Empowerment is about becoming free from oppression, outer control and conditioning (Rowlands). The choice depends on us: to live like puppets, driven, helpless, controlled and mechanically or move from automated mode to autonomous mode. Autonomy and freedom are always a choice with us and we better activate and develop it well. The concern is so central and pervasive to our life that it shows up in various forms and domains, as self-actualisation or empowerment, like a Hydra that if clipped, new hands emerge again.

Frankl (2008), a psychologist, who having survived through the experience of Nazi camp opines that even when everything is taken from man, one last human freedom lies in choosing one’s attitude in any given set of circumstances. Man can avoid and not submit to those powers which threaten self, inner freedom and be free, dignified and protect us from apathy even in the most inhumane settings. The fundamental choice is not freedom from conditions, but it is freedom to take a stand towards conditions.

11 Among the criteria of education by Peters,
13 As per behaviourism (Skinner as cited in Ozmon and Craver, 1981) such ‘power within’, consciousness, ‘inner realm’ is denied whereby ‘autonomy’ and freedom become impossible concepts. Or at most, consciousness is a social product and not within the range of solitary individual, as it was verbalised that was considered conscious, rest was largely unconscious. People are controlled by forces they are unconscious of, no individuality can exist apart from social development (p223). Can we conceive of self not determined by any bit of biological inheritance and social environments. Many arguments against autonomy rise, that it has reference to oneself only; that education for autonomy seems self-contradictory, because no child can be left to his freedom without licence.
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Abstract
Japan is caught between a rock and a hard place. It is aware of the need for its people to be competent speakers of English in a world whose cultural boundaries are growing thinner and thinner, yet has difficulty producing any. One look at the pundits and the chorus becomes "Japanese and English grammar is so different!!". One look at the academics and tune changes to "It's a problem steeped in deep cultural issues!!" The reality is that both sides are right. English is quite different from Japanese in syntax and also there indeed has been and continues to be a huge push for students to study English only to pass the infamous university entrance exams. But one crucial point seems to go unnoticed among all the exclamation made in the name of English in Japan. It is something that underlies this entire clamor and the very essence of language itself. It is something that babies know so well and lies at the heart of all language competence. It is speaking. The entire conversation of English education improvement in Japan is glossing the most important aspect of opening one’s mouth and speaking and this paper explores one way to address this most crucial issue.

Keywords: (English Education, Applied Linguistics, Universal Grammar, Japan)
Introduction

This paper illustrates an argument, built lightly upon the theory of a Universal Grammar (UG), about recreating an environment similar to when a human learns to communicate in a native language (L1), to aid individuals in acquiring communication skills in a second language (L2). Using instructional design (ID) methodology, an initial attempt to create such an environment with over 1000 Japanese high school (JHS) students is explained. Namely, the action of communication if broken down into distinct parts, the most fundamentally important of these parts is located, and analysis of a desired state to which the JHS students aspire to be in is described. Next, the beginning stages of a description of the actual state in which the JHS currently exist are laid out. The paper concludes with a discussion of how to further the ID process and potential revisions to be made.

Universal Grammar?

UG is a theory that explores the natural phenomenon in the brain that allows humans to communicate in their native languages (L1) despite receiving no formal education to do so (White, 2003). An example to illustrate what I mean is the rule in English that to ask a question one must first switch the subject and auxiliary verbs of the sentence.

He is happy  ------>  Is he happy?

Humans who speak English as one of their native languages are never taught this rule yet they all manage to obey it as they learn to speak. Another such rule is the dissimilar use of the plural form among compound words. For example, when describing, say, a house that is infested with mice, we could say mice-infested, yet we would never describe a house infested with rats as rats-infested. This distinction is naturally obeyed by all native learners of English and many linguists attribute it to UG (Pinker, 1994). To build my argument, I suppose the reason for this is equal parts innate structures in our brain (UG) and specific structures in our environment while we are acquiring L1. My argument is as follows: If every human has a UG that allows them to speak a language without any formal education, and they end up speaking the languages that are most prevalent in the environment wherein they are born, then it must be the relationship between the UG and the specific circumstances of their environment that underpins the entire concept of L1 acquisition. Assuming that in adults, the UG never actually goes away, that it simply becomes dull from years of disuse due to achieving L1 competence to the point where it is possible to undertake other intellectual pursuits, it should be possible to stimulate the UG anew to learn a second language (L2) by creating an environment that is similar to when we were learning our L1 as infants. If special attention is given to ensure this environment is catered to the unique circumstances of the learner, L2 acquisition, at least communicatively, could occur as naturally as L1. Imagine such an endeavor! Learning a second language the same way we learned our native tongue! I would like to share with you my experience thus far with such an endeavor, specifically with attempting to create an environment where 1000 Japanese high school students learn to communicate in English as if they were learning it as infants.
Creating an Environment with Instructional Design

What are the first steps in creating an environment where Japanese high school students learn to communicate in English (L2) similar to the environment where they learned to communicate in Japanese (L1)? Instructional Design (ID) can offer some insight. ID, to put it simply, refers to designing a way for individuals to reach a solution to a problem by means of instruction. The first step in this process is to locate a problem and clarify any vague terminology in the problem statement. The next step is to describe what is called a desired state - an environment where the problem does not exist. Then the actual state is described - the environment where the problem currently exists. The final step is to describe how an individual within the actual state would be able to reach the desired state. This is done by designing an path that the individual would follow; an instructional unit that acts as a bridge between the two states. (Dick, Carey, & Carey, 2009).

For example, say my problem is that my younger brother is not eating enough cookies; through the process of instructional design, how would I create an environment where this problem no longer exists? First, as stated above, I need to further define any vague terminology in my problem statement - the word enough. I need to further define how many cookies are enough. In the current step of this ID process I cannot give a specific number that qualifies as enough, although I may be able to later on. Currently it would suffice to spell out a more specific definition of the word enough to ensure the subsequent steps are properly focused. I will alter the problem statement to the further defined form of, my younger brother is not eating the number of cookies that satisfies him when his desire for cookies arises.

Why such the elaboration? Why is it not enough to just say enough? The end game of Instructional design is to have participants performing at target outcomes. If the definition of those outcomes is not consistent with the definitions of the problems they are the proposed solution of, no beneficial instruction has taken place - no problems have been solved in an immediately noticeable way. Enough is too general of a term to be survive the ID process. Imagine the process of instructional design as a sausage maker and the words we use as the meat we put into it. We could try to stick a solid chunk of beef (a vague term like enough) into the funnel and turn the handle, but we would be sorely disappointed if we expected any sort of sausage to come out the other end. We would first need to take this solid chunk of beef and break it down into a more malleable form (A specific term like number that satisfies when desire for cookies arises), maybe add some berries and spice, before we put it into the machine. Still, the shape of the meat will be different once it comes out of the machine (there might be an actual number figure, etc.), but it will at least come out (I do not think it is coincidence that the ID process mirrors how the human mind naturally handles whole pieces of information - by first understanding its composite parts). The reason I labor this point is because, as will be seen in the next section, the term communication in my problem is incredibly vague and goes through a very extensive process of deconstruction.

The next step is to define the desired state by looking for an environment where this problem, in its specifically defined form, does not exist. Where are there people who, whenever their desire for cookies arises, are eating the right number of cookies to satisfy this desire? After some extensive research I have decided that such an
environment exists wherever there are healthy looking adults who choose cookies as their sweet of preference when the desire hits. The reason I decided on this environment is because it parallels my question very well. Adult parallels whenever their desire arises in that generally, as an adult, one is free to consume whenever and however one wants. Healthy looking parallels eating the right number of cookies in that these adults are not eating so many cookies to the point of appearing unhealthy. Now that I have located a potential candidate environment to use as my desired state, I need to describe this environment. The most efficient way to do this would be to physically enter the environment and ask these adults, also known as subject matter experts (SME), to share their extensive knowledge about how they freely eat cookies yet do so at a healthy rate. These method is, however, not necessary considering the simplicity of the context. Any adult who makes enough money to buy cookies could act as a SME, therefore I can answer a lot of these questions using my own intuition. The questions below detail one attempt to describe the desired state by asking some simple questions.

Q1.1 - How are you able to eat cookies whenever you want?

A1.1 - I have money that allows me to buy them and I live alone, therefore no one tells me to not buy them

Q1.2 - How do you know how many cookies are enough to satisfy your desire for sweets?

A1.2 - I have enough experience with upset stomachs from eating too many that I am sensitive to my tummy’s signals telling me when I have had enough.

Q1.3 - How many cookies do you usually eat in one sitting

A1.3 - 5

What we have here is a desired state description of - Adults are able to eat cookies every time the desire for something sweets hits because they are single and have money. Also, their healthy state dictates that they eat enough cookies which is around five per desire, the reason they do this being they have had a lot of experience with upset tummies from eating too many cookies that they are sensitive to when their stomach signals they have had enough.

What needs to be mentioned here is that I could keep getting deeper with these questions, and I would - depending on the type of problem that needs to be addressed. I could keep digging with more questions about the type of tummy signals and how they differ from eating too many salty foods, etc. There is no end. I must decide when the description I have attained of the desired state is fit for the next step - describing the actual state.

The reason the desired state is described first is because its description is used as a comparison to describe the actual state. It is not effective to give an objective description of the actual state, for such a description will lack the necessary information to perform the next step - provide a proper goal statement. The goal statement is what the entire instructional unit will be based on, in other words, the
goal statement dictates how the instructional unit will bridge the gap between the actual and desired states. For this there is a need to define the actual state in relation to its desired state. This is done, once again, by answering lots of questions, but this time about why individuals in the actual state (my younger brother) are not able to perform like those in the desired state (the healthy looking adult), which means the questions need to be paralleled with the answers used to describe the desired state. The typical way to ask these questions would be to enter the environment where the instructional participants exist and ask them questions similar to the ones used to describe the desired state. Due to the simplicity of the context, again, I can use my own intuition to answer the questions.

Q2.1 - Why does my brother not have money to buy cookies and why does he not live alone?
A2.1 - He is eight years old. He is too young to legally work and lacks the life skills to live alone.

Q2.2 - Why does my brother not have enough experience with eating too many cookies to understand his tummy signals?
A2.2 - He has only been eating cookies for about six years since he graduated from baby food and he does not have free access to cookies to allow for many experiences.

Q2.3 - Why does my brother not know the number of cookies that would give him ideal satisfaction?
A2.3 - See A2.2.

From this analysis, an actual state could be described as - Eight year old males are not able to eat cookies because they are too young to legally work and too dependent to live alone. They also do not know the healthy number of cookies that would satisfy their desire because they lack the necessary number of experiences of upset stomachs, due to their limited access to cookies, to know this number.

You may have noticed that I am generalizing these statements to all eight year old males and all healthy-looking adults who eat cookies. To make these generalizations in any scientifically acceptable way I would need to gather data from many more individuals who fit the description. As long as I make this discrepancy explicit when I submit this paper to be published in next month’s issue of Cookies for All, All for Cookies, I should be fine.

Finally from these two states - actual and desired - we can start the process of creating an environment where the problem may not exist. This process is the final step of designing an instructional unit that is catered specifically towards the needs of individuals in the actual state in helping them traverse the gap into the desired state. This is not the final step in the ID process, however, there is still a step of creating evaluation instruments (formative and summative) to ensure participants of the instructions are progressing correctly, and the endless yet beautiful process of
iteration - reviewing and revising the entire ID process until the end of time - because until life ceases to exist on this planet we will never cease in trying to understand it.

Although the actual instructional unit is not possible to know at this moment, we can think of a goal that would spearhead the creation of the entire unit. The goal would describe what the participants of the instruction would be doing if they had transferred the gap into the desired state. It would speak of a list of outcomes that are catered to the specific needs of those in the actual state. For example, to satisfy the need, in the desired state, of money and independence that is lacking in the actual state, a potential goal statement could be - participants will be able to find a way to make some money legally and demonstrate independence to parents. This goal would then be dissected into the necessary amount of sub-goals to allow for an instructional unit to be created that ensured each sub-goal was achieved by the individual, and measured for proper internalization. The only reason I have this as the final step of this paper is because this is where I currently stand in my process of creating an environment where Japanese high school students learn to communicate in English (L2) similar to how they learned to communicate in Japanese (L1). I will continue this process and write another paper detailing the latter steps as they come to fruition.

So without further ado, here is what I have done so far.

Breaking down communication

As in the cookie example, my problem (Japanese high school students do not communicate well in English) has a very vague and bulky term that will not fit well into the sausage maker - namely, communication. What does it mean to communicate? When I describe both the actual and desired states, how would I be able to tell if, and how, communication is happening? To define communication into a more malleable term I have decided to break it down into its various sub-actions, locate the most fundamentally important of these sub-actions, and treat that action as the term I use to define both the desired and actual states. I wish I could site some prestigious paper that supports the logic I use here but there is no need because baseball already did it for me.

Communication is a complex action in the game of language in the same way as hitting a homerun is a complex action in the game of baseball. Every action, regardless to the game it belongs to, is composed of a hierarchy of sub-actions that are required for its completion, with an ascending scale of importance, ending with the top-most sub-action being the most fundamental in importance. Fundamental in importance means the lack thereof would render the completion of the whole action impossible. Here is an illustration for your understanding ease:
The action hierarchy of hitting a homerun, for example, would something like this:

**Fundamentally Important Action**

- Sub-action #1
- Sub-action #2
- Sub-action #3
- Etc.

While all the sub-actions leading up to the top are important, they are not fundamentally important because remove any one of them and hitting a homerun is still possible, even if only at a fraction of a percent. Remove, however, the top-most action of swinging the bat at the ball and the action of hitting a homerun has been rendered possible to the level of zero percent; in other words, impossible. Organizing an action from this hierarchical perspective allows us to peer into any action like it were a living organism to see how it works and if needed, how we could fix it. I have organized the action of communication into following hierarchy of sub-actions:
Open one’s mouth and speak

Think of what to say

Mentally organize words into sentence using syntax

Ponder upon meaning of current emotion

Allow oneself to react

Observe one’s environment

What you may have noticed is that the top-most action, the most fundamentally important action, the action that if removed would render the entire action of communication impossible is to speak and not to write. Although writing is a form of communication that does not require one to speak and therefore it too could be considered for the top-spot, I did not choose it because in any future global context in which Japanese people are to use English, I doubt someone will approach them and ask, “Excuse me, but can you by chance write English?”

People who are involved in the English education in Japan will notice something very interesting about this hierarchy of sub-actions, namely think of what to say. It is common knowledge that Japanese people are very concerned with image, not only visual, but also mental. Therefore they place a lot of emphasis on educating themselves on the correct way of saying something by spending a lot of time studying grammar. While this is an important sub-action to proper communication, it still is not the most fundamentally important. To understand this one only need enter a Japanese high school classroom and watch as students, with sincere desire, mull over within their minds how to respond to the question, “How long did you sleep last night”, only to give in to silence as the possible ways of answering become too overwhelming. Japan’s concern with image, which has led to a concern with correct English, often causes fear to strike silence into the heart of anyone with the opportunity to communicate, because they think, “Nothing is worse than saying something wrong.” This is one of the many problems that can be blamed for Japan’s issue with English communication, yet focusing more energy on this action over simply speaking will not create an solution - as my hierarchy of communication shows.

Now that I have defined communication into a malleable form, let’s start the sausage-making process.
Desired State

To describe the desired state I need to answer as many questions as I can about the conditions that allow for the UG of an infant to connect with its environment and allow for spoken competence in L1. Similar to the cookie example, the SME for this desired state, an infant, is an individual who cannot communicate with me in the way that I need, so it is up to my intuition and any relevant text I can get a hold of to properly describe this environment. To aid myself in this process I have created three categories that I believe underpin all the relevant information needed to describe this desired state: cultural; social; and personal. These categories are general enough in importance that if I analyze the desired state through their categorical lenses, I should be able to take what I learn and, after a little alteration to demographic relevance, use it to describe the same categories that underpin a classroom of Japanese high school students (the actual state). The following are the questions I will use to play around with.

Q3.1 - What are the cultural constructs that allow an infant’s UG to connect with its environment and learn to communicate in its L1 by the sole action of speaking?

Q3.2 - What are the social constructs that allow an infant’s UG to connect with its environment and learn to communicate in its L1 by the sole action of speaking?

Q3.3 - What are the personal constructs that allow an infant’s UG to connect with its environment and to learn to communicate in its L1 by the sole action of speaking?

As the answering of these questions is where I currently stand in the ID process of addressing my problem, all I can offer is a small review of the ideas I have found to be of use.

A3.1 - It is culturally expected of a baby to not be able to speak, and therefore when a baby does begin to speak, it is expected that the baby will make many mistakes. There is, in fact, a culture of “cute” that surrounds these mistakes, wherein the baby is praised for making them, and therefore feels motivated to continue the process that allows for these mistakes to happen - speaking. As a function of UG is to organize the random sounds a baby hears from its environment into words and phrases useful for communication, a crucial part of this organization is to confirm, by vocal repetition, whether or not what was heard is correct. The culture of “cute” allows this process to happen with ease.

A3.2 - Similar to the culture of “cute” that allows babies to comfortably make mistakes with their spoken word, every single person involved in a baby’s life is expecting a baby to make a mistake. Indeed every person is an educator, poised to jump at each mistake a baby makes with their opinion of what is correct. They only need to first hear a baby speak a mistake. This willingness to educate that exists at a social level could be the construct behind the saying, “it takes a village to raise a child”. Although people these days are a little more particular with how their child is educated, the UG of each baby still
views these corrections received from any individual as learning opportunities. It is not until some considerable socialization has occurred - when a baby is no longer a baby but a child - that these socially instigated moments of education are seen more as annoyances than useful opportunities. Certainly the degree of active engagement of the UG has something to do with this change in perception. Also, does the UG of each baby react only to overt attempts to educate from an individual? How often does a surprised mother ask her child, “Where did you learn to say that?”

A3.3 - The personal construct that allows for a baby’s UG to connect with its environment through speaking must be the need of each human to develop an identity. For it is this need alone that motivates all curious exploration a human undertakes; the bulk of which is done by asking, vocally, questions to people who may know the answer. Babies are doing it the moment they emerge from the womb in the form of crying. Although crying is a form of spoken language unintelligible to most humans, except for perhaps, the baby’s mother, it is spoken language nonetheless. For it is through crying, giggling, fussing, and the myriad other noises babies make that they communicate to their caretakers very important needs that, the satisfaction of, lay the foundations for what is to become their, indeed our, identity. UG has a key role in allowing the continued satisfaction of these identity establishing needs by adapting to their evolution of complexity. When once a simple cry brought the milk a baby wanted, such a language no longer suffices. Babies eventually develop more complex desires that milk no longer satisfies. UG allows a babe’s cry to evolve into the necessary language to communicate these complexities as they arise. There is indeed a powerful link between UG and the development of individual human identity.

A summarized description of the desired state is as follows: An infant’s UG is allowed connection to its environment by first, the culture of cute that views spoken mistakes by babies as cute and therefore permissible; second, a social expectation of every adult human to be ready to correct these mistakes; and third, a personal need to use spoken language as one’s main form of identity development.

Actual State

As in the cookie example, the questions used to create a description of the actual state of Japanese high school students will parallel the description of the desired state.

Q3.1 - What are the cultural constructs that do not allow a culture of “cute” to surround a JHS student’s mistakes as they speak in L2?

Q3.2 - What are the social constructs that do not allow an expectation to be built around every adult to correct the mistakes made by JHS students as they speak in L2?

Q3.3 - What are the personal constructs that do not allow L2 to be used as a tool to develop the identity of JHS students?
According to the ID process, after a substantial description of the actual state is acquired by means of providing answers to the above questions, a goal statement can be formed, around which an instructional unit can be built to help JHS students leave this actual state and arrive at the desired state. This is, of course, all theoretical. There is no such thing as certainty in the ID process, only action. Hence, it’s heavily reliant nature on iteration. If the particular iteration I have spelled out in this paper does not lead to a viable instructional unit, I must revise the entire process with the information I gained from well-crafted evaluation instruments.

**Conclusion**

This ID process of deconstructing the act of communication to its fundamentally important action and defining actual and desired states around this action that can be applied to a classroom of JHS students is the first of its kind to cut through the noise surrounding the popular problem of the English communication difficulties of the Japanese people and provide the start for a solution that can be internalized by Japanese society as a whole. While the iteration spelled out in this paper is by no means complete, it does provide a starting point for further work to be conducted.

A continuation of the description of the actual state, development of instructional tools to help JHS students cross the gap, and construction of evaluation tools to measure their progress and the overall effectiveness of this particular iteration are needed. Another paper detailing this continued process is forthcoming. I also believe a revision of UG in terms that are applicable to the argument proposed in this paper would be a very wise thing to do. There is still much to explore about specific examples of how UG connects with environments to aid in L1 acquisition that could greatly alter the shape of this instructional unit. Such revisions will be considered during the revision/evaluation phase of the ID process. Thank you.
References


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Engaging ESL Students Through a Project-Based Learning Activity

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Abstract
Due to the increased influence of multimedia and technology on contemporary students, one of the most difficult challenges facing many language teachers is to develop effective strategies to integrate online technology into the classroom. To help achieve greater integration, ESL teachers can employ the basic tenets of Project-Based Learning (PBL). This paper details the implementation of a web-based project undertaken by pre-university students at the Preparation Center for Languages and Mathematics of Mahidol University in Thailand. As websites are already a familiar medium among students, they can be utilized as a powerful tool to facilitate self-directed learning and enhance student achievement. Creating their own personalized website enables students to become active in their learning, develop critical research skills, and conceptualize a project from beginning to end. A practical approach to implementing the main principles of Project-Based Learning as well as the benefits and challenges of this type of classroom project are discussed in the following paper.

Keywords: Project-Based Learning, ESL, classroom technology, self-directed learning
Context

Hallinger (2012) noted that Thailand invested in access to education in the 1990s, thereby raising the level of compulsory education from six, to nine, and finally 12 years (p. 3). Pennington has argued, however, that this increased access to education has not addressed endemic problems with the system but instead simply raised the number of students experiencing “the pedagogy of the worksheet” (as cited in Hallinger, 2012. p. 2). In response to these problems, Thailand passed the National Education Act (NEA) in 1999 with the ambitious goal of replacing rote teacher-centered learning with a more student-centered style focusing more on the quality rather than the quantity of graduates (Hallinger & Lee, 2011, p. 140). In spite of these reforms, some Thai students graduating from high school continue to lack the critical thinking and problem solving skills that a student-centered approach fosters.

These shortcomings become immediately apparent when students enter a liberal arts university like Mahidol University International College (MUIC), in which western critical thinking skills and logic are indispensable. Hence, one of the main goals of Preparation Center for Language and Mathematics is to address these deficiencies in preparing students for entrance to MUIC. The preparation center has an enrolment of between 300-500 students depending on the term. The center has four levels of students (PC1-4) with students from pre-intermediate to upper intermediate English language users. The students have a wide variety of educational backgrounds ranging from Thai to international schools. Some of them have even spent a year or two abroad in native English-speaking countries. Most of the students have been studying English for ten years or more. Students receive an average of thirty weeks of instruction in which they work on improving their language proficiency along with the aforementioned critical thinking skills.

However, while the National Education act of 1999 (NEA) and its attendant education reforms are a step in the right direction, imparting logic and critical thinking skills within the Thai context has proven problematic at times since Thai culture is often viewed as unique. As pointed out by Jungck & Kajornsin (2003), one goal of education reform in Thailand preceding the economic crisis of 1997 was to promote “Thai Wisdom” and local knowledge as a way of preserving the uniqueness of Thai culture (p. 31). This movement, they noted, had so much support that it was not only legislated as part of the Education Reform Act of 1999 (p. 31) but was also included in articles 46 and 81 of the 1997 Thai Constitution (Jungck & Kajornsin, 2007, p.33). Rung Kawdang, the Secretary General of Thailand’s Office of the National Education Commission (ONEC) argued that Thailand had overlooked local wisdom (as cited in Jungck & Kajornsin, 2003):

[Educators] had pursued Western ways of development and entirely neglected indigenous or local knowledge, the splendid treasure that has played important roles in building the nation’s unity and dignity. Now it is the time we should turn back to our own philosophy, our own culture, and our own indigenous knowledge. (p. 28)
Hence, educators are challenged with preserving indigenous culture and wisdom while at the same time, imparting western logic and problem solving skills.

**Literature Review**

Given the contested nature of the term “Project-based Learning” (PBL) coupled with its wide ranging set of defining features, Thomas (2000) posited that rather than providing a precise definition for PBL, a more pragmatic approach is to filter out what it is not by answering the question “what must a project have in order to be considered an instance of PBL” (p. 3)? In order to answer this question, he developed a framework consisting of the following five criteria: centrality, driving question, constructive investigations, autonomy, and realism (p. 3). First, projects must be a vital component of the curriculum. In other words, they are not outside of the curriculum but instead “are the curriculum” (p. 3). Secondly, projects must examine questions that push students to engage in and grapple with core ideas and components of a discipline. In addition, projects involve students in constructing knowledge through goal-oriented investigation in which they use problem solving to work towards resolutions. Furthermore, projects must be, for the most part, student-centered rather than teacher-driven (p. 4). Finally, projects must be authentic and focused on real-life problems and solutions that students have the potential of implementing (p. 4). As Markham (2011, p. 38) noted, PBL consolidates knowledge and application in that students must apply what they have learned in order to solve real-world problems and, often, showcase their work to an adult audience. The researchers chose to use action research since it seeks to bring together action and reflection in order to address real-world problems (Wadsworth, 1993).

This shift to authentic learner-centered teaching is increasingly de-emphasizing the role of the teacher, while at the same time, stressing the learner’s own experiences as a vital component of learning by focusing on completing tasks in the classroom (Brown, 2007, p. 242). Teachers are no longer considered to be purveyors of knowledge, but are instead seen as facilitators who guide students through the learning process as students actively develop solutions to problems they encounter during the course of their project.

This hands-on path to learning is not a nascent phenomenon, and was in fact supported by John Dewey prior to WWII. This is exemplified by his support of “learning by doing” (Dewey, 1938). This vocational approach to education is not only the foundation of the PBL but also underpins constructivist theory. According to Hernández-Ramos and Paz (2010), “A core assumption of constructivist-theory is that learners actively construct knowledge through activity, and the goal of the learning experiences designed by teachers is to promote a deep understanding rather than superficial (and short-lived) memorization” (p. 152).

Furthermore, learner’s needs have changed considerably over the past few decades. Nowadays, the term “literate” encompasses more than just the ability to use language effectively. It also involves a range of skills including the ability to gather, process, and analyze information in order to make decisions and solve problems (Kasper, 2000, p. 105.) As pointed out by Kasper (2000), “Students today must acquire a battery of skills that will enable them to take advantage of the diverse modes of communication made possible by new technologies and to participate in the global...
learning communities” (p. 105). Therefore, employing the use of website-based PBL can help address the information technology needs of modern Thai students.

Method

The core function of the Preparation Center for Languages and Mathematics at Mahidol University is to provide a strong foundation in academic English, which will allow students to matriculate into the main university. In the two lower levels, PC1 (elementary) and PC2 (pre-intermediate), English instruction entails more explicit division of skills, whereas the upper two levels, PC 3 (intermediate) and PC 4 (upper-intermediate), take a more integrated approach to the related skills. This particular project involved a total of 42 PC 1 (elementary) students divided into two groups.

The project was completely internet-based using Google Sites and had a duration of nine weeks as part of a ten week term. Students were given an advisor to monitor their progress throughout the project. Students participated in interactive advisory sessions, arranged in weeks two, six, and eight to ensure that they were following the predetermined schedule of tasks. The scheduled feedback sessions allowed students multiple opportunities to redesign and adapt their websites before final submissions were evaluated. The first advisory session involved an introduction to the process of creating a Google website. The advisors explained the various aspects of website design, including effective use of colors and fonts, pictures and graphics, complexity, usability, consistency, and clarity.

The website itself was composed of two main sections. The “Who I am” section required students to reflect on their personal lives. They created subpages about the people, activities, goals and values that were most important to them as young people. The “My Country” section involved students conducting research from newspapers, journals, magazines, and additional online news sources. Students were then asked to select and analyze at least four English publications that addressed key issues in Thailand. Students were autonomous in their selection of the recent publications; however, suggested topic areas included business, education, the environment, sports and entertainment news.

To share the results of their learning experience, students were asked to, in their website, write brief summaries of their selected publications as well as discuss their personal opinions about the articles they had selected. In order to enhance speaking competencies, students were also asked to film at least two discussions involving themselves and two other participants, again analyzing their chosen issues. The minimum time frame for each video was 2 minutes; although, most students went well beyond this time limit. The videos were subsequently uploaded to YouTube and integrated into their project websites. Throughout the entire process, students were expected to provide comments and suggestions for their classmates to collectively improve each other’s projects in terms of accuracy and completeness.

The completed websites were evaluated based on their overall professional appearance, the quality of the written content, and the thoroughness of their recorded video discussions. Graphic design, creativity, organization, use of space, color, and ease of navigation were the key criteria used in the evaluation of the websites. Writing quality and oral components were measured based on the use of clearly
organized comparisons, cohesively linked language, grammatical accuracy as well as lexical range. Students were also evaluated on their collaborative effort as measured by the quantity and quality of comments on each other’s websites.

Outcomes

In creating their own websites, students were able to reflect on self-management skills, creativity, and problem solving strategies. Through the multidisciplinary online project, students were actively challenged to achieve higher cognitive processing as demonstrated in their analysis of issues that affected them as citizens of Thailand. Students learned to organize the information and opinions they gathered into web pages that they had carefully designed. Students gained important knowledge of information technology and capitalized on online learning opportunities. By applying multiple skills, which included writing, reading, speaking, research and critical thinking skills, website design, and video editing, student autonomy and confidence grew. Through the online learning experience, students were able to take advantage of the dynamic and collaborative learning environment that is often created by merging project-based learning with Internet resources. Due to the requirement of commenting on each other’s projects, learners were afforded numerous opportunities to build on their collaborative learning competencies. The students were also exposed to expeditionary learning as they completed a structured investigation of the most pertinent local issues and explained their impacts at a personal and regional level. The majority of students remained engaged and enthusiastic throughout the assignment.

Discussion

It is possible to use Thomas’s (2000) five-point framework to evaluate the level of adherence to PBL guiding principles achieved by this project. With the exception of Thomas’s first criteria of centrality, this project was able to satisfy the main criteria necessary to be deemed Project Based Learning. Despite being a major component of the pre-intermediate level, the final website is still considered “peripheral” as it is not the central passing criteria. At the Preparation Center, students also receive more traditional EFL instruction, in which core skills are explicitly emphasized to a greater degree. This conventional approach to teaching may be effective; however, it does place constraints on student autonomy and overall level of input in determining their educational goals.

The criterion of “driving question” was adequately met as the students were encouraged to draw personal conclusions about what they had read about. The analysis of the issues that students researched had a clear and purposeful intellectual aim. In designing the website and carefully analyzing information from their own research and the opinions of others, students were able to learn and practice problem solving skills. Students successfully converted the outcomes of their research into a topic-based website reflective of their learning experience, thereby fulfilling the criterion of constructive investigations.

Autonomy and realism were equally observed as advisory sessions served only to allow students opportunities to seek clarification and review their intended outcomes. As in typical PBL, the content, design and overall direction of the resulting websites were for the most part directly student-driven. The research that students engaged in involved texts that were authentic as were the participants in the filmed discussions.
Conclusion and Suggestions

The construction of a project-based website affords students encompassing practice in problem solving, communication, and self-management. The autonomy of creating a website engages students and motivates them by encouraging accountability and habits of mind that are associated with goal setting and self-motivated learning. Future practice in PBL should involve greater information technology as it is vital for modern students to possess a high level of technical literacy. Ellis (2006) argued that evaluating the effect of electronic networks on the quality of student writing is somewhat problematic (p. 372). He also pointed out, however, that there has been some research showing that electronic networks are beneficial since they can broaden the students’ audience in three different ways: quantitatively, providing more readers for the student, rhetorically generating peer comments that create new tasks, and reciprocally linking writers who act as each others’ audience (p. 372). Teachers should be encouraged to apply creativity to the design of project-based learning opportunities as they encourage enhanced research competence and fundamental skills of implementation and evaluation.

In reassessing traditional EFL instruction, it may be necessary to begin emphasizing the skills of creativity, problem-solving, and self-direction. The traditional Thai curriculum may be able to re-orient itself to place greater importance on the ability to think critically and express creativity in addition to the communicative use of English. Similar PBL projects involving web design can be used as a way of preserving indigenous knowledge while at the same time equipping Thai students with a more global perspective of education.
References


Redefining Educational Boundaries with Technology: The Systemic Perspective

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Abstract
This paper examines global trends in education reform from the point of view of specific references selected within the systemic branch of educational literature. It is argued that a sharper consciousness of the specificities of the global educational environment, with a correspondingly sharper differentiation of the offer of the mainstream educational players, will have to come about in the near future. Communication, the primary constitutive element of educational reality, is gradually expanding into latent domains made available by new technologies and activating in them completely different educational languages and different codifications of educational success. Implications and suggestions for research that can highlight the challenges this surplus of ways for experiencing education may pose to the traditional forms of regulating the educational provision are included.

Keywords: social complexity, communication boundaries, educational change, functional differentiation, learning environments
The Background and Purpose

Education is assumed to be a relatively specialized field of study. Nevertheless, it is perhaps surprising to acknowledge just how much theoretical production, related to a quite broad range of educational topics, does not come specifically from educational researchers or practitioners. This study aims at contributing to the development of a closer understanding of one of these outsider points of view on educational matters, one that can be roughly related to *Systems Sciences*, or *Systemics*. That perspective, which sees learning as a regulatory mechanism of complex adaptive systems, is progressively becoming more prominent, in education and in other fields of human and social inquiry, due to the growing interest in holistic research, one that is sensitive, or, at least, not totally blind, to the "ways of the whole."

More than reflecting a genuine interest in educational questions, the “incursion” of this outside perspective into the educational debate seems to reflect a higher level of awareness of the substantial gap that separates the purpose, socially assumed to be the one of the formal educational system, and the instrumental means, or the technology, assisting the practical success of the deliberate actions required for realizing it. Apparently, a lot has still to be done in terms of exposing the ideology and false beliefs pervading the educational debate, which is manifestly focused more on what education is not and what ideals it does not correspond to than on what education is and why it is the way it is. According to Qvortrup (2005), "more preaching and threatening is not necessary, neither is the spread of obedience and reasonableness, rather the dominant theme will be the exposure and discrediting of official facades, ruling moral concepts and common beliefs" (p. 2).

According to Luhmann (1995), worldwide reform attempts, faced with the challenges posed by the incomprehensible complexity of the educational circumstances, tend to fill in the void of understanding with idealizations and simplistic explanations. Educational agents are forced to embark in social synchronizing rituals, or, according to Snoek (2006), in ritual-like behavior, in the hopeful conviction that through it the necessary solution to the problems will emerge. Marion (1999) establishes a provocative parallel between educational reform initiatives and the rain dances of the Native Americans. "Rain dances leave us feeling good. If something does change following the rain dance, we are quick to credit our efforts; if nothing happens, we often ignore the fact as we plan our next dance" (p. 213).

What cannot be enlightened behavior, due to the dramatic contingency of the situation can, apparently with advantage, for society, and also for the individuals, be replaced with good manners, or good behavior. According to Luhmann (1995), "ritualizations, religious and otherwise, possess a similar function. They translate external uncertainties into an internal schematism that either happens or not, but that cannot be varied, and therefore neutralizes the capacity for deception, lies, and deviant behavior" (p. 185).

The fact that many of the educational activities are essentially invested with ritualistic meaning creates all kinds of obstacles to the general viewpoint of "truth." The cognitive, or "sincere," way to address the facts, interested in stating the educational world "as it is," is faced in many educational contexts with insurmountable difficulties, which ultimately end up confining it to a remote possibility. As a
consequence, many reform attempts manage little more than to enact an atmosphere of conflict and to end up in impenetrable confusion. Many measures of educational policy, being conceived in linear terms and proposing deliberate interventions to achieve specific outcomes, tend to confront themselves with realities too ambiguous and contradictory to be even susceptible of normative handling and, as a natural consequence, to fail in delivering the intended solutions. Attempts at solving the educational system's problems tend to be helpless in the task of obstructing the "solutions" that indeed emerge, without any kind of premeditation, as indeterminable outcomes of stealthy, hard to grasp, systemic dynamics.

In many respects, according to Luhmann and Schorr (2000), the formal educational system describes itself in a counterfactual way. In fact, structural formation within the system is clearly not giving mainstream educational organizations the necessary ability to adapt to the 21st century's fast changing circumstances. The global educational infrastructure is nightmarishly bureaucratic, in some cases, visibly, on the verge of collapse; no longer is socially, politically or economically, responsive. Even if the formal educational systems of a few countries are looking ahead, the majority of human beings is, beyond doubt, being educated for the past.

This kind of output of the educational system justifies serious concerns. Nowadays, a considerable number of university graduates do not find jobs compatible with their academic qualifications. The massive increase in the number of students worldwide raises the question whether the formal educational system is going to respond in order to provide all students with knowledge and skills that can be applied outside the educational system. The world is becoming hyper-connected and, consequently, hyper-complex. The industrial model of command and control does not fit anymore. Will schools and universities be able to significantly develop personal and professional capability or are students irrevocably condemned to get their diplomas without being transformed in significant ways by the overcrowded system? Are changes in ritual-like behavior going to make any difference in this state of affairs?

Most reform initiatives tend to presume educational action as deficient, but is it really? Is the behavior of the educational agents the main obstacle compromising the emergence of significant change in the system? Or is it something else? What makes the formal educational system want to change in the first place? What are the real conditions for change? What can educational agents (and political, economical, etc.) do to influence significant change in the system? These questions were the starting point and the motor of the theoretical curiosity presiding over the writing of this paper.

The Primacy of Communication

Education is normally equated as action oriented to the achievement of learning goals. One evaluates the learning needs of a targeted population, formulates the learning outcomes, and selects the teaching strategies and resources to achieve them. Little attention is given to the communicative context in which that kind of action will have to come about. Pedagogical intervention, however, can only achieve its stated goals through communication; it can only be successful in realizing its educational aim, which is always, roughly speaking, to change people, if it manages to be successful as communication. According to Luhmann (1995), education, even if understood as
intentionalized action, "can attain its goal (we would like to omit for the time being the possibility of indirect and unnoticed manipulation) only by communication" (p. 244).

Communication, according to Luhmann (1995), is an emergent form of reality, in most cases just allowing a partial and à posteriori indirect recognition. What can be observed is the behavior of the students, taken as an indirect indication of the results of our educational interventions. Furthermore, “communication has no goal or end, no immanent entelechy. It occurs or it does not – that is all that can be said about it” (Luhmann, 1992, p. 255). What multiple interacting agents think and say cannot be determined, not even by them. Communication is a systemic kind of reality, possessing "highly complex structures ... whose dynamics, for any observer, are opaque and incapable of being regulated" (Luhmann, 1992, p. 251).

Education, being dependent on communication, cannot therefore avoid activating side effects other than those that are contemplated. Pedagogical interventions vary strategies and means in the hope of achieving the desired learning outcomes, “but all this produces unforeseen socializing effects within the system. They transform equality into inequality. They motivate and discourage. They link experiences of success to experiences of success and experiences of failure to experiences of failure" (Luhmann, 1995, pp. 206-207). What indeed happens, according to Qvortrup (2005), is never in mutual harmony. On the contrary, each thought and each communicational event challenges previous ones. Participants in communication constantly collide and attempt to achieve dominance over others.

How effective can, then, education be, “conceived of as the rational form of socialization, as effective action" (Vanderstraeten, 2003, p. 138), if the communication required to realize it is contingent and may well not emerge as expected? One cannot simply presume that developments in the way educational agents process meaning can be achieved by instantaneous adjustment. What is, in essence, an evolutive acquisition, as Luhmann (1986) points out, “cannot be intended, conveyed, demanded, reached by pact or ended” (p. 128).

The Improbability of Meaning

People can engage in communication with very little meaning or informational content, intending only to pass the time or to avoid silence. But the foundation of communication is the processing of information; it involves communicators selecting the informative content to convey in their utterances from a repertoire of redundant possibilities. According to Luhmann (1992), these selections are conditioned by what is possible in the communicative circumstances.

Communication does not come about without understanding. "Information should be provided in a form which the sender and the addressee are able to understand" (Vanderstraeten, 2003, p. 135). Each communication asks, thus, for a new communication. "The receiver needs to show understanding" (Vanderstraeten, 2003, p. 136). A communicative process connects communicative events in such a way that each element in the sequence, like in a chain, concludes a preceding one and expects a subsequent connection. Communication organizes its own renewal. According to
Luhmann (1995), communication systems are “life-like,” meaning they reproduce themselves.

“Just like life and consciousness, communication is an emergent reality, a state of affairs *sui generis*” (Luhmann, 1992, p. 252). Communication is also, according to Luhmann (1981), highly improbable, indeed a contra-phenomenon, an effort to surmount a multitude of problems and obstacles, namely, misunderstandings and/or the rejection of the informative content, preventing communication from happening. "Generally speaking the success of communications is improbable. If this improbability is not as great as it usually should be, then this is the effect of the communications media” (Qvortrup, 2005, p. 11).

**The Main Purposes of Education**

If one would have to identify the most important factor contributing to the survival of the human species on this planet, that factor would be communication. According to Luhmann (1981), "without communication there can be no human relations, indeed no human life" (p. 122).

One of the most important conditions for the continuation of communication is personal identity. "It is not human beings but persons that make communication possible" (Qvortrup, 2005, p. 12). Personal identities are, on the other hand, a product of communication. "Persons are a communicative trick: products of and preconditions for communication" (Qvortrup, 2005, p. 13):

> The fundamental function of an educational system is not to impart knowledge, to discipline, etc., but to minimize the improbability of social communication... An educational system achieves this through the function of making human beings persons... Human beings are born. Persons develop through socialization and upbringing/education (Qvortrup, 2005, p. 12-13).

A secondary function of an educational system, besides the personalizing primary one, according to Qvortrup (2005), is career selection. The education system exists to maintain the preconditions for human beings to function in society as persons and to execute the evaluations that realize career selection. Even if some may see this secondary function as somewhat arbitrary and more like a status passage rite, formal education, by being a social mechanism to select people for a range of careers, must continue being concerned with exams and certification. “Naturally, both functions have to be fulfilled by the education system with the help of communications” (Qvortrup, 2005, p. 13).

A fundamental question is how educational success in these two areas of purpose is possible if educative processes use communication as their basic resource? And from this basic question stems many others. What is the main topic of that kind of communication? What do the participants in educational communication talk about among themselves? What is the success code molding this kind of communication and increasing its potential for success? What communicative selections, for example, in the face-to-face interaction system of a classroom, may increase a teacher's probability of success in that complex undertaking of changing persons?
The answer to that fundamental question is not easy. But, according to Qvortrup (2005), what may increase the likelihood of success in that personalizing form of communication is the transmissibility of lifetime, or life process. To Qvortrup (2005), educational communication is communication about things that, once learned, might be of use in another context and at another moment in time.

**The Boundary Relations, and the Gatekeepers**

The success of education, which, according to Vanderstraeten (2003), is a form of "people processing", can only be inferred indirectly by the patterns of external, visible, behavior of the students. Educational interventions, therefore, produce normative expectations on behavior, "particular patterns of behavior are acceptable, while others are not" (Vanderstraeten, 2003, p. 139). According to the same author (2003), a difference between acceptable and unacceptable patterns of behavior develops within the educational system. Individualized persons, however, according to Luhmann (1995), tend to "treat the prevailing norms as truly unreasonable demands to come about between persons" (p. 231). These persons, according to Luhmann (1995), form a silent reservoir for protest movements of all kinds.

As the system needs to purge itself from a whole set of "inappropriate" behavioral expectations, a strict hierarchy of decision and a stratified form of organizational communication are normally in place. This representation of order, or unity, via reference to hierarchy, short-circuits decisions by purpose or by function, or, more concretely, by problem solutions (Luhmann, 1997). Control figures tend to be power hungry and uncertainty intolerant, with the very high proclivity to use any opportunity to get rid of contingencies.

In its pure form, this organizational model rules out the possibility that the deciding entities can be substituted or replaced under the pressure of negative events following their less "fortunate" decisions. Internal or external attacks to this mainstream form of organizing the educational system, even on the rational that this traditional form of order is incompatible with 21st century learning, tend to end up in parody. In most cases, they will manage no more than to stage a mere carnivalesque inversion of the well-established hierarchical principle they want to confront in the first place.

As a consequence, the system's circumstances are evaluated using a reduced repertoire of criteria, which, according to Luhmann (1997), creates and expands a huge domain of latency (or intransparency). A surplus of ways of communicating and thinking the system, and possibilities for experiencing it, despite not being officially contemplated, are contingently activated. Self-generated blindness towards a huge matrix of communicative and reflective operations (and correlated actions and interactions) is, even if not observed (if transcendent), constitutive of the educational system.

A fundamental question is, thus, how the formal educational system manages to ensure its continuation, or its reproduction, on its own reduced terms? According to Luhmann (1997), the answer is: not with learning. The stability of a hierarchy cannot be secured by means of improved information processing. "Learning makes the world more complex" (Luhmann, 1995, p. 329). An overload of normative determinations, based on byzantine prognoses, would generate even more complexity. Mainstream
educational decisions, paradoxically, need to remain counterfactual. The hierarchical figures and gatekeepers of this form of auto-induced blindness manage to secure the hierarchy, according to Luhmann (1997), by stabilizing the system's boundary relations and, through it, by being successful in preventing the expanding set of latent communication possibilities from introducing volatility into its own decisions.

Hierarchical figures may personally gain by describing the educational system, not as it actually works, but in anachronistic ways, or, more exactly, in ways that it doesn’t. It is the requirement of stability of these agents positions within the decisional structure what, for example, according to Luhmann (1997), requires the compartmentalization of learning, not some particular understanding of knowledge.

The design of learning situations and the management of the necessary activities tends to assume a linear progress towards the goal of producing a growing assimilation of information, or the acquisition of specific information processing capabilities, in many cases in the utmost insensitivity to the systemic, above all communicative, requirements necessary to viabilize the venture. That kind of indifference becomes, of course, even more problematic in multicultural contexts. Difficulties in keeping the necessary form of communication alive transform educators, according to Luhmann (1997) in central animators of a, more or less bland, form of communicational intransparency.

The Control of Intransparency

According to Luhmann (1997), the prospects of being able to preserve the latency that protects the hierarchical structure from consciousness and communication that can destroy it, or trigger considerable restructuring, lie in one thing, and one thing only: the capability for blocking consciousness and communication.

But until when, under 21st century circumstances, will this kind of decisional structure manage to keep latent its self-generated (and quickly expanding) form of intransparency? In the progressively more competitive global educational environment, one can even view this problem in terms of the risks that the formal educational system incurs by choosing to define its unity around structure instead of function.

In fact, in specific regards, hierarchical decisions in education are progressively showing to be unsuccessful in avoiding being seen, simply, as irrational. A hierarchy is clearly not the best way to handle a large scope of personal, temporal and factual operative differences without being caught in inconsistencies. All sorts of counter-semantics, both internal and external, exploit this weakness in the expectation of being able to transform the way the system is "handling" the complexity of its circumstances.

The Functional Differentiation

New communication media are leaving the educational system’s hierarchical orientation progressively less capable of regulating and, therefore, protecting itself from its self-produced intransparency. Social complexity is reaching a threshold after which it must either be expelled from the system (seen as belonging to the
environment) or finally controlled or worked into. As the former possibility equates to extinction, it matters to analyze the latter, in an attempt to determine how it is probable that the management of contingencies will be, in that case, operationalized.

Any way one may look at it, it discloses a key development as unavoidable. Sooner or later, a sharper consciousness of the specificities of the educational environment, with a correspondingly sharper differentiation of the educational offer, will have to come about. According to Luhmann (1995), the retreat of intransparency, together with a structural transference from a normative to a cognitive style of expectations, will necessarily follow. As a consequence, it will become possible to witness the gradual replacement of the predominant hierarchical orientation of decision processes in education by a functional one. The rationality of the decision-making processes will progressively be established.

The turnaround will not be an easy or even a smooth one. Latency, as a kind of factual reality, will be handled by the hierarchy, as if it were not merely a consequence of deficient cognition (thus, calling for an advance in learning), but a question of reducing the space for free-play in the system (or a matter of power), thus, calling for the imposition of regulations and norms that can do better in disempowering recalcitrant individuals to make their own observations about the facts.

Furthermore, according to Luhmann (1995), the reconfiguration of the system is not going to eliminate the deep-rooted hierarchy. The hierarchical upper strata, or the center of power, will fiercely fight against being dispossessed of its strongholds of domination. It must be expected that it will only concede to the extent it can no longer keep control of the system's boundary relations. The other alternative is loosing its *raison d'être* together with its dominant position. Reference to function, indeed, means that all decisions can be questioned and all deciders can be replaced under conditions of unsatisfactory realization of purpose. That alone suffices to stimulate many objections and criticism, understandably, not all coming from the hierarchic figures. According to Luhmann (1997), the unification of the system's operations around a single and primary principle of purpose cannot functionalize the hierarchy, which in the best of odds will assume a dormant role, despite remaining visible, within the functional regime.

One can, supposedly, expect that the global educational system is going to become more entrepreneurial and less managerial. "Function systems have to treat their environments as environments of 'equals,' because nothing but function can justify discrimination" (Vanderstraeten, 2004, p. 260).

**The Borderline Spaces and the Game Changers**

Systemic dynamics confine sometimes the minds and social systems to vicious circles which reinforce traditional ways of operating, even when an explicit desire for change exists. According to Luhmann (1995), this happens because it's evolution, not rationality that determines the survival of these systems: “the primary, unavoidable choice is whether or not to continue life, consciousness, communication and not whether to maintain or to change patterns” (Luhmann, 1985, p. 34).
Even if society, in the context of its functional restructuration needs, is unsatisfied with its formal educational system and continues demanding from it a different kind of output, one must not expect that the formal educational structure in place is going to eagerly adjust to these outside appeals. Education happens in the context of socialization processes and "it should have become clear by now that the school socializes for the school, not for society. At school it becomes important to be a good student" (Vanderstraeten, 2003, p. 141) and a good teacher, not necessarily a “good” citizen for society or a competent worker for private and public institutions.

In fact, according to Luhmann and Schorr (2000), "during the whole of societal evolution, education has never taken the lead in structural transformations; instead, it has always followed them" (p. 32). As it is apparent, significant change in the system does not come about as a consequence of internal curriculum design deliberations and even less as an outcome of continued reform pressures exercised by other systems situated in context, be they political or economical.

The permanent requirement for reform is, according to Qvortrup (2005), a direct consequence of the growing insecurity of the educational system regarding itself:

> The only thing that is known in the educational system is that it is unsure about its own validity and must therefore constantly change. It seems that the more conservative the government, the more important it is to change the educational system. (p. 19)

Recursive reform attempts, more than anything else, seem to express the general dissatisfaction about the fact that education is becoming more and more contingent, or that it is becoming too complex for normative handling.

In reality, educational change is happening right now, the most significant part of it without being announced, or even wanted. New technologies are opening new possibilities for organizing learning through web-based, non-normative, even borderless, active networks, as opposed to the rigid, centrally determined, passive configurations employed by hierarchical structures. Nothing in the educational realm remains as it is. Capability for learning is being added without interrupting the system's organizational form, by “stealthily” occupying as yet semantically unoccupied structural domains to activate different educational languages and different codifications of educational success. This is happening even within highly politicized, passive, educational systems.

Technological innovation is making the communicative and reflective environment of educational organizations more intransparent than ever before. This dramatic rise in the complexity of the educational circumstances will, most probably, continue increasing the instability of the formal educational system in the near future. The need for change will continue to increase, together with the need for stability. With greater uncertainty, or greater contingency, even more room for free-play will become available, which, according to Luhmann (1995), is the factor that can change the conditions for consensus in the overall system and, through it, the complex balance between commitment to learning and non-learning.
The Way

It should no longer surprise us that educational reform is nowadays seen, more than anything else, as an encounter of the educational policy authority with the uncertain, or with the unpredictable, surrounding the operations of the formal educational system. According to Luhmann (1997), the accumulation of demotivating educational reform experiences has made unavoidable the withdrawal of educational policy intervention towards constructivist conceptions. At least policy makers can still expect to understand better afterwards why their measures have not worked.

By understanding the dominant expectational structures prevalent in the educational, economical, and political systems from the viewpoint of these systems' exalted, according to Luhmann (1997), need to maintain the stability of the respective decisional structures, it becomes obvious that there is little theoretical gain to extract from an overt association with claims for or against specific reform initiatives. To a large extent, they are based on simplistic interpretations of the educational situation, particularly the ones describing success in terms of "us vs. them" and advocating action aimed at curbing the kind of behavior normally described as "resistance to change." According to Luhmann (1981; 1995), these disputes always revolve around the same monotonous set of contrary expectations. They ignore, but monopolize the communicational domain and, therefore, exclude, other possibilities. If the only options available are entering the official arenas of the educational debate on the side of the Christians or the side of the lions, the most rational and, above all, more constructive decision is not entering at all.

If one does not want to relax the requirement for truth and, on the contrary, values the scrutiny of facts and verification, one of the main aspects deserving the focus of attention, taking into consideration all that is mentioned above, is the capability of educational research to distinguish between what people talk and write about and that which "makes a difference" (cf. Bateson, 1979). Very interesting would, supposedly, be the investigation of the developments in pedagogy and learning that are being made possible by web-based technology, but in a way that does not ignore the role played by the educational structure. As can be expected, a re-conceptualization of educational matters, taking its point of departure in communication, would do this kind of research a lot of good. Educational research, according to Vanderstraeten (2003), focuses "too much on subjects (teachers/parents, pupils/children) and too little on communication and social interaction" (p. 141). Instead of focusing on educational action or experience, it should focus on the particularities of the educational discourse.

In what respects educational practice, before, as educators, adopting some particularly innovative course of action aiming at influencing or even determining the flow of transformative events in education, we should reserve some time to take a look into the Chinese philosophy classics. They contain the wisdom that works around this part of the world. We might, for example, take into careful consideration "Dao De Jing," the "Book of the Way," namely when it advocates the virtues of the praxis of non-communicating and non-acting, supposedly, as being the most sophisticated form of serving, or at least not obstructing, the creative tension between opposites in the world. It advises us to keep "a hidden yet seeming presence, use it and stay strong" (Roberts, 2001, p. 41). A "self-effacing" and "laissez-faire" approach, no doubt.
Nevertheless, as it is always possible to check, the only one that can grant us access to the space “where things cannot be hidden.”
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A Study of School-Based Curriculum to Disaster Prevention Teaching for Sixth Graders in the Elementary School

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Introduction
In recent years, global natural disasters around constantly. Taiwan is located in East Asia, for Taiwanese feel most and understand is Tohoku earthquake in Japan 11st March 2011. 9.0 Richter scale earthquake shocked the world. Earthquake along with tsunami caused 15,636 deaths. Geographical environment and climate similar to Taiwan and Japan, both Taiwan and Japan are island state surrounded by sea. Many frequent natural disasters happens in Taiwan and Japan. Apart from the above mentioned earthquake and tsunami, typhoon, Cloudburst, Mudslide, Fire also often happens in life. The occurrence of natural disasters caused huge losses to the life of the country’s economy and the people, if we can do disaster prevention well, and learn the right knowledge and ideas about disaster prevention from an early age, there is a considerable contribution for Social prosperity and stability.

Japan puts a lot of effort on disaster prevention education. In Japan, the learning guidelines of disaster prevention education promulgated by government has mentioned 「Strength to survive (生きる力)」, when disaster happens how to survive successfully is the most important thing than others. The goal of disaster prevention education is 「Cultivate the ability to make the most appropriate response in times of disaster comes」 that is 「Strength to survive (生きる力)」. Japanese disaster prevention education is worth following for Taiwan. Therefore, this thesis designs disaster prevention education curriculums and takes the senior students of primary school as objects. Unlike traditional teaching way that always teaches with books. We design the class that teaching students by games. We let students form groups to play games. Through playing games, students are inspired. They have to think about how disasters happen and when disasters happened how we can survive. During the whole process of playing games, students can combine their own experience and knowledge.
that learned in class to answer questions or debate with others if they have different answers.

**Curriculum Design and working technique (Course time 160mins/4class)**

This curriculum design of disaster prevention on education has been taught at primary school of Keelung city in Taiwan. At the beginning of class, we let students to do a test about disasters knowledge, the questions including typhoon, fire, earthquake, tsunami and first aid emergency treatment. Through the text, we can find out how much students know about natural disaster before playing games. After the text, we won’t give students the right answers but start class by showing photos of different disasters. When students look at photos, we ask them if they know what kind of disaster that photo shows and do they have any experience connect with disasters. In this stage, we encourage students to share and do speech with classmates. Also we can find out before and after this class if students really know about natural disasters and raise their ability to face any situation when disaster comes.

Finishing the first stage of pre-text, showing photos and sharing experience, we make students into several groups, each group has 4~5 students and 1 tablet PCs to start second stage—Disaster Prevention Monopoly. The rules of Disaster Prevention Monopoly just like normal Monopoly that everyone had played. Students have to choose right answer in order to get chance to continue dicing. The first one to goal is winner and will be awarer Expert of Disaster Prevention. Most questions are situational questions that when disaster comes can students survive or not all decided by what answer they chose. Also we can find out if disaster prevention education in the pass did really give students right or useful knowledge or not. And any knowledge or skills that we have to teach students in the future. In this stage, some questions in Monopoly are same or similar to pre-text, if students didn’t know for sure the answer, they can get right answer in this game.

**Aims of this research**

The primary aim of this research was to increase response capability of school children when natural disaster happened as well as to discuss how disaster prevention course influenced three aspects in terms of disaster prevention, which were concepts of disasters, concepts of disaster prevention and attitudes toward disaster prevention, on fifth graders in elementary schools, and the relevance amongst these three aspects. The Questionnaire Survey on disaster prevention education generated by the researcher were used as vehicles in this research. Subjects in this research were senior pupils in an elementary school in Keelung, with 75 samples from the fifth grade for
Questionnaire on a study of school-based curriculum to disaster prevention teaching for fifth graders of the elementary school in Taiwan. The raw data were analyzed with percentile rankings, paired t test, and Pearson Correlation Coefficient. The primary results and suggestions of this research were as follows:

1. Each preconception of fifth graders about tsunami was still at the superficial level, with none of the interviewees could respond accurately on tsunami and the cautions of tsunami in particular.

2. The average scores of the concepts of disaster prevention improved. Scores in pre-test and post-test were significantly discrepant, which indicates disaster prevention course was useful to raise students’ awareness of disaster prevention.

3. The average score of the questionnaire which referred to students ‘attitudes toward disaster prevention increased from 9.82 to 12.93 after the disaster prevention course. This indicated that there was a significant discrepancy($t=11.847$, $p < .001$) between pre-test and post-test on students’ attitudes toward disaster prevention. Most of responses to the questionnaire were positive.

4. This research made a suggestion that government should enhance teaching training on disaster prevention course so as to integrate disaster prevention course into current curriculum for children to learn the concept of disaster prevention as a whole.

**The Process of Curriculum Design on Disaster Prevention Education**

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Mauchly 的球形檢定
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檢定標準正交化轉換因變數的錯誤共變異數矩陣是恆等式矩陣比例的空假設。
a. 設計: 截距
主旨內設計: factor1
b. 可以用來調整顯著平均檢定的自由度。更正的檢定顯示在「主旨內效果檢定」表格中。

主旨內效果檢定
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### Contrast Comparison

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根據估計的邊際平均值

* 平均值差異在 .05 層級顯著。

b. 調整多重比較：最小顯著差異（等同於未調整）。
Reference


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内閣府 平成 27年版防災白書 [http://www.bousai.go.jp/kaigirep/hakusho/]

防災教育チャレンジプラン [http://www.bosai-study.net/top.html]

日本全労済 [https://www.zenrosai.coop/bousai/cafe/quiz/みんなで挑戦しよう防災クイズ]

Naoko Suzuki, Tokushima University, Japan

The Asian Conference on Education 2015
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Over the few last decades, Japan has been experiencing an unprecedented demographic upheaval of rapid ageing and an extremely low birth rate, together with a dwindling population. In fact, people aged 65 and over accounted for 25.9% of the population as of 2014, and the total population is expected to fall by almost a third within the next 50 years. The nation has already reached the condition of being a “super-aged society” — with more than 20% of the population aged over 65— and it would have to take seriously possible countermeasures in order to tackle the problem. Yet, since the problem is rooted in a large number of different social factors, which have accumulated over a long period of time, negative implications remain for many aspects of society. Under these circumstances, the role of lifelong learning should be focused on to a greater extent, so that it might not only update the skills of the potential workforce, but also revitalize the whole of society. However, most elderly people tend to be reluctant to participate in vocational activities, while those who are wealthy tend to enjoy non-vocational subjects for their own interest. From an educational perspective, this paper indicates what is required of Japanese lifelong learning if it is to adjust to being a “super-aged society”. The findings suggest the necessity of shifting the current emphasis to involving more variety in both content and stakeholders in order to turn longevity into a valuable potential asset.

Keywords: lifelong learning, super-aged society, ageing
Introduction

Global trends in population have created a much older world with more senior people, and it is expected that the global share of those aged 65 and over is going to increase from 8% in 2010 to 16% in 2050 (from 530.5 million in 2010 to 1.5 billion in 2050) [Pew Research Center 2014], due to long life expectancies, a decline in fertility rates and other reasons. Meanwhile, the world’s population of children (aged 0–14) is expected to increase by only 10%, from 1.8 billion in 2010 to 2 billion in 2050, due to a long-term decline in birth rates. However, the way to treat the issue of ageing largely varies depending on the continent and the country. For example, according to the United Nation’s estimates, Africa’s population should more than double between 2010 and 2050, with the addition of 1.4 billion people, whilst Europe’s population is expected to shrink by more than 30 million by 2050 [United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division 2015]. Among the varying situations of the world’s countries, Japan stands out sharply, not only in Asia but also in the world as a whole, in terms of the number of those who are aged 65 and over (25.9%, as of 2014) as well as its high rate of ageing. The nation has already reached the condition of being a “super-aged society” according to the commonly-used UN’s definition, with more than 20% of the population being over 65. It is also estimated that some countries, including Russia, Germany, Italy and Japan, are projected to experience population reductions in the near future.

Looking at the world’s demographic trend, there is a debate about whether or not having a growing number of older people in society is a problem. According to one survey conducted by the Pew Research Center [2014], public concern with the growing number of older people is lower outside of East Asia and Europe, where the majorities of the populations are projected to be older than 50 by 2050. General concerns in those countries tend to include more negative aspects, such as fears that an ageing country will lose its economic vitality. In one sense, most parts of East Asia and Europe are expected to have greater numbers of people dependent on shrinking workforces (aged 15 to 64), while ageing elsewhere, such as in India and several African countries, is mostly driven by the ageing of children within the workforce, resulting in a potentially favourable demographic trend for the regions’ economic growth. Therefore, it is said that the coming changes in world demographics could conceivably alter the distribution of global economic power.

In the countries experiencing rapid ageing and population shrinkage, the smaller working-age populations must support growing numbers of older dependents, which may lead to financial stress for social insurance systems, including expenditures on pensions and public health care. In coping with this, many countries of this kind have implemented reforms, such as a rise in the retirement age, designed to decelerate the rate of increase in social security costs. Yet one could question whether or not this unprecedented pace of ageing will have a significant negative effect on economic growth, since there has been ‘no historical evidence of such an impact on the productivity or creativity of a society that is determined by the age structure of its population’ [Folbre 2013]. Moreover, since the problem is rooted in a large number of different factors in society that have accumulated over a long period of time, the problem should be discussed from wider perspectives, involving the wholesale readjustment of societal systems and public policies for whole populations.

In order to identify possible solutions for the problems of an ageing society from an educational perspective, this early-stage study refers to the case of Japan in focusing upon the role of lifelong learning, not only in order to ensure a stable workforce by updating the skills of the potential workforce, but also to revitalize the whole of society. Illustrating the outline of ageing in this country by describing its causes and underlying factors based on analysis of papers and case studies, the paper intends to clarify the current features of Japanese lifelong learning. It also indicates what is required to shift the current emphasis in order to discover a way of turning longevity into a valuable potential asset.
The Overall Picture of Ageing in Japan

Japan has been experiencing an unprecedented demographic upheaval of rapid ageing, with a large number of senior citizens accounting for nearly a quarter of the total population, whilst witnessing extremely low rates of fertility (1.34, as of 2007) over the last few decades. In fact, in January 2012, according to the National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, the senior population (aged 65 and over) is predicted to peak in 2042 at 38.78 million, and then drop to 34.64 million in 2060 [National Institute of Population and Social Security Research 2012]. The rapid rate of ageing in this country is also conspicuous; it only took 24 years for Japan's 7% population ageing rate to double to 14% (the international benchmark for identifying an “aged society”), which is high compared with corresponding figures in most other industrial nations — 115 years in France, 85 in Sweden and 47 in Britain [Institute for International Cooperation & Japan International Cooperation Agency 2006]. Thus, this factor, combined with the lowest birth rates and the world's longest longevity rates (men: 79.64 years, women: 86.39 years in 2010), means that Japan is encountering situations unparalleled in world history.

Another serious issue is that the country’s total population is expected to fall by almost a third within 50 years, from 128.06 million in 2010 to 86.74 million in 2060. By 2055, more than one in three Japanese people will be over 65, as the working-age population falls by over a third to 52 million [Tabuchi 2011], while the rate of natural mortality is expected to keep rising. This means that in 2025, three working people will have to support not only themselves but also two people who are outside the working population.

This rapid ageing can be explained by reference to different factors, such as the advancement of society, advances in medical technology, an increase in longevity, increased urbanization and diversification in lifestyles, advancements in education, the empowerment of women, an increase in educational costs and insufficient child-rearing allowances, generous benefits to the elderly and the lower benefits for children and families and, finally, the change to the labour policy in the 1990s, which led to an increase in short-term employment without any social security. As a result, a number of unexpected problems emerged, such as the escalation of public expenditures on health care and pensions, a shortage of nursing and personal care homes for older people in the near future (especially for those who live in Tokyo and its surrounding areas), an increase in traffic accidents involving older adults and an increase in trouble in various public spaces caused by older adults who have cognitive problems. On a more personal level, longer life spans may strain household finances, causing people to extend their working lives or rearrange family structures. Moreover, due to ageing and population shrinkage, rural communities in some parts of the country have already started to become deserted [Yoshida 2015].

At first sight, Japan's ageing population and its total shrinkage is often seen as an obstacle to innovation and economic competitiveness for the whole nation. However, there is space for discussion on whether or not this situation is a good chance to transform the old-fashioned norm that older people are unproductive, to a new idea that they are a great source of knowledge, experience, expertise and skills. According to Itsuki [Itsuki 2015], for instance, Japan could be prosperous again by leading a sort of “silver industry” in the world, one that could involve older adults and especially expand businesses that consider the various necessities of senior citizens. In other words, Japan will break new ground as a nation with a historically novel life expectancy and senior population by leading an expansion in “silver industries”, such as medical and nursing care for seniors, and with companies producing very high-quality walkers, acoustic aids, aural aids, hearing aids and spectacles for presbyopia, etc. In addition, it can be expected that the national government and local administrations will set targets and implement new initiatives to help ensure that long lives can be lived in good health.

Characteristics of Japanese Lifelong Learning

Learning is important throughout one’s life, not only to pursue one’s inner interests and fulfil personal desires but also to contribute to society by enhancing our knowledge and skills. In most parts of the world, the latter benefit has been emphasized, and making use
of opportunities for lifelong learning in order to find better jobs and explore one’s potential has been taken for granted. However, in Japanese society, the current provision of lifelong learning tends to be confined to pursuing one’s hobbies or fulfilling one’s interests, and most of the courses provided are leisure-oriented ones. Most elderly people tend to enjoy non-vocational subjects, while being reluctant to participate in vocational activities. In fact, post-war educational policies in Japan, especially since the 1960s, have largely tended to centre on general (non-vocational) subjects, while neglecting vocational ones in the curriculum [Hamaguchi 2013]. In other words, the content of education that people acquire has not seriously influenced the possibility of their finding jobs, and vocational content has tended to remain untouched during the post-war period. What have been most influential in this country are the names of the institutions from which one has graduated, rather than the content of the education that one has acquired, although this tendency has been gradually changing over the last decade. In addition, Japanese lifelong learning has not taken seriously the needs of those of working age (15–64). Meanwhile, the provision of short-term vocational programmes is organized by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare and its related organizations. However, since its ultimate purpose is confined to people finding jobs, educational content is not considered from an educational perspective, and those who are engaged in teaching or training are not trained as educators to consider whole lives, but to connect the targets of their attention (those who are unemployed) to certain jobs. This results in short-termism, with people not having the adequate educational support they need to view their lives as a whole.

Moreover, as most organizations providing opportunities for lifelong learning have not introduced a fee-reduction system for those who are socially disadvantaged, participants tend to be wealthy and without any social, financial or physical problems. In consequence, most places for lifelong learning in Japan are filled with elderly people who have no serious health or financial problems, and a significant number of housewives who are not working and have time on their hands. For example, the Center for University Extension, which was created within Tokushima University (located in the south-western part of Japan) in 1986 as a hub of lifelong learning, has been set up to provide a variety of open courses to more than 2500 local residents. Its courses are all non-credit and largely leisure-oriented in nature, including languages (English, Chinese, Korean, Portuguese), choral singing, calligraphy, watching kabuki and opera videos, training for marathon races, health and fitness, yoga, dance, literature, history, international relations, etc. According to a survey conducted within the centre in 2008 [Suzuki 2014], in terms of the student age group, those aged between 50 and 90 account for nearly 80% of total participants. Among them, those who are in their 60s account for the largest proportion, followed by those in their 70s, and most students have retired from a stable job, without having any serious problems with their finances and/or health. On the other hand, those who are 30–49 account for about 18% of the student population, and most of them are housewives without jobs, while those aged 10–29 are scarce. Students’ motivations for learning included (multiple answers were allowed, and the numbers in the brackets are the actual numbers of people who chose those options): “extending hobbies” (249), “promoting well-being” (132), “fulfilling curiosities” (103), “enriching leisure time” (98), “making friends” (70), “enjoying a life at university” (35), “feeling connected to a community” (19), “obtaining qualifications” (8), “finding a job” (4) and “others” (17).

These characteristics can be seen not only in Tokushima but also in almost all parts of Japan. For example, a nationwide survey on lifelong learning conducted by the Cabinet Office in 2012 [Survey Unit of the Cabinet Office 2012] confirms this trend. The survey included 3000 respondents living all over Japan, and their main answers are described as follows (the numbers in the brackets are the percentages who chose those options per total respondents).

Place of learning (multiple answers allowed): non-formal public adult-education centres (40%), club activities (34%), private adult-education centres and sports clubs (30.6%), workplaces and/or organizations (27.5%), studying at home (27.4%).

Subjects of interests (multiple answers allowed): music, the arts, flower arrangement, dance, calligraphy, recreational activities (45.2%); the general arts, history, language, literature (27.3%); social issues, the environment, international affairs (19.5%); sports, health, nutrition, jogging, swimming (43.3%); skills for daily life (28.3%); knitting,
embroidery, cooking (13.4%); child-raising skills, educational issues (22.6%); vocational knowledge and ICT skills (13.9%); voluntary activities (15.3%); experiences in nature and camping (14.4%); formal learning at higher education institutions (4.7%) and no study at all (15%).

Conceptions of lifelong learning (multiple answers allowed): learning throughout one’s life (46.2%); enjoying one’s life and participating in activities that enrich one’s heart (42.7%); leisure and interests (40.6%) and finding a new sense of purpose in life after retirement (34.7%).

Motivations for study (multiple answers allowed): enriching their lives (49.1%); maintaining health (43.9%); connecting to daily lives at home (36.7%); updating skills in a current vocation (31.3%) and volunteering in the local community and/or participating in sports or cultural activities (21.8%).

Willingness to make use of the contents of their learning for the benefit of society (either the labour market or in the local community): yes (43.3%), mostly yes (34.4%) and no (22.3%).

For those who did not participate in any formal or non-formal learning, the main reasons were: (multiple answers allowed); “too busy with work” (28.1%), “too busy with housework and raising children” (11.2%), “too costly” (23.5%), “no place to study near one’s house” (22.5%) and “no time to find information” (14.4%).

The outcomes above reaffirm what we know about the characteristics of Japanese lifelong learning in general, i.e., it is largely non-vocational, leisure-oriented, health-related and is awarded no credit. However, it is also clear that 77.7% of the respondents are willing to contribute to society by making use of what they have learned through lifelong learning programmes. In short, there is a clear gap between what is provided and what is required by the public. In order to alter this situation, appropriate support offered by both labour market policy and workplaces, such as the offer of a sort of ‘learning leave’, is essential. In addition, another issue lies in the non-existence of a nationwide standard to prove one’s achievement in non-formal lifelong learning; therefore, it is not appealing for those who are of working age. To establish a third-party organization that plays a role in evaluating all kinds of courses provided across the nation is another challenge, one that requires appropriate guidance and/or consultation.

The Necessity of Changing the Contents of Lifelong Learning

As shown in the previous section, most of the institutions for lifelong learning in Japan are not currently taking vocational aspects seriously; they just focus on non-vocational, leisure subjects without subsidies. Most institutions are, in a way, filled with many older adult learners who have the potential to contribute to society, but who currently focus their learning outcomes on themselves. Therefore, it is high time to revitalize the generations whose potentials have been largely wasted, by exploring new roles for lifelong learning in the light of the current requirements of Japanese society; this is explored in more detail below.

Firstly, including more vocational aspects in content provision should be considered in two senses. One is to develop the potentials of elderly people by connecting opportunities for lifelong learning to work in some way or another, so that their knowledge, experience and skills can be given back to society. This could eventually lead to the extension of working lives for the elderly, and to the supplementation of the labouring population. The other reason is to provide more opportunities for working-age generations to update their knowledge and skills while they are working by providing more courses in the evenings and at weekends, which could also be beneficial for providers of lifelong learning in promoting intergenerational learning. This is useful because a lifetime’s employment and the system of ‘on-the-job training’ provided by employers, which had been general in most companies since the Second World War, can no longer be guaranteed, and more and more people wish to develop their knowledge and skills during their working age. Additionally, a nationwide accreditation system should be introduced to evaluate learning outcomes of individual learners, and should be conducted by a third party to ensure its objectivity. The necessity of this reform is reaffirmed by the statistics of the Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training (JILPT) in 2010, which revealed the fact that approximately 60% of the total population wished to
work after they reached 65 for financial reasons [Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training 2010]. Needless to say, this kind of reform would be successful if it was supported by amending the national labour policies, as well as raising the awareness of individual employers on the importance of lifelong learning during one’s working life.

Secondly, Japanese lifelong learning should include those who are socially disadvantaged or isolated from society, by introducing an appropriate subsidy system. One of the difficulties of a “super-aged society” is that the issues of ageing cannot be easily solved by just intensifying vocational aspects, as older generations have many different elements in their lives, and the problem must be treated as one with multidimensional aspects. At present, most participants are confined to those who have no serious problems with their health or finances. As a result, learning providers are not evenly prepared for people who have different backgrounds. For example, how to tackle the issue of dementia is one challenge, and in fact, a quarter of the elderly has been reported as having developed dementia or mild cognitive impairment (MCI). Therefore, each of the organizations should consider more seriously how to treat such people with dignity and respect so that they can lead independent lives as far as possible. It is reported worldwide that lifelong learning has the potential to develop the unexplored possibilities of human beings, whilst reducing the risks of early dementia or MCI if accompanied by proper treatment. For instance, participating in certain learning opportunities could produce positive effects, not only in their symptoms but also in many practical aspects of their daily lives. In order to promote this trend more effectively, proper guidance and training for those who are working with the elderly should be provided, and the process of learning throughout one’s life should be monitored more carefully, together with improvements to the infrastructures of the institutions.

Thirdly, the system of training specialists who can effectively coordinate the process of learning for individual learners should be considered more deliberately. Although there are some relevant qualifications issued by the central government and an incorporated foundation, their purposes are not clearly defined, and those that are do not match the reality of the current “super-aged society”. However, while they supply missing aspects in Japanese lifelong learning, the specialists must also grasp the needs of individuals in terms of their whole lives and with a long-term perspective. New insights, such as the typical features of older adults and their learning needs, appropriate measures to treat people of various backgrounds, more effective methods to inform people of all generations of the latest knowledge would be required in order to reorganize the whole Japanese system of lifelong learning. Likewise, the project should include various stakeholders in each of the local communities, experts in various fields and volunteers who have retired from their jobs in order to explore their potential.
Concluding Remarks

The world’s population is gradually transforming into an ageing one, although the situation differs greatly depending on the continent and the country. Japan has already reached the state of being a “super-aged society”, with more than 20% of its population being those who are 65 and over. Its speed of ageing is the fastest in the world, together with the rate of population shrinkage. Japanese society has been experiencing a rate of ageing unprecedented in world history, but the nation has not been prepared well for this daunting task. In terms of the dynamics of economic power, the subject tends to be discussed from a pessimistic viewpoint. However, it could be said that Japan has the potential to break new ground as a nation with a never-before-experienced life expectancy and a large senior population by, for example, exploring innovative ideas of “silver industries”, which could result in prosperous advanced health and well-being in old age by exploiting older adults’ knowledge, experience and skills. Older persons’ abilities to act for the betterment of themselves and their societies should be woven more deeply into policies and programmes at all levels, so that they can continue to contribute to society in various ways.

The trends in Japanese lifelong learning have long been confined to its non-vocational, leisure aspects, while neglecting both the vocational aspects of those who are of working age and the needs of those who are socially disadvantaged. Therefore, it is high time to alter this situation by appropriate measures, as follows. First, lifelong learning should include more vocational elements in programmes in order to bring out the potential of elderly people and make use of their knowledge, experience and skills for the benefit of society, as well as to help younger generations who wish to update their knowledge and skills for their future careers. Second, it should consider creating an appropriate system to include more people of various backgrounds by, for example, introducing a flexible subsidy system. Third, it should create a training system for specialists in this field with more deliberate consideration, in the light of society’s urgent requirements. In order to work towards these goals, it is necessary to remove any obstacles that prevent their achievement.
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ASEAN Student’s Reflection: The Role of Japan’s Higher Education in Fostering Global Human Resources through the Twin College Envoys Program

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Abstract
Under the ASEAN Vision 2020, cross border education amongst ASEAN countries has emerged as a growing area of concern and opportunity. Capturing this momentum, Japan as a strategic partner of ASEAN promotes inter-university exchanges program with its “Re-inventing Japan Project” to invite more ASEAN students to study in Japan, as it is expected that the increased number of international students will contribute to strengthening Japanese international goodwill. In response to this situation, Chiba University adopted “Re-inventing Japan Project” and has started the Twin College Envoys (Dispatch) Program or TWINCLE Program since 2012, which strongly encourage ASEAN students to participate globally by building strong collaborative partnership, mutual academic and cultural exchange with Japanese students. By employing qualitative thematic analysis, this study explored the ASEAN student’s reflection regarding their subjective experience while participating in this program. In total, there are twenty students, comprised of undergraduate, graduate and doctorate students from Indonesia and Thailand. The qualitative thematic analysis found three main themes present in the students’ final report, students’ insights regarding the collaborative science lesson; students’ impressions of the ASEAN and Japan relationship; and students’ future plans. The evidence from both students’ final report and their semi-structured online interview suggests that Japan’s higher education, as represented by Chiba University, gave the students invaluable experience and enhanced their global perspective.

Keywords: ASEAN students, Reflection, Twin College Envoys Program
1. Introduction

For over 40 years, Japan and ASEAN countries have been establishing a sustainable and prosperous cooperation. This long relationship began in 1973, when ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations), a regional organization of Southeast Asian nations, joined with Japan to establish informal dialogue which was later formalized with the convening of the ASEAN-Japan forum in March 1977 (ASEAN, 2015). Since then, significant progress has been made in ASEAN-Japan relations. Cooperation in numerous pivotal areas such as political security, economic development and socio-cultural development has led to a mutual understanding and warm relationship between ASEAN and Japan that continues today. The enormous effort towards the establishment of Japan and ASEAN countries’ deep relationship has forged close cooperation towards stability and development in Asia (Mofa, 2014).

Particularly in the context of ASEAN-Japan social cultural cooperation, in order to foster a sense of togetherness and mutual respect, people-to-people contact and cultural exchanges among the ASEAN-Japanese youth and intellectuals has been strongly emphasized (ASEAN, 2015). In fact, to strengthen collaboration and networking among universities in ASEAN countries, Japan is promoting inter-university exchanges through the “Re-inventing Japan Project”, which specifically aims to valorise number of student exchanges (ASEAN, 2015).

The number of international students from ASEAN countries who visited Japan and vice versa increased over the past decade. Japan itself has invited ASEAN youth to visit Japan through various exchange study abroad programmes. For example, the Japan East-Asia Network of Exchange for Students and Youths (JENESYS) brought 13,500 youths from ASEAN and about 700 Japanese youths to visit ASEAN countries from 2007 to 2012 (ASEAN, 2015). This cooperation undeniably brings mutual benefits for both Japan and ASEAN; investing in youth study abroad programmes is considered as the key driver to opening various opportunities for both parties in facing global challenges.

The aim of this paper is to capture the subjective experience of exchange ASEAN students through their reflection journal after they have finished their exchange programme in Japan. Through thematic analysis, the paper highlights ASEAN students’ insights and attitudes toward the importance of global human resources, including their impressions of Japan’s higher education and culture, and their future plans following the programme.

1.1 Cross Border Higher Education in ASEAN

Under 2020 ASEAN vision, cross border education in the ASEAN region has emerged as a growing area of concern and opportunity in recent years (ASEAN, 2012). By definition, cross border education can be regarded as the movement of people and research across national boundaries for academic purposes. Cross border education can take various forms, such as pursuit of a degree, internship, fieldwork or participation in a collaborative academic project (Lek, 2014). There is increasing demand for collaborative initiatives amongst ASEAN countries through either bilateral or multilateral programmes which aim to enhance cross border education. The notion of ASEAN cross border education is even slowly but surely strengthening.
and developing through the Cha-am Hua Hin Declaration, which was enacted by the Head of State and Government of ASEAN in 2011. Since the signing of the Cha-am Hua Hin Declaration, some jointly agreed initiatives have witnessed more accelerated progress than others (Lek, 2014).

The Cha-am Hua Hin Declaration emphasizes that regional cooperation in cross border education should be aimed at elevating the ‘well being and livelihood’ of ASEAN citizens, improving ASEAN human resources and building an ‘ASEAN identity based on friendship and cooperation’ (ASEAN, 2009). In particular, the declaration underscores the role of education in meeting the goals for the ASEAN community set for 2015, including the accomplishment of fundamental pillars like the political and security, economic, and socio-cultural pillars. The Roadmap for the ASEAN Community (2009-2015) lists several joint initiatives that aim to promote ASEAN regional cooperation in cross border education. The following list, compiled by Lek (2014), shows joint initiatives which all envisage the ASEAN cross border education.

The ASEAN states have agreed to

- Develop a university curriculum on the legal systems of member states (A.1.3),
- Review ASEAN scholarship programmes (A.1),
- Enhance cooperation within the ASEAN University Network (AUN) (A.5)
- Promote staff and student exchange among institutions of higher learning (A.1)
- Promote proficiency in the English language (A.1), and
- Create regional research clusters (A.1)

1.2 Japan’s Higher Education and ASEAN

From Japan’s perspective, promoting internationalization of Japan to invite international students is one of the top priorities of the Japanese government at the moment. Facing challenging domestic issues such as the falling birth rate and aging population, Japan has no other course than to enhance their capability through internationalization of higher education; this will be crucial for strengthening Japan’s international competitiveness (Shimomura, 2013). It is expected that the increased number of international students will contribute to strengthening Japanese international goodwill and globally contribute to human resource development. More importantly, accepting international students can also contribute to Japan’s economic development (Ministry of Justice, 2010). Accordingly, Japan’s current Prime Minister has established the Shinzo Abe initiative, which states the long-term goal of accepting 300,000 international university students by 2020 (MEXT, 2008).

This target is a reasonable one if the Japanese government knows their target market. As figure 1 and table 1 show, there has been a significant increase in the number of ASEAN students in Japan since 2012.
According to the data above, overall the number of international students coming from ASEAN countries to study in Japan is steadily increasing year after year. In particular, the number of international students from Vietnam increased six fold from 2011 to 2014. Although currently the majority of international students in Japan are coming from China, Japan is currently bound to increase international students from the ASEAN region. In order to achieve 300,000 international students by 2020, Japan promotes inter-university exchanges with its “Re-inventing Japan Project” funded by Ministry of Education. This project mainly supports the formation of collaborative programmes with ASEAN universities (MEXT, 2012).

### 1.3 The Emergence of the TWINCLE Program

In response to Japan’s higher education global vision, Chiba University is promoting its “Global Campus, Chiba University” program. In 2012, Chiba University adopted two new projects: MEXT’s “Project for Promotion of Global Human Resource Development” (a university-wide project) and the “Re-inventing Japan Project”. Particularly for the “Re-inventing Japan Project”, the university has started the Twin College Envoys (Dispatch) Program or TWINCLE Program, which focuses on primary and secondary education in ASEAN countries (Daphne et al., 2014). Spearheaded by the Faculty of Education and funded by the Ministry of Education, the TWINCLE program mainly aims to develop mutual academic and cultural understanding in the ASEAN region by conducting science and Japanese culture lessons.
The strong point of the TWINCLE Program is in its multilateral inter-university cooperation with universities across the ASEAN region. Through this programme, groups of graduate and undergraduate students majoring in science and education work collaboratively to develop and improve scientific teaching materials based on cutting-edge science with ASEAN partner universities’ students. The TWINCLE Program is an international exchange programme offering ASEAN students the opportunity to visit Japan in Chiba University and experience collaborative science education with Chiba University students; at a later time, Chiba University students also have the opportunity to visit ASEAN countries to deliver their science lessons, which they prepared with support from visiting ASEAN students, to high school students. The TWINCLE Program is set apart from other exchange programmes in Japan due to its supervised interaction with ASEAN undergraduate and graduate students, implementation of teaching practices for Japanese culture, cutting-edge technology classes and opportunity for independent travel which supports cultural exchange (Daphne et al., 2014). Figure 2 below summarize the flow of TWINCLE program.

Figure 2. Time course of TWINCLE Program

There are twelve partner universities in five ASEAN countries that participate in this programme. Five partner universities are in Indonesia: University of Indonesia, Institute Technology Bandung, Gadjah Mada University, Udayana University and Bogor Agricultural University. Four partner universities are in Thailand: Mahidol University, Kasetsart University, King Mongkut’s University of Technology Thonbury and Chulalongkorn University. The remaining four universities are Nanyang Technological University, University of Education, Vietnam National University, and Royal University Phnom Pehn, which are in Singapore, Vietnam and Cambodia respectively.
The TWINCLE Program offers varying course durations; Table 2 below summarizes these course offerings.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Title</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Activities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Trial</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
<td>Internship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Short</td>
<td>1 month</td>
<td>Internship and research work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long</td>
<td>6 months</td>
<td>Internship, research work and fieldwork</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table. 2 Courses of TWINCLE Program

By fiscal year 2014, more than 150 ASEAN students had been accepted to Chiba University and completed the programme. Most of these ASEAN students had undertaken the TWINCLE Program through a trial course; a small number of students had participated in the short and long course programmes. Table 3 below summarizes the number of ASEAN student visitors as labelled in inbound column, while outbound represents the number of Chiba students from the TWINCLE Program who have visited ASEAN countries.

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Outbound</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>96*</td>
<td>96*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inbound</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>28*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table. 3 Students mobility in TWINCLE Program

*Expected minimum number of students

2. The Present Study

2.1 Methodology

This research employed qualitative data analysis through thematic analysis using secondary data and a small number of semi-structured online interviews. The secondary data in this paper was gathered from the final reports of ASEAN students who participated in the TWINCLE Program Trial Course in June 2015. After finishing the TWINCLE Program in Chiba University, each student was required to write a final report in the form of a reflection on his or her academic and cultural experiences as an exchange student in Japan. By writing this reflection, the students can share their insights, details about their complex learning and even enhance the meaning of their own experiences (Costa & Kallick, 2008).

Data were further supported by semi-structured online interviews with five ASEAN students. During the interviews, participants described their experience while staying in Japan for 2 weeks. Open questions were posed to participants, and interviews were recorded using a computer recording application and later transcribed. Both students’ final report and interview transcript were analysed using thematic analysis, a qualitative method used for ‘identifying, analysing, and report patterns (themes) within data’ (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Thematic analysis is essentially a method for
identifying and analysing patterns in qualitative research (Merton, 1975). Through this method, it allows researcher to obtain a depth of information in order to understand ASEAN student’s reflection after following TWINCLE program. This paper is structured in regards to the main themes which emerged from the data.

3. Result: ASEAN Students’ Reflections

The following section presents the reflections of ASEAN students who participated in Trial Course TWINCLE Program. In total, there are twenty students, comprised of undergraduate, graduate and doctorate students from Indonesia and Thailand. The reflections outlined in this section capture the essential points of students’ experiences while staying in Japan during the trial course programme (2 weeks in duration). The qualitative thematic analysis found three main themes present in the students’ final report. In this section, students’ reflections are divided under those main themes. Firstly, students’ insights regarding the collaborative science lesson are explored, as this is the main activity of the programme. Then, students’ impressions of the ASEAN and Japan relationship are discussed; this theme includes descriptions of how ASEAN students view their country’s relationship and the relationship of ASEAN countries in general with Japan at the present time. In the last part, this section highlights students’ future plans now that they have completed the TWINCLE Program in Japan. The following sections outline the main themes and subthemes emerging from analysis of the final report and interview transcript.

3.1 Insights Regarding the Collaborative Science Lesson

The first main theme is the insight regarding the collaborative science lesson, which is captured from two different collaborative science lessons that students experienced during following the program, namely laboratory coursework and collaborative group-work. In the first collaborative science lesson namely laboratory coursework, each ASEAN student is deployed to a different laboratory and receives a science lesson; the lesson received depends on students’ major and specific research interest. The second collaborative science lesson is facilitated through collaborative group-work between ASEAN students with Japanese students from Chiba University. This collaborative group-works is the strong point of the TWINCLE Program that differentiates the programme from any other similar exchange programmes in Japan. During the collaborative group-work, students develop a science lesson plan that later will be delivered to high school students in ASEAN countries by the Chiba students. Exchange of ideas to develop cultural understanding and cutting-edge science are the two main themes that were explored and emphasized on these two collaborative science lessons program.

- Laboratory and Class Facilities

Often participants from ASEAN mentioned that they were amazed by the facilities of the research laboratory that they visited in Chiba University. This amazement was mentioned not only in the final report but also during the interview, particularly expressed among participants majoring in sciences such as Engineering, Bioscience or Geography. The participants mentioned that the laboratory facility in Japan (Chiba University) is more advanced than the laboratory in their own university. During an interview, one of the participants from Indonesia mentioned the following:
“In my laboratory, professors already have Unmanned Aerial Vehicle, already have satellite and antenna. It’s really shocking to see the gap differences with Japan. In Indonesia, I only did image processing. It’s very basic, while in Japan they already make items for making products, their facilities are really advanced.”

• Research Paradigm

In addition to the laboratory and class facilities, which were mentioned by the majority of the ASEAN students, the students also emphasized the valuable cultural lessons they had learned during the collaborative science lesson, in particular the Japanese research paradigm. The Japanese research paradigm in this context includes the attitudes, values and mind-set that Japanese researchers apply when conducting their research; this paradigm is obviously different compared with those of the ASEAN students’ home countries. One of the students from Indonesia mentioned the following:

“In this activity I learnt not only Japanese technology but also ways of thinking of the researcher."

As several of the ASEAN students in the TWINCLE Program were majoring in Education, insights were also offered into this field. For example, one of students expressed thoughts about the value of the teaching that the student experienced:

“This programme, the most memorable thing for me, it was not only about culture and education, but also teaching strategy and teaching style. It made me realize that in teaching it is not only what knowledge we have to share but also whether we share it in the right way.”

In addition, through their experiences in the laboratory coursework, the students were able to gain new relevant knowledge that they needed for conveying a lesson, such as techniques for asking questions and other class management skills. Another participant observed the following:

“Sensei let students ask first, and then he added and suggested about the thing or the information that everyone should know. . . . if they (students) did not know, students will have more information about the content.”

• Knowledge Sharing and Collaboration

Another sub-theme that emerged in ASEAN students’ reflections on their collaborative group-work with Chiba students was the importance of knowledge sharing and collaboration. As mentioned earlier, visiting students from ASEAN countries and Chiba students have the opportunity to work together to develop a science lesson, which is later delivered to high school students in ASEAN countries. Cutting-edge science based on Chiba students’ research is the core of this lesson development activity. Not only ASEAN students, who could gain a research perspective in Japan, but also Chiba students learn from their counter-parts about culture and education in the respective countries. This activity emphasizes on an interdisciplinary approach to science, education and culture, as students have to consider not only the content of the science lesson, but also, and more importantly,
the audience’s needs and an appropriate cross-cultural method to deliver the content. As a result, through this activity students discovered the importance of knowledge sharing in order to produce better results. One of participants from Thailand majoring in Education reported the following during the online interview:

“This program strengthened my understanding that research collaboration and sharing knowledge were the most important keys to producing a great result. To become internationalized, educational institutions should consider and include international research collaboration in their internationalization process.

Another student also mentioned about the importance of building academic network, which mentioned as follow

“I strongly agree that it is essential for a researcher to build academic networks and collaborate with other researchers in both local and international settings”

3.2 Japan-ASEAN Relationship

Japan and ASEAN have developed a strong and stable cooperation over the past decades, ever since the first formal ASEAN-Japan forum was created in 1977. In fact, from an economic standpoint, among the countries in the world, Japan has contributed significantly to become the largest investor in several ASEAN countries, including Indonesia, Thailand and Vietnam. Owing to this situation, ASEAN students tend to have a positive view of Japan overall. Most of the ASEAN students shared through their final report that their experiences in Japan had inspired them to reflect on and connect with their country’s situation. Nineteen out of the twenty students even stated that they had strong desire to visit Japan again in the future, whether as a student, a visiting researcher or a tourist.

• Insights into Developing Home Countries

After finishing the TWINCLE Program, the ASEAN students had apparently gained a different view towards their future educational plan and the way in which the programme experience connects with their country’s situation. On the final report, one of the participants explained the significance of the programme experience to his new personal goals as this program allow him to gain new experience and allow him to use the experience as the source of inspiration to improve his own country.

In a more specific explanation during one of the online interview sessions, a female participant from Indonesia explained that her experiences in Japan had given her a new insight regarding earthquake emergency evacuation plans. Particularly, as she came from ‘Aceh’, a region in the west side of Indonesia which was one of the areas that was heavily damaged by the tsunami disaster in 2004, she was interested in Japan’s emergency evacuation plan and post disaster management.

“There are a lot of things that we can adopt from Japan to Indonesia. As I come from Aceh, Japan’s disaster preparedness plan has inspired me to think about how it can be adopted in my hometown, especially because the issue of tsunamis in Japan, including coastline and cycles, is the same as in Aceh.”
Although the participants of this programme stayed in Chiba, Japan for only 12 days, overall all of them were satisfied with their programme, and several participants from both Thailand and Indonesia even declared that their trip to Japan exceeded expectation. According to the students’ post-questionnaire, of over 20 participants, only one participant did not want to stay in Japan in the near future. The rest indicated that they would like to visit Japan again, whether for educational purposes, business or leisure.

• Cultural Awareness

Another sub theme that emerged under this second main theme is cultural awareness. Almost all students, either in their final report or online interview, mentioned this sub theme, noting how they had gained a better understanding and cultural awareness of Japanese culture. The following is one of the student’s testimonies taken from the final report:

“*It’s very inspiring to share each other’s knowledge through the workshop. For only 2 hours I can understand how most people in Japan see their culture.*”

Despite the ASEAN students mostly reporting exposure to Japanese culture, as they also had the opportunity to interact with each other, the students additionally felt that they had gained a better understanding about cultures from Indonesia and Thailand as well. Although the interaction spanned only for a short period, several ASEAN students mentioned they also learnt about the differences among ASEAN countries.

“In my opinion, I got many – many new things from this program, such as learning about new cultures... Japanese culture, Indonesia, and even Thai culture from different universities.”

Eventually this experience brought better knowledge for ASEAN students about cultural awareness in general.

“If I can meet more people from different backgrounds, I can also learn their culture straight from themselves.”

3.3 Implications of TWINCLE Program for Future Plans

The last main theme is students’ understanding of the implications this programme had for their future plans in either the educational context or the context of their career plans.

• Research Goals

In terms of ASEAN students’ future research plans, several students felt this programme had inspired them to explore their own research interests more deeply, and some students even said that by completing the TWINCLE Program they had found new topics of interest for their future research.
“Opportunities to investigate different educational systems inspired me to carry out research on internationalization in different social, economic, political, cultural and educational contexts.”

ASEAN students described how this programme had helped them to focus on a specific research topic and how they could achieve related research goals.

“Now I have an interest in marine remote sensing. I know it is not fixed yet, but because of him [refers to student’s professor] my mind is now wide open for the research topic”

Another student also strongly emphasized that now she has a clear plan that she wants to achieve in the future

“In the future, I will find a scholarship to go to study in Japan in the field of chemical engineering that connects with the activated carbon laboratory in Chiba University. It [the subject] is very connected with my field in KMUTT.”

- Global Perspective

The TWINCLE Program hopes to develop future leaders with a strong global perspective. During the online interview, when students were asked about their view toward globalization and how they feel about going abroad, the students uniformly expressed that they now had a stronger desire to go abroad, either for study or travelling. Interestingly, the students had various answers to describe their reasons and purposes if they had another opportunity to go abroad in the future. Most of students want to go abroad again because they wanted to learn new culture in order to broaden their perspective.

“After the programme, I really want to go abroad again. Because seeing different places and cultures impacts my way of seeing the world.”

While some students also mentioned that by travelling abroad, they would have more chance to practice their English, practically because English is not their first language.

“I realize that a supportive environment is an important factor to improve our proficiency in English, an international language.”
4. Discussions and Recommendation

This paper depicted a range of ASEAN students’ personal experiences associated with their experience in the trial course of the TWINCLE Program. The evidence from both students’ final report and their semi-structured online interview suggests that Japan’s higher education, as represented by Chiba University, gave the students invaluable experience and enhanced their global perspective. According to the students’ reports, none of the students had negative feedback about the programme. Students mostly emphasized that they had gained new knowledge and understanding of Japanese culture and other ASEAN countries’ culture. In addition, observing the cutting-edge science from Japan’s higher education had influenced ASEAN students’ future plans. The majority of the students expressed a strong desire to return to Japan again in the future, and many were tempted to continue their master degree in one of the universities in Japan.

Reflecting on this paper suggests additional points for consideration of future research. Although this paper involved ASEAN students from two ASEAN countries Indonesia and Thailand, it still not represents the majority of ASEAN students who are studying in Japan. More importantly, this paper still have not covered the reflection of students come from Vietnam, Cambodia and Singapore, as ASEAN students in TWINCLE program not only come from Indonesia and Thailand, but also from Vietnam and Cambodia and Singapore. In addition, topic like push and pull factor of ASEAN students to study in Japan needs to be explored more, as this would bring greater insight for Japan’s higher education in particular and ASEAN countries in general.
5. References


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Alternative Education in Thailand

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Abstract
Alternative Education also known as non-traditional education or educational alternative, includes a number of approaches to teaching and learning separate from that offered by mainstream or traditional education. They are rooted in a number of philosophies differing from those of mainstream education such as Summerhill, Montessori, Waldorf and Homeschool, which aim to holistically develop learners to achieve human completeness. The paper presents the evolution of alternative education in Thailand in 3 periods. First, the initiative/ pilot (before 1987), second is the revolution (1987-2007), and third is the acceptance of alternative education (after 2007). Many studies have been continuously conducted on alternative education in Thailand. Nonetheless, more studies are necessary to provide concrete models on alternative education that response to more diverse society. It also required the collaboration among all partners, including government sector, private sector, civil society sector, traditional and alternative educators to enhance the quality of alternative education in Thailand.

Keywords: Alternative Education, Evolution of Alternative Education
1. Introduction

Alternative education administration is considered a new approach. It has not appeared or cited in academic researches much as academic debate or evaluation in alternative education administration was rarely seen in the past. In all the researches where alternative education is brought into the discussion, Lange and Sletten (2002) stated that most of the researches done about alternative education administration were the results of the interest in issues such as students dropping out, teenagers’ risks and dangers, and other alternative education literatures. Alternative education administration curriculum has later been widely studied but only few with specific interest in academic curriculum. Lange and Sletten (2002) pointed out the behaviors or factors influencing the efficiency of curriculum. More relevant literatures were reviewed and among them is Aron (2006) who explained alternative education as an educational system that supports students who drop out of mainstream schools, teenagers with risky behaviors and exceptional children, allowing everyone to have equal access to education.

‘Alternative Education’ in Thailand has gone through a great deal of opposition as well as endorsement. Despite the schools and groups’ differences in terms of action and time, the goal is common, particularly the attempt to draw a distinction from the mainstream education provided by conventional institutions. The aim of alternative education is to create the learning approach that is truly in compliance with human nature, which ultimately leads to the becoming of a whole human with the freedom and opportunity to pursue one’s own belief. As a result, several concepts and discourses in alternative education emerge and have been subsumed as parts of the concept and discourse of educational reform movement (mainstream) throughout different periods of time.

The content in this part aims to present the knowledge regarding the evolution of alternative education in Thailand with the emphasis being put on the definitions and concepts of alternative education including the evolution of alternative education in Thailand. Furthermore, the observations towards alternative education administration in Thailand will also be discussed.

2. Alternative Education: Definition

The Office of Education Council (OEC) (2009) defined Alternative Education in the Dictionary of Education as follows:

“Alternative Education is an ideal educational philosophy that aims to profess the characteristic of education that differentiates itself from the conventional system. It is often regarded as a ‘Free School’ where one can learn freely under the non-institutional and community-based approach. It lessens the role of education administration utilized by most schools as it takes on the progressive educational ideology and practice.”

The follow-up assessment report for the development of homeschooling (OEC, 2009), gathered the definitions of alternative education from several online sources from different countries. In summary, the international educational communities provide a rather concurrent definition when it comes to alternative education “Alternative
Education is a type of education that is not or differentiates itself from the mainstream education. Its educational philosophy derives from a variety of philosophy. It bounds to no conventions or traditions with a comprehensive and diverse range of teaching and learning methods, particularly when comparing to the mainstream education. It also prioritizes the demands of individuals as well as the community”.

3. Alternative Education: The Concepts

Alternative Education in Thailand has been influenced by both Eastern and Western ideologies. In the past two to three decades, the concepts and innovations in Alternative Education made their ways into Thai society as an educational innovation utilized by schools in the urban area such as:

**Summerhill**: First founded by Neil, a British educator. The school emphasizes on the learners’ freedom and limits the grown-up’s authority, which is considered as an obstacle in the children’s learning ability (Neil, 1984).

**Montessori**: Founded by Dr. Maris Montessori (M.D.), a female Italian doctor who proposed the learning management that aims for children to grow and develop according to their true nature. This approach also highlights the importance of the creation of learning environment, learning-aid tools, which allow children to bring out their best potential (Yankee, 1997).

**Waldorf**: Founded by Rudolf Steiner, an Austrian philosopher with belief that human being was made of body, soul and spirit and that the three things develop throughout different ages. The true education, therefore, had to function as an integrative system that enhances the creation of the three capabilities of a human being (thinking, feeling and willing) in order to develop an individual with intellectual freedom (Clouder and Rawson, 2003).

**Reggio Emilia**: A group of parents in the town of Reggio Emilia in Italy established an elementary school in their village where they played active parts in the formation of policies, curriculum, assessment methods and budget with the emphasis being put on the children’s learning to form their own personality. The open-end curriculum did not have specific and predetermined content; instead, it gathered different subjects and topics speculated as relevant to children’s interests as they learned through different projects they worked on (Lewin-Benham and Howard, 2005). The Reggio Emilia approach reflected the attempt to organize an education that is truly useful in everyday-life and a community-based education.

**Homeschooling**: An educational approach where parents were responsible for their children’s education instead of the school. The active advocator of homeschooling in the United States was John Holt, who believed that conventional mainstream education had been growing in the wrong direction, obstructing intellectual maturity and learning ability. Holt believed that children could grow and develop without having been put in school. The environment, family’s relationship and everyday-life activities could enhance the learning ability from within (Holt and Farenga, 2003).
Concepts and innovations in alternative education from Eastern educators were influenced by religious faiths and teachings with the emphasis on different dimensions such as morality, being a part of nature with freedom in life as the goal. The widely reputable approaches were such as Anantamak or Neo-Humanism by P.R. Sagar, Santinegeton or School under the Trees by Raphin Narthakul, and the study according to Krissanamurati philosophy (Chalermchai and Chalermchai, 2006). The research on ‘Alternative Education: Database and Analysis’ by Suchada Jakpisut and others conducted under the support of the Office of Thailand Research Fund (TRF) in 2003 discussed the development of alternative education in Thai society through the discourse that had been participated by contemporary thinkers (Jakpisut et al., 2003). The work has gained considerable recognition and responses from the public. In the past two-three decades, Siwaraksa (2002) proposed the educational discourse for Thai-ness whereas Venerable Phra Brahmagunabhorn (P. A. Payutto) put forward the extensive idea of Buddhist Education that encompassed learning for peace, learning for intellectual development, learning for the search for solutions. Nithi Eeawsriwong initiated the discourse in education for the future of Thai society through alternative higher education and community education while Praves Wasri advocated education reform and intellectual reengineering including the concept of holistic education and education for the society as a whole, education for learning society. Pipop Thongchai came up with the discourses such as returning education back to the society, the school is dead, education for freedom, etc. (Siwaraksa, 2002).

4. The Evolution of Alternative Education in Thailand

The evolution of alternative education in Thailand could be divided into 3 periods. The first being the Age of Pioneering and Experimentation (before 1987) the second period is the Age of Education Reform (1987-2007) and the third period is the Age of Acceptance (post 2007).

![Figure 1: The Evolution of Alternative Education in Thailand](image)

**The First Period: The Age of Pioneering and Experimentation (before 1987)**

There was the time when alternative education was not officially accepted with arguments and oppositions constantly emerged. Most of the concepts were discussed in the form of academic writings and criticism of the education system. The most of the primary concepts referenced the western experiences such as Summerhill, Montesseri, Waldorf, Reggio Emilia and homeschooling. The eastern movements included neo-humanism, Shanti Niketan or the Krishnamurti educational philosophy (Jakpisut et al., 2003).
In these early days, there have been experimentation on alternative education in the key areas such as the establishment of children village school according to Summerhill approach where children and adults were considered to be equal by Piphop and Ratchane Thongchai’s Children Foundation in 1979 or the experimental homeschooling by Dr. Chotchoung Chutinthorn in 1980.


The concept and accomplishment of experiments in alternative education in Thailand had become more accepted while the failure of mainstream education system had been seriously questioned. The call for an education reform in Thailand had been intensified accordingly.

In 1999, National Education Act B.E.2542 (1999) was issued and marked the important turning point as well as a practical beginning of education reform era. Governmental agencies were improved, the Office of National Education was changed into The Office of Education Council (OEC) as researches and important academic works with recognition and acceptance in the significance of alternative education have been continually conducted and published.

The researches on alternative education included ‘Thai Education and Future Alternatives’ (Siwaraksa, 2002), ‘Alternative Education: Database and Analysis’ (Jakpisut et al. 2003), which are considered the first database of alternative education. The works were followed by the research proposal ‘Framework for Learning Center Management according to the National Education Act B.E.2542 (1999) in Thailand’ which references the possibility of alternative education under the ‘learning center’ as cited in section 18(3) of the Act.

The Third Period: The Age of Acceptance (Post 2007)

This is the time when Alternative Education is officially validated in every level. It has been placed in the constitution, official documents issued by governmental agencies and most importantly, in the proposal of the Second Decade of Education Reform (2009-2018 B.E.) and the National Scheme of Education B.E. 2545-2559 (2002-2016).

A network of alternative education administrators has been formed and become more substantial. The official recognition from the country’s education system is the result from the long and continual stimulation from the network group, intellectuals and alternative higher education bodies.

The beginning of the 12 schools in the Thaitai School network in December of 2008 came with the official announcement, which stated the purpose of the network at a session of Lightning Talk (Rapee Sewana).

The starting point of the framework and forces behind the establishment of Alternative Education Council in 2010 to carry forward a systematic alternative education administration in different forms and approaches, both through and not though the country’s educational system.
Jakpisut et al. (2003) conducted a study to develop the definition and meaning of alternative education within the context of Thai society though the focus group method. The categorization was done in regions as findings showed that alternative education in the Northern region has been defined as a learning process that was holistic, diverse and in compliance with the local wisdoms, which ultimately resulted in the happiness and success of an individual as well as the community. In the central region, it has been explained as a way-out for the crisis of mainstream education. It based itself on natural diversity and real life where active participation led to the development of a whole human being, physically, mentally and spiritually. While the alternative education in the Northeastern region has been clarified as an educational approach that responded to human’s demands and potential; the learning for human’s potential and a community operation. In the Southern region, it has been described as an educational approach that led to the actual way of life and brings happiness to the community and society with Thai way of life as the core foundation.

The definition of alternative education in Thailand according to the views of focus group in each region could be summarized as the provision of educational alternatives for both teachers and learners, in which the skills were created and enhanced to be in compliance with the nature, society, community and resources. It was an educational approach that was conceived from the actual practices, which ultimately led to the life that was filled with developments.

5. Relevant Research on Alternative Education Administration in Thailand

The review of literature relevant to alternative education in Thailand found that the past researches done on alternative education administration in Thailand could be categorized into 3 main groups. The first was the researches which objective was to conduct the mapping of alternative education administration in Thailand by creating directory of groups and communities that adopted alternative education. The researches that fell into this category were such as those of Jakpisut et al. (2003). The second group encompassed the researches that examined the learning management and effectiveness of alternative schools such as the work by Jariyapan (2012). The third group was the researches that aimed to develop alternative education administration approaches for different groups such as the works by Suwannasuan, et al. (2013) and Ninlamot (2014). When considering the relevant researches on alternative education administration in Thailand in comparison with the 3 periods of the evolution of alternative education in Thailand from the First (the age of pioneering and experimentation: before 1987) and the second (Educational Reform: 1987-2007) and the third period (Acceptance: 2007), the findings revealed that the studies relevant to alternative education administration in Thailand began in the second period or the age of Education Reform. Later in the third period or the Age of Acceptance, it was found that the researches have been focusing on different approaches as well as learning administration and effectiveness of alternative schools, including researches that develop alternative education administration approaches for different groups. The details are shown in Figure 2.
Figure 2: The relevant researches on alternative education administration in Thailand categorized according to the evolution of alternative education in Thailand.

The relevant research on alternative education administration in Thailand could be categorized in the following:

Jakpisut et al. (2003) created a directory of groups and communities that adopt and administer alternative education. The directory functioned as a database that confirmed the identity and tangibles of the administrations. Most information in the database was obtained through different research methods from questionnaire, selected list of private development organizations, fieldtrip researches and the selection of case studies for in-depth interview. This study includes 209 case studies; 58 in the northern region, 50 in the central region, 51 in the northeastern region and 50 in the southern region. The database encompasses 5 subject matters: background of groups-communities, intention of learning management, content and curriculum, learning format or process and possible effects. The results from the study reveal that learning or education management can be categorized into 7 basic learning approaches:

1) Alternative Education administered by families (homeschooling), both in nuclease families and a group or network of homeschool families. There are currently 100 homeschool families nationwide.

2) Education in reference to the state’s system refers to the schools in the system with the learning process that emphasizes on experience and practice-based knowledge outside of textbooks as well as learning innovations.

3) Alternative Education by Teachers of Local Knowledge is the education where knowledge is passed on from one generation to another through the local scholars who are associated in a group or a network. The education can be both free or with expenses, encompassing knowledge and practice of
4) Alternative Education through Religion and meditation follows different religious contents provided to members of religious communities as well as the general public and interested individuals. The education also encompasses sufficient economy philosophy, anti-consumerism as well as different approaches of meditation and dharma practice according to the belief picked up by each school to enhance the learning experiences of the members.

5) Alternative Education as an institution outside of the state’s system refers to the non-formal education provided to a specific target group, both free of charge and with expenses, for instance, learning institutions operated by private developmental organizations (centers and clubs) such as Sawigasikkalai, Midnight University, Community Potential Development Institution, Semsikkalai, etc.

6) Alternative Education by learning groups through activities is considered to the widest and most diverse educational landscape such as the learning groups through savings activities, agriculture, traditional medicines, occupational developments, transmission of local wisdoms and culture, preservation and revitalization of natural resources, sanitation and public health, children and youths supervision, AIDS patient care and treatment, drug prevention, community management, etc.

7) Alternative Education through learning media and sources such as mass communication (publications, radio, television) and modern media (website) including libraries, museums, tourism and other public learning sources that are consistent and enhance the learning experiences.

Jaryapan (2012) studied different types of learning administration, resources and effectiveness of alternative schools through the analysis of textbooks, documents, in-depth interviews and objective observation on focus groups comprising of school administration officers, teachers and parents from 7 different schools. The analysis followed 7 concepts of alternative education, which composed Constructionism, Buddhist approach, Neo-humanist, Hi-Scope, Waldorf, Reggio Emilia and Montessori. The findings revealed that all alternative schools adopted the student-centered learning management by considering the differences of each student’s individual potential. It also highlighted learning through actions and organization of activities to enhance a wide range of skills. There were, however, dissimilarities in the leaning management such as contents, activities and assessment methods. As for learning resource management, most alternative schools used media and tools to create and enhance learning environment. Nevertheless, the source of income, teacher selection process, organization of school and classroom’s environment, the use of technology for students’ learning experience varied for each school.

The study of the effectiveness of alternative schools found that the focus group of parents from all the schools were satisfied with the concept, teaching and learning methods as well as credentials and characteristics of teachers and the management officers and the effect of end results on the students. There were certain amount of
parents who were concerned about the students’ future education and adjustability. The average results of quality assessment outside of education institutions conducted by Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (ONESQA) on every school was in the good to very good level. In addition, alternative schools have been accepted as a form of education that can be applied and used while the schools’ innovations have been widely promoted. The schools’ personnel have been invited as lecturers and consultants for interested organizations to help with the application of learning innovations. The study also revealed that students who had access to alternative education were children whose parents had sufficient financial ability.

The main suggestion for alternative education principle is how the government and involved governmental agencies should review the regulations that can be considered the obstructions for the learning management of alternative schools. For instance, the measure used for external quality assessment of educational institutions conducted by ONESQA should be designed specifically for alternative schools due to the differences in concept and objectives between alternative schools and mainstream schools. In addition, there should be a support system for children from families with low income to have access to alternative education.

Suwannasuan et al. (2013) conducted mix-method study in order to develop alternative education model for underprivileged children in the highlands of the upper northern region. The findings revealed the demands for alternative education administration for educationally underprivileged children in the highlands of the upper northern region consist of the students and local communities’ wish concerning alternative education administration of educational institution. For instance, the provision of teachers, establishment of sub-learning centers where teachers can teach, curriculum that is suitable and the teaching of knowledge that can be applied to students’ everyday life. The committee of such educational institution should participate in the creation of curriculum as well as the teaching of the knowledge that will be useful for the students and their choices of occupation. The academic demands encompass the creation of curriculum that is suitable for the school’s context and the community’s requirements. The community should be incorporated as a part of curriculum formation. Additional use of learning media can motivate the students’ interest whereas the learning management should consider and facilitate flexibility for the students.

The study also revealed that the format of alternative education administration for educationally underprivileged children in highland areas of upper northern region of Thailand comprises of 4 main components as follows:

(1) Inputs: Comprising of two subcomponents, which are (1) personnel such as committees and administrators of educational institutions and teachers (2) educational institution management such as the key mission (academic works) support mission (academic support works).

(2) Process: consisting of 5 steps, which are Planning: P, Doing: D, Controlling: C, Acting: A with Motivating: M as the mechanism of each step.
(3) Outputs: Comprising of 3 subcomponents: opportunity to receive educational services, quality of students and educational institutions and efficiency of educational management.

(4) Conditions for Achievements: comprising of 2 factors: the factors that obstruct and the factors that enhance alternative education administration for educationally underprivileged children in highland areas of upper northern region of Thailand.

The study of Suwannasuan et al. (2013) concluded that the development of alternative education model for educationally underprivileged children in highland areas of upper northern region of Thailand was considered a practical and worthwhile model at high level. In terms of benefit, the model was rated at highest level.

Ninlamot (2014) conducted research on the development of alternative education format to enhance lifetime learning suitable for the citizens in the out-of-school system. Ninlamot (2014) also specified alternative education for the enhancement of lifetime learning for citizens in the out-of-school system as his research framework. The concept could be operated using the right format and standing at the opposite side of the belief and concept upheld by the mainstream education, particularly the key weakness of mainstream basic education, which was considered as ‘the education that contradicts with the principle of being a true human’. The format of alternative education administration for citizens in the out-of-school system has been developed according to the research and development procedure and process. The study aimed to develop a whole human basing on the mixed concepts, principles and beliefs of the following educational philosophies: (1) Humanism (2) (Neo-)humanism) (3) Progressivism (4) Reconstructionism (5) Existentialism (6) Constructivism (7) Constructionism and (8) Buddhistic Philosophy. The analysis of these philosophical concepts found that the common theme they share is the ‘belief in human beings’ different natures’. Hence, the educational and learning method should be varied but share the same goal, which is to develop a learner to achieve human completeness.’ Furthermore, Ninlamot (2014) proposed philosophical concept of alternative education for citizens in out-of-school system as ‘the education for life and society to achieve human completeness and sustainable development’. This has been raised as the core concept of the development of alternative education administration format for the enhancement of learners’ lifetime learning.

Referring alternative education administration in Thailand, it has been discovered that the alternative education administered by families or homeschooling was considered to be a significant phenomenon in alternative education administration in Thailand. The synthesis of the relevant researches finds that the works done by researchers in this particular period can be divided into 4 main groups as follows:

The First Group - The research in the first group explored the reasons behind families’ decisions to embrace homeschooling with family members and parents as educational administrators (Satawarintu, 2000).

The Second Group - The research in the second group with contents involving the concepts and formats of homeschool education, which include works such as Formats and Development of Homeschooling in Thai Society (Chalermchai et al., 2000),
Concept and Format Analysis of Homeschooling in Thailand (Pholwiwat, 2004), Presentation of Online Learning Management Format for Homeschooling (Chammuangpak, 2004).

*The Third Group* - The research in the third group studied the conditions and scenarios of homeschooling, which included The Study of Scenarios of Homeschooling in Bangkok (Chew, 2000), Homeschooling in Thai Society: Conditions and Database (Yuthachai Chalermchai, Chummas Panghom, Wilailak Julanon and Pholwiwat, 2004), Homeschooling in Thailand: Policy Proposals (Suksengprasert, 2004) and The Study of Conditions and Dilemmas in Basic Education Administration by Homeschooling Families (Intrarasopha, 2006).

*The Fourth Group* - The research in the fourth group aimed to develop the indicators of homeschooling standard, which included works such as Development of Indicators of Educational Standard for External Quality Assessment of Homeschooling (Konlaw, 2002), Development of Indicators of Homeschooling (Nantavichit, 2006), Development of External Quality Assessment Format for Homeschooling as a Basic Education (Moondej et al., 2006).

After the Age of Acceptance (post 2007), homeschooling has become more acceptance. The synthesis of relevant research discovered that the works done by researchers in this particular period comprised of the research that followed up the evaluation of homeschooling (Office of the Education Council, 2009), the Development of an instruction by family system according to learners’ age (Yahakorn, 2010), A Study on the Parents’ Socio-Economic Status and Expenses for Home School Basic Education (Chosoungean, 2011) and The Ideology and Process of Home School Management in the Northern province (Anuwararat et al., 2012).

### 6. Conclusions and Suggestions

‘Alternative Education’ is utilized to differentiate itself from mainstream and non-formal education, which are provided by the state and designed to be in one format with the purpose to dominate learners to succumb to the state as the sole ideological guideline. As a result, alternative education in Thailand after periods of advocacies and supports is considered as a ‘discourse that reacts to the educational system established by the state and for the state’s domination, as well as a creation of an educational system that truly belongs to the people, by the people and for the people.’ Alternative Education in Thailand, therefore, has significantly interpreted structural injustice while enhancing learners to have a better understanding of the world and life in general. Students are encouraged to see the diversity of life, not to look down on those who are less privileged, to love and understand each other, as everything and everyone is considered as companions, born to share the same cycle of life. Such interpretation complies with Siwaraksa (2002) regarding the synthesis of the key principles of alternative education in Thailand, which is defined as an education with great diversity that cherishes the human values.

The movement of alternative education in Thailand is considered to be rather far from the word acceptance due to the disconnection between the concept and the social context. Nevertheless, alternative education must continue to evolve to search for the
most suitable and tangible code of conduct that genuinely responds to the more
diverse social demands.

More importantly, the emphasis should be put on the collaborations between the
involved sectors, be it private, governmental or local, as well as educationists of both
mainstream and alternative education. The successful example can be seen in the
second decade of Education Reform period where the new paradigm is created and
truly redefines the meaning of education. Nevertheless, it is widely accepted that
education reform can be a great deal of challenge, particularly for the educational
system of a large country with massive amount of educational personnel. It is even
perceived as a failed system. The birth and existence of alternative education cannot
replace the mainstream educational system or is expected to be successful and resolve
educational crisis in an instant. Nonetheless, the concept of alternative education
should be understood and applied as an alternative for mainstream education. The key
factor is the implementation of philosophies, methods and experiences of alternative
education in all types of curriculums and educational institutions. This will allow the
education to resonate with the individuality of each learner or group, offering them a
chance to come into contact with diverse learning experiences. Students then learn to
discover themselves, develop and succeed in life with their true nature and potential.
In terms of the learning standard, flexibility should also be provided according to the
curriculum and educational measurement and evaluation.

Alternative Education in Thailand can be divided into 3 different periods: The Age of
Pioneering and Experimentation (before 1987), The Age of Education Reform (1897-
2007) and The Age of Acceptance (post 2007). The review of researches relevant to
alternative education administration in Thailand in comparison with the evolution of
alternative education in Thailand finds that the researches with the contents involving
alternative education administration in Thailand began to emerge in the Age of
Education Reform. In the Age of Acceptance period, most of the researches highlight
the learning management and effectiveness of alternative schools including the works
that aim to develop the format of alternative education administration for different
groups of learners.
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Bullying Among Schoolchildren: What School Authorities and Parents Can Do

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Abstract
Alarmed by the controversies on bullying and the harm it can do in the lives of every affected children in elementary schools, this descriptive exploratory research was conducted. Identified in this study were children’s perceptions and/or experience on bullying in terms of the: 1) the manner and forms; 2) frequency and place of occurrence; 3) who the bully/bullies are; 4) reasons for bullying; 5) effects on the bullied/victims; and 6) how the victims deal with it. The bullies’ description of their behavior in terms of: 1) manner; 2) reasons; and 3) effect on them was also determined. Moreover, school authorities and parents’ suggestions on how to stop bullying incidence in the school were taken. Based on the findings the following conclusions regarding the victims’ experiences on bullying are given: 1) Many schoolchildren are victims of physical bullying while some become targets of verbal, emotional, or social bullying; 2) Bullying happens at least once or twice a week; 3) Most bullies are boys; 4) Most children do not know why they are bullied, but they could sense that physical appearance, attitude, and better performance in the school that make them different from the bullies are some of the reasons; 5) The victims feel sad, could not concentrate on their studies, dislike going to school, developed hatred towards the bullies, and think that other do not like them; and 6) To deal with bullying, most schoolchildren just walk away from the bullies, tell them to stop, go with a crowd, or report the matter to school authorities and adults for help. About the bullies’ experiences, it is concluded that: 1) Bullies do not like other children, so to show their dislike they avoid getting close to them and hurt them physically, verbally, and emotionally; 2) They bully simply because they do not like their targets/victims and have negative perception of the targets’ attitude, physical appearance, popularity, talent, and performance in the classroom; and 3) Bullying has negative physical, psychological, and social effect on most bullies whereas others enjoy it and think that bullying has positive effect on them. Following are conclusions regarding the suggestions of schoolchildren, authorities, and parents to stop or reduce bullying in the school, most of them think that they should work together to stop cases of bullying: 1) conduct regular parents-teachers meetings; 2) hold campaigns/trainings/forums on anti-bullying; 3) discipline the bullies and monitor their behavior; 4) ignoring the bullies; 5) report incidence of bullying; 6) make school and home bully-free; and 6) seek support of the community and police authorities. It is highly recommended that school authorities, parents and schoolchildren/students pool their efforts in order to have peaceful and safe school, home, and society for everyone. This paper may be used as a reference for school authorities in the formulation or development of intervention programs/plans that aim to combat bullying in their school and in the community. Peace education curricula must be mandated by the government and strict implementation on this must be done.
Introduction

Although many researches about bullying have been done internationally, there is a dearth of research conducted locally. Such local researches (Paredes, 1982 and Lopez, 1980, in Bayhon, 2001[1]) are generally exploratory in nature, focusing on the meaning and characteristics of aggression among males and females. Bullying within the school context is still an expanding field of study and much remains to be established in terms of the causes, the characteristics of those involved and what makes an effective anti-bullying intervention.

In the Philippines, Inquirer.net (2012)[2] reported that Senator Miriam Defensor-Santiago asked the Senate to conduct an investigation into the reported bullying in schools and come up with necessary legislation to address the problem. In Senate Resolution 879, Santiago cited the case of Jamie Garcia, a student of Colegio de San Agustin, who has been allegedly a victim of bullying by another student identified as JB Bantiles. According to reports, Garcia’s butt and genitals were often poked by Bantiles and another classmate. But when Garcia could no longer take the bullying, he reportedly stabbed one of his tormentors with a ball pen and punched JB in the face.

Alarmed by the controversies on bullying and the harm it can do in the lives of every affected individual, this exploratory research was conducted, and the target participants were children studying in public elementary schools in Tarlac City. Identified in this study were: 1) the manner and forms; 2) frequency and place of occurrence; 3) who the bully/bullies are; 4) reasons for bullying; 5) effects on the bullied/victims; and 6) how the victims deal with it. The bullies’ description of their bullying behavior in terms of: 1) manner; 2) reasons; and 3) effect on them was also determined. Moreover, the schoolchildren, school authorities, and parents’ suggestions on how to stop or reduce bullying incidents in the school were also taken. Implication of the study to education and peace studies was also given.

Significance of the Study

This survey is an important tool for database decision-making in the prevention of bullying incidence in schools and at home. It is valuable to school teachers, administrators, parents and other family members, police authorities, and government leaders for the following specific reasons:

1. The study provides an intensive examination of the nature and extent of bullying and victimization in individual schools.

2. It can help people raise awareness of bullying that happens in a school, the forms it takes, its effects on vulnerable pupils, how other children feel about their peers repeatedly being bullied, and what they to help them. With such awareness in school and the community, a whole-school approach of prevention and solutions to bullying may take place resulting to an establishment of a school culture of acceptance, tolerance and respect.

3. The entire paper may provide insights that may help school personnel and family members become mediators and understand the characteristics of bullying behaviors that could be taking place in their schools, at home, and in the neighborhood. Research results may then be used to
make database intervention strategies and choices to prevent or stop bullying in their school and
at home.

**Theoretical Framework**

Bullying is the use of force, threat, or coercion to abuse, intimidate, or aggressively dominate
others. The behavior is often repeated and habitual. One essential prerequisite is the perception,
by the bully or by others, of an imbalance of social or physical power. Scholars (e.g., Olweus,
1992)\(^4\) argued that behaviors used to assert such domination can include verbal harassment or
threat, physical assault or coercion, and such acts may be directed repeatedly towards particular
targets. Rationalizations for such behavior sometimes include differences of social class, race,
religion, gender, sexual orientation, appearance, behavior, body language, personality,
reputation, lineage, strength, size or ability. "Targets" of bullying are also sometimes referred to
as "victims" of bullying.

Majority of research have this list of bullying types/forms: 1) **Physical**: Physical bullying
involves harmful actions against another person’s body. Examples include: biting, kicking,
pushing, pinching, hitting, tripping, pulling hair, any form of violence or intimidation. Physical
bullying also involves the interference with another person’s property. Examples include:
damaging or stealing; 2) **Verbal**: Verbal bullying involves speaking to a person or about a
person in an unkind or hurtful way. Examples include: sarcasm, teasing, put-downs, name
calling, phone calls, spreading rumors or hurtful gossip; 3) **Emotional**: Emotional bullying
involves behaviors that upset, exclude, or embarrass a person. Examples include: nasty notes,
saying mean things using technology (e.g. cyber bullying using emails, instant messaging), chat
rooms, tormenting, threatening, humiliation or social embarrassment; 4) **Sexual**: Sexual bullying
singles out a person because of gender and demonstrates unwarranted or unwelcome sexual
behavior. Examples include: sexual comments, abusive comments, unwanted physical contact; 5)
**Prejudicial**: Prejudicial bullying involves rejection or isolation of a person because of ethnicity,
religion, and race. Examples include: gestures, racial slurs or taunts, name calling, making fun of
customs/skin color/accents/food choices; and 6) **Cyberbullying**: Cyber bullying is bullying
through email, instant messaging (IMing), chat room exchanges, Web site posts, or digital
messages or images send to a cellular phone or personal digital assistant (PDA) (Kowalski et al.
2008).\(^5\)

Bullying in our society is at epidemic proportions and perhaps the most underreported safety
problem on school campuses. Contrary to popular belief, bullying occurs more often at school
than on the way to and from there. Once thought of as simply a rite of passage or relatively
harmless behavior that helps build young people’s character, bullying is now known to have
long-lasting harmful effects, for both the victim and the bully. Bullying is often mistakenly
viewed as a narrow range of antisocial behavior confined to elementary school recess yards.
School bullying has been a topic of both public concern and academic research only since the
1970s (Craig and Pepler 1997).\(^6\)
Statement of the Problem

1. How is bullying described by the bullied children in terms of:
   1.1. Manner and forms;
   1.2. Frequency of occurrence;
   1.3. Place of occurrence;
   1.4. Who bully them;
   1.5. Reasons;
   1.6. Impact;
   1.7. Dealing with bullying; and
   1.8. School authorities’ response to school bullying?
2. How do the bullies describe their bullying behavior in terms of:
   2.1. Manner;
   2.2. Reasons; and
   2.3. Effects of bullying on them?
3. How do school authorities and parents respond to incidence on bullying?
4. To help stop bullying in the school what do schoolchildren, school authorities, and parents may do?

Methodology

The research was exploratory and descriptive in nature. A total of 160 schoolchildren enrolled in four (4) public elementary schools situated in Tarlac City, 60 school authorities (1 school principal, 1 guidance counselor, and 13 teachers), and 80 parents participated in the survey. The survey questionnaires designed by Olweus (1978, 1996, 2006) and Rigby (2008) which were published online by the Hazelden Foundation (2007) and the University of South Australia, respectively, were used as references in designing the survey questionnaire and to facilitate inclusion of necessary data to be collected. The questionnaire was in a checklist form and it consisted of four parts/sections: Part 1: Questionnaire for the Bullied/Victim; Part 2: Questionnaire for the Bully; Part 3: Questionnaire for the School Authorities; and Part 4: Questionnaire for the Parents. To attain confidentiality, the respondents were reminded that they may not write their names in the questionnaire. In each participating school, four (4) Grade Six homeroom advisers randomly selected 10 pupils from their classes and asked them to go to a separate unoccupied classroom during their recess period for the survey. However, the teachers were reminded not to tell the pupils the purpose of the assembly. In the classroom, the objectives of the survey were explained in both English and Filipino. Each pupil was given a copy of the questionnaire and every item was orally translated in Filipino. They were given 3 – 5 minutes to go over the items. Queries were entertained. One (1) hour was allotted for this activity. Incidental remarks regarding their experiences on bullying were noted that served as qualitative data.

While the pupils were answering the questionnaire, 15 school authorities (1 school principal, 1 guidance counselor, and 13 teachers from Grades 1 – 6) were also requested to answer the questionnaires intended for them. The school principal and the guidance counselor invited twenty (20) parents to the school on the same day to participate in the survey. Incidental comments or remarks given by the parents were noted and recorded that served as supplement to the data gathered via the questionnaire. Responses were tallied, tabulated, and analyzed.
Summary of Findings

1. Many of the schoolchildren were victims of bullying by their classmates/schoolmates. Majority were teased and called names; bad words were said against their family; threatened to be hurt; given mean looks; hit, kicked or pushed; shouted at; and insulted or laughed at for their appearance. The bullies also took their belongings; pulled their hair; and made other children not talk to them. Thus, the form of bullying that was prevalent in the participating public elementary schools was physical in nature. This is followed by verbal, emotional, and social. Most experienced bullying one or two times a month, while some were regularly bullied at least once or two times a week. The bullies were mostly their male schoolmates and some were female. A few said that their parents bullied them too.

Bullying most often happened inside the classroom while the teacher was not around or even when she/he was around, in the play area, while walking to or from the school, anywhere outside the classroom, even at home. Most of them did not know any reason why they were being bullied, while others said that they were bullied because they were smaller or weaker, not good in class, fat, ugly, good in class, poor, and were different from them.

Schoolchildren tried to deal with the bullies by walking away from them, telling their teacher about the problem, asking the bullies to stop, relating to their parents about the bullying done to them, and some said that they tried not to mind the bullies. For the witnesses of the incidence, they said that they told their teachers and parents about the incidence, while others helped the targets of the bullies, asked someone to help and stop the conflict. Many also said that they just did not mind the bullies at all.

2. Most of the bullies disliked other children in their school, and to show this, majority would not sit or talk with them, called them names, would not play with them, made them cry, or physically hurt them. Most of the bullies said that they simply did not like their victims, and that includes their attitude, their physical appearance, or the way they talked. Others said that they also bullied the bright ones and those whom they thought were their teacher’s pets. These young bullies oftentimes suffered the consequences of their act. Majority confessed that they were also hurt in a fight, scolded by their parents and teachers, felt sad, school grades decreased, disliked themselves, thought that their classmates did not like them anymore, and wished to transfer to another school. On the contrary many said that they felt happy bullying the child they did not like, felt they were brave, and had become popular.

3. As observed by the children, most teachers called the bullies’ parents after the incident happened. Some would tell the children to stop and leave or solve the problems themselves, sent them to the principal’s office, scolded them, or simply ignored the bullies.

4. Most of the children said that for school authorities to stop bullying they have to discipline, scold, or advise the bullies; others said that the school should make rules against bullying and teach about bullying (its meaning, effects, and prevention) in the class. To stop bullying in the school or even elsewhere, school authorities suggested that they have to conduct regular parents-teachers meeting; hold campaigns/trainings/forums on anti-bullying; make and implement rules/policies/guidelines about anti-bullying; reward children for good behavior, provide
sanctions or punishment for the bullies (especially, the serial bullies), improve supervision of classes/school; monitor identified bullies; and involve parents, barangay officials, police authorities, and other social agencies.

**Implications of the Study to Education and Peace Studies**

General findings of the phenomenon of school bullying show that bullying is comprised of direct behaviors such as teasing, taunting, threatening, hitting, and stealing that are initiated by one or more students against a victim. In addition to direct attacks, bullying may also be more indirect by causing a student to be socially isolated through intentional exclusion. Whether the bullying is direct or indirect, the key component of bullying is that the physical or psychological intimidation occurs repeatedly over time to create an ongoing pattern of harassment and abuse. To let bullying in schools continue without any intervention will most probably escalate the phenomenon to school violence and create a serious risk to students’ academic life, including their personal and social life outside the school. Creating a totally peaceful society would be impossible if children grow up showing disrespect and indifference towards other people’s rights.

To help address this gaping need for a culture of peace, a culture free from harassment and intimidation, schools must formulate a free and comprehensive peace education all environments–schools, communities and businesses. Classroom teachers should highlight in their teaching the epidemic proportions of bullying and should strive to identify and address the overwhelming complexity of bullying behaviors by asking students to identify and implement ways to combat the unhealthful and life-threatening effect of bullying. School curriculum should offer peace pedagogy for every sphere: personal, social, political, institutional and ecological. Teachers should inspire kind and thoughtful behavior. They should educate for peace and harmony.

To further support the need for peace education as integral to our national and global movements to remedy bullying in our schools and communities, the recommendations given in this study must be promoted and implemented.

Unless schools infuse and maintain a firm and consistent anti-bullying or peace education curricula, teachers will passively create harmful bullies. Peace education curriculum must be mandated by the government. Peace education should not only address national and international epidemic of bullying, it should also create a future generation literate in the ways of right relationship, firmly engaged in social action and invested in a compassionate worldview. Several implications relative to human rights are:

- Schools should make known to students and parents specific procedures for reporting bullying and harassment, as well as whom to contact if cases are not handled expeditiously.
- Schools should advise students and parents of alternative reporting mechanisms (e.g., police) in cases of violence or other criminal activity.
- Schools should assess whether bullying experiences constitute a potential civil rights violation. Knowledge of legal, procedural, and policy issues is central for schools in the effort to prevent bullying.
Most legislation focuses on reporting, investigating, and intervening when bullying has occurred, but prevention efforts should be a key focus for school-based anti-bullying and harassment efforts.

**Recommendations**

1. If a teacher observes bullying in a classroom, he/she needs to immediately intervene to stop it, record the incident and inform the appropriate school administrators so the incident can be investigated.
2. The school should develop anti-bullying intervention program and conduct bullying prevention activities such as all-school assemblies, communications campaigns or creative arts contests highlighting school values to bring the community together and reinforce the message that bullying is wrong.
3. Parents have to educate their children about bullying and remind them that bullying others can have legal consequences. They must also make their home bully-free.
4. Children must avoid going alone to places or situations where bullying usually occurs. They should report any bullying incident to adults they trust. They may also actively involved themselves in anti-bullying campaigns and other similar thrusts of the government.
5. The DepEd/ CHEd should strictly implement the Republic Act No. 10627: Anti - Bullying Act of 2013 (an act requiring all elementary and secondary schools to adopt policies to prevent and address the acts of bullying in their institutions) and monitor if it is strictly implemented in all schools.
6. The government may provide comprehensive training for all teachers and school staff, parents, and community about bullying prevention and intervention.
7. The government may require integration of anti-bullying in the curriculum, course syllabi, textbooks/workbooks, and dissemination through the social media.
8. This research may be used as reference for school authorities in the development of intervention programs/plans that aim to stop bullying in their school and in the community.
9. Peace education curricula must be mandated by the government for all schools to follow and implement.
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An Analysis of the Characteristics of Self-Directed Learners and Strategies to Enhance Self-Directed Learning in Education Systems: Transcending Boundaries

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Abstract

Education can allow individuals to transcend boundaries of space, identity, and culture by empowering learners with the ability to pursue self-directed, lifelong learning. Valuable new meanings and understandings can be created by the interaction between self-motivated, self-directed learners, communities, and a wide range of organizations (Rogers, 2004). A shift away from traditional, teacher-centered power relations towards learner-centered approaches can significantly enhance learning and create the intrinsic motivation necessary to enable effective, dynamic, lifelong learning processes. Intrinsic motivation is an essential element of self-directed learning (Cross, 1992). Self-directed learners are skilled at teaching others and at overcoming barriers to communication and mutual understanding. Self-motivated learners understand the viewpoints of other learners and are skillful at sharing experiences and knowledge (Kalantzis, 2003). Mentors play a useful role as guides and advisors in self-directed learning. One of the most important, fundamental goals of education may be to create the conditions that lead to intrinsic motivation and a lifetime of self-directed learning (Lewis, 1995). Self-directed learning is becoming increasingly important in the global economy and international society and is associated with adult learners that exhibit common characteristics. Self-reflection is a key aspect of lifelong learning and leads to a better understanding of one's own strengths and weaknesses. Self-directed learners are engaged emotionally in the learning process and are able to monitor and adjust their own learning. Learner-centered learning strategies can be employed to enhance and promote the traits of self-directed learners and lifelong learning for the benefit of individuals and society.

Keywords: lifelong learning, adult learning, self-directed learning, intrinsic motivation, empowerment
Introduction

A shift away from traditional, teacher-centered power relations towards learner-centered approaches can significantly enhance learning and create the intrinsic motivation necessary to enable effective, dynamic, lifelong learning processes. Intrinsic motivation is an essential element of self-directed learning (Cross, 1992). Self-directed learners are skilled at teaching others and at overcoming barriers to communication and mutual understanding. One of the most important, fundamental goals of education may be to create the conditions that lead to intrinsic motivation and a lifetime of self-directed learning (Lewis, 1995). Self-directed learning is becoming increasingly important in the global economy and international society and is associated with adult learners that exhibit common characteristics. Self-reflection is a key aspect of lifelong learning and leads to a better understanding of one's own strengths and weaknesses. Self-directed learners are engaged emotionally in the learning process and are able to monitor and adjust their own learning. Learner-centered learning strategies can be employed to enhance and promote the traits of self-directed learners and lifelong learning for the benefit of individuals and society.

Self-directed learning and lifelong learning are closely related concepts. Self-reflection is an intrinsic element of lifelong learning and leads to a better understanding of one's own strengths and weaknesses, abilities and limits. People learn more about themselves as they learn more about the world and other people during a lifetime of formal and informal study and daily learning. Self-directed learning is becoming increasingly important in the workplace and is associated with adult learners that exhibit common characteristics. Learner-centered learning strategies can be employed to enhance the traits of self-directed learners (Butcher & Sumner, 2011). The educational philosophies of humanism and connectivism may serve as useful theoretical frameworks for examining and developing self-directed learning. Numerous barriers as well as opportunities exist in lifelong learning.

Learner Autonomy: Essential Characteristics of Self-Directed Learners

Self-directed learners exhibit many common and measurable characteristics. Intrinsic motivation, the ability to select personal goals, self-discipline, the ability to self-assess, and metacognitive skills are key characteristics of self-directed learners (King, 2011). Self-directed learners are engaged emotionally in the learning process, maintain high levels of self-generated motivation to pursue their self-determined goals and
objectives, and are able to monitor and adjust their own learning. Independent learners possess high levels of determination, perseverance, and self-motivation (Cross, 1992). Motivation is a common characteristic of self-directed learners. Proactive, extroverted personality types may naturally tend to engage in independent, self-directed learning, and ambitious entrepreneurs and high-level managers and leaders of organizations are often highly self-motivated and self-directed in their personal learning objectives and goals (Raemdonck, Rien van, Valcke, Segers, & Thijssen, 2012). Although some learners may naturally tend enthusiastically towards self-directed learning as a result of their personality type, all learners may be guided towards effective independent learning strategies.

Intrinsic motivation is the force which allows students to pursue independent, self-directed learning. One of the most important, fundamental goals of education may be to create conditions that lead to intrinsic motivation and a life-time of self-directed learning. Rogers (2004) believes that self-directed learners initiate their own learning by finding out what they need to learn and how, by planning and monitoring their learning using various resources, and maintain their learning by recording it and working with peers and mentors. Mentors may play an important role as guides and advisors in self-directed learning. Effective self-directed learning requires some degree of expert guidance (Hatcher, 1997). Self-directed learning does not occur spontaneously in a vacuum. The surrounding environment, society, culture and educational institutions may serve to promote or inhibit the key characteristics of autonomous learning processes.

**Strategies to Promote and Enhance Self-Directed Learning**

A wide range of practical strategies and policies may be employed to facilitate the development of intrinsically motivated, self-directed learning. Self-directed learners should be given opportunities to teach others, thereby reinforcing their own knowledge and understanding. Group work assignments provide students with opportunities to share and to explain what they have learned to others, thereby reinforcing their own understanding of subject matter and confidence in their own abilities (Douglas & Morris, 2014). Collaborative learning tasks enhance self-directed learning. Interactive online environments provide valuable opportunities for a variety of collaborative learning projects (Bryan, 2015). Collaboration with peers can foster self-directed learning and increase the intrinsic motivation to learn.
Blogs are one form of effective, interactive, technology-based communication that can be used to create a collaborative community of learning and to promote highly reflective learning and self-assessment (Robertson, 2011). The sharing of personal experience provides numerous opportunities for self-reflection. Personalizing learning tasks may assist learners in encoding new knowledge within existing cognitive frameworks (Butcher & Sumner, 2011). Social interaction can provide a catalyst for intrinsic motivation and deep, reflective learning. Self-directed research involving the use of social media can promote the development and improvement of complex knowledge management skills and of self-monitoring, self-assessment, and goal selection (Rampai, 2015). Effective self-directed learning requires some degree of control of the selection of learning goals. Flexible, modular software programs in foreign language study and other subjects allow individual learners to learn at their own pace and to transfer independent learning and knowledge management skills to other areas (Morrison, 2011). The manner in which students learn and the acquisition of independent study skills are as important as the subject matter and facts being learned.

Self-directed learners are competent at teaching others what they know (Kalantzis, 2003). Self-directed learners understand the viewpoints of other learners and are skillful at sharing experience and knowledge. Curricula need to address a wide range of different learner backgrounds and life experiences. The life experiences of learners can be used as a useful and motivating learning resource in independent learning (La Porte, 2015). Online newsgroups provide an ideal platform for self-directed learners to share their experiences and knowledge with a large audience for the benefit of all participants.

Learner-centered environments require respect for the needs of learners. Negative educational experiences may prevent the development of self-directed learning (Cross, 1992). Emotions play a significant role in successful independent learning. Learners have an emotional and psychological need to study in a supportive learning environment (Gordon, 2004). A supportive learning community of peers and mentors, whether local or online, can help to facilitate self-directed learning. E-learning can be applied to meet the educational and life needs of lifelong learners in many areas. Learner portfolios allow students to reflect deeply on the learning process (King, 2011). E-learning can be used to provide additional resources for professional development in many fields and to assist employees in building a network of valuable contacts. Strategies to enhance self-directed learning should be learner-centered, community-based, and relevant to the personal and professional needs of lifelong learners.
Humanism and Connectivism: Theoretical Insights into Self-Directed Learning Processes

Responsibility for learning outcomes should be given to self-directed learners (Cross, 1992). Just as learners are ultimately responsible for their own decisions in life, they must also learn to be responsible for directing and adjusting their own learning processes and goals. Learners need to approach self-directed learning in a professional, systematic fashion and to assume responsibility for their own learning outcomes (Hatcher, 1997). Educators should respect the uniqueness of each individual learner and enhance their teaching practices with theories of human development that promote the growth of individual learners. Self-directed learners require a high degree of control of their own learning and selection of materials and assignments. Adult learners have a unique and extensive life experience and tend to be focused on solving practical problems (Cross, 1992). Effective theories of self-directed learning focus on the needs and experiences of learners and the development of learner autonomy and problem-solving skills. Connectivism and humanism, which emphasize the importance of intrinsic motivation and self-actualization, are examples of educational philosophies that may provide a useful theoretical framework for self-directed learning (Conradie, 2014). Technology is causing learners to become both more independent and more interconnected with other learners in a wide range of online learning communities. Connectivism provides a theoretical framework for an understanding of the manner in which technology is transforming traditional modes of learning and creating meaning in powerful new forms of interactive, collaborative communication.

Theories of self-directed adult learning should also address the biological, social, and psychological developmental factors of adults. Older learners can integrate new information more deeply into existing knowledge and provide more accurate and detailed responses than younger learners (Cross, 1992). The wisdom from life experience can be incorporated into independent learning processes. Increased levels of discipline, persistence, confidence, and motivation to continue learning and to acquire new skills may result from successful self-directed learning (Davis, 2015). The promotion of self-directed learning in formal education is an essential component of successful lifelong learning programs. Learning may be more effective when learners possess some degree of autonomy and control over the selection, focus, and processing of information (Todd & Douglas, 2012). Theories of self-directed learning should also include the central importance of the individual learner and of freedom of choice, self-expression, and creativity which drives innovation.
Transcending Boundaries: Opportunities and Barriers to Self-Directed Lifelong Learning

The number of self-directed adult learners is increasing each year in many countries and some companies are paying part or all of the tuition expenses of flexible distance learning programs. Opportunities for self-directed, lifelong learning are steadily increasing in educational institutions and in online learning environments (Davis, 2015). Distance learning programs and online courses are providing more learning opportunities for self-directed adult learners. People who cannot leave their home due to health problems or disabilities are able to stay in contact with a large online community of friends, peers, colleagues, and educational support services. Technology and free or relatively low-cost, collaborative online learning environments are revolutionizing traditional learning processes and creating unprecedented opportunities for access to higher education. Students who learn how to engage effectively in self-directed, lifelong learning are able to transcend multiple psychological, cultural, societal, educational, and professional barriers and to achieve numerous challenging goals.

Barriers to self-directed learning include factors such as different forms of discrimination, financial barriers, and time constraints due to work and family duties. The shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered modes of instruction and learning may be challenging for both teachers and students and may require a transitional phase (Hatcher, 1997). Some of the greatest barriers to continuous self-directed adult learning may be psychological; some adults may lack motivation, self-esteem or confidence in their own learning abilities, and they may succumb to negative peer pressure. Administrative barriers may exist in some learning environments. Self-assessment and course assessment processes can provide valuable feedback to enhance self-directed learning environments and to remove administrative barriers to independent learning and creativity (Douglas & Morris, 2014). Self-directed learners need to acquire critical thinking skills and a minimum level of computer and social media literacy. Lack of technical skills and lack of access to online collaboration tools may impede the development of optimal levels of self-directed learning (Bryan, 2015). High, sustained levels of motivation are important in the creation and maintenance of self-directed learning and can help to overcome financial, social, cultural, and psychological barriers. The intrinsic motivation to learn may become a self-generating force once students become skilled at self-directed learning.
Conclusion

Self-directed learners exhibit many common characteristics including high levels of self-generated motivation, confidence, and a focus on goals. Learner-centered strategies and learning communities may promote and enhance the common traits of self-directed learners. Learning theories should address the specific social, psychological, and emotional needs of adult learners and the influence of technology on learning processes. Online learning is increasing opportunities and resources for self-directed learning, allowing learners to overcome many traditional barriers (Bryan, 2015). Intrinsic motivation can be a powerful force in overcoming the many barriers to self-directed, self-generated, autonomous lifelong learning, and methods to promote the intrinsic motivation to learn should be incorporated into formal education. Students who discover the joy of learning are able to make significant contributions to their communities and to the body of human knowledge over a productive and rewarding lifetime of research.
References


Financial Controls in Education Policy of the UK

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Abstract
This paper examines financial controls in education policy of the United Kingdom, from the 1970s to the present days. The education policy is inevitably relevant with the financial policy. Since education policy is foundation of the state, not only the education policy becomes objective of sovereign control, but also the school budget, due to its big ratio of the national expenditure, becomes objective of rationalization for efficient use of the limited educational resource, therefore educational administration which must fulfill both objectives is ambivalent. In this paper, first, I scrutinize financial controls in the education policies starting from the early 1970s, reduction of the expenditure at local authority using rate support grant in the Thatcher Administration, the Audit Commission which opened the way of the intervention for the local governance by the removal of the further education from the local education authority and measure of strict school inspection in the Blair Administration, and finally financial control by the national funding formula in the Cameron Administration. Second, I analyze financial statistics of the national budget in order to show the reason of the rationalization of the school resource in the 1970s and reason of realization of the body corporate of the further education in the 1990s. Finally, based on these studies, I conclude remarkable characteristics of relationship between financial controls and the education policy in the U.K.

Keywords: Financial controls, education policy, audit commission, body corporate, UK
Introduction

The subject about how the administrative education should be in the U.K. seems to have been mainly formulated by the financial factors. I mean this financial factor the domestic finance policy rather than market principle or neo liberalism. In this paper, I consider financial control which formulated foundation of the education policy and education policy itself. Before detailed discussion, I survey general administrative control in the U.K.

The control in the administration is authorized by various administrative tools, including the statute, grant and regulation, which local authority must implement in the principle of ultra vires. The ultra vires, meaning act which goes beyond the limit of the power which is conferred to the public body, is invalid. In fact, almost statute, which imposes duty to the local authority, confers discretion to the local authority to the extent that the statutory duty is implemented.

The administrative controls are classified by the following three categories: the financial control including audit and grant, the approval control including compulsory purchase, scheme, byelaw and appointment and dismissal of officers, and the directory and advisory controls including regulation, inspection and circular (Garner). As additional controls in the education policy since the 1970s, listed are the Audit Commission which guided education policies with overwhelming power from the 1980s and realization of the body corporate of the further education in the 1990s.

1. Financial Controls of Education Policies

The roots of the current education policies in the U.K. can be found in the financial policy and high cost-benefit rationalization of the educational resource from the early 1970s. In this section, I discuss financial controls influencing education policies in four parts: the rate support grant, the circular, the audit commission including body corporate and inspection and national funding formula.

1.1. Rate Support Grant

Hepworth showed a Table about proportion of relevant expenditure payable as grant which gradually moves upward until 1975/6 and then begins to fall (Hepworth, pp.55). In the early 1970s, under this prediction and anxiety, the central government started financial policy of the expenditure cut by the rationalization.

In 1971, Secretary of State for Education under Heath Conservative Administration, Margaret Thatcher, offered a plan to abolish free school milk and this plan was legislated as the Education Milk Act 1971. This Act is not only cut of public expenditure but also beginning of the rationalization, which leads to rationalization of the education resource in the late 1970s. The 1972 White Paper “Education: A Framework for Expansion” alleged a 10- year programme for educational advance including not only nursery, primary, secondary, special, polytechnics, and university programmes, but also teacher training, based on the James Report (1972), which cannot be realized without increasing expenditure and rationalization of the educational resource at the same time (www.margaretthatcher.org).
The Layfield Committee on Local Government Finance was established in 1974. The main concern of the Committee is problem of the decrease of the local rate ratio. In 1976, Layfield Committee intended to review the whole system of the local government finance and to make recommendation. The Committee raised a question whether central government should bear the responsibility or local government should do it (Hepworth, pp.57). In response to the Layfield Report, Green Paper, published by the central government in 1977, described relationship of the responsibility between center and local from the side of the central government (Hepworth, pp.292-293). The Green Paper presented the unitary grant in which the grant is reduced as penalty for the overspender, the local authority exceeding expenditure.

The rationalization inherited from the 70s was remarkably expressed in the Macfarlane Report in 1980. The excessive expenditure by the Labour controlled local authority was still main concern of the central government. The Thatcher Administration intervened to an unprecedented extent in providing manner of the service by the local authorities (Elcock). The control by the rate support grant was inherited from Labour Administration to new Conservative Administration in 1979. Before introducing the block grant, the central government asked local authority to reduce expenditure using the circular. The aim of the government is change from budget reduction of 3 percent in 79/80 to one of 5 percent in 80/81 (John). The budget cut by the block grant is legislated in the Local Government, Planning and Land Act 1980. This block grant, which allows each local authorities to spend by their own procedures, is based on concept of the equalization in a sense that each local authority can be compensated for differences in individual rate and individual expenditure, unless the expenditure goes beyond set level (Loughlin). In 1981, the government tried referendum on rate increase, but this trial was abolished (John). The Local Government Finance Act 1982 legislated rate capping which means limit of the rates the local authority imposes taxpayers. The main fields of the cutback in the employment from 1979 to 1983 are construction, transport and non-teaching staff (Kieron). In such financial circumstance, the Great London Council (GLC) and the Metropolitan county councils (MCCs) were abolished in 1983. The Rate Act 1984 allows central government to set cap individually. However, movement against rate capping led to dispute about Liverpool City Council Budget in 1985. In 1984, the education support grant was also legislated (John). The rate capping was abolished in 1985. In 1986, Rate Support Grant Act was legislated. The Local Government Finance Act 1988 introduced poll tax but this tax was abolished.

1.2. Circular

The circular is one of controls by the government. The Thatcher Administration, clarified strategy of reorganization of school using Circulars, motivated by declining pupil numbers at the primary school and the secondary school. In the Circular 2/81, the Secretary of State expressed a scope of reorganization of schools “for faster progress, not least in relation to surplus temporary places whose removal does not involve the effort and upheaval of school closures; and that the limitation of resources and the needs of the education service now make much faster progress essential”. In the Circular 4/82, the Secretary of State alleged policy on the tertiary six-form college with intention of constriction of discretionary power to the local education authority (Meredith). Furthermore, the Circular 3/87 emphasized cut of extra expenditure by describing that “The Secretary of State would not normally be prepared to approve the
closure of a school of proven worth unless there was evidence that it could not continue to sustain its established quality and that the alternative proposals would secure at least the same quality and variety of education at lower cost”. It is to be noticed that these Circulars pointed problems about rationalization of the surplus places, cut of the expenditure and the tertiary six-form college without the LEA, which the Audit Commission afterwards recommended as essentially important agenda from viewpoints of value for money.

1.3. Audit Commission

It seems that the Audit Commission, auditing local government, has been playing bigger roles than our preconception. The audit Commission can be addressed as extension of the Layfield Committee (1974) which checked the whole system of local government finance and provide recommendation. I also think the other reason of the start of the Audit Commission in 1983 is due to the judgement of the government that existing Circular, which has been facilitating as governmental control tool, cannot fully cope with wide public services including education. Though the Audit Commission calls little attention to researchers of education, its role is decisive in recommendation and induction of new education policies.

The Audit Commission legislated in the Local Finance Act 1982, started in April, 1983 and closed in March, 2005, is a public body independent from sovereign and local authority. Besides the Audit Commission, there exists NAO auditing the sovereign. Members of the Audit Commission are appointed by the Secretary of State (the Local Finance Act 1982, section 11). In general, purpose of the Audit Commission is audit of public fund and evaluation of public policy from viewpoint of value for money. Annual report of the Audit Commission covers various services of the local administration. Although the Audit Commission is independent body, Secretary of State for Environment can issue directive to the Audit Commission (Holloway).

△

1.3.1. Body Corporate

In the 1984 Annual Report of the Audit Commission, the auditors pointed out the budget of the further education. The further education is also pointed out in the Annual Reports of the Audit Commission in 1984, 1985, 1989 and 1993, respectively. The Education Reform Act 1988 changes provision and finance of the higher education and the further education (Part II), and established body corporate, Polytechnics and Colleges Funding Council (PCFC) (132). The Education Reform Act 1988 was legislated for change of management power of the City Technology College and the further education from the local education authority to the body corporate (15). The Further and Higher Education Act 1992 established new body corporate, the Further Education Funding Councils (1). This Act set out the rule of the transfer about the land, property, right and responsibility from the local education authority to the Further Education Funding Councils (23). Under the Blair Administration the body corporate for the further education and City College started on a full scale. However, as the management is prioritized in the body corporate, such side effects as contract out of the education itself and the managerialism in place of the academism cannot be avoided. It is reported that forty percent staff of the College is non-permanent staff due to prioritization of management (Kendall and Holloway).
1.3.2. Inspection

The Audit Commission reported not only further education but school inspection. The Commission pointed out remarkable difference in the implementation by the local education authorities. Furthermore, the Commission published reports insisting that the local education authorities which cannot reform should be abolished (Changing Partners, Audit Commission 1998, Held in Trust, Audit Commission 1999). This corresponds to the legislation of the School Inspection Act 1996 and the School Standard Framework Act 1988. The School Inspection Act 1996 stated that the Chief Inspectorate for England must have the duty about the quality of the education, the educational standard, the effective management of the financial resources and the spiritual, moral, social and cultural development of pupils (2(1)). The Chief Inspector must also report on the schools (2(2)). The School Standard Framework Act 1988 Act gave the power of school inspection to the local education authority and the Secretary of State. First, the local education authority is conferred power of intervention to maintained school under the condition of school subject to formal warning or school with serious weakness or school requiring special measures (14(1)). Second, the measures of the intervention are additional appointment of school governors and suspension of the delegated budget (14(2)).

1.4. National Funding Formula

The Education Reform Act 1988 legislated the school budget by new funding formula, as the local management of schools (LMS) (Part I Chapter III). The Thatcher Administration proceeded delegation and control simultaneously, where the discretionary power of school budget is delegation and the funding formula is control. Relationship between the school budget and funding formula is similar to relationship between parental participation to the school board as delegation and national curriculum as control.

According to the funding formula legislated in the Education Reform Act 1988, ratio of at least 75 percent of individual school budget is delegated to the school based on number of pupils, afterward this ratio was upgraded to 85 percent. The local authority allocates the remaining budget of 25 percent based on the other factor. There existed differences in the proportions of the Potential Schools’ Budget (PSB) delegated to schools (Bullock and Thomas). The formula factors are AWPU(Age Weighted Pupil Unit), premises, lump sum, SEN(Special Educational Needs) and so on.

In 2012 under the Cameron Administration, DfE started new delegation on the school board and school finance. The delegation about the school board aims reduction of burden under the reducing bureaucracy. The delegation of the school budget is combined with control by new National Funding Formula, like the Education Reform Act 1988. Principle of the National Funding Formula is fairness, simplicity, consistency and transparency. The new formula fashioned by delegation is characterized by budget allocation of the same level to the same environment and pupil number. As uniformity is introduced in the National Funding Formula, in addition to objectivity by allocation based on pupil number in existing funding formula, it is hard to reflect situation particular to the area and school to the budget allocation. Thus, the National Funding Formula faced many side effects, for example, cut of the minority problem in the school area and abolishment of new school projects.
2. Analysis of Statistics

I analyze financial policy using statistics of the national budget in order to show the reason of the rationalization of the school resource in the 1970s and reason of realization of the body corporate of the further education in the 1990s.

Table 1 shows education spending ratio per total revenue during 1970-79. The education spending ratio is remarkably high of approximate twenty in 1973-76. From these values of the ratio, the reason and motivation of the rationalization of the school resource is understandable.

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<th>Total Direct Revenue (£ billion)</th>
<th>Education Spending (£ billion)</th>
<th>Education Spending / Total Direct Revenue (percent)</th>
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Table 1 Education Spending Ratio per Total Revenue

The author calculated a Ratio = Education Spending / Total Direct Revenue from statistics Public Spending and Public Revenue in the United Kingdom, http://www.ukpublicspending.co.uk

I also analyze reason of realization of the body corporate of the further education in the 90s. Table 2 shows spending ratio per total spending during 1970-2015. Although education spending ratio is always stable between 11.5 and 13.5 percent, spending ratios of the health care and pension have been extremely increasing. The welfare spending ratio is still high. Especially, the education spending ratio exceeded defence spending ratio since 1989. Such situation satisfies the motivation why body corporate of the further education was obliged to be managed without central grant.
<table>
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**Table 2 Spending Ratio per Total Spending**

The author calculated a Spending Ratio = Spending / Total Spending from statistics Public Spending in the United Kingdom, http://www.ukpublicspending.co.uk
Conclusion
I briefly discuss relationship between the financial control and education policy. I do not intend to say that school education in the field level is directly restricted by the financial controls, however, the administration education expressed by the education policy is directly or indirectly influenced by the financial control. As discussed throughout this paper, the Audit Commission and the circuit are strong control tools for formulation of the education policy, while the national budget and rate support grant formulated foundation of the education policy. Especially, the Audit Commission has been playing decisive role to unprecedented extent in policy formulation of the education of the U.K.
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The Benefits of Images: Guess and Check Game in Math Classroom

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Abstract
Geometry is a learning that requires some ability to cover it. One of it is the spatial ability. The purpose of this study are how learning geometry in mathematics education, Teacher Training and Education Faculty at the University of Muhammadiyah Purwokerto, Indonesia can be easily understood by students. So, the researchers made a model of learning that is associated with the game, guess and check game is one of a game which is support for the student to understand the geometry with easily. Guess and check game consists of several steps or rules of the game. Guess and Check game also closely associated with the image. To improve a spatial ability and motivation to learn geometry for students, images are needed in the game especially in guess and check game. How guess and check the game as the application of the use of the image can improve spatial ability and motivation to learn in geometry?

Keywords: Images, geometry course, guess and check game
Introduction

The use of images in teaching and learning has benefits to support student comprehension, retention, and application. For example related the use of images to spatial intelligence, and student motivation to learn, which are established models and theories in education.

The theory of multiple intelligences suggests that there are a number of distinct forms of intelligence that each individual possesses in varying degrees. Gardner (1991) proposes eight primary forms: naturalistic, linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, body-kinesthetic, intrapersonal and interpersonal. A number of others also suggest an additional one: technological. Students who are spatial intelligence ("picture smart" or visual smart) have the ability, or preference, to think in pictures. Spatial intelligence people create and use mental images; enjoy art, such as drawings, and sculpture); use maps, charts, and diagrams; and often remember with pictures. One implication of Gardner's theory is that learning/teaching should incorporate the intelligences of each person. For example, if an individual has strong spatial intelligence, then spatial activities and learning opportunities should be used.

In humans the sense of sight is by far the most dominant of the five senses. Scientists who study the brain have determined that about one-quarter of the human cerebral cortex is involved in the sense of sight. (Thurstone, 1950; Embretson, 1987) Today's media environment reflects our strong reliance on sight as a way of taking in information. It is an environment filled with a vast array of visual images, some moving, some still. Although video and film occupy most of our attention when it comes to the visual media, the photograph or still image provides valuable lessons in understanding the techniques used to convey information visually.

The benefits of images has been recognised in educational psychology for a long time. For example, back in 1996, Richard Mayer and several of his colleagues from the University of California, Santa Barbara studied the effects of a multimedia summary (a sequence of annotated illustrations depicting the steps in a process) on learning how lightning is formed. (Tall, 1977; McFarlane, et.al., 2002)Through a series of experiments, the researchers found that the students who read a multimedia summary on its own recalled the key explanatory information and solved transfer problems as well as or better than the students who read the multimedia summary accompanied by a 600-word passage. Both groups of students performed as well as or better than the students who read the text passage on its own. The researchers consider these results important because, not only do they support the idea of pictures enhancing learning, but they also suggest that an infographic can achieve similar learning outcomes whether or not it is accompanied by a relatively large amount of text. The researchers interpreted their results in terms of their “cognitive theory of multimedia learning”, which draws heavily from cognitive load theory. They proposed that lengthy verbal explanations may in fact distract the learner with unnecessary information, which adversely affects their cognitive processing and thus their learning. In contrast, a concise infographic provides only the important information. This reduces the cognitive load, making it easier to process and to “learn”.

"Guess and Check" is a problem-solving strategy that students can use to solve mathematical problems by guessing the answer and then checking that the guess fits
the conditions of the problem. For example, the following problem would be best solved using guess and check: Of 25 rounds at the regional spelling contest, the Mighty Brains tied 3 rounds and won 2 more than they lost. How many rounds did the Mighty Brains win? (Groff, J., et.al, 2010; Hays, 2005).

All research mathematicians use guess and check, and it is one of the most powerful methods of solving differential equations, which are equations involving an unknown function and its derivatives. (Kiili, 2005) A mathematician's guess is called a "conjecture" and looking back to check the answer and prove that it is valid, is called a "proof." The main difference between problem solving in the classroom and mathematical research is that in school, there is usually a known solution to the problem. In research the solution is often unknown, so checking solutions is a critical part of the process.

Introduce a problem to students that will require them to make and then check their guess to solve the problem. For example, the problem: Ben knows 100 baseball players by name. Ten are Red Sox. The rest are Blue Jays and Diamondbacks. He knows the names of twice as many Diamondbacks as Blue Jays. How many Blue Jays does he know by name? When students use the strategy of guess and check, they should keep a record of what they have done. It might be helpful to have them use a chart or table. Understand the problem, demonstrate that the first step is understanding the problem. This involves finding the key pieces of information needed to find the answer. This may require reading the problem several times, and/or students putting the problem into their own words. For example, "I know there are twice as many Diamondbacks as Blue Jays. There are 10 Red Sox. The number of Blue Jays and Diamondbacks should equal 90." Choose a strategy, use the "Guess and Check" strategy. Guess and check is often one of the first strategies that students learn when solving problems. This is a flexible strategy that is often used as a starting point when solving a problem, and can be used as a safety net, when no other strategy is immediately obvious.

In mathematics, "Guess and Check" can be a way of determining two or more numbers based on their relations with other numbers. These are best done using a table and if needed, equations/rules. They are: determine what students are trying to find, for example, a problem may say, "The product of a certain number and another number two more than the first number is twenty-four, so find the numbers." Assign variables, like, for example, \( x \) = the first number, \( y \) = the second number, etc. Determine what number students are comparing to, normally, the result of the equation equals a certain number. In the example taken, the product is twenty-four. Make a table, assign one column per number/variable. (Dolan, 2012; Egenfeldt, 2007) Make several slots, so each guess can be tested out. Try out a number, in this case, try out for example, two. The second number has a relation with the first number. In this case, it is two more, so it would be four. Carry out with the numbers' relation. For the problem described above, students would multiply the numbers. Since the product is only eight, they are obviously off-track. Try different numbers. If students are close to their number but not quite there yet, determine what should be done, if the result is too high, then try reducing the number they start of with, if the result is too low, increase the starting number. Once students are done, check to make sure the numbers really work by plugging them back into the original conditions, does everything work out? If not, go back and see what have done wrong.
What is the benefits of guess and check game it self? spatial intelligence, and student motivation to learn are the benefits of images in this research. Authors think that those are important because in geometry class students must have spatial intelligence, student motivation to learn is one other of benefits of images. Learning in general will not be able to run optimally if the student does not have a strong motivation to learn, to guess and check the game is expected student motivation to learn geometry.

In many curricula, especially in geometry class specific training of spatial ability is of little importance. The main emphasis is put on 2D geometry. Spatial intelligence are frequently and extensively avoided, the way that geometrical polyhedral are already projected in oblique parallel perspective. Thus, the student has only to copy the formula, fill in the measurements and, if necessary, rearrange the formula for calculation. This is a very unsatisfying characteristic of today’s geometrical teaching. So the major criticism leads to the following initial thesis: Spatial geometry is still not more than learning mathematical vocabulary, arithmetic and algebra (Andelfinger, 1988). Therefore, space geometry education has to be fundamentally reformed.

(Malone, 1981; Forsyth, 1991) Motivation, both intrinsic and extrinsic, is a key factor in the success of students at all stages of their education, and teachers can play a pivotal role in providing and encouraging that motivation in their students. Of course that’s much easier said than done, as all students are motivated differently and it takes time and a lot of effort to learn to get a classroom full of kids enthusiastic about learning, working hard, and pushing themselves to excel. Even the most well-intentioned and educated teachers sometimes lack the skills to keep kids on track, so whether you’re a new teacher or an experienced one, try using these methods to motivate your students and to encourage them to live up to their true potential. This approach enables the student to devote their cognitive efforts to processing the initial conceptual framework, prior to following it up with more substance once a broad understanding of the main concepts is achieved.

**Research Design**

In this special issue on Benefits of images in guess and check game in math class, it presents a selection of mathematical projects that are in some way relevant, directly or indirectly, to guess and check game. It is take place in Geometry class in Teacher Training and Education Faculty at The University of Muhammadiyah Purwokerto, Indonesia. Authors start with projects that have applications of math and continue with the closely related topic of concept math. Then go on to the timely topic of concepts of math in guess and check game. The class is star with making group which consisted of 5 students. Each group will be taught how they look for the most appropriate alternative answers of some of the issues presented in the paper. But before they look for alternative answers, first they must find the concept of the material being studied today by discussed with a group of their friends. The basic concept of math used as material to make a guess and check the game, Reviews those games is composed of two parts, the problem and alternative answers. The problem Consists of the existing problems in the field of analytic geometry, and alternative consists of four alternative answers, students are asked to look for an alternative that is most correct problems. After alternative answers obtained each group present it in front. The process consists of the presentation will be a question and answer process.
from another group. So that the process of this game are not only concern to spatial intelligence, but also student motivation to learn.

**Result and or Findings**

**Guess and Check Game’s Process**

*Determine what students are trying to find.* The learning begins with the division of the group. Each group consisted of 5 students. Each group will be taught how they look for the most appropriate alternative answers of some of the issues presented in the paper. But before they look for alternative answers, first they must find the concept of the material being studied today by discussed with a group of their friends. This process is very intensive because the thinking of students with their friends in group will improve their ability to think critically. The results is getting their search results with friends. Therefore lecture needs to be intensively give a help for students because the students have been looking for a concept that they should do and her friends. After they did the research for the concept they get the goal, the goal is the same perception of the concept that what has been produced has a shared the knowledge.

*Figure 1. students determined what they try to find*

*Determine what number students are comparing to.* The results of what they get together group of their friends then compared with the results conducted by other groups, whether of the discussion draft is done and the results of the search of alternative answer to the problem is provided. This process needs to be done so that what they do does have a truth value or not

*Figure 2. students determined what they are comparing to*

*Try out a number.* The searching of alternative answer to the problem presented lecturers need to be analyzed by using the method and specific answer. This search process requires trial and error. The results obtained have the right to perform a lengthy process, which is then corrected by the first trial group of their friends and then analyzed again to the results obtained have the truth.
If students are close to their number but not quite there yet, determine what should be done. The process of finding alternative answers needed timeless, if its given time has run out while the student has not completed the given problem lecturer, then students need to correct myself whether management has owned the right time or not. So not only have good cognitive abilities but time management and division of tasks between the groups also need to be considered by each group of student learning.

Once students are done, check to make sure the numbers really work by plugging them back into the original conditions. The alternative answers that have been obtained by each group has a different way of reference and different for each group. So when it has a difference by each group of lecturers need to consider whether the means used was appropriate or not. Restore step by step do need to figure out which one has the most appropriate alternative answers.

Spatial intelligence skills are essential for mastering a game such as guess and check. When student play guess and check game they have to use strategy and skill in not only planning their moves but anticipating what moves their opponent will make. This is where spatial intelligence comes in because this type of brain exercise lets they visualize the board several moves in advance even though the pieces haven’t been
Student's spatial intelligence in guess and check game is asked to students looking for an alternative answer to the problems. To find out the problem solving students need to find the most appropriate alternative answers, the process of finding a solution to the student needs to calculate, drawing, and analyzing mathematical concepts. Student's spatial intelligence of this is how students can draw a shape with a diagram. To create a diagram, students need to use the ability to draw and analyze the images properly.

**Student’s Motivation to Learn**

*Give students a sense of control.* While guidance from a lecture is important to keeping student on task and motivated, allowing students to have some choice and control over what happens in the classroom is actually one of the best ways to keep them engaged. For example, allowing students to choose the type of assignment they do or which problems to work on in guess and check game can give them a sense of control that may just motivate them to do more. *Use positive competition.* Competition in the classroom isn’t always a bad thing, and in some cases can motivate students to try harder and work to excel. Work to foster a friendly spirit of competition in their classroom, perhaps through group games related to the material or other opportunities for students to show off their knowledge. Before students use guess and check game, the students were divided into several groups, the grouping process is performed to find the concept in groups, after which the concept can be realized obtained followed by guess and check game. The game is also timeless, so that each group should use the time well, in order to compete with other groups.

*Give students responsibility.* Assigning students classroom jobs is a great way to build a community and to give students a sense of motivation. Most students will see classroom jobs as a privilege rather than a burden and will work hard to ensure that they, and other students, are meeting expectations. It can also be useful to allow students to take turns leading activities or helping out so that each feels important and valued. *Allow students to work together.* While not all students will jump at the chance to work in groups, many will find it fun to try to solve problems, do experiments, and work on projects with other students. The social interaction can get them excited about things in the classroom and students can motivate one another to reach a goal. Lecture need to ensure that groups are balanced and fair, however, so that some students aren’t doing more work than others. *Make things fun.* Not all class work needs to be a game or a good time, but students who see college as a place where they can have fun will be more motivated to pay attention and do the work that’s required of them than those who regard it as a chore. Adding fun activities into their class day can help students who struggle to stay engaged and make the classroom a much more friendly place for all students.

**Discussion**

The human brain is not a purely logical entity. The complex manner in which it function is often at variance with the logic of mathematics. It is not always pure logic which gives us insight, nor is it chance that causes us to make mistakes. To understand how these processes occur, both successfully and erroneously, we must formulate a distinction between the mathematical concepts as formally defined and the cognitive processes by which they are conceived. We shall use the term concept image to describe the total cognitive structure that is associated with the concept,
which includes all the mental pictures and associated properties and processes. It is built up over the years through experiences of all kinds, changing as the individual meets new stimuli and matures.

Spatial intelligence might be one of less familiar kind of intelligence, however it has wide implications in many academic and professional disciplines. It is extremely important in disciplines such as mathematics and computer science. Spatial Intelligence also accounts for the thinking process of engineers, architects, designers, sculptors and inventors. This paper is an over all comprehension of spatial reasoning and why it is important in learning and problem solving, it is an investigation into what spatial reasoning is and its role in learning and cognition. This paper will also address the neurobiology of spatial reasoning and discuss the specific areas and organization of the brain that accounts for spatial intelligence.

The research’s source of data came from learning geometry which is modified by guess and check game, so it can call by Project guess and check game in geometry class. While several studies have investigated the role of spatial abilities in tasks involving visual searching or path finding, authors and colleagues focused on the relationship between spatial abilities and student motivation in learning. finding that adolescents with strong spatial abilities also show greater interest than most in working with their hands, manipulating and tinkering with tangible things. While building, repairing, and working with inanimate objects might bore some, spatially gifted adolescents reported a preference for such activities.

To looking for the spatial ability in the task above, the authors can see that the student is able to interpret the problem to relate to the distance between the point of the line. To determine the distance between the point of the line into the student must interpret the diagram, the diagram obtained from a distance in real and visually. After that to find the distance between points and lines students can calculate the formula that has been studied previously.

Figure 6. student’s task which impress a spatial ability
The spatial intelligence that can be searched by the guess and check game, it is also can motivate students to learn geometry. (Paulsen, et.al., 1999) Motivation is decided by two things, they are intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic Motivation include fascination with the subject, a sense of its relevance to life and the world, a sense of accomplishment in mastering it, and a sense of calling to it. Students who who are intrinsically motivated might say things like the following:
- “Literature interests me.”
- “Learning math enables me to think clearly.”
- “I feel good when I succeed in class.”

Extrinsic motivators include parental expectations, expectations of other trusted role models, learning potential of a course of study, and grades. Students who are extrinsically motivated might say things like the following:
- “I need a B- in statistics to get into business school.”
- “If I flunk chemistry, I will lose my scholarship.”
- “Our instructor will bring us donuts if we do well on today’s quiz.”

So that way, guess and check game is one way to encourage student motivation. Here are some ways in guess and check game to student motivation to learn in geometry class: a) **Become a role model for student interest**, deliver your presentations with energy and enthusiasm. As a display of lecture’s motivation, they passion motivates their students. Make the course personal, showing why student are interested in the material; b) **Get to know the students**, Lecture will be able to better tailor their instruction to the students’ concerns and backgrounds, and their personal interest in them will inspire their personal loyalty to them. Display a strong interest in students’ learning and a faith in their abilities; c) **Use a variety of student-active teaching activities.** These activities directly engage students in the material and give them opportunities to achieve a level of mastery, such as teach by discovery, student find as satisfying as reasoning through a problem and discovering the underlying principle on their own. Cooperative learning activities, they are particularly effective as they also provide positive social pressure.

In many cases, there are many ways in geometry class to help motivate students: **Structure the geometry class to help students know what to expect.**
Use the syllabus to clarify what the student will learn, lecture’s expectations, and how the course will be conducted
At the beginning of class, explain the focus of the class and what they should be able to know and do by the end
Align what happens with this initial framing of the class
Close the class with a summary; provide opportunities for students to summarize by asking them to:
Respond to clicker questions that gauge what they learned in class
Draw a concept map of what they learned
Write a one minute paper about what they have learned
Prepare students for future classes and other learning opportunities.
Conclusion

The conclusions of this issue are the answers to math problems that all use in the course of improvement of spatial intelligence and student’s motivation to learn in geometry. The benefits of images in guess and check game in this course are: 1) pictures look pretty, use them to increase engagement, in this case spatial intelligence and student motivation to learn; and 2) a picture paints a thousand words, use one to replace wads of text. As a researcher, some of the benefits of the images would not only as a spatial ability and improve students motivation to learn, but many others as well. The only one that concern here is closely related to learn geometry in spatial ability, so to improve their ability to study the geometry should be a major to concern. More primary math education students at The University of Muhammadiyah Purwokerto must have good spatial capabilities to support learning geometry. Learning is expected to the guess and check game spatial ability and motivation in learning can be improved as well be an interesting experience for them to learn geometry.
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The Development and Application of E-Learning on Elderly Education in Taiwan

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Abstract
The United Nations named the 1999 was the first International Year of Older Persons (IYOP) in human history and issued the relevant bills of older persons’ rights. In the research of the Education Institute of UNESCO, if the older persons participated more learning activities, they will more adaptive in their community. In addition, it will more helpful for their health and peacefulness. It is a worthy important topic that how to apply the varied informational e-learning products to make the older persons can healthy, suitable and safe to enjoy their life. However, some of the current interface designs of informational e-learning product came from the design principle of computer operational interface. That will make some informational digital products are difficult to use (Brewster, 2002). Although informational digital techniques have potential for the older persons to participate more social and economic activities, the older persons will have barriers in operating informational e-learning products. Because their functions of physiology and psychology are getting degenerate to make some obstacles, it will easily form the barriers for the older persons. Hence, regarding to Taiwan towards the older age society and the life learning planning in the nearing future, Taiwan should have comprehensive deliberation and consideration. This research presents the education and E-learning of older persons in Taiwan by literatures review to provide the references of planning and development in the learning development of older persons.

Keywords: sporting products, lower extremity elliptical exercise pattern, exercise prescription, muscle strength and muscular endurance
Introduction

E-learning has made feature high anywhere, especially in line with rapidly changing patterns of modern society, from the traditional teaching space, time constraints, can create an autonomous, personal learning space, therefore, the number of e-learning will be the future of the Internet era important trends and make the EFA goal of lifelong education, the opportunity to implement more specific.

In recent years, elderly person education was booming trend, a variety of educational activities has introduced the elderly, and their numbers rapidly increased substantially, society can provide more educational opportunities and learning pipeline inspire the elderly to participate in learning activities for the elderly, so that elderly person can continue to develop themselves, expand your horizons, to understand society and have to adapt to change, the ability of the times, so the elderly education in addition to well-planned curriculum, but more important is to create a good learning environment, it is not easy to make the elderly We were disturbed to learn, and the government should establish a sound system of lifelong learning elderly person to solve the problem of an aging society.

Literatures Review

1.Current Status of Taiwan elderly person education and development

1.1the elderly in an aging society, educational

With the progress of society through economic development and improve the standard of medical care, the average life expectancy continues to lengthen, so with the advent of the elderly population in the total population increase in the proportion and aging society, the elderly education in aging society It has become an important and urgent task, to distinguish the following to explore several directions.

(1)Population Structure:
According to the latest Ministry of the Interior released data show that Taiwan has about 1.49 million eight hundred and one people, the total number of population in the Republic eighty-two the end (of the total population over 65 The 7.8%) reached an aging society standards, that is, by definition of the UN World Health Organization, China has officially entered the aging of the social structure. In addition the Ministry of Education in particular will score and seven years as Lifelong Learning, published "Towards the learning society 'White Paper, to protect the people's right to learn one of the important policy of the Ministry of Education. However, in the lifelong learning system where education can be said that the old man actually relatively neglected group. Since a long time for their nursing care for the elderly part of the more important, the elderly rarely mention the issue of education. Changes in this intense modern society, in order to seek to adapt to the elderly to their own needs by the power of education to change their ideas. However, information society is the inevitable trend of globalization, when young because the information technology society and enjoy the convenience of the quality of life, the elderly, but may become the object of information excluded. Because the operation is to use the experience of information products in the past that are not elderly. But from another perspective, the diverse and varied information products and convenient transport network, not only to
expand the scope to make the elderly live, but will lead it into the broad learning space and close interaction with the community, and more enhance their self-confidence and "retreat endlessly" sense of accomplishment.

(2) Problems extend life years
With advanced technology and medicine, and gradually extend the average life expectancy, so that old age is almost filled a third of the entire life of the individual, according to the average level of Taiwan's years, sixty-year-old elderly person about fifteen years life expectancy, so education can provide elderly elderly person can continue to develop themselves, expand your horizons, to understand society and have to adapt to change, the ability of the times, through learning, helps the elderly to reaffirm the meaning and value of individual life and should be completed in late adulthood development tasks.

(3) Enhance national productivity
Executive Yuan seminar forecast that by 2024 the ratio of productive population and the retired population will be four to one, that is, four productive population burden of a retired population (Pai Hsiu-hsiung, 2004), showing that the elderly population is important for our productivity impact, and the elderly has become one must bear on social issues, thus providing elderly education through the learning process so that the elderly to learn a variety of techniques, and enhance the ability of elderly people to participate in society again, thereby lifting the elderly by productivity and importance in the community.

(4) Enhance the capacity of elderly individuals lives
For a long time, investment, and the biggest beneficiaries of education for children and youth, as if just learning the power of young people, elderly person education instead of being ignored and become a non-essential things, not only the lack of access to education and learning, and more They neglected their status. Therefore, by learning to help the elderly to reaffirm the meaning and value of individual life, and career development are of great help elderly, help the elderly should be completed in late adulthood development tasks, and enhance their career planning and old age the ability of life that the elderly will not touch with society, and can adapt to the changes in society.

1.2 The purpose and function of elderly Education

Life is based on education, education is the concept of life, education can help the elderly elderly person's physical and psychological changes and understand their role play, and then to understand and adapt to social change, and is about to face the events, issues to prepare for, so "aging" is both an inevitable part of life, it is a necessary stage of life, so to be successful aging must pay attention to the elderly education. Also in H,Y,McClusky that the implementation of education for the elderly can protect and improve the situation of the elderly, contribute to the welfare of society (Pei village, 2005). DAPterson that the purpose of the elderly education in the amplification with the elderly as well as existing applications of research results in the field of education, to amplify the areas of life of the elderly, improve the quality of life of the elderly that the purpose of education in the amplification elderly elderly knowledge and skills to enhance their ability to adapt to cope with social issues(Lin Mei and, 2004), the social status of the elderly to accept the current social attitudes
and political structure conferred status or political structure. (Huang Fushun Min, 2004) that the purpose of education is to promote changes in the elderly elderly in knowledge, attitudes, values and skills. Therefore, the above consolidated comments scholars can be summarized the purpose of the elderly Education:

(1) Protect and improve the elderly person's environment and expanded areas of life of elderly person.

(2) Provide opportunities for social participation of elderly person.

(3) To help elderly people self-realization.

(4) Promote Elderly change in knowledge, attitudes, values and skills and to enhance their problem-solving.

1.3 Strategies and Planning of Education Elderly

To understand the characteristics of the elderly person's physical and psychological and learning needs and learning characteristics, and information on the current stage of implementation of elderly people education, so that it can make effective the strategic planning, to achieve the goal of education elderly person, and its related summarized as follows.

(1) the social: the elderly facing children grow up away from home and the death of spouses and friends, because narrow social circle and become lost and lonely.

(2) a physiologically: physiological function gradually aging, coupled with increased physical illness, may cause elderly psychological impact.

(3) economic: As the reduction in income after retirement elderly person, no financial support, so that elderly people do not feel safe on the economy.

(4) psychological: the elderly suffer "no learning" affected by stereotypes, resulting in the elderly lack of learning motivation and interest. In addition, they fear not keep up progress in learning and produce stress and anxiety and loss of self-confidence, so reduce their willingness to participate in learning.

1.4 elderly person's learning features:

(1) self-esteem, low confidence in learning
Elderly who are involved in learning activities in the psychological aspect of self-esteem appear, on the other hand in the study has demonstrated a considerable lack of confidence mainly because of their ability to learn on their own skeptical; and they left a long time learning institutions when once again participate in learning activities, psychologically it will become quite afraid.

(2) study in order to complete the task for the purpose of development
Elderly person's learning, often for the purpose of fulfilling the development, so the same age, learning to learn together, to help complete the development tasks.
(3) motivation lies in the relationship between cognitive and social interests
Elderly person's motivation lies in cognitive interests and social relationships, and the
general adult career-oriented motivation considerably different.

(4) The learning activities stress accuracy
Elderly response to the requirements of the learning activities correctly and safely, so
the decision is often hesitate. In addition, the elderly due to the age increase, has
accumulated considerable experience, when faced with stimulation, tend to have more
choices, so when making decisions, often more consideration. Therefore, in the
learning activities, do not have time constraints, or requirements to the pace as a result
of the judgment.

(5) active participation in learning
Active participation in learning activities, is an important feature of learning elderly
learning. Initiative for the elderly, learning behavior spontaneous, should stimulate
their interest in learning content and passion, talent attainable ideal results.

1.5 Summary of the current educational institution elderly person:
(1) Division District: distributed emphasis on the north by the government authorities
for the majority, and most of them are and do in nature.

(2) Content: In language classes, art classes, health category the top three, large
classes, the teacher is part-time college degree, their own teaching materials.
(3) Class hours: Monday to Friday, half past nine in the morning the day after, four
p.m. ago.

(4) Education: (a) Long-term studies: In the next ten months, he taught three hours per
week, when graduation certificates. (b) Short-term workshops: in 24-36 hours for a
period, teaching 2-4 hours a week, does not issue certificates of business. (c) college
refresher course: to help the elderly to attend the University of elective courses. (d)
The college summer school: are integrated curricula.

(5) Provide educational way elderly person probably can be divided into three
categories: (Lin Zhen chun, 2005)

(a) school education: the curriculum at the scheduled time to school.

(b) Community education: Community classrooms for the elderly, etc. Evergreen
Academy.

(c) Social education: mining various regularly or irregularly held various seminars
throughout the tour, to help the elderly adapt to changes in social roles.

(d) the difficulties and needs of the elderly educational institutions: funding, space,
manpower, lack of teachers and facilities.

1.6 Characteristics of the implementation stage elderly Education
Implementation of this stage of education for the elderly, has the following several
characteristics:
(1) Social welfare services orientation. (2) Participation in training target big difference. 
(3) combines multiple functions. (4) the elderly educational content and method of 
implementation of the design.

1.7 future of Taiwan should have the elderly person education policy and planning 

(1) Development of a sound education elderly and ways of implementation of the Act: 
At present, China Bureau of elderly education is social welfare areas, mostly handled 
by the Bureau of Social Affairs and Manpower, which set up the actual 
implementation of advanced age or education is not strong enough and clear, it should 
be updated for the elderly and education legislation implementing measures to 
facilitate the elderly to learn, for example: by setting up community library, elderly 
study room, offers a free area to facilitate the mobility of the elderly. To encourage 
civil society to handle, set up for the elderly Education Fund … full funding so that 
senior citizens take forward education more effective.

(2) Providing a multi-track admissions pipeline 
The Government should plan a complete education of the elderly and expand the 
integration of social resources to provide diversified learning pipeline elderly and take 
tuition benefits or free way to stimulate inspire elderly people lack motivation or lack 
of learning involved in learning.

(3) The adoption of a variety of courses and diverse education 
Curriculum planners should be combined with multivariate life of the curriculum, and 
the use of a wide range of teaching methods, such as group discussion, group 
discussion, and individualized instruction to facilitate the elderly to participate in 
learning.

(4) Create a good learning environment 
Elderly person in the study did not show quite confident, it should provide a relatively 
non-threatening learning patterns, build confidence learners.

(5) Human Resources elderly Redevelopment 
Elderly people should be integrated, cooperative partnership between the Government 
and the business community, as well as learning partnerships and seniors young two-
way interaction, the use of old learning experience Passing transfer function, transfer 
of knowledge and skills and to expand training for elderly people and skills development.

(6) to enhance information literacy Elderly 
Computer network and learning science and technology is the weapon of 
supplementary learning activities, seniors can thus develop more learning space, so to 
enhance information literacy elderly person, elderly person at home to make a variety 
of diverse information available anytime, anywhere.

(7) On mining in curriculum design and co-Age-old way 
Based on the learning ability and level of classification classes the elderly, the elderly 
can be avoided for fear of facing failure, frustration and give up learning. The 
combined age of two generations of learning can enhance mutual understanding and 
propose the exchange of feelings and the sharing of knowledge and experience of 
both.
(8) Elderly Teachers Training
Elderly expertise in education should receive formal education and training, increasing its professionalism, improve the quality of education services.

(9) The implementation of the elderly in community education
Community education awareness allows a sense of belonging residents agree to participate in the elderly can reduce social problems, promote social harmony; the operation of community-based organizations and educational function, the construction of a learning community, to play its cooperation, independent spirit, the elderly and the community together to promote growth and development.

2. The current status and development of e-learning in Taiwan

2.1 Definition of e-learning
According to the American Association for Training and Development (American Society for Training and Development) published by the Internet magazine Learning Circuits definition of e-learning as indicated under the so-called e-learning, refers to the learner through electronic media, such as computers, video tapes, CDs, network to deliver learning content, which includes e-learning (on-line learning) and offline learning (off-line learning). The so-called online learning means by Internet (Internet) or enterprise network (Intranet) as the main transmission media to achieve education and training purposes, the equivalent of Internet-based learning (WBL, Web-based Learning). As for the so-called computer-based learning (CBL, Computer-based Learning) sucked learning content stored on CD or floppy disk, and through an independent computers to learn. And commonly known as distance learning, it is in addition to the use of electronic equipment, but also include correspondence with the Air Education and other non-face learning.

Therefore, the use of the Internet hypertext system can use image guidance tools, directories, learning and other auxiliary designed to allow learners in independent activities, learn practical knowledge. From the foregoing, the use of Internet-assisted learning has advantages, teachers can use the World Wide Web diversified materials or information to assist traditional teaching, in order to attract the interest of learners, and thus enhance the quality of teaching.

2.2 The direction of Taiwan Digital Learning target
Taiwan's Executive Yuan to 2011 years knowledge economic development programs, proposed the promotion of information technology and Internet applications, eliminate the knowledge gap, so that the people share the results of the knowledge economy, the construction of the infrastructure of the Internet applications, review of the education system strengthen IT education of the working class, to avoid structural unemployment problems of enterprise transformation. Executive Yuan announced a ninety to "promote knowledge-based economy the first year," enshrined in the country 'knowledge statehood "era begins, the full development of knowledge-intensive industries, and build a knowledge-based economy can adapt, universal access to the well-being of the new society. Ninety years of "National Economic Development Conference, " also proposed to build a fiber optic network systems around the island, as well as education policy should be adjusted to increase job training opportunities.
for teachers to improve the quality of domestic manpower, accelerate industrial upgrading. Policy ninety-one year, the Executive Yuan proposed laying high-speed information and communications networks, the construction of educational infrastructure and improve IT application environment, strengthening to promote IT and Internet education, promote the general IT application knowledge and ability, enrich the connotation of network learning, use of network Road resources to improve teaching model to enhance network quality of teaching, create a network learning system.

Taiwan's Executive Yuan Group NICI plan completed in ninety NICI (National Infocomm Development Programme) program, also included in the e-learning "network society of" one ring to show the importance of digital learning. 2002 to January 15 by the National Science Council of the Executive Yuan, "Digital Learning National Science and Technology Plan" concept, is expected to invest four billion yuan within five years make this inter-departmental accounting paintings. Recently developed by CEPD "Challenge 2008" six-year National Development Program, will also be included in this national-type program "Digital Taiwan Plan" in "e-life" is the focus of the first plan. The program invite representatives of the parties, brainstorming, and finally integrate into seven sub-item.

Consideration has three main axis (1)to enhance the country's overall competitiveness in the knowledge economy era planning. (2)promote the development of e-learning related industries. The new wave of academic research (3)promote. On the idea to improve the country's overall competitiveness era of knowledge economy as a starting point, starting with promote the national digital learning, and begin to reduce the digital divide, so there are two sub-plans, were (1)national e-learning and(2) "reduce the digital divide."(3)"action learning aids carrier and multi-function e-book package," so that students can at any time, any place to be and the Internet world, again by "universal e-learning", "reduce the digital divide." and "action learning aids carrier and multi-function e-book package" and industrial "digital learning network of science parks" established to boost e-learning related industries. Based on the above, the present plan is divided into seven sub-items, namely "universal e-learning", "reduce the digital divide", "action learning aids carrier and multi-function e-book package", "e-learning network science park "," forward-looking e-learning technology research and development ',' digital learning and cognitive learning basic research 'as well as policy guidance and personnel training."

Entire e-learning program has three main objectives in the planning ponder spindle: (1) to enhance the country's overall competitiveness in the knowledge economy era;(2) to drive e-learning related industries; and(3)to promote a new wave of academic research, the specific the following objectives:

a.you can learn anytime, anywhere to create a diversified digital learning environment.

b.enhance national digital literacy thus enhance the country's overall competitiveness.

c.fully stimulate the market demand to expand the e-learning industry economies of scale.
d. policy guidance and create a favorable environment for the development of e-learning industry.

e. push Taiwan into the global Chinese community e-learning hardware and software research and development center.

f. to lead Taiwan into a global e-learning related to science and technology research center.

This project is a clear statement of goals, and then on the social aspects of the industrial side, the academic side briefly described as follows:

(a) social aspects: the knowledge society inside each person, group all knowledge providers, but also learners, how these knowledge providers and learners into the inside of a large infrastructure, we create a common, so that our diverse knowledge flourishing to accelerate the advent of the knowledge society is worth thinking about the subject. Type program plans to build the country can learn anytime, anywhere diversified digital learning environment, and by promoting universal e-learning, e-learning activities to enhance the people. Vision can be divided into the overall domestic environment and community environment two perspectives: the environment overall domestic, including the creation of the job market, to enhance the e-learning industry, promote digital services, the establishment of convenient digital pipeline; in the community environment, including reducing community digits gap, implement community networking, integration of community resources to promote community-based e. Enhance universal digital literacy, and thus enhance the country's overall competitiveness.

(b) industry faces: domestic e-learning market demand is still too small, the kinetic energy is also inadequate funding. If there is an integration platform can provide user accounts, community discussion, pay mechanism, which provides e-learning for the company's services will be of great help. In this project, the by promoting "universal e-learning", "reduce the digital divide" can effectively stimulate overall market demand and expand e-learning industry economies of scale. Furthermore, by means of policy guidance to promote "action learning aids — carrier and multi-function e-book package", "e-learning network of science parks' plan to build a sub-integration platform that can create a favorable environment for the development of e-learning industry. In terms of the industrial side, this type of program countries will play a guiding upgrade domestic industry to stimulate healthy competition in the relevant industries, as related industries to promote and bred, and Taiwan into the global Chinese community to promote e-learning software and hardware R & D center.

(c) academic side: National type a new plan will provide universal and more convenient learning environment to enhance the quality and popularity of e-education. In academic research, to stimulate a new momentum and build a new infrastructure for early learning to drive a new generation of scientific and technological research, and effective integration of domestic research team valuable research and resources to lead Taiwan into a global e-learning related to science and technology Research center.
Currently the Ministry of Planning or in the relevant plans and digital learning will be closely related to the devaluation of the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Education in recent years spared no effort in promoting the digital work related to the study, there are currently planned "Network Learning and Development Plan" and "IT education infrastructure plan." The former is designed to create the perfect learning environment network, network mode by general formal education development gradually extended to reflux education and lifelong learning for all models can also be help guide the educational function of the tools and technology can strengthen national knowledge and experience accumulated acquisition and learning abilities, and thus the value of sophistication and knowledge innovation, and enhance the growth of each individual drive up the entire community and national competitiveness. However, "Infrastructure Information Education Plan" is there a part designed to reduce the digital divide. Second, to promote economic development committee's "knowledge economy development programs specific implementation plan", which contains important vision and make the best use of human resources, business and non-governmental organizations, to promote education and vocational training led to "universal learning", "National Innovation" the atmosphere, increase the added value of each person working to create a high national income. In the Ministry of the Interior, there are "pushing plans to reduce the knowledge gap", the planning vision is: Implementing accessibility information environment in order to reduce the gap between physical and mental disabilities in low-income households of knowledge; handle promote outreach activities, so that young people in the use of information network way to quickly learn knowledge, but also can fully understand how to choose the correct network information, thereby protecting themselves; to promote the widespread use of computer and information disadvantaged groups, and conduct information education and training, in order to reduce the knowledge gap, to shorten the gap between urban and rural areas.
Conclusion

In recent years, the elderly education was booming trend, a variety of educational activities has introduced the elderly, and their numbers rapidly increased substantially, society can provide more educational opportunities and learning pipeline inspire elderly people to participate in learning activities for the elderly, so that elderly person can continue to develop themselves, expand your horizons, to understand the community and the ability to adapt social change, it is elderly education in addition to well-planned curriculum, but more important is to create a good learning environment, it is not easy to make the elderly person's learning by interference, and the government should establish a sound system of lifelong learning elderly, dedicate more resources and effort on the elderly person education, hoping to solve the problem of elderly learning.

In general elderly person in sports, perception, and cognitive function in three elderly person in the use of various functions of information products, perceived as its primary function key, so in consideration of the needs of elderly people use design, it should first focus on ability of elderly people in perception. Also in demand on the use of discovery, elderly voice control is considered an ideal mode of operation, so if effectively use information products for the elderly is quite beneficial, through the use of technology, can effectively promote the elderly person and society closer active links, so that the elderly will not be lonely, and enhance the life of production, communication and self-care skills.

New look twenty-first century society will be highly urban society, highly information society, the entire education system is under attack and challenge, individuals should continue to lifelong learning, and the community must establish a learning society, can only cope a high degree of information, a rapid increase in knowledge and change, although Taiwan has entered the era of an aging society, the elderly person's education has become mainstream adult education, and learning the right of the elderly at the "Lifelong Learning" more should be everyone's attention. So the elderly person's learning problems, be sure to plan ahead, prepared to enter the field of education for the elderly; on the other hand for the educational needs of the elderly urgency, it must respond, thereby increasing the motivation of elderly people to learn and achieve "no Age, everyone shared social ", and how teaching through a new way to help elderly people to learn is a priority in the coming twenty-first century elderly learning. As a result, its potential can only make personal, social, national play, enhance the quality of life, promote social harmony, so that our seniors active participation of all the people to work together in the global village of the century into the future, so that the elderly education in Taiwan Vision full of ideals and hope.
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Thinking Classroom: A Case Study of Education for Empowerment in Thailand

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Abstract
This research aimed to study an integrated approach to learning and teaching of students studying communication arts and empower their potential by exchanging the normal classroom for a thinking classroom. The research method employed for this study the integration of learning and teaching suitable communications for participatory development was a first phase process that included: 1) textual analysis course materials suitable to impart knowledge and meet the goal of developing students’ potential; 2) designing activities and a teaching and learning process that fits with communication for participatory development; 3) taking students to a community to train in a learning environment outside their normal classroom that has similar conditions to actual life as part of the project: “Communications for Participatory Development; 4) having students design activities and campaigns to solve community problems under the concept of participatory communications and 5) measurement and evaluation of learning results. The results of this study in which students participated in the project, “Communication for Participatory Development”, to determine how well a thinking classroom can contribute to student’s developing their potential can be summarized as follows. First, the majority of the students, 62.1 %, felt the project activities were fun or enjoyable. Next, the entire sample, 100%, said they liked the learning process when doing it at an actual site. Finally, 89.7% felt that they developed their ability to think and analyze to the highest level.

Keywords: thinking classroom, empowerment
Introduction

In the conventional classroom, the teacher will lecture the students to impart knowledge, but for education in this new era, the roles of the teacher and learner have changed as the focus has changed from the teacher to the learner. Today, the teacher is there for the student, as the role of the teacher has changed to be a coach, or learning facilitator, whose role is to inspire students to learn by doing. It is a team effort. (Vicharn Panich, 2012).

“The method of teaching for the student of the 21st century can be divided into five classifications (Vicharn Panich, 2012): authentic learning, mental model building, internal motivation, multiple intelligence and social learning.

These changes in teaching and learning methods have had very profound results on developing the standards of education. Now, students are not just learning from their books, chapter by chapter, as the focused has turned to learning action in the community. Learning methodology is now based on what is required for success in work, including, morality and ethics, intellectual skills, human relations and responsibility, analysis and statistics, teaching and use of communications technology.

The course, Communication in Rural Development, has as its goal giving students the ability to use many different forms of communications to benefit the local community and society in different any aspects, for example, politics and governance, economics and social welfare, agriculture and public health as well as others that fit with local demands. The stress is on participatory communications that is ethical. The course description states that it is designed for students to study the process, roles, responsibilities and problems faced by communication in rural development.

From the course objectives and description, the approach to teaching and learning fits perfectly with the newly developed ‘Thinking Classroom’, which has been designed based on the learning process in which students put what they are studying into practice, as they learn critical thinking, to question before taking any action. This is the basis for this study, “Thinking Classroom: A Case Study of Education for Empowerment in Thailand”.

This research is also based on two strategies included in the 11th National Economic and Social Development Plan (2011-2016), which are: to develop a society of sustainable, lifelong learning in the field of communication arts that will lead to a Bachelor’s degree, especially in producing entertainment that satisfies demands of local communities, including the organizing of activities and learning that focuses on relevant theories and a curriculum with objectives to produce entertainment that educates (edutainment) based on the theories and principles of communication arts. Students need to be able to analyze and understand how to apply the right methods as well as gain a deep understanding of the profession and its processes in order to develop the quality of the people so they can contribute to the develop of their local communities and the nation.
Objective

To develop the potential of students majoring in communication arts through the “Thinking Classroom”

Research Definitions

The development of potential is defined as taking action to help students use what they have learned to gain further knowledge, skills and attitudes to perform to a still higher level. Here, this means in the participatory communication process, which includes the development of critical thinking, human relations and teamwork, and communications skills. Students is defined as 47 students majoring in communication arts in the Faculty of Management Science enrolled in the course Communication in Rural Development, section 2 of the second term of 2014 academic term. Thinking Classroom can be defined as a classroom designed to encourage and stimulate students’ thinking process, which employs critical thinking, a question and answer system, in a learning environment that is as close as possible to a real life situation in which the teacher acts as the students’ coach, or learning facilitator.

Scope of Research

Content
The process of developing the potential of the communication arts students begins with moving from a traditional classroom to a ‘Thinking Classroom’ focusing on participatory communications.

Demographics
The study included 47 students majoring in communication arts in the Faculty of Management Science enrolled in the course Communication in Rural Development, section 2 of the second term of 2014 academic term.

Period
The study was conducted during the second term of the 2014 academic year.

Research Benefits
1) Communication Arts students will gain in knowledge and develop their potential through the change from a conventional classroom to a “ Thinking Classroom”.
2) The research process can serve as one part of quality assurance for the course, curriculum and Phranakhon Rajabhat University.

Research Method

This research, “Thinking Classroom: A Case Study of Education for Empowerment in Thailand” was designed to study the integration of teaching and learning through a qualitative and quantitative approach. The sample included 47 students of the Communication Arts Department of the Faculty of Management Science who registered for the course, “ Communication in Rural Development” for the second term of the 2014 academic year.
The method of integration of teaching to best convey the required course knowledge of participatory communications can be divided into five steps, as follows:

Step 1: Consider the material that would be necessary to impart the required knowledge and meet the course goal to develop students’ potential.

Step 2: Design activities and a teaching-learning process that focuses on participatory communication.

Step 3: Have students move to a location where they can gain onsite experience outside their conventional classroom. The site should be as close to a real life experience as possible to conduct the project, “Communication for Participatory Development”.

Step 4: Students design activities and campaign communications to solve community problems under the concept of participatory communications.

Step 5: Measure and evaluate the learning of students, group friends and classmates together with the project’s results as well as have the teacher/lecturer measure and evaluate the results from developing students’ potentials through the change from a conventional classroom to a “Thinking Classroom” using an online questionnaire and student observation while they participate in the project.

The research tools employed to collect data on the integration of teaching and learning for the course “Communication for Rural Development” comprised an student observation form to be completed by the researcher, who is also the teacher for this subject. It covered student behavior as they work on designing activities and campaign communications to solve community problems under the concept of participatory communications as well as an online questionnaire that students complete once the development project is completed.

For the analysis of the qualitative data, the researcher uses a step-by-step analysis based on the project process discussed previously. The quantitative data is analyzed using value percentages, which are presented in charts.

**Research Results**

The research results can be divided into classifications:
1) Development process of students’ potential
2) Results of development of students’ potential

1) Development process of students’ potential

The process for the development of student potential began when the researcher examined the course description and content to see how well it fit with the course’s body of knowledge to be imparted and course goals to develop students’ potential as well as the design of activities and the teaching-learning process that focuses on participatory communications. After this, the project was assigned to the students during which they were to the actual site outside of their normal classroom to train and gain actual experience in what can be termed a “Thinking Classroom”, which is as close to a real-life situation under the project concept, “Communication for Participatory Development”.
As far as the course content for participatory communications, the important knowledge the students should gain through the project is all based on participation, as follows:

1) Participation in Implementation
The target group has to be motivated to participate in the formation of the development plan, which includes accepting a role in offering suggestions, donations and resources or materials that can be used in the implementation of the development plan.

2) Participation in Evaluation
This means inviting the target group to participate in the review and critique of the project and campaign communications, their success and/or failures.

3) Participation in Benefit
This means the benefits gained through participation, including the success of the project or campaign communications.

4) Participating in Decision-Making
This means the target group participating in creating their project and choice of goals, i.e. production of campaign communication materials, implementation and evaluation of what has been done.

For the students’ project, each group had to decide what would be the solution for the problems they encountered and then produce communication materials to achieve this.

In addition to establishing target groups to implement the project, there were other stakeholders affected by problems the target groups had chosen to focus on.

**Design of Activities**

For the project assigned to the students based on “Communication for Participatory Development”, students need to employ critical thinking first and then determine their workload, or responsibilities. Meanwhile, the teacher had to encourage participation of all students in coming up with solutions for problems. They were then divided into small groups of 4-5 students who must set a time frame, which must include the presentation of data and information to their teacher, or ‘coach’ for specific periods.

**1st Period**
1. Survey the two Phranakhon Rajabhat University canteens to determine their problems and methods to solve these.
2. Interview those who use the university canteens as to what they feel are their problems and how they feel these can be solved.
3. Summarize the data from the interviews and survey and present this on A4 sheets of paper as well as an oral report.

**2nd Period**
1. Each group together had to select the problem they wanted to solve and consider together this problem as well as the stakeholders.
2. Interview the stakeholders to collect the data of the problems and solutions from the viewpoint of those affected and then focus on producing campaign communication materials to solve the problem(s).
3. Summarize the data from the interviews and suggestions for communication materials of each group.

3rd Period
1. Present the proposal for the campaign communication materials for group review and evaluate the communication results through group exchange and the Facebook communication channel.
2. Interview stakeholders to evaluate the campaign communications.
3. Produce, implement and then evaluate the communications materials by questioning stakeholders.

Onsite Training for Students in Participatory Communications

The students selected as the community two canteens at Phranakhon Rajabhat University: Old canteen adjacent to the Faculty of Industrial Technology, (Hot Canteen) and the new canteen, or Phra Nakhon Market Place, (Cool Market). The students then employed two methods for their surveys, observation of problems within the canteen and interviews with stakeholders according to the points they had selected such as the market closing early, which affects stakeholders, including stall owners and canteen managers, or there not being an organized queue system or people cutting lines, in which students are the primary stakeholders, or there not being sufficient seating, which then requires the expansion of the canteens. In this case, university administrators are also affected stakeholders.

From the problems and solutions determined during the first stage, the students in each group had to develop a campaign communications production plan to solve the problem(s) they had chosen. This plan was the result from collecting data from their surveys and interviews during the first stage.

After this, they moved to the second phase of the project in which they interviewed and discussed the problems and solutions with the stakeholders to together develop communication content and design to, for example, reduce the congestion (density) in canteen services during lunchtime when there are insufficient tables and chairs by encouraging students with vinyl signage to use the service on the second floor, which had not previously attracted patrons, or from observations and interviews, have the students solve congestion caused by students remaining in their seats for a long time after finishing their meal or what students called in the interviews, other students ‘chilling’. So they chose to produce stickers for a campaign that said, “Don’t sit and chill!”

One group of students chose to produce stickers to solve the problem of insufficient seating in the canteens as well as not clearing tables once finished so they had students in their same year show what they thought and had them comment on the communication materials’ designs. In addition, they found that the language the students selected was fun and humorous to replace more formal and polite language as the stakeholders, or the target group of the campaign, were students as well, and the data from the interviews with students who use the canteens showed they do not like formal communications, but like bright, light, humorous text and visuals to grab the target groups’ attention, so they will read it and change their behavior.
After the students began to produce the campaign communication materials, they would test them on site and see stakeholders’ reactions. In addition to the benefits gained producing the campaign communication materials together, they would also participate in the campaign evaluation.

Thus, from onsite observation and interviews with stakeholders, it was found that in addition to the knowledge gained on communications for community development, potential in other areas was also developed such as the development of their critical thinking, the practical application of their knowledge to develop a communication plan and design executions, development of teamwork skills, becoming more responsible and development of communication skills, speaking, writing, listening and presentation.

2) Results of Development of Students’ Potential

When the students had completed the project, a very important phase followed, the measurement and evaluation of their learning and the development of their potential by changing from the conventional classroom to a “Thinking Classroom” that played an integral role in the project, “Communication for Participatory Development” as part of the course, “Communication for Rural Development” for communication art students under the code 55 for the second semester of the 2014 academic year. The results for the development of student’s potential after self-evaluation are as follows.

100% of the students felt they liked the teaching-learning process in which an actual site was used as their classroom.

For participation in the project, Communication for Participatory Development”, 69% of the students that felt their level of knowledge and understanding was high, followed by 20.7% who said it was highest and 10.3% who said it was mid level.

For the project teaching to students to understand stakeholders, 48.3% said they had a high level of understanding, while 27.6% said the highest and 24.1% said mid level.

The results from participating in the activities that made them think and create materials based on the data they collected and presented in text and orally, 44.8% said they had gained amid level of understanding, followed by 39.9 gaining a high level of understanding and 13.8% the highest level.

The results from participating in developing the activities and materials on their own, 51.7% felt they could work well or cooperate with others to a high level, 34.5% to the highest level and 13.8% to the mid level.

As for the results based on a scale from the highest to the lowest level for participating in the implementation of the project, “Communications for Participatory Development”, 89.7% felt they were able to develop their ability to analyze, 72.4% felt this for situation evaluation, 65.5% felt this for developing strategy, 41.4% for synthesizing data and 3.4% for other topics.

As for continuing the project, “Communication for Participatory Development” as part of the course, “Communication for Rural Development”, the communication art
students under the code 55 for the second semester of the 2014 academic year felt the following:
1. The students felt that this form of teaching-learning was very different as they learned at the actual site, and that this helped them to analyze problems by collecting data and information, which are skills they can incorporate into their daily lives.
2. The students felt that they better understood about participatory communication because they were able to use it on site and could encounter real problems that they could actually work to solve.
3. The students felt the teaching-learning activities were fun. They didn’t feel at all stressed. Furthermore, they felt that actual practical training helped them to learn and understand real problems and how to solve them, and this also helped them to change their thinking. They saw that they can work out of a fixed frame and develop critical thinking skills and creative ideas in their group. They said they would then be more motivated to do their work and felt less board.

Conclusion

To develop the potential of students studying communication arts and help them learn the process for participatory communication, critical thinking skills and understanding are important as other human relations skills, particularly when it comes to teamwork as well as communication. This can be better accomplished by changing from the conventional classroom to a “Thinking Classroom”. The process of developing students’ potential begins when the researcher considers the content for a course that fits with the knowledge and objectives of course to accomplish focusing on developing student potential. This is them followed by designing activities and a teaching-learning process that stresses participatory communications. After this, the course should provide students with a project where they can work and learn outside the classroom at an actual site to train and gain practical experience in a “Thinking Classroom”, which is virtually the same as real life. This was possible through the project, “Communication for Participatory Development”, which had as its focus motivating students to find answers to questions beginning with, “Who are the stakeholders?” which they asked after determining, as a group, the problem they wanted to solve.

As far as the results for the development of student potential for communication arts students studying outside the conventional classroom in a “Thinking Classroom”, 69% felt that they understood participatory communication to a high extent, followed by 20.7% to the highest extent and 10.3% to a mid level.

As for human relations skills and working as a team, 51.7% felt they understood this at a high level, followed by 34.5% who felt they understood this to the highest level and 13.8% to a mid level.

As far as participation in the implementation of the project, 89.7% felt they had developed their potential in critical thinking, 72.4% felt they had developed their skills in analyzing a situation, 65.5% felt they had developed their potential in using strategy, 41.4% in synthesizing data and 3.4% in other topics.
**Recommendations for Future Research**

1. Collaborative research on teaching and learning methods should be conducted to combine the study and development of teaching-learning methodology that is best for the students.
2. Different research methods that combine different approaches should be applied, or there should be comparisons made between a large number and broader range of different student sample groups.
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Building Students’ Character Through the Utilization of Used Goods As Learning Media

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Abstract
This study aims to investigate the utilization of used goods as learning media to build students’ characters in the economics learning strategy subject. The research setting is the Department of Economics Education, Faculty of Economics, Yogyakarta State University. This was a classroom action research study conducted through the stages of planning, action implementation, monitoring and evaluation, analysis, and reflection. The data were collected through observations, interviews, documentation, and questionnaires. The data trustworthiness was enhanced through triangulation techniques, namely source and method triangulations. The research data were qualitative data supported by quantitative data. The study showed that the utilization of used goods as leaning media was capable of building students’ characters, especially hardworking, creative, and innovative characters in the economics learning strategy subject. The used goods included paper, plastic and cloth. Through used goods media, it was revealed that: 1) the students were able to build the hardworking character indicated by their behaviors showing that they seriously tried to deal with a variety of learning/assignment constraints in accomplishing tasks well; and 2) they were able to build the creative character; they could think and do things to produce new ways or products from the used goods they had.

Keywords: used goods, characters, hard working, creativity
Introduction

Character problems are becoming increasingly more urgent to solve. A number of them may have started with the desire to continually try and learn new things. Such is the case with adolescents in particular, as individuals still seeking to discover themselves. In the course of asserting their self-identity, however, occasionally some of them do such negative activities as indulging in free sex and getting involved with illegal drugs. Any creativity of theirs should be directed to positive channels. Conversely, we also witness many young people who have no work ethos, as indicated by their obsession with getting instant results that makes them too lazy to work hard and to make great effort. If that continues to happen, it could cause personal loss for them and would in turn result in very great loss for the country, since young people in general are to be the nation’s future generation.

The solution of such character problems becomes the task and responsibility of the state, the family, and the educational institution (Zühal ÇubukÇua, 2012). At educational institutions, character education is integrated into the teaching and learning. Hopefully, the classroom teaching and learning could become the vessel for the right implantation of character values (Calvin G. Roso, 2013). An effective character could be built from the learner’s own character and also from the character development conducted so that character should be built from the time the individual concerned is sitting on a school bench (Marvin W. Berkowitz and Mary Anne Hoppe, 2009).

Students of economics education are candidates for teachers at senior high school. They should become role models of exemplary character. Such character is to be learned so that character education is absolutely to be done. However, what actually happens is that the class of economics teaching and learning strategy more dominantly uses the classical method. The classical (or lecture) method is considered the easiest method to use in class management and in timely completion of targeted class material delivery. The lecture method gives more space to the lecturer for class material delivery but since the communication occurs in only one direction, the teaching and learning process becomes uninteresting for the students.

In the teaching and learning process, media play the part of not only deliverer of teaching and learning material but also possible means for the teacher to achieve the aim of character education. Media are the components of communication that bring the message from the communicator to the communicant (Criticos, 1996; Ibrahim et al., 2001). So any of the teaching and learning (or instructional) media is anything that could be used to deliver the message (or the instructional material) in such a way that it could stimulate the attention, interest, thought, and feeling of the students to make efforts to achieve the learning objective. Instructional media are integral components of the instructional system (I Wayan Santyasa, 2007). According to Gerlach & Ely in Ibrahim, et al. (2001), there are three important media properties. The first one is the fixative property, which enables certain media to capture, preserve, and reconstruct an object or event. With this ability, an object or event could be pictured, photographed, recorded, or filmed and then stored and at the time when it is needed, it could be shown and be observed again in its original form. The second property is the manipulative one, which enables certain media to show again an object or event with some change (or manipulation) according to need. For example, there could be change in size, speed, or color and there could also be repeated presentations. The third
property is the distributive one, which enables certain media to simultaneously reach an audience of a great size with one single presentation. Examples of such instances are TV or radio broadcasts.

Instructional media do not have to originate as electronic goods obtained through purchases with money. To increase students’ creativity, peppermint wrappings, detergent sacks, plastic shopping bags from stores, or wrappings of any sort could be reused. At Sekolah Insan Teladan, Bogor, used goods are processed into highly exotic clothes. The message or information delivered concerning the creativity involving used goods is that it is to arouse their creativity with an appreciation of ignored objects. One of the methods taught is to arouse motivation so that pupils feel that it is "fun". The principle of the Model of Learning Revolution is as follows: Use the real world as classroom; study it and act on it (Gordon & Jeannete Vos in http://learningrevolution.wordpress.com).

In relation with character education, Hasan in Darmiyati Zuhdi (2011) states that there are eighteen educative values of national culture and character, namely, religiosity, honesty, tolerance, discipline, hard work, creativity, independence, democracy, curiosity, spirit of nationalism, loving the country, appreciation of achievement, friendliness/communicativeness, loving peace, fondness of reading, concern for the environment, social concern, and responsibility.

Economics Teaching and Learning Strategy is a class which is mandatory for students majoring in economics education to take. Based on the Economics Education Curriculum of 2009, the class aims at equipping students with concepts, theories, and models of economics teaching and learning strategies and ways of their practical applications according to need for the accomplishment of the economics teaching and learning process at high school.

From observations and interviews with some students, the information is obtained that in reality 1. students’ work ethos in the teaching and learning process is generally low in level, 2. students’ creativity in responding to their lecturers’ questions is still lacking, 3. Students are not sufficiently able to communicate in speech so that they seldom offer ideas, 4. students rarely ask questions, and 5. students’ semester examination results are still low in category, the scores of most of them still being below the criterion for the passing grade of the teaching and learning strategy class, which is 70.

With such a discussion as above as basis, through related action research the writer has intended to discover alternatives and solutions. It has been found that students’ character could be shaped by using the right media and methods in the teaching and learning process. It turns out that the utilization of used goods as teaching and learning media could improve students’ learning activity and achievement in the class of Ekonomi Kerakyatan (or People Economics) (Barkah Lestari, Kiromim Baroroh, and Suwarno, 2011). Therefore, this article would discuss students’ competence in work ethos and creativity with the utilization of used goods as teaching and learning media in the class of Economics Teaching and Learning Strategy.
In the research concerned, there were two character values developed, namely, work ethos and creativity. Work ethos is a set of attitudes and behaviors indicating spirit and sincerity in doing a task. According to Tim Pengembangan Budaya (or Cultural Development Team) at UNY (short for Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta or Yogyakarta State University) (2012), creativity and innovativeness enable one to think of and do something to produce a method or product which is new and the most contemporary among those already possessed. Being creative is thinking of and doing something to produce a new method or product from something already possessed. Creativity causes one to always make innovations to overcome various difficulties.

Research Method
The action research was done in the class of Economics Teaching and Learning Strategy. The research participants were the writer himself as the class lecturer and simultaneously as main researcher and action implementer, two other lecturers as observers and collaborators, and thirty students as learning subjects.

In type, the research was classroom action research. The main idea of such research is that the one doing the action should also be involved in the research process from the very beginning. In procedure, it referred to the model by Kemmis and McTaggart (1988). Success of action in the research was seen from students’ good response indicated by improvement in work ethos and creativity. The indicators were that at least 85% of the students were to be sufficiently active (hard ethos and creativity of the good and fair categories) in the teaching and learning process and that, in the class of Economics Teaching and Learning Strategy, at least 75% of the students would be able to master 70% of the material (which means a learning achievement of the good and fair categories).

The data compiled in the research were qualitative data supported by quantitative data. Analysis of data was done according to respective characteristics of data. The qualitative data were classified and categorized systematically and according to characteristics. Each finding was used to implement the following action.

Research Results And Discussion
The results of the application of the teaching and learning model in the class of Economics Teaching and Learning Strategy are explained as follows.

1. Cycle 1
   a. Action Planning
   The activities done at this stage were as follows.
   1) The class lecturer made Lesson Plan about cooperative teaching and learning. She also constructed Group Work Sheet for Cycles 1 and 2. A test was given at the end of each cycle in the form of a quiz to be done as individual, not group, work.
   2) The class lecturer constructed and prepared a teaching and learning observation sheet and a students’ activity sheet for use during learning in groups. He gave students group assignments to make them practice with the material about Scarcity and Opportunity Cost with the inquiry strategy, the material about Production with cooperative teaching and learning. She prepared a guide to interview for students and prepared such equipment as a camera for the documentation of activities during the teaching and learning process.
b. Execution of Action

At the stage of action execution, the lecturer conducted the teaching and learning with the utilization of used goods. The teaching and learning process was done with the use as basis the lesson plan previously prepared by the researcher, in this case, specifically the material for cooperative and inquiry teaching and learning. The lesson plan had previously been taken to an expert in economics for a consultation. During the execution of action, the researcher, aided by the observers, conducted direct observation without disturbing the course of the teaching and learning process.

In the first meeting, the lecturer opened the lesson by greeting the students, checked students’ presence, and then made a presentation briefly, telling them the basic competency to be achieved, namely, inquiry teaching and learning. The lecturer presented an outline of the material. Before beginning the lesson, the lecturer conducted an apperception by giving information of inquiry teaching and learning. She gave the students a chance to ask him questions about matters considered difficult to understand. Then students of Group 2 came forward to present the material of Scarcity and Opportunity Cost with an inquiry teaching and learning approach. They divided the rest of the class into groups. Each group was given a flag made of used paper to show group identity.

Students in each group played a game concerning Scarcity and Opportunity Cost. Students, aided by the lecturer, gave a conclusion about the game. The lecturer underlined Characteristics, Principles of Use, Steps of Execution, and Strengths and Weaknesses of the Inquiry Teaching and Learning Strategy applicable on the material about Scarcity and Opportunity Cost in accordance with Standard of Competence and Basic Competence at senior high school. Students asked the lecturer questions about part of the material which was still bothering them. Then the lesson was closed.

The second meeting covered the steps as follows. 1) The lecturer gave an apperception by telling them the teaching and learning objective and giving them an outline of the material for cooperative teaching and learning. She gave students a chance to ask him questions about matters considered difficult to understand. 2) Students of Group 3 came forward to present material about Theory of Production with a cooperative teaching and learning approach. They divided the class into groups. Students simulated the activity of making a picture frame by using used paper and a quiz followed afterwards. 4) The lecturer gave explanations about the definition, objective, and components of cooperative teaching and learning and the benefits, strengths, and weaknesses of the cooperative teaching and learning model applied in the material of Theory of Production. 5) Students asked questions about the material which they did not understand well yet and it was followed with the closing of the meeting.

c. Result of Action

In Cycle 1, it could be seen that, in character values of work ethos and creativity, four or 13.33% of the students were categorized good, twenty or 66.67% of the students were categorized fair, and six or 20% of the students were categorized poor. The related indicator for success of action in the teaching and learning was not achieved yet. Therefore, follow-up action was needed in the next cycle.
In Cycle 1, it could be seen that, in learning achievement, according to quiz results, eight or 26.67% of the students were categorized good, fourteen or 46.66% of the students were categorized fair, and eight or 26.67% of the students were categorized poor. The related indicator for success of action in the teaching and learning was not achieved yet. Therefore, follow-up action was needed in the next cycle.

d. Reflection and Evaluation
The students’ performance was already good. The audience’s careful attention to the proceedings spurred its activeness in asking questions, listening, and participating in group work. However, it turned out that in the first meeting their utilization of used goods as teaching and learning media was still not maximized yet. It took the form of only their use of used paper as group marker. The utilization of the audio visual video and power point program still dominated. In the second meeting, the utilization of used goods as teaching and learning media was already more to the maximum. The students already used more used goods like second-hand binders, used paper, and old sticky tape rolls to make picture frames in the production activity.

In them, the work ethos as attitude indicating spirit and sincerity needed to be improved. There were still students coming late to class. A student named Kurnia, as member of a presenter group, reported, “I could dig up enough courage to speak and explain in front of many people though feeling groggy.” Meanwhile, Denty, a member of the audience, remarked, “I enjoyed the lesson. Whenever I had a chance, I tried to be an active student so that the class atmosphere could appear as the real thing.” Thus, the teaching and learning process could improve students’ activeness in class.

Their creativity and innovativeness still needed to be improved. Their creativity in utilizing used goods as media was in need of improvement. Likewise, their competence in answering questions was also in need of improvement.

e. Follow-Up Action
In view of the action result still not yet fitting the success indicator, a following cycle needed to be launched with improved teaching and learning quality. Emphasis needed to be added to character values and teaching and learning material. There had been students coming in front who still felt shy when making a presentation. Students who did not make any presentation had not given response to the maximum. Those asking questions and responding to the lecturer’s questions were still only a few. In view of that, improvement needed to be done on the teaching and learning. To improve work ethos, the lecturer stressed that students should be on time because if they were late, it would disturb the teaching and learning. Any group assigned with a presentation was asked to be serious and not to be bashful. The lecturer said that any presenter who did not show any awkwardness would be given a high point. Participants who were active in asking and responding to questions would get additional points. The lecturer would also emphasize important parts of the material.

2. Cycle 2
a. Planning of Action
The activities done in this cycle were almost the same as those in Cycle 1. The lecturer constructed lesson plan about Problem Solving Strategy and Improvement of Thinking Ability and work sheet for Cycle 2, constructed the material and test, and
constructed and prepared the teaching and learning observation sheet and the sheet for students’ activities at the time they did study group work.

b. Execution of Action
The execution of action in this first meeting covered the following steps.

1) The lecturer gave some apperception by asking a question concerning who knew about problem-solving teaching and learning.
2) Students of Group 1 made a presentation about the circular flow theory. Then the class were divided into two groups of business practitioners, each of which was further divided into two groups, with one group consisting of producer homes and the other consisting of consumer homes. They simulated making sales and invented selling strategies. There was a quiz about circular flow with old calendars used as places where the answers were to be written.
3) As evaluation, students were asked to give answers to questions about what were meant by producer and consumer and what problems arose in them. Students giving correct answers were rewarded point.
4) The lecturer underlined the view that a problem solving strategy could be used to deal with the material after giving reviews beforehand about related definitions and characteristics, criteria in selecting problem solving teaching and learning, and the strengths and weaknesses of the problem solving approach.

The second meeting was conducted as follows.

1) The lecturer gave some apperception by asking questions about the previous lesson. When a student could not yet answer a question, the lecturer throws the question to another student. When no accurate answer could be obtained, the lecturer explained it again briefly.
2) The appointed group came forward to present material about monopolistic market by way of simulation.
3) A video recording was turned on to show the structure of the traditional marketplace. It was followed with group work to make a resume of the market structure. A pretest was given afterwards.
4) Fima, a student, came forward to read aloud a resume of the video content. Joko and Risang, in that order, presented material about marketplaces and market structure followed with material about the characteristics and the curve of the monopolistic market.
5) There were no students coming late to class anymore but there were still some students talking to each other when some classmates were presenting materials. A presenter gave examples of oligopolistic market: the market of mineral water and that of cement. The method of the talking stick was used as evaluation material.
6) The person given the stick should answer the question asked. When someone said something wrong, his friends responded by saying something like “Ah, no. Hanif is wrong.”, “Amin is wrong.”, and “Right. Guntoro’s answer is right.” There was a participant named Yogi and when he received the stick, he said, “Groggy.”
7) The lecturer asked student groups to write down the names of whatever used goods could be used in teaching and learning. When there was a group that got confused about what used goods to use to show a presentation of differentiated types of an object, the researcher showed a packaged bottle of drinking water to them and asked whether such an object was produced by many companies and given different names? They answered, “Yes.” And they were already able to conclude about the used goods they needed. When students were asked about the monopolistic diagram,
most of them could answer the questions. When the lecturer asked whether the students being taught in the economics class with the material of market structure were among those having a high, moderate, or low level, a student named Agus said their level was high because they could answer almost all the questions. The lecturer explained that it implied the need of a strategy that could improve their thinking ability. The lecturer showed a slide and distributed a handout about the strategy of teaching and learning the improvement of thinking ability.

8) Student groups were asked to improve the scenario of what they had done using the strategy and increase the number of used goods utilized as media for the material on economics that had been presented. Students did their individual assignments and then came forward to present the results of their group work. The lecturer gave a prize to the group writing the best scenario.

9) In the closing activity, students completed a questionnaire and there was a session of questions and answers between the students and the lecturer. Students, aided by the lecturer, drew conclusions about the material of the day. Then the lecturer gave the material for the next meeting.

c. Result of Action

In Cycle 2, it could be seen that, in character, eight or 26.67% of the students were categorized good and twenty-two or 73.33% of the students were categorized fair. There were no students categorized poor. The indicator of success of action was achieved.

In Cycle 2, it could also be seen that, in learning achievement, twelve or 40% of the students were categorized good, fifteen or 50% of the students were categorized fair, and three or 10% of them were categorized poor. In the teaching and learning, the indicator of success of action was achieved.

Students who made presentations expressed their impressions as follows. With presentations and simulations, there was a demand for students’ responsibility, discipline, hard work, and good communication in preparing as well as possible a teaching and learning scenario. Kapindo, a student, said, “I felt more challenged because I had to prepare for a presentation.” Another student, Agung Ibrahim, said, “To me, the lesson was very effective and already hit the target.” A student named Mustika, a participant, remarked, “I feel happy with the teaching and learning methods presented by my colleagues because the methods and media used were interesting so that they could increase my enthusiasm, I was not bored and they did not make me sleepy, and the material presented got in more easily.”

d. Reflection and Evaluation

In Cycle 2, there were no longer any students coming late. Students in groups were already in an active condition. They were also already able to think creatively and innovatively about finding used goods that would be used in the teaching and learning. Work ethos was already seen being shown with the indicators of being on time, being attentive to the lesson, participating in preparing groups, and playing active parts within groups.
Their creativity was also already seen in contributing ideas in group tasks, in being attentive to group problem-solving, and in countering arguments as well as in their ability to plan teaching and learning with the utilization of used goods as teaching and learning media.

**Discussion**

In Cycle 1, the lecturer already explained that even if they participated as members of the audience only, they still should be active in question-and-answer sessions. It turned out that, in Cycle 2, students could already be open when there were questions. They could also answer the lecturer’s questions already. There were already no students coming late to class and students already listened to presentations, had discussions, and expressed opinions well.

In relation with work ethos, students already showed the behavior of being orderly and being obedient to various requirements and regulations. They already showed the attitude of being on time and being attentive to the lesson. Their hard work showed a sincere behavior in overcoming various hindrances in their study and their tasks and in completing their tasks as well as possible. Students already joined preparations of presentations and played an active part in groups. They already made actions showing a fondness of talking, getting along, and working together with others. They already asked and answered questions and gave feedback in classes.

In relation with creativity, students already thought of and did something to produce a new way or a new product from something already possessed. It was shown by contributing ideas in presentations and providing alternative solutions to group problems. What was also already seen was students’ ability in presenting and constructing a teaching and learning plan by utilizing used goods as teaching and learning media. It makes it possible for students to perform as well as possible when teaching in class though with limited media.

Change in percentage of students of different categories in learning achievement was seen as follows. In Cycles 1 and 2, the percentage of students categorized good in learning achievement underwent a rise of 13.33%. The percentage of those categorized fair in learning achievement underwent a rise of 3.34% and the percentage of those categorized poor in learning achievement decreased by 16.67%. In that way there was a rise in percentage related to students’ learning achievement. It was also discovered that 90% of the students were already in the good and fair categories.

Such learning achievement came to occurrence because students were enthusiastic and they worked harder in accomplishing their class assignments. They were active in attending classes, did not get sleepy, and found it easier to digest the material. However, there were still three students not getting good marks. Anyway, it was somehow understandable in the end because two of them were class repeaters and the other also had the status of a student somewhere else so that they were often left behind in their mastery of class material.
In that way, it is known that, by using the media referred to here, students could develop in themselves the character value of hard work as indicated by their behavior of showing sincere efforts in overcoming various hindrances in their study and their tasks in the course of completing their assignments as well as possible. They could also develop in themselves the character value of creativity as indicated by their ability to think of and do something to produce a new way or product from used goods already possessed. By using used goods, they have become creative in utilizing objects already useless in such ways that the objects have become useful again as their teaching and learning media.

Conclusion
The research indicates that
1. there has been an improvement in students’ competence related to work ethos and creativity with the utilization of used goods as teaching and learning media in the class of Economics Teaching and Learning Strategy and
2. there has been an improvement in students’ learning achievement with the utilization of used goods as teaching and learning media in the class of Economics Teaching and Learning Strategy.

RECOMMENDATION
1. The utilization of used goods as teaching and learning media could become an alternative way of providing teaching and learning media.
2. It is suggested that students, especially those who are candidates for teachers, besides being expected to master the media which are modern in nature, also utilize self-made simple media and, for that, special training for students is required in order that they become skillful and creative in it.
References


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Abstract
This presentation discusses the rationale and proposed research methods of a research project currently under development in Christchurch, New Zealand. The primary objective of this study is to document the experiences of Māori academics working in mainstream tertiary institutions. Of particular interest will be whether these academics experience any form of cultural taxation and to what extent. This study will identify the ways in which these academics are affected by cultural taxation and discuss the prevalence of the phenomenon.

The impetus for this study is twofold. Initially this research draws on my personal experiences and observations having worked in mainstream tertiary institutions for the past 17 years. During this time I have witnessed and personally experienced many aspects of cultural taxation on a regular basis. Often these ‘acts of taxation’ are located within the parameters of cultural customs and protocols.

Secondly, having undertaken research in 2011, I identified that Māori teachers in English medium Eurocentric settings are often faced with significant challenges. These challenges, although not limited to, include intercultural misunderstandings and the additional cultural expectations and responsibilities placed upon them from senior management and non-Māori colleagues. These additional expectations and tasks all impact on the wellbeing of Māori educators. All teachers interviewed in this study identified feelings of exhaustion and ‘burn out’ resulting from the ongoing cultural taxation that they had experienced in their respective schools.

Keywords: Cultural taxation, Māori academics, Indigenous teachers
Introduction

This current research project builds on research undertaken for my Master of Education, which examined the lived experiences of six Māori teachers who had recently graduated from Hōaka Pounamu (Graduate Diploma in Immersion and Bilingual Teaching) at the University of Canterbury. The primary objective of this Masters research was to gain a deeper understanding of the lived experiences and various challenges confronting this group of Māori teachers working in English medium primary and secondary schools. These schools were all located in the Canterbury region of New Zealand’s South Island. Each of these schools was, to varying degrees, dominated by what appeared to be a Eurocentric institutional culture of schooling.

This current study focuses on the dominant theme of ‘cultural taxation’, something that was highlighted by all research participants in the earlier study. The purpose of this research is to gain a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of Māori academics working in cross discipline faculties throughout ‘mainstream’ tertiary institutions in New Zealand.

Background

The Treaty of Waitangi signed in 1840 between Māori and the Crown is the founding document of New Zealand. The Treaty of Waitangi recognises the unique status of Māori and the bicultural partnership that this document guarantees. In recent years recognition of the importance of the Treaty of Waitangi and its subsequent principles of ‘partnership, active protection and participation’ have been included in government legislation and policy (Hayward, 2009). In acknowledging this status schools and tertiary institutions are obliged to recognise the Treaty of Waitangi in formal documents and in programme delivery.

Further to recognising and giving act to the Treaty of Waitangi, and its principles, educators have ethical and professional responsibilities that shape their practice. Bicultural practitioners, such as those envisaged by the New Zealand Teachers Council Registered Teacher Criteria and the Professional standards for school leaders, require teachers and principals to be capable of performing tasks such as actively participating in hui (gathering or meeting) and pōwhiri (ceremonial welcome).

These cultural customs, known as tikanga Māori, underpin the essence of being Māori and are of considerable importance. Tikanga Māori is a term that encapsulates the customs, culture, protocols and procedures and the traditions of Māori. The actual word tikanga comes from the root word ‘tika’ which means ‘correct’ or ‘right’ so tikanga means ‘the correct way of doing things’ or ‘the correct protocols’. Adding the word Māori then means ‘the correct Māori way of doing things’ or ‘the correct Māori protocols’. Tikanga regulates the daily order of life, dictates the way in which one acts and behaves, and preserves the customs and lores handed down from generation to generation. Understandably, it is important that these protocols are enacted correctly and according to tikanga. All educators have a responsibility to be adept biculturally and be
able to fulfill their responsibilities under government legislation, school charters and institution strategic plans. However, when non-Māori choose not to participate in culturally based ceremonies or practices these additional expectations and responsibilities will often default to Māori staff members. In turn, non-Māori teachers who are biculturally adept will in turn reduce the potential for their Māori colleagues to be affected by culturally taxation.

Cultural taxation
Amado Padilla initially identified the notion of cultural taxation in a paper written for the Educational Researcher in 1994. What constitutes cultural taxation can be as varied as it is diverse but has a central theme whereby additional responsibilities and expectations are placed on ethnic minority staff with, either little, or no recognition of this additional burden. Latterly, other authors have explored this idea of cultural taxation (Hirshfield & Joseph, 2008; Samano, 2007), which according to Padilla (1994) is defined as:

the obligation to show good citizenship toward the institution by serving its need for ethnic representation on committees, or to demonstrate knowledge and commitment to a cultural group, which may bring accolades to the institution but which is not usually rewarded by the institution on whose behalf the service was performed (p.26).

Ibarra (2003) describes similar experiences as “minority burden” and defines this as the “overcommitment to minority activities/teaching” (p. 209). More recently Samano (2007) describes the concept as “the undervalued additional workload burden (related to diversity) experienced by faculty of colour” (p. 18). In his study Samano (2007, pp126-127) identified five dominant themes that offer a further insight into the concept of cultural taxation. These themes are 1) Cultural taxation and racist bigotry, 2) Cultural taxation and convenience, 3) Cultural taxation and conscious 4) Cultural taxation and ignorance, 5) Cultural taxation and pragmatism.

Padilla (1994) also notes some of the more easily recognised forms of cultural taxation as being asked to provide expertise in matters of diversity within an organisation, and being asked to educate individuals of the majority group on such matters. Furthermore, minority academics may be asked to serve on committees or act as a liaison between the organisation and the ethnic community, even though their own personal views may not align nor do they agree with the institutions stance or policies. Finally, being asked to provide translation services as well as being asked to act as a mediator for any socio-cultural differences within an institution are further illustrations of cultural taxation.

I would go further and suggest that in some situations the persons asked to fulfil these various tasks or roles may not be themselves, knowledgeable or comfortable to do so. Teaching into a te reo Māori language class with a lower level of language proficiency, being asked to perform important roles during ceremonial welcomes and being the Māori representative on committees simply because you are Māori makes an assumption that individuals can, and will want to, fulfil these roles. Moreover, while an institution (or senior manager) may be genuine in acknowledging individual staff members indigenous
status by asking them to fulfil these Māori roles does however absolve non-Māori of any responsibility to further develop their own competency. In turn this continues to perpetuate the responsibility on Māori individuals and in environments where Māori are a significant minority these tasks are unevenly distributed.

To further compound this issue these duties are often not listed in job descriptions nor are they recognised or given the status that accompanies the additional responsibility. With increased demands placed on academics to deliver research outputs to fulfil PBRF (Performance Based Research Funding) requirements, coupled with increasing teaching loads, additional workload can amplify the pressure on what is already a full time workload. To complicate this issue once an individual agrees to fulfil a Māori specific role or perform a Māori specific task they may unwittingly signal their ongoing desire to be called upon again in the future. This in turn may then place those individuals in a position where they either feel obliged or do not feel comfortable to say no to subsequent requests.

However in contrast to the above there may be individuals who relish the opportunity to show leadership and/or mentorship in these areas and who are genuinely agreeable to fulfilling these additional culturally specific roles. In looking at the term itself ‘taxation’ indicates a notion of something burdosome and unfavourable. Therefore the notion of cultural taxation insights a feeling of unwanted pressure added to Māori or indigenous educators work life, or rather something that is unquestionable imposed by one party to another. One must recognise however that power is relational, that it is a two way and not always driven from the top down. Individuals who happily fulfil these additional duties themselves may like the authority or specifically the mana that is bestowed upon them when they undertake these roles.

**Motivation for study**

The impetus to conduct this study is twofold. I have worked in mainstream tertiary institutions for the past 17 years. During this time I have witnessed and personally experienced many aspects of cultural taxation on a regular basis. As mentioned previously often these ‘acts of taxation’ are located within the parameters of cultural customs and protocols. An example of this is the traditional Māori welcome ceremony known as pōwhiri or pōwhiri. Afforded to visitors of all status, the pōwhiri requires complementary roles of both males and females. Many education settings are female dominated environments where the roles can be more easily shared. However, when there are very few males these individuals are left to fulfil the male orientated cultural role of speech making at every welcome ceremony. While it is appropriate that Māori lead these cultural practices, or at least afforded the opportunity, this is often done with little or no financial recognition or acknowledgement by the institution. Other forms of taxation that I have observed, and in fact experienced, are being asked to serve on committees, research projects and interview panels as the ‘Māori’ representative, organising and/or facilitating Māori initiatives, the leading of karakia (prayers/incantations) and other cultural customs.
The second contributing influence for undertaking this research project was the data from my Masters thesis (Torepe, 2011). The participants narratives highlighted that the Māori teachers I interviewed are also faced with the reality of cultural taxation in their daily professional lives. The challenge of working in an Eurocentric environment, intercultural misunderstandings and the additional cultural expectations and responsibilities all impact on the wellbeing of Māori educators. All teachers interviewed in this study identified feelings of exhaustion and ‘burn out’ resulting from the ongoing cultural taxation that they had experienced in their respective schools.

I am drawn by my own experiences and those of my colleagues to want to gain an understanding of the degree in which Māori academics are effected by cultural taxation. The concept of additional cultural expectations being placed on ethnic minority or indigenous peoples is not unique, nor limited, to New Zealand. Such studies have been undertaken in Australia (Asmar & Page, 2009; Reid, 2004; Reid & Santoro, 2006; Santoro, 2007) and the United States of America (Padilla, 1994; Samano, 2007; Hirshfield & Joseph, 2012; Joseph & Hirshfield, 2011). Research in Australia (Reid & Santoro, 2006; Santoro, 2007) reveals that minority teachers are burdened with tasks in which they are expected to perform purely on account of their ethnicity.

Highlighted throughout the international literature is a consistent pattern of cultural taxation, irrespective of ethnic minority or indigenous status. Acknowledging this international literature, and the lack of current national research, leads me to question the domestic situation for Māori academics. Is cultural taxation only an issue in the environment that I work in? Is it more widespread than my own faculty? Than my own institution? Furthermore it is important to locate these local experiences alongside of international colleagues, whilst not necessarily of Māori descent but as ethnic minority academics in predominantly white institutions.

**Proposed research methodology - Kaupapa Māori**

While I am somewhat confined by Western research conventions of a university system and the processes required of completing doctoral research, the heart of this study is with the participants and outcomes that will eventuate. Moreover, given the theoretical perspective and subsequent design of the research, this project will intentionally not use traditional Western words such as ‘elite interview’ or ‘participants’. Instead concepts and ideas taken from traditional Māori ways of knowing will be used.

As a Ngāi Tahu researcher working with Māori participants from a range of iwi backgrounds, it is not only appropriate but important that this research is conducted within a Kaupapa Māori framework. Irwin (1994) defines Kaupapa Māori research as:

> Research that is ‘culturally safe’, which involves the ‘mentorship’ of kaumatua, which is culturally relevant and appropriate while satisfying the rigour of research, and which is undertaken by a Māori researcher, not a researcher who happens to be Māori (p. 27)
Kaupapa Māori research has become an area of research interest in recent years by many leading academics. Issues around what constitutes kaupapa Māori research, its definition and who can undertake this research has been discussed at length and has been the focus of conference presentations, journal articles and topics of postgraduate study. However, irrespective of the author and their definitions, many leading scholars suggest that Māori should lead research relating to Māori (Bishop, 1992). Moreover, inherently embedded throughout kaupapa Māori research is the practice of tikanga Māori. Smith (1999) lists seven culturally appropriate practices that Māori researchers should be mindful of:

1. Aroha ki te tangata (a respect for people)
2. Kanohi kitea (the seen face, that is present yourself to people face to face).
3. Titiro, whakarongo … kōrero (look, listen … speak).
4. Manaaki ki te tangata (share and host people, be generous)
5. Kia tupato (be cautious).
6. Kaua e takahia te mana o te tangata (do not trample over the mana of people).
7. Kaua e mahaki (don’t flaunt your knowledge) (p.120)

Kana and Tamatea (2006) have also identified key understandings that embody kaupapa Māori thoughts and values. These six understandings include mana whenua, whakapapa, whanaungatanga, ahi kā, kanohi ki te kanohi and kanohi kitea. In relation to research settings, Kana and Tamatea propose that the notion of Mana whenua (political control/authority over land) would imply that researchers should (repeatedly) return to where their research projects are located to better enable them to appreciate the stories shared by research participants and/or to form stronger links to the ancestral landscapes often central to their participants’ narratives.

Kana and Tamatea suggest that researchers and participants should be aware of, and accept, the whakapapa (genealogy) of each other. Furthermore, researchers should be required to have a continued and open dialogue with participants and practice whanaungatanga. This concept is about the relationship, and the values of trust, loyalty, dedication, commitment and aroha (respect) earned and reciprocated between a researcher and the participants. Walker (as cited in Kana & Tamatea, 2006) to describe the implications of ahi kā or the ‘well-lit fires of the home area’ (p. 43). The concept of ahi kā applied in a research setting involves the participants and their whānau referring to the stories of their ‘home fires’ and, inevitably, senses of place and identity. Given the importance of ahi kā, or place-attachment, it is important that researchers continually return ‘home’ to contribute to their ‘home fires’ and to keep them ‘lit’.

Kana and Tamatea’s account of Kanohi ki te kanohi (face to face), meanwhile, is embodied by the whakataukī (proverb) ‘He kitenga kanohi, he hokinga whakaaro’ which means: ‘when a face is seen, after a period of absence, memories associated with that face return’. This idea allows the participants to share their stories in a manner where trust and integrity is already understood. Thus, Kanohi kitea (the seen face) can be signified by a researcher participating, or being seen, in the participants’ community and thus being accepted by the participants.
It will be these cultural practices and principles embedded throughout this research project that will provide the overarching framework and foundation for my interactions with those participating and contributing to this study.

**Conclusion**

The primary objective of this study is to document the experiences of Māori academics working in mainstream tertiary institutions. Of particular interest will be whether these academics experience any form of cultural taxation and to what extent. This study will identify the ways in which these academics are affected by cultural taxation and discuss the prevalence of the phenomenon.

The wellbeing of Māori academics is an issue worthy of research. Despite numerous government initiatives, legislation and strategies to raise the academic achievement of Māori students, there is very little recent qualitative research available nationally that specifically addresses the needs of Māori teachers or educators. However, research undertaken for my Master’s degree (Torepe, 2011) identified Māori teachers in mainstream settings are often faced with significant challenges. The challenge of working in an Eurocentric environment, intercultural misunderstandings and the additional cultural expectations and responsibilities all impact on the wellbeing of Māori educators.

This study will contribute to a national and international discourse that seeks to develop an understanding of the workload and cultural pressures placed specifically on Māori academics by their institution and colleagues. Furthermore it will contribute to the small pool of national literature in this subject area and locate a New Zealand experience alongside that of international authors.

**Glossary**

- *Ahi kā* | home fires, lace attachment
- *aroha* | respect
- *hui* | gathering, meeting
- *kanohi kitea* | the seen face
- *kanohi ki te kanohi* | face to face
- *karakia* | prayers, incantations
- *kaupapa Māori* | Māori ideology - a philosophical doctrine, incorporating the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values of Māori society.
- *mana* | prestige, authority, control, power, influence, status
- *mana whenua* | territorial rights, authority over land or territory
- *Māori* | indigenous peoples of Aotearoa New Zealand
- *Ngāi Tahu* | tribal group of much of the South Island, New Zealand
- *pōwhiri* | ceremonial Māori welcome
- *te reo Māori* | the Māori language
- *tikanga* | correct procedure, custom, practice, protocol
- *whakapapa* | genealogy
- *whanaungatanga* | relationship, kinship, sense of family connection
References


ADHD and Mothers Psychological Distress: Mothers Responses to a Child Diagnosed With ADHD

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Abstract
Anecdotal evidence in Trinidad has shown a high prevalence rate of children diagnosed with ADHD. Research has consistently demonstrated that mothers of the children clinically diagnosed with ADHD are at greater risk for the development of psychological distress such as depression, hopelessness and helplessness. There is currently limited information available on the presence of such forms of psychological distress experienced by mothers of children with ADHD in Trinidad. This study assessed the levels depression, hopelessness and helplessness experienced by mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD in comparison with mothers whose children were not diagnosed with ADHD by using three t-tests. Results demonstrated that significantly higher levels of depression and hopelessness were not experienced by mothers whose children were diagnosed with ADHD. The study highlighted that higher levels of helplessness were experienced by mothers whose children were diagnosed with ADHD. These findings were discussed within the cultural context of Trinidad and the need for further research proposed alongside the limitations of the study.

Keywords: Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD); Mothers; Depression; Hopelessness; Helplessness; Trinidad.
Introduction
Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD) has become one of the most widely studied childhood psychiatric disorders as its prevalence has increased over the past two decades. Aside from tracking rates of ADHD and its treatment, researchers also explored parental perceptions about the disorder, the impact on family and parenting experiences just to name a few. The majority of the literature on ADHD has been based on quantitative surveys which although useful for obtaining information on large samples, rarely probe further into issues than a question or two. This study therefore attempts to fill an existing gap in the literature by examining three psychological symptoms that mothers may experience as a result of a child’s diagnosis of ADHD. In doing so, the study utilises a control group of mothers whose children were not diagnosed with ADHD in an attempt to tease out differences in mothers’ psychological symptoms, rather than solely reporting the scores of only one group of mothers.

Historically, depressive symptomatology has been a common finding in mothers who have special needs children, including those with ADHD. Increased parental anxiety or obsessive-compulsive traits were not found to be an indicator of the construct in this model. It was found that if a mother did not value or feel comfortable being a parent and had low self-esteem, she was at greater risk of experiencing general psychological distress with elevated sensitivity in interpersonal situations. Wymbas, Pelham Molina, Gnagy, Wilson & Greenhouse (2008) posited that parents of youths diagnosed with ADHD in childhood were more likely to be divorced by the time the affected child was eight years old. A disruptive child’s behaviour interacts overtime with family stressors which sparks marital conflict in less educated mothers (Emery, 1999, as cited in Wymbas et al., 2008).

The authors found that having a child diagnosed with ADHD was significantly associated with mothers having a mental health condition; 20.50% for mothers of a child with ADHD and 5.6% of mothers with no diagnosis of ADHD. It is also possible that maternal depression may affect an ADHD affected child’s outcome. Although there is relatively less research data on a child’s ADHD diagnosis and hopelessness, than depression, it is of critical importance to note that depression and hopelessness tend to be highly correlated, and as such, literature pointing to the emergence of depressive symptoms may be inclusive of hopelessness symptoms (Beck, Brown, Berchick, Stewart & Steer, 1990), although not necessarily so (Greene, 1989). In support of Beck et al. (1990), Ceylan and Aral (2007) found that maternal depression and hopelessness significantly correlated, \( r = 0.72, p < 0.001 \), in mothers of disabled children in Turkey. Just as in the current study, the Beck Depression Scale and Beck Hopelessness Scale were used by Ceylan and Aral (2007).

As the previous section illustrates, a child’s diagnosis of ADHD tends to be associated with maternal psychological ill-health in the form of depression. In some cultures, ADHD is often misunderstood and sometimes mis-diagnosed because of culture-specific factors as was described by Arcia and Fernández (1998). In studying the experiences of seven Cuban American mothers in Florida of a child diagnosed with ADHD, Arcia and Fernández (1998) found that mothers often experienced “perplexity” (p.338) at their child’s symptoms, which may have led the mothers to feel helpless and stressed. One mother described her feelings as follows:
“...sometimes (a symptom of ADHD) comes to a moment that I myself feel that I cannot put up with it, you know, like it’s too much. And I feel like, ‘what am I supposed to do?’ Because it comes to the point where you don’t know what else to do,” (Arcia & Fernández, 1998, p.344).

The mothers could not find any appropriate explanation for ADHD symptoms within their Cuban cultural framework, which may have only served to exacerbate feelings of helplessness. When a cultural framework or model, such as the Cuban one, cannot explain a child’s symptoms it is possible for mothers’ negative symptoms to be heightened. It is possible that in the Trinidadian context, a culture also steeped in superstition, does not offer mothers an adequate explanatory framework for a child’s ADHD symptoms, thus leading to greater feelings of helplessness. The literature suggests that maternal helplessness is heightened in mothers who have a child diagnosed with ADHD rather than no such diagnosis; pointing to the maternal expression of a range of negative psychological symptoms (depression, hopelessness and helplessness in this study) associated with the presence of ADHD.

Drawing on the Learned Helplessness theory and the Attachment theory, the following theoretical framework is presented. The bold lines indicate the relationships investigated in this study. However, based on the literature review and theories reviewed, it is clear that these relationships operate within a larger framework, which is indicated by dashed lines. As such, it is important to note that the relationships investigated in this study do not occur in isolation but are part of a larger and dynamic system. The relationships as illustrated by dashed lines, therefore are not directly a part of this study but are incidental to understanding those that are a part of the study. As such, these relationships should be considered in future research examining ADHD and parental outcomes.

Figure 1 – Theoretical framework operating within the family system
2.7 Hypotheses

(1) Ho: Depression scores for mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD and mothers of children not diagnosed with ADHD will not differ significantly.

H1: Depression scores for mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD will be significantly higher than depression scores for mothers of children not diagnosed with ADHD.

(2) Ho: Hopelessness scores for mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD and mothers of children not diagnosed with ADHD will not differ significantly.

H1: Hopelessness scores for mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD will be significantly higher than hopelessness scores for mothers of children not diagnosed with ADHD.

(3) Ho: Helplessness scores for mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD and mothers of children not diagnosed with ADHD will not differ significantly.

H1: Depression scores for mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD will be significantly higher than helplessness scores for mothers of children not diagnosed with ADHD.

Methodology

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Medical Sciences, UWI, St. Augustine and it complied with the strict ethical code which included voluntary participation, the right not to answer any questions they were uncomfortable with, the freedom to withdraw from the study at any time and anonymity. The research design used in this study was a quasi-experimental correlational design. Two groups were created, one with mothers of children who were diagnosed with ADHD and the other consisted of mothers of children were not diagnosed with ADHD. The presence of ADHD cannot be manipulated since this is an pre-existing condition and therefore should be categorised as a subject rather than an independent variable.

Purposive sampling was used, therefore forty-three women whose children had been clinically diagnosed as having ADHD at a health institution in northern Trinidad were approached for participation. Of these, 38 volunteered to participate. In an attempt to minimise confounding variables, 38 women who did not have a child diagnosed with ADHD were approached for participation. Of these only 26 agreed to participate in the study.

Four self-report questionnaires, the first instrument was a simple demographic questionnaire. The other three instruments were used to collect data on participants’ psychological symptoms of depression, hopelessness and helplessness. The Beck Depression Inventory (BDI-II) was used to test depression, the Beck Hopelessness Scale (BHS [hopelessness]) was used to test hopelessness and the Brief Helplessness Scale (BHS [helplessness]) was used to test helplessness.

Findings

It was found that mothers of children with a confirmed diagnosis of ADHD did not experience significantly higher levels of depression when compared with mothers of children who were not diagnosed with ADHD; neither were there any significantly
higher levels of hopelessness in mothers whose children with clinically confirmed diagnoses of ADHD. This was consistent with the findings of McCormick (1995) who stated in her study conducted on depression in mothers of children with ADHD that there were no statistically significant differences in depression of mothers of children with ADHD and mothers of children who did not have ADHD. The question being asked is, “does having a child diagnosed with ADHD increase the risk for depression in mothers?”, as is hypothesised in this study. Almost all of the literature reviewed on this topic will answer in the affirmative, which is contradictory to McCormick’s (1995) findings. For instance, Harrison and Sofronoff (2002) found that a child’s diagnosis of ADHD contributed to parental stress and depression.

It was also revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between levels of hopelessness experienced by mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD as opposed to those mothers of children who did not have ADHD. This is also not consistent with the reported findings in the body of scientific literature. For instance, Kendall and Shelton (2005) found that a child’s ADHD diagnosis significantly affects the family system, inclusive of family distress and hopelessness, unless an appropriate management technique was meaningfully introduced into the family system.

These two findings, that is, non-significance in depression and hopelessness scores of mothers with ADHD and non-ADHD children, are largely contradictory to previous research findings. It is important to note that these studies have not explored ADHD in the Trinidadian or Caribbean context, and may not be generalizable to such settings. So although the results of this study seem to be unique, there may be reasons for such non-significance. These possible causes are discussed, starting in the next paragraph.

There are several factors that may account for these results. These factors may be social, psychological or religious; all operating within the unique circumstances on which the culture of Trinidad is framed. In the Trinidad and Tobago setting there is a culture that mental illness / mental disorders are not taken seriously, as was described by Bishop (2010, para.1) who explained the flippancy of the general public toward mental illness in Trinidad. By example he uses the popular exclamation, which has become entrenched in Trinidadian culture, “You must be mad!” As such, it may be that mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD have not sufficiently internalised their child’s ADHD due to the somewhat lax attitude toward mental illness in Trinidadian popular culture and therefore do not exhibit significantly higher depression and hopelessness levels than mothers on non-ADHD children.

It could be that a diagnosis of ADHD is not attributed to mental illness but simply to a child acting out or exhibiting laziness as described by the National Institute of Mental Health ([NIHM], 2008) in the United States. Parents may believe that the child will possibly grow out of this behaviour sooner than later and normal childhood angst may be mistaken with ADHD symptoms. Parents may then believe that their child is well and not become depressive or hopeless.

It is also not uncommon for parents of children with behavioural and other difficulties to attribute symptoms to a supernatural source in the Trinidadian context. In local parlance, such supernatural causal chains are called “obeah” and such a belief is held quite commonly in Trinidad among the general population. This idea is solidified by
findings of a study conducted in Trinidad where 25% of pre-clinical medical students reported that a contributing factor of mental illness could be of a supernatural nature (Hutchinson, Neehall, Simeon & Littlewood, 1999). By attributing a child’s symptoms to “obeah” or a supernatural source, parents are detracting from the scientific elements of their child’s diagnosis and as such, blame is placed on the supernatural rather than a child’s mental health state. Parents may therefore feel that since the causes of ADHD are beyond human control in a scientific way, such as through therapy or medication, that the problematic symptoms are fleeting and may not internalise the negative psychological effects. This detaches the parent as responsible for caring for the child’s symptoms and also from the emotions attached to them. While this suggestion may be valid in Trinidad, further research needs to be conducted to further explore relevant relationships between supernatural belief systems and mental health.

Institutional factors may also have impacted on the results as the government of Trinidad and Tobago offers free psychiatric and psychological services in public hospitals and health centres, so many mothers may access free psychiatric help for symptomatology of depression and hopelessness that they may experience. Low socio-economic status must also be considered. The School Feeding Programme Policy of Trinidad and Tobago where school children are given breakfasts and lunches each day in school has helped to ease the financial burdens of parents thereby decreasing the psychological symptoms of depression and hopelessness of the mothers of children with ADHD. Free early childhood, primary, secondary and tertiary education are also available to citizens of Trinidad and Tobago. The availability of strong institutional support, whether in the form of free and increasingly accessible mental health care, child nutrition or education, may each affect child and parental mental health outcomes and may also have a cumulative positive impact on mental distress of mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD. Social policies that address strong gender policies for women in particular, giving them a voice in society where their needs are heard and support can be rendered, may account for the results obtained for the research questions that address whether mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD are more depressed and hopeless than mothers of children not diagnosed with ADHD. Such policies may empower women to seek early treatment for their children and themselves, thus mitigating negative psychological symptoms.

Another explanatory factor for the contradiction of the current study’s findings relating to depression and hopelessness is possibly the presence of strong social support systems in Trinidad and Tobago, in the form of the extended families, where there are other members in the family who can assist in parenting and ease the psychological burdens of parenting the ADHD child, thus easing the mental health burdens of mothers.

Formal religious systems and beliefs play an important role in Trinidad and Tobago (Brereton, 1996). A great number of people more particularly women appear to have a very strong religious base and obtain their strength from God. This strength may empower them to deal with the stresses encountered in their lives, which includes parenting a child with ADHD, and they may rely on prayer and religious guidance for changes in their child’s behaviour and also for dealing with any psychological distress that they may experience.
Unlike the results relating to depression and hopelessness, the findings of the study also suggest that mothers whose children were diagnosed with ADHD scored significantly higher on helplessness than mothers whose children were not diagnosed with ADHD. Helplessness in the Trinidadian context must therefore be viewed as distinct from depression and hopelessness although literature has suggested that they are positively correlated (Abramson, Metalsky & Alloy, 1989).

According to Barkely (1995, as cited in Lougy & Rosenthal, 2002, p.59) the words spoken by a mother of a child with ADHD express the pain and fear that is sometimes experienced by parents on a daily basis, such as “Help me, I’m losing my child”. The authors further stated that parents are in pain, knowing that few understand their feelings of loss and blame themselves for their child’s ADHD. Parents imagined running away. An ADHD child can be demanding and his or her care routine may be challenging. An ADHD child may test the best of a parent’s patience and understanding leaving them emotionally drained. Parents feel that they are in the eye of a storm and there is no relief in sight (Lougy & Rosenthal, 2002, p. 64). These may also be the sentiments expressed by the mothers in this study, leading to elevated helplessness levels.

In Trinidad and Tobago even though health care is free to the public it must be considered if enough is being done in the mental health domain. There are two Child Guidance Units in Trinidad, one located in the Southern Region and one in the Central region. However those units are grossly understaffed operating with only one Consultant Psychiatrist, one Clinical Psychologist and two Social Workers to service the entire region it represents. With the issue of short staff and limited resources it is unquestionable that quality and accessibility of care will be compromised, which was raised as a concern by PAHO (1998) of the Trinidadian mental health care system.

A child with a confirmed diagnosis of ADHD needs comprehensive care, this care extends to the schools, the family and the community. This care is costly financially and in terms of time and emotional energy. All stakeholders need to be educated on the condition of ADHD so as to decrease knowledge gaps and sensitize appropriately. For instance, clinicians, educators and parents need to be sensitized to new information and treatment modalities for ADHD. Support groups for parents and children of ADHD can be initiated in health centers with trained facilitators who could design programmes geared towards meeting the needs of parents and children. Behaviour management programmes must be implemented early so as to increase the likelihood of positive outcomes. Parents with poor behaviour management skills experience more parental stress when addressing their children’s disruptive behavior (Heller, Baker, Henker, & Hinshaw, 1996; Stormont, Spurgen & Zentall, 1995, as cited in Schiedenhelm, 2005). Therefore, early intervention, training and therapy may all be useful in alleviating helplessness experienced by mothers.

The Education Ministry should hold workshops with teachers to inform and educate them on the disorder so that intervention can be swift once a child is diagnosed with ADHD. There also needs to be a more positive supportive collaboration between the home and the school, in order for the stigmatization that follows any type of mental disorder to be quelled as early as possible and for early intervention and treatment to commence. It is fair to state that many parents who have children diagnosed worth
ADHD feel like failures, they perceive their children as being less than perfect, which can cause strong feelings of helplessness.

Based on the results, the theoretical basis for the study in the form of the Learned Helplessness and Attachment theories offer support, although not fully. They do not explain why depression and hopelessness were similar for both groups of mothers. However, they do lend themselves to helplessness scores being elevated in mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD. It may not be sufficient to exclude these theories from the discussion on maternal ill-health based on the results of this study alone. If future research finds similar results, that is, non-significance between psychological symptom scores, then the theories should be amended for the particular context of Trinidad to perhaps include mitigating factors, such as institutional and familial support, which can moderate mothers’ negative psychological symptoms.

Overall the results demonstrated that mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD were not more depressed or hopeless than mothers of children who were not diagnosed with ADHD. These findings do not support the majority of the literature. However the findings of the study highlighted that the mothers of children diagnosed with ADHD were more helpless than the mothers of children who were not diagnosed with ADHD. These contradictory findings calls for more research to be conducted in to further substantiate the findings and to explore ADHD using different terms of reference, or drawing on a more comprehensive range of research questions.

**Limitations**

This study has several limitations. Time constraints did not allow for a pilot study to be conducted and based on the previous research done in cross-cultural settings that pointed to their reliability, a pilot study was not carried out. Test-retest reliabilities of the measurement tests were not conducted. Practically, it was also difficult for mothers to make themselves available at two separate testing times, therefore making test-retest reliabilities impossible to conduct.

The sample size was relatively small by quantitative standards. However, the sample was drawn from a clinical population, which greatly reduces sample size. There has been a thrust for psychologists to move away from using large non-clinical samples in favour of smaller clinical samples in an attempt to conduct more rigorous and meaningful research for particular sub-sets of the clinical population.

A correlational design was used in the study and therefore, causation could not be established. Mothers could have experienced helplessness before the onset of her child’s ADHD or vice versa. Since participation was voluntary the data may have been skewed. That is, the data may be sample specific. It is possible that mothers who did not volunteer to participate may have different experiences, but these were missed because on their non-participation.

In addition to voluntary participation, the study also used self-report measures. The data could also have been skewed because of this. It is possible that the participants did not feel comfortable disclosing depressive or hopeless symptoms or that some mothers may have exaggerated their helplessness symptoms. The severity of ADHD was not known for the children whose mothers participated. It may be that depressive and hopeless symptoms were not exhibited because the severity of ADHD was
relatively low. It is also possible that the control group, that is, mothers whose children were non-ADHD skewed the findings. It may be that some of these children do have ADHD but were never clinically diagnosed.

The following recommendations can be considered for further research in this subject area. Further validation of the measurement instruments should be conducted in Trinidad, especially the adapted form of the BHS (helplessness). This will allow future researchers to be more definitive in their conclusions; however, exploratory research done in this study should prove instrumental in future research as it raises many of the concerns that future researchers are likely to encounter.

Maternal and parental psychological symptoms may affect a child’s ADHD and his or her outcomes. For example, maternal depression may exist before the onset of a child’s ADHD and may worsen a child’s symptoms. So the inter-relationships between parent and child need to be considered. It is possible that in Trinidad, the negative psychological symptoms experienced by mothers may not be depression or hopelessness. Therefore, other maternal symptoms, such as anxiety and anger, should be explored. The range of maternal symptoms used in this study may not have been broad enough to capture other types of psychological distress. Future researchers should examine the effects of a child’s ADHD on other caregivers, for example, fathers and grandparents. It may also prove useful to examine the effects of a child’s ADHD diagnosis on siblings’ psychological health and the child’s own psychological health.
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What Do University StudentsLikento?

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Abstract
People may express their ideas and feelings by resorting to metaphors. Various names are given to this usage including metaphor, similitude, allegory, metonymy, etc. It entails a strong art of expression.

Such metaphors may supply researchers with consistent information about education environments. Mutual feelings and ideas of parties in an education environment may have its influence on the sound working of the environment concerned. A teacher may be likened to some specific entities in the eyes of his/her students and this is only natural. Examination of this phenomenon may significantly contribute to the development and evaluation of programmes followed in training teachers.

What, in the eyes of university students, a faculty member means and what do students liken them? Do these metaphors and expressions vary significantly with respect to gender? What do students think about this?

The present survey used focus group interviewing as qualitative and quantitative survey methodology. Students in education faculties of two universities in Konya were asked what they liken their teaching staff. There was focus group interviewing with students randomly selected from among respondents to identify metaphors and allegories.

Students refer to teaching staff mostly by using negative or positive metaphors. In the focus group meeting they explained why they do it. Basing on these, it is possible to say that students may have their positive or negative metaphors, feelings and ideas about teaching staff and some of these vary by gender.

Key words: University students, Simile (metaphor), teaching staff
Introduction

People may express their ideas and feelings by resorting to metaphors. Various names are given to this usage including metaphor, similitude, allegory, metonymy, etc. It entails a strong art of expression and as such it also contains indirect statement of what cannot be stated directly. People may use metaphors, either positive or negative, to express their ideas and feelings about others who have some influence on them. For example a very strong child may be referred to as “just like a lion” or the term “wise man of the universe” may be attributed to a very informed person. There are all metaphors. Faculty members may be quite important persons in the eyes of their students. Students are in interaction with them. As a result, both students and faculty members may liken each other, positively or negatively, to some entities or associate each other with some characteristics, again either negative or positive.

In a full metaphor there may be three characteristics as the one who is likened, the one who likens and the way of likening. Any metaphor with all these elements is called “teşbih-i beliğ” (fine, full and explicit metaphor). However, not all metaphors are like this. There are cases where one of the three elements is absent. For example in the metaphor “mouse roared” there is no reference to lion and the way of likening. The metaphor “came to my rescue as Hızır in a very difficult time of mine”, for example has no clarity as to who was like Hızır.

Regardless of the way in which metaphor is used, it encompasses analogy in its logic. Analogy is to make a logical inference by establishing a connection between two objects, phenomena which are different in appearance but share the same characteristics in essence. For example, the inference “There is life in the world because there is water; so there should be life in Mars as well if there is water there” is an analogy. Water is the basic resemblance of the two objects. The inference here is to reach a conclusion on the basis of a common and fundamental element (Sönmez, 2008:164). In a sense, there is a transfer of information. In fact, the Greek word metaphor (metapherein) means transfer (Oxford English Dictionary, 1996). Here, for purposes of making an idea or feeling clearer and understandable or enriching a narration or making an inference, there may be a transfer to a likened object, phenomenon or action, making the things more concrete. For example in the metaphor “teacher is like the sun”, teacher may have been likened to the sun in that he/she eliminates ignorance, approaches students with affection (gives them warmth), guides and shows them the way, etc. (Alacapınar, 2011).

In this context any metaphor can be examined by at least three respects: 1. What is the subject matter of the metaphor? This must be put clearly. For example in a metaphor like “Teaching is a godly profession” the subject matter is the profession of teaching. In other words it is something that is like something else. 2. What is it likened to? In a sense, what is the source of likening? Here the likened is the God, it is the source of likening. 3. What is the direction in likening? Which characteristics does it embody? In our present example, it may be that just as the God conveys human beings what is correct and wants them to live happily, behave good and honest and enjoy success, teacher wants the same for his/her students (Lakoff &Johnson, 2003 Cited by: Saban, 2004; Alacapınar, 2011).
Metaphors help in more concrete expression of ideas and feelings and thus may facilitate their comprehension. Further, since they go in meaning beyond what is actually meant metaphor can be considered as a more enriched form of narration. These meanings may also change the contexts used. They may be used for praising or denouncing. In a sense, their meaning may depend on the person concerned, the environment in which they are used, timing, community, personality and intensity of thought. Also, the character of the person concerned and values of a given culture may be inferred from metaphors used. Hence, metaphors may be used in researches as an important source of data (Booth, Cited by Girmen, 2007).

Teaching staff in universities are persons bearing importance for their students since they are in communication for 4-5 hours a day for a period of at least 4 years. In this context, students may judge teaching staff by what they observe in them and express this by using negative or positive metaphors. Hence, the examination of these metaphors may bear importance in terms of both throwing light upon existing state of affairs and of developing new curricula in teacher training or improving already existing ones.

Students may liken teaching staff with reference to some characteristics highly valued by the given culture if they regard them as consistent, reliable and virtuous persons and, to the contrary, with reference to negative characteristics if they find them inconsistent, unreliable and dishonest. Positive and negative characteristics of teaching staff as their students observe may affect education and tests significantly. The teaching staff constitutes one of the important variables in education processes. Their success in applying the curriculum in education environments may significantly affect the possession of achievements (objectives) by students. Indeed, the possibility of materializing the achievement envisaged by the curriculum may be higher if the teaching staff is equipped with expected qualifications and capable of reflecting these in education environments. Studies show that variables such as age, gender, outer appearance, way of dressing, the duration of past academic career, professional status, salary etc. are not so important. Instead, studies show that what really makes difference are as follows: Feedback, correction, hints, reinforcement, ensuring active participation of students, affection, a proper teaching and learning strategy; use of theory, methodology, techniques and tactics; rational utilization of time, providing favourable learning environments, methods of reasoning, enabling students to use necessary materials and instruments, monitoring and evaluation, etc. (Özçelik, 1974; Bloom, 1976; Aksu, 1981; Yıldırım, 1982; Senemoğlu, 1987; Arslan, 1996; Kapıcıoğlu, 2006; Alacapınar, 2008; Sönmez, 2008). Chances of being associated with positive objects and phenomena are higher if the teaching staff is engaged in what is stated above and the reverse if not. So, looking at these indicators it may be possible to make sound judgements about the teaching staff. In fact, there are many studies in the country and abroad on this issue (Saban, 2004; Kadunz, Straber, 2004; Williams, Wake 2004; Saban, Koçbeker, Saban 2005; Çelikten 2006; Girmen 2007; Ocak, Gündüz, 2008; Çubukçu, 2008; Alacapınar 2011).
**Problem Sentence**
For university students, what teaching staff implies and what do they think they are like? Do these vary significantly by gender? What are the related opinions of students?

**Sub-problems**

1. What does the term **teaching staff** mean to university students? Do these vary significantly by gender? What are the related opinions of students?

2. What do university students liken teaching staff in this university? Do these vary by gender? What are the related opinions of students?

**Methodology**

Qualitative and quantitative survey techniques were used together in the study. Students were asked to write down in items what they likened their teaching staff. Then they were asked to tell about their ideas and feelings about the teaching staff which were later obtained by using open ended data collection instrument. The relevance and appropriateness of questions were checked with three subject specialists and a **correlation of .81 was found** among these questions. This was taken as a proof of the validity of coverage. These data were then examined through the method of “content analysis.” In this context, responses given by each student were divided into categories with respect to nouns, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns used and logical consistency was checked.

What the term “teaching staff” meant in gender terms for university students, their ideas and feelings about teaching staff and what they likened them were tabulated and similar and different ones were taken separately. In order to give depth, detail and meaning to qualitative survey, similar and different characteristics were marked and their relationship was examined by calculating their percentages and frequencies.

In order to assess the internal consistency reliability of the survey, relationship between feelings and ideas and characteristics of metaphors were examined by three experts and a **correlation of .78** was found among the opinions of these experts. This is accepted as survey’s **reliability coefficient**. As to external reliability, information collected was openly presented to the working group and stored so as to be made available to researchers when requested.

Semi-structured focus group interviews were conducted with female and male students randomly selected from each class. Responses given by students were recorded and then analysed. Grammar mistakes in responses given by students as they were recorded were later corrected with the approval of students concerned. The survey report includes these responses.
Universe and Sample

Working Group

A working group was identified instead of determining a universe and sample. The survey was carried out over students enrolled to Faculties of Education in Konya Selçuk and Necmettin Erbakan Universities in the period 2012-2014 and teaching staff attending to classes of these students. The working group consisted of 261 students.

Distribution of Students by Class and Gender

Table 1 gives the gender distribution of students.

Table 1. Gender distribution of students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 1 there are 207 female and 54 male students in classes. So there are 261 students in total whose views were solicited. To see whether there was any significant difference between the number of female and male students t-test was used and the value found (9.67) showed that the difference was significant at level 0.01. Then it can be said that the number of responding female students was significantly higher the number of male students.

Findings

Operations in this part include the collection of data related to sub-problems, examination of data through focus group interviews, statistical analyses by using percentages and frequencies, tabulations and inferences.

For university students what does the term “teaching staff” express?

1. For university students what does the term “teaching staff” express by gender?

Related data is given below in Table II.

Table II. For University Students What Does the Term “Teaching Staff” Mean in Positive Terms by Gender?
According to Table II, while for 92% of female students who stated positive opinion teaching staff means “those with academic career and education who continue their studies in the university; deliver courses as professor, associate professor, assistant professor; prepare students for life; convey information and knowledge; help build an occupation; guide and give advice; Google”, the same term means “informed and well educated person who guides, gives advice and education students” for 89% of male students. It can be said that some ideas and perceptions are common to both female and male students. Written statements by students on this are summarized and presented below:

Why does the term teaching staff suggest such a positive meaning to you?

Student 1: No one can be a faculty member without attending a university and specializing there. They have their careers and have undergone hard tests. And they deliver courses, educate us. They are patient, tolerant and friendly mates with profound information. They are experienced, well-equipped, cultured and respected leaders. This is what the term means to me.

Student 2: They teach us how to teach, our future profession. They build in us information and skills. They are those making us ready for life and our profession.

Student 3: They show us the way, guide us. They are artists at the same time since they train and shape people. One can see them as library since they are so knowledgeable. As understanding as parents, with wisdom and knowledge they show us our way to go. They are educationists knowing well how to teach and assess. They listen to, understand and value their students. They are tolerant, emphatic, friendly and affectionate persons.
Student 4: It evokes researcher. They explore and innovate. These are people who think different than the way we do. They are intelligent and at extremes. They are heroes for me. They are wise, selected, source of light with self-confidence and influence.

From these responses, it can be said that in general students view teaching staff as informed and intelligent persons with academic titles who stand at extremes, teach and prepare their students for future, explore and innovate. Their qualification of teaching staff as such may derive from decisions made while observing the activities and outputs of teaching staff. Students may also be influenced by processes and procedures through which people become academicians.

For university students what does the term “teaching staff” mean in negative terms by Gender? Related data is presented below in Table III.

Table III. For University Students What Does the Term “Teaching Staff” Mean in Negative Terms by Gender?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assistant is a person doing some routine jobs and holds that position upon some kind of favouritism</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do everything or nothing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplined, authoritarian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person abusing the student and causing him to flank for his personal interests</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>41.66</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rather strange persons, missing their sleep at night amidst a deck of books</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Megalomania, pitiable person with exhausted brain after hard working, Cübbeli Ahmet hoca (a prominent TV and media figure with his ideas on religion)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese torture</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table III shows 67% of female students attribute such characteristics to teaching staff as “strange persons, causing students to flank for their own interests, who may do everything or just nothing, reaching their present posts by favouritism”. All male students, on the other hand, used the expressions “megalomania, pitiable person with exhausted brain after hard work, expecting rise in salary, Cübbeli Ahmet hoca, and a kind of Chinese torture...” It can be said that negative statements by female and male students do not coincide. Further, negative statements are used by only 12 out of 207 female students (%6) and by 6 out of 54 male students (11%). To see whether there was any significant difference between positive and negative statements t-test was used and the values found (12.25 and 13) showed that the difference was significant at level 01. Then it can be said that students mostly used positive statement while describing the teaching staff.
Why does the term “teaching staff” suggest such negative meanings to you?

A focus group interview was conducted with 3 female and 1 male students who wanted to respond to this question. Outcomes are given below. Some flaws in statements were corrected by the researcher by taking the consent of students.

*Female student 1*: That is how some faculty members I encounter behave. They flunk us for paying their house and credit card debts. They do it. I heard it from them.

*Female student 2*: A friend of mine is married to an academic. They have no home life and time they spare for themselves.

*Female student 3*: They go sleepless; you can tell it by looking at their faces.

*Male student 1*: Some of them just go senile. There is one who apply us a kind of Chinese torture. They are so greedy to do anything for more money.

As can be inferred from these statements some female and male students consider teaching staff as “strange persons flanking their students for their personal interests, remaining sleepless at night with their books, who can do everything or nothing, having megalomaniac features, expecting rise in their salary, going senile as a result of intensive work, Cübbeli Ahmet Hoca, exercising Chinese torture, coming to their post by favouritism, etc. Such negative attributions may derive from their attitudes and behaviour in academic environments. However, given that the number of female and male students with such negative attributions is quite low, it can be said that teaching staff is still highly valued by students.

*What do university students liken teaching staff?*

Table IV below presents information as to positive attributions of university students to teaching staff and whether these attributions vary by gender.

*Table IV: What University Students Liken Faculty Members in Positive Terms, Distribution by Gender*
As can be seen in Table IV female students use the following metaphors to describe the teaching staff: “paper-pen, notebook, book, inscription, encyclopaedia, source of knowledge, scientist, specialist, researcher, guide, coach, sound of awareness, light, source of light, candle, remote control car, machine, oven, stairs, computer, art, bee, lightning bug, lion, turtle, friend, one of us, tailor, gardener, angel, Nirvana, family, parents, Prime Minister, shepherd, painter, farmer, tree, plane tree and rose. Metaphors by male students are as follows: “paper-pen, library, glossary, book, multi-colour pencil, sky, godly, Einstein, digging hole with a needle, self-confident, mature, judge, arbitrator, disciplined soldier, commander, cavalier and rose. To see whether there was any significant relationship between positive statements and gender t-test was used and some t values were found significant at level 0.5. On the basis of this it can be said that there is a significant relationship between gender and metaphors used for teaching staff. While female students’ positive attributions more frequently include “source of information, specialist, researcher, scientist, teacher, guide, coach, light, source of light and candle”, males focus on “Godly, Einstein, digging hole with a needle, self-confident, mature, judge, arbitrator, disciplined soldier, commander, cavalier and rose.” Written statements by students on this are summarized and presented below:

“Tirelessly engaged in research; appears as he really is; mastery manages the class; make students like the course; knows well how to teach and assess; gives explanations; develops theses and projects; busy all the time and works hard; makes good use of available time; thinks in a different way and has different ideas; open to criticism; not selective in students; objective and honest; updates oneself; open to novelties; progressing in his field; teaching the reality and what is true; has a role in putting our life in order; listens and behaves tolerant; in communication and empathy; nationalist and enlightened; speaks foreign languages; trains top level managers; has a specific world view; able to use technology in his field; encourages students to research; shapes up the student; constructive, accepted by his society; well off with a good salary; dresses well; fulfils the requirements of his profession; agile, interpreting; always thoughtful; with foresight and knows his students well.”
Why do you make such positive attributions for teaching staff?

A focus group interview was conducted with 4 female and 2 male students who wanted to respond to this question. Outcomes are given below. Some flaws in statements were corrected by the researcher by taking the consent of students.

Female student 1: When there is mention of university teaching staff I think of a person conducting research, developing theses and projects and solving problems. In fact there are few of such people in universities, but there must be.

Female student 2: An academic should not only engage in research but should also know students well, treat them fair, tolerantly and affectionately and teach them what he knows. Before my enrolment to school I thought of this about an academic and I still think so.

Female student 3: I agree with what my friends say. I used to think this way before enrolling the university and I still want to keep thinking the same way even after seeing some really bad examples.

Female student 4: In addition to all these, the teacher must also encourage us to research, but I have seen very few doing this in the university.

Male student 1: Teaching staff is a farsighted one, one engaged in research and effective communication. He continuously renews himself, and so on...

Male student 2: I think he is the one who loves his country and nation. This is sufficient for me. I was my opinion before enrolling the university too. I agree with what my friends say, but for me the love for the country, nation and duty comes first...

Table V below presents information as to negative attributions of university students to teaching staff and whether these attributions vary by gender.

Table V: What University Students Liken Faculty Members in Negative Terms, Distribution by Gender
As can be seen in Table V female students use the following negative metaphors to describe the teaching staff: “eraser-frame, colonial state, wall, box-colourless box, bogymen, robot-powder, balloon, money-cracked jug and stone.” For male students these negative metaphors are: “brick, rectangle, grammar rule, Everest peak, ghoul, winter picture, money box, sound recorder, scarecrow, small household appliances, Kaf Mountain, inhuman, empty container, system.” Data was checked to see if there is significant relationship between negative metaphors and gender and no one-to-one common characteristic could be found for negative metaphors. Given these data, it can be said that there is significant relationship between gender and negative attributions to teaching staff. As for female students, negative attributions include “eraser-frame, colonial state, wall, box-colourless box, bogymen, robot-powder and balloon” while others by male students include “Everest peak, Kaf mountain, grammar rule, sound recorder, empty container, system, ghoul, Gargamel, inhuman, brick, scarecrow and small household appliances.”

Responses given by students to the question why they use such negative attributions for teaching staff can be summarized as follows:

“Unable to renew themselves; insufficient, despotic, authoritarian and aggressive persons with their rigid rules and sulky faces; they are not warm, have no family or social life; psychopathic and boring egoists engaged in discrimination; they are not consistent, and have their caprices; selfish people with conceit; disrespectful and unhappy; can do anything for personal achievement; just give marks to their students; they are pedants and behave unfair; don’t understand and care for students; have attained their present position after making concessions; unable to communicate; have some idea about the theory, but very poor in practice; conveying some trivial information only; unable to explain things by establishing cause-effect relations; unable to give any logic, to exemplify and deliver the course properly; unable to mobilize the active participation of students; don’t deserve the post they presently hold; not dressed properly; focus only on making some money; have dislike for their students, behave conceitedly, ideologically and exclude different ideas; ready to oppress others; have questions in mind without any idea about possible responses; try to be influential in every matter; turning into robots; unable to spare time for themselves; not open to different views...”

A focus group interview was conducted with 4 female and 2 male students who wanted to respond to this question. Outcomes are given below. Some flaws in statements were corrected by the researcher by taking the consent of students.

Female student 1: They have their favourite students and I have no doubt about it. They are not fair. They are generous in giving marks to those who flatter them, because this is the way how they made it in their times.

Female student 2: They are not properly dressed or let’s say they don’t know how to dress. They disappointed me. Only this? No, there are also many who don’t know how to deliver a course, they just read out from books or projectors and go...

Female student 3: They have so many mistakes and I don’t know which one to tell... Firstly, they are prejudiced, aggressive and have dislike for us... They seem to have
forgotten they were students once. It appears that they too have suffered during their
studentship and now they take their revenge over us.

Female student 4: There are students mostly absent from their class, I sleep in some
courses. They are too rigid and aggressive. They don’t like us. They degrade us on
every occasion.

Male student 1: They don’t understand us and some despise students. I feel frightened
when I have to go to their rooms. I am afraid to ask questions too.

Male student 2: Some of them are despotic. In my mind there are even some with
psychological problems. They use universities to make Money. There are many faculty
members here running after some projects leaving the task of lecturing to their
assistants. They do not deserve what they earn and what they hold as title.

Conclusion

While female students’ positive attributions include, in general, “source of
information, specialist, researcher, scientist, teacher, guide, coach, light, source of
light and candle”, males focus on “Godly, Einstein, digging hole with a needle, self-
confidant, mature, judge, arbitrator, disciplined soldier, commander and cavalier.”

Female students in general use the following negative metaphors to describe the
teaching staff: “eraser-frame, colonial state, wall, box-colourless box, bogymen,
robot-powder, balloon, money-cracked jug and stone.” For male students, on the
other hand, negative metaphors include “Everest peak, Kaf mountain, grammar rule,
sound recorder, empty container, system ghoul, Gargamel, inhuman, brick,
scarecrow, small household appliances…”

Basing on positive metaphors and statements, it can be said that students regard
teaching staff as “informed and intelligent persons with academic titles as professor,
associate professor, assistant professor etc., which stand at extremes, teach and
prepare their students for future, who explore and innovate.” Their positive
description of teaching staff may derive from their activities and outputs observed
while performing their profession and also from their personal characteristics
(Girmen, 2007). To continue with, processes and procedures undergone before
reaching the present status may be impressive for students. Finally, social attributions
to university teaching staff may have led them to think this way. There are some
studies supporting this explanation (Kadunz & Straber, 2004; William & Wake, 2004;
Saban, 2004; Saban et. al., 2005; Çelikten, 2006; Çubukçu, 2008; Ocak and Gündüz,
2008; Alacapınar, 2013;).

As to causes behind negative statements and metaphors one can refer to some
undesired patterns of behaviour that teaching staff display in the university (Sönmez,
2008). Indeed, students spoke supportively of this possibility during focus group
interviews: “They have their favourite students, I can tell this positively. I mean they
are not fair. Many do not know how to deliver a course. They just read out from books
or projected materials and then go. They are rigid and aggressive. They don’t like us
and despise in every occasion. Some are too despotic and there are even some who are
psychologically problematic. University is only a platform for making money in their
eyes.” Such patterns of behaviour on the part of teaching staff may also affect
students’ achievement since they rule out possibilities of feedback, correction, hints and consolidation. Further, studies conducted so far show that there is significant relationship between mentioned patterns of behaviour and students’ achievement (Bloom, 1976; Senemoğlu, 1987; Sönmez, 2008). Patterns of behaviour mentioned by students and attributed negative metaphors may be the source of hatred, fear and mistrust in education environments. There can be no mention of affection and mutual understanding in environments dominated by these. Yet, there is significant relationship between affection and achievement (Sönmez, 2007).

It can be said that there is significant relationship between metaphors used by university students and gender. While female students give weight to such metaphors as “researcher, scientist” etc., it is “Everest peak, Kaf mountain” for male students. There are significant gender wise differences in some positive and negative statements. In spite of these, a significant majority of both female and male students have positive outlook and use positive metaphors for teaching staff. Given this, teaching staff still enjoy a respectable status in Turkey despite some negative attributions. (Alacapınar, 2013).

The outcomes of this study suggests that in teaching training curricula weight must be given to learning-teaching methods and theories, effective communication with students, and teaching faculty members how to get to know their students in practice. In universities, weight and priority may be given to research and education rather than commercial ends. It may also be useful to periodically check teaching staff in regard to their psychological health. In order to obtain further and more reliable conclusions in this field there may be more comprehensive new studies and outcomes obtained may be used in the development of teacher training programmes.
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Perceptions of an Artist and Art Education: A Study of Pre-Service Year One Teachers at a Fijian University

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Abstract
Gaining an insight into primary pre-service teachers' perceptions is vital for teacher educators especially in the field of primary art education. This paper reports on a study that investigated the perceptions of pre-service year one teachers on art education and an artist. Located in a Fijian urban university, this quantitative study, using a questionnaire designed by the investigator, provided an insight into primary pre service teachers' perception of art education and an artist. A cohort of 45 participants was selected through convenient sampling for the purpose of this study. Analysis of data collected through the questionnaire revealed that participants are able to fully articulate characteristics that define an artist, however, unable to draw their perception or mental image of an artist. Findings reflect the narrow perception of art education held by participants, which was solely based on defining art education as merely drawing ability. This study will have implications for tertiary and primary art education and other related study.

Keywords: Art education, pre-service teachers, aesthetic development, perception, teacher education, teacher educators
Introduction

Art education is the area of learning which is based upon the visual, tangible arts—drawing, painting, sculpture, and design in pottery, weaving, fabrics. In Fiji, the local school curriculum covers three aspects of art education which is painting and drawing, modeling and construction, and pattern/print making. This study is an exploratory study, a working paper, which proposes wider theoretical implications for the re-conceptualization of pre-service teacher training in the area of art education, especially in Fiji. The Fijian primary art education curriculum has adopted art education as an essential subject for children to study in primary levels. The primary teacher is the person responsible for the whole range of instruction, which includes art education, too. This situation often results in dilemma for the primary teacher if the teacher has not been adequately prepared during teacher training.

Few schools are able to employ specialist art educationists; however, majority primary schools have the classroom teacher as the overall general practitioner. (Richardson: 1992). The Fijian Ministry of Education clearly outlines its art curriculum and therefore expects teachers to teach art from kindergarten to form 7 or higher education where applicable. Subramani (2000) discusses art education in Fiji as:

the primary curriculum should suggest ways in which students may explore their own lives and experiences, and find ways of expressing what they feel, see and imagine. With the help of their instructors, they should assess the creative potential in their own environment (colors, shapes, sounds, movements, images, space, personalities, history, humor and artistic traditions) as the local environment offers great opportunities for investigating moods, atmosphere, feelings, and memories; working with a wide range of symbols, images, mythologies and cultivating skills of selecting, ordering, manipulating, simplifying, balancing and unifying.

The purpose of this study is to examine the perception of pre service teachers on art education and an artist and how their perception influences their views towards art education. Perception is a way of regarding, understanding or interpreting something: a mental impression. Perception is inseparable from an individual. Everyone has their own unique perceptions, shaped from their personal experiences and values. It is obvious that the pre service teachers would differ from each other in emotional make up, economic background, intellectual capacity, creative potential, and life experiences. These play a vital role in the creation of individual perception of artists and art education. These pre-existing viewpoints shape how an individual reacts to an event, interacts with other people, and perceives the world around them. Perception of an individual determines how they see and appreciate art which in turn impacts on the teaching and learning of art education.

By understanding personal perceptions of teachers, in this case, pre service teachers, it becomes possible to engage more deeply with the ideas represented in the creation and development of artwork and artistic abilities. Therefore, investigating pre service teachers’ perception of art education and artist would enlighten teacher educators to develop appropriate activities and implement the artistic techniques accordingly for optimum benefit.
Significance of the Study

It is of great importance to investigate this area of art education, since such knowledge can influence teacher pedagogy in primary art. This study also would bring a new point for primary school art education. In addition to that, it will help art teacher educators to better promote and teach appropriate techniques and skills to pre-service teachers, making explicit their importance in art education overall. The results of this study will greatly influence teacher educators’ decisions in planning teacher education in art education. This research will throw light on how art education has been perceived and how this perception hinders the learning and development of artistic abilities in pre service teachers. This will help the teacher educators to tailor the teaching of the art education courses to develop interest and creativity in the pre-service teachers. Finally, the findings will have the potential to influence changes at tertiary levels in the area of art education, especially in the case of Fiji.

Sample

The cohort of participants included 45 primary pre-service year one teachers at a Fijian university in Fiji. Of the 45 respondents, 16 respondents had primary art education background and 29 had secondary art education background. A convenient sampling was done to aid the researcher in administration and distribution of questionnaire.

Methodology

For the purpose of this study, quantitative and qualitative research was combined with aesthetic concerns, reflecting aspects of practice based research and a/r/tography. Practice based research depicts the researcher / practitioner as central to the inquiry as is the context in which the research is taking place. A/r/tography encourages the combined creative freedom and risk-taking of the artist with the theory, rigor and responsibility of the academic researcher, along with the ethics and compassion of the educator. (Bickel; 2008). The main focus of the study was divided between two components, and the research instrument utilized was a designed questionnaire to investigate perceptions of art education and an artist. The first was a description of an artist through drawing and checklist. The emphasis was on giving a reliable description of an artist from the perspective of the pre-service teachers. The questions focused on the respondent’s mental image of an artist, where they were required to visualize and draw an artist. Through a checklist, characteristics of artists as perceived by pre-service teachers was investigated. The second component of the research was investigating pre-service teachers’ perception of art education. The questions elicited the respondents view on his or her perception of art education.

Art Education and Teacher Perception

Frost (2010) agrees that by offering art education in the school system, all children get a chance to stimulate their imaginations, as well as their cognitive and problem-solving skills. Therefore there is a need for people to realize the importance of art education in schools as it is not only beneficial to the person itself, but contributes to the wellbeing of the community as Duncan (2010) in his speech at the Arts Education Partnership National Forum remarks,
Through the arts, students can learn teamwork and practice collaborative learning with their peers. They develop skills and judgment they didn't know they had. It gives the child an opportunity to demonstrate creativity. It helps students to become well-rounded and expression of one-self becomes easier also. In addition to that art helps build student’s self-esteem. Therefore the emphasis on the arts in schools is not about learning a specific skill, but about attaining an education that nurtures the whole child. It is not about leading to a better career but about leading to a better life.

Eisner (2004) also agrees that art education teaches us to frame the world from an aesthetic perspective. Developing discerning aesthetic awareness can lead to the understanding of relationships. Art education is not only limited to itself. Art enables students to learn and understand other subjects as Cohen (2010) highlights;

Art is related to many different subjects and it can help to reinforce the knowledge of all those disciplines. Art is experimental like science and it requires exact mixtures of compounds like oil, wax, pigment, and silica. Art reinforces mathematics when it requires the accurate representation of objects in two and three dimensional space. Mathematical concepts like linear perspective, symmetry, and spatial relationship are used in art. Art has connections to foreign languages as many of its terms come from German, Italian, French, and Latin. Many historical periods have been greatly influenced by the art created during that time. Art also connects to language arts, physical education, and technology.

Educators just need to realize the importance of art education. Richard (n.d) emphasizes that art makes children see the beauty that exists in the world. Today, children are so bombarded with technology and plugged in almost constantly. Many of them don't even know what a real painting looks like. Pictures have been replaced with flat screen televisions or home theater systems. Their parents fail to teach them the importance of creativity, doing something with your hands.

As Grumet (1988) suggests, curriculum is our attempt to claim and realize self-determination by constructing worlds for our children that repudiate the constraints that we understand to have limited us. Teacher perceptions are vital in any teaching situation. Our personal perceptions lead us to believe and do things in ways which are a direct effect of the perceptions we hold. Teacher’s perceptions in art will have a direct impact on the way they disseminate the given art curriculum to the students. Bhattacharyya et al., (2009) further emphasizes on this issue stating, that teachers don’t teach what they don’t know.

Society and schools focus heavily on numeracy and literacy levels, which presents teachers with challenging curriculum demands and leaving little time for the arts (Russell-Bowie; 2009). Teachers may lack confidence if they have had limited or no formal education on teaching art (Duncum; 1999). Other teachers may be unsure of how to use their artistic abilities and skills to assist student learning (Alter, Hays, & O’Hara; 2009). Art education is a language on its own and as with any language—it has a diversity of communication discourse, thus teachers must learn them before they can teach the language (Richardson; 1992). Therefore, the same reflects for art education.
Teachers need to learn the appropriate skills and techniques to be able to teach accordingly. Educators just need to realize the importance of art education. As Grumet (1988) suggests, curriculum is our attempt to claim and realize self-determination by constructing worlds for our children that repudiate the constraints that we understand to have limited us. The ideas that pre-service teachers bring to class have an impact on learning outcomes. Therefore, it is important as art educators to investigate the perceptions pre-service teachers bring with them in regards to art education.

These perceptions would help teacher educators to gauge the interest level of pre-service students towards art educators. What teachers believe about their teaching capabilities can have a strong influence on their teaching, and teachers with low self-efficacy may not feel motivated for delivering arts education (Hamilton; 2008). Art teaching opportunities can lead to increased confidence and competence for pre-service teachers, along with enhancing student outcomes (Garvis; 2008). Therefore, this study investigates the perceptions pre-service teachers have about art education and an artist. The findings of the study will guide the art teacher educators to design the art education workshop activities to suit the interest of the pre-service teachers. For, interest in art will capture and retain attention which in turn will give pre-service teachers more exposure to the field of art education. Teachers that value creativity lead the way in cultivating the well-informed and active citizens our future demands: where individuals are able to generate fresh ideas, communicate effectively, take calculated risks and imaginative leaps, adapt easily to change and work cooperatively. Ausubel (1968) stated, the most important single factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows. It is true that teachers tend to teach as they were taught, modeling themselves after their own teachers. Since the basic training of children is in the hands of their teachers, it is highly important to know their level of competence (Jambrina, Vacas, Sanchez-bardubo; 2010).

It’s vital for art teacher educators to research on pre-service teachers’ perception so they are able to gauge the exact mindset of pre-service teachers bring to learn art education. To many people art is a confusing and mysterious thing and artist enigmatic and even ridiculous figures. (Richardson; 1992). Thus studying the perception of pre-service teachers would enable teacher educators to design appropriate content and technical skills which would help communicate ideas, feelings and imagination through creative expression.

**Results and Discussion**

The sample comprised of 39% of students who had done art education up till primary level only, while 61% stated that they had done art education up till secondary level. The results were analysed according to art education background, characteristics of an artist and perception of art education. Comparison was made between respondents who had done art education up to primary levels and secondary levels.
**Perception of an Artist**

The image of an artist that was acceptable was the image of a human being showing any artistic quality. Respondents with primary art education background, none of the respondents were able to draw an artist, while those with secondary art education background, 36% of respondents were able to draw an artist. The other respondents have just managed to draw an image which is irrelevant to the notion of an artist. The image that was drawn was either of the nature or animals. This could reflect either the respondents were unaware of what an artist looks like or could not comprehend the statement appropriately to answer it correctly.

**Perception on Characteristics of an Artist**

Artists have often been considered different from other people because they see things in different ways. (Darby; 1991:33). Defining the characteristics of an artist is a difficult endeavor. By definition artists are difficult to categorize as all artists are unique individuals. Artists usually try to inject their work with some of their own personality, intelligence, skills and imagination (Darby; 1991:33).

For the purpose of this particular study, a list of characteristics was provided to the respondents where they were required to select the characteristics accordingly. The respondent’s perception on characteristics of artists has been compared and presented as graphs.

Table 1 lists the characteristics of artists, as designed by the researcher, which was used for the purpose of this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intelligent</th>
<th>Always withdrawn</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nerd</td>
<td>Not sensitive to emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hardworking</td>
<td>Untidy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unpredictable</td>
<td>Creative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrovert</td>
<td>Imaginative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncooperative</td>
<td>Visionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lives in fantasy world</td>
<td>Moody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introvert</td>
<td>Open to new ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highly curious</td>
<td>Peaceful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not intelligent</td>
<td>Adventurous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doesn’t fit in society</td>
<td>Loner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1 shows the comparison of the perception on the characteristics of an artist of respondents with primary art education background (PAEB) and respondents with secondary art education background (SAEB).

**Perception of Art Education**

The prominent factor in describing art education by pre-service teachers, with primary art education background, was the notion of **drawing**. 56% of respondents perceive art education as **drawing** only. For these respondents, “art education means expressing your views and feelings through **drawing**”, “It’s a creative nature of **drawing** and expressing yourself”, “art education refers to how you learn to **draw** for creative and expressive art with different drawing methods or “ it is a way you express your feelings by **drawings**”.

The perception of respondents with secondary art education background reflects the true nature of art education. For these respondents, art education is “something that comes from within yourself, your own thoughts, imagination and approaches to every thinking”, “It’s creativity we use in class, use of colors, recycle materials, “Art education is a department which guide and mold people who are interested in art”, “Art education is about creativity that enable students to explore about their art work” and “Art education is basically where we as students come and learn the different concepts and skills of arts and how it can be best taught”.

In comparison, 24% of respondents with SAEB, still perceive art education as “Art education is about **drawing**, designing and very creative in everything we do”, “art education is educating students to use their skills of **drawing** to express their emotions”, “Art education means study of arts or deals with **drawing** and making sketches” “Means anything regarding to **drawing**, “Art education is to learn how to **draw** neatly and color or paint”, “Art education means expressing your views and
feelings through drawing”, or “Presenting your emotions, thoughts and ideas in drawing, creations and creativity.”

Pre-service teachers with both primary and secondary level of art education have perceived art education with the description of drawing; however, some responses from respondents with secondary art education background have highlighted art education as a creative entity where “we as students come and learn the different concepts and skills of arts and how it can be best taught” (SAEB).

As Grumet (1988) suggests, curriculum is our attempt to claim and realize self-determination by constructing worlds for our children that repudiate the constraints that we understand to have limited us. Teacher perceptions are vital in any teaching situation. Our personal perceptions lead us to believe and do things in ways which are a direct effect of the perceptions we hold. Teacher perceptions in art will have a direct impact on the way they disseminate the given art curriculum to the students. Bhattacharyya et al., (2009) further emphasizes on this stating, that teachers don’t teach what they don’t know. The results of this study reflects on the perception pre-service teachers have on art education and an artist. This perception could reflect on the learning and teaching of art education at tertiary levels which would impact on primary levels through these pre-service teachers in later years.

According to the findings of the study, the pre-service teachers with PAEB are unable to draw an artist, reflects that these pre-service teachers are lacking the basic foundation of art education. The perception of art education also reflects the narrow framework of drawing only, whereas art education is a wide field of creative and artistic techniques and skills which is not only limited to drawing only. Teachers may lack confidence if they have had limited or no formal education on teaching art (Duncum; 1999). Other teachers may be unsure of how to use their artistic abilities and skills to assist student learning (Alter, Hays, & O’Hara; 2009). Perception often limits pre-service teachers in actually fully exploring art education courses and their own personal creative and artistic talents as their perception hinders their creative growth in art and art education as a whole. Art education is a language on its own and as with any language-it has a diversity of communication discourse, thus teachers must learn them before they can teach the language (Richardson; 1992). Therefore, the same reflects for art education. Teachers need to learn the appropriate skills and techniques to be able to teach accordingly. Educators just need to realize the importance of art education.
Conclusion

Teacher education in art education needs is an area with requires active research especially in the context of Fiji. This study revealed the perception of pre-service year one teachers of an artist and art education. In order for the art curriculum to be effectively disseminated to primary students, the teachers need to be appropriately educated in this area. The findings reflected that despite being able to articulate the characteristics of an artist appropriately, respondents with primary art education background couldn’t draw an artist. The respondents with secondary art education background had greater awareness of artist, characteristics of artist and art education. Both the respondents with primary or secondary art education background, did define art education with the notion of drawing, however, the respondents with secondary art education background had a more in-depth perception of art education.

Therefore, it becomes important for teacher educators of art education to understand the perceptions of pre-service teachers to fully grasp the status of art education which the pre-service teachers hold within. Then only, it would be possible to design art activities to develop appropriate techniques and skills in the pre-service teachers which would have a direct impact on art education at primary school levels. Thus, teacher education in art education needs careful consideration and active research.
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Education as Cultural Data-System Development through Teaching and Upbringing

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Abstract
Culture is the capacity to translate intentions into reality and sustain it. Education as Cultural Development involved in the process of raising-forming-creating Personality through Teaching and Upbringing is a wise using to impose a private intellectual Cultural Will upon a global intellectual and moral fellow creature.
Culture is the capacity to translate intentions into reality and sustain it. Education as Cultural Development involved in the process of raising-forming-creating Personality through Teaching and Upbringing is a wise using to impose a private intellectual Cultural Will upon a global intellectual and moral fellow creature.

Each day our life is becoming more cosmopolitan, absorbing elements and features of ancient and modern cultures of various nations. So, when we say “Culture without borders”- we are right. It means the entire Global Community now sees a need to add and develop additional cultural funds top dealing with education for the sake of progress and peace. In the world of conflicts and contradictions we, teachers, educators and wise parents would like to concentrate on the idea of participation through cultural values, being involved in the very process of our communication as an effective tool and pedagogical method of penetration in the very core of the mutual understanding. The weight of evidence influences greatly our generation entering a new world with unprecedented interreligious and intercultural diversity. Culture of teaching on the road to education is always a kind of discovery. We have nothing but call the every day cultural education experience as a way of living and thinking together. To agree with eternal witty phrase “Education is what remains when… those interested have forgotten what they were taught “we mean a process of active involmment in the whole multinational life-activity. Penetrating through it by means of teaching, learning, training, schooling, coaching and doing the best in all aspects of Culture, Science and diplomacy of living itself - is in closely connection with Good Will, Beauty of Intellect, Happy Expectations, Hopes and Peace. An international team of teachers is a unique highly skilled group, surviving in the activity the very opportunity, realizing more than others clearly the modern world needs and demands. Edward E. Hale, American author (1822-1909) brilliantly came to the point of the idea: ”I am only one, but still I am one; I cannot do everything, but still I can do something; and because I cannot do everything I will not refuse to do something that I can do.”

So, today we would like to concentrate on the idea of participation through International Cultural Communication. Our problem is in effective cultural education and upbringing, and it has to do with us. As Cultural education itself is a part of the process of raising-upbringing a Leader, culture as a condition of mind and soul and intellect and mentality is in one bundle. It may be as insight of a Teacher-educator and then -a Student, so, deserves to be described in more details. Culture as a notion and strategy of the whole life is complicated.

Cultural networks (let us use this term) link cultural spheres of touching and items of culture as objects themselves and protocols, allowing data (as art materials and items all over the world and local, international conferences and seminars on cultural projects) to be exchanged rapidly and reliably. Originally, cultural networks were used to provide cultural access to other countries and to transfer information about between those interested. Today, cultural networks carry e-mail information, additionally to traditionally existing, and provide cultural access to local and international cultural data-bases and cultural bulletin boards (mass media, press, scientific journals, etc.) and are beginning to be used for distributed cultural systems. It means a great responsibility for teachers to explain ‘What is good for all nations and people, and what is bad ‘, because living values have been in the core of the cultural approach to education. As a result, distributed my means of teaching as
experience exchange cultural findings systems are built using cultural networks that co-operate to perform national and global cultural tasks in classroom and family sphere.

The visible difference in the whole definition depends on the differences in historical experience of the countries and culture of people, nations and minorities for the long period of their existence. But there are so many common features in cultures. Even from the position of the so called» pure definition» the multicultural world declares about necessity of intercultural communication as unique value of mankind existence, unique sphere of personal development and perfection. Political, economical, social, moral, ethic and aesthetic items of our living form a personality as a centre of a progressive leadership, declaring key characteristics - traits. Responsibility, respectability, positive attitudes, honesty, ambition, pride, self-image, neatness, initiative, self-motivation, cooperation, courtesy –pave the road to happiness and perfection of a personality with golden opportunities of international intercultural communication.

From this point of view the very Teacher has the wonderful power to show all these opportunities to a society, a community, students – youngsters and adult, and a family, as a social product of a society. And to classify it. And to explain it to those interested. Being a teacher is an honor, because a teacher, as an educator, has to be the first figure in building Cultural management systems, suitable for understanding, adopting and approving as an instrument for productive life by people of different nations, cultures, countries.

Cultural data-bases are used within a cultural context in teaching and upbringing for many purposes. For example, they are used to hold effective teacher's professional findings as methods and details so they can be accessed from anywhere within an International Teachers’ Association (with centre in Denmark) or cultural network of different schools, colleges and Universities through this organization or independently. With the recent improvements in the very image Cultural distribution techniques, cultural methods of teaching and informative context of cultural contribution to discipline s program’s output can also be held in Cultural data-bases and accessed in the same way.

The role of a teacher is as unique as a notion of Culture, as a strategy of cultural life and leadership. Energized, creative, radiating positive energy, ready to move people forward - teachers give to the World the evidence of active experience. Real achievements in the sphere of cultural teaching and personal cultural establishment are the very prolonged stimulus – impulse to personal growth as experience accordingly. A teacher, as a conductor of a cultural education, is able to draw attention to student’s personality, emphasizing his individuality, character, talents and abilities. It is a main part of upbringing, as a traditional family approach to raising a child as a future proud of a nation. This is a good will, but only a teacher contributes practically to personality’s development by contributing culture as a method and a context in dealing with a student, as a cultural object at the same time. From the point of view of international multicultural communication and cooperation of teachers of the world, we are to take into account these multi-user cultural data-bases. It is this which differentiates a cultural data-base belonging to one country from international one. ( In our case it is national cultural system of teaching in educational progressive
cultural approach in close connection with global one. As a true cultural data-base system, which may be altered, say, for performance reasons, are especially productive in a modern world. A combined and united international global teachers’ experiment (ITA) in involving Culture as a context in a process, minds and living standards as living value, explained tolerance as a necessary recognition of style and standard of understanding, coming from culture of education and communication. The national and international Cultural data-bases system means the existing and fruitful using of the external cultural schema as teaching experience and informative store and the conceptual schema as necessity of living on the base of living values, common for all progressive and civilized countries and nations. The mapping between the conceptional and internal cultural schema of teaching and upbringing let the teachers as professionals, as parents and representatives of political, social and cultural systems of their countries perform the necessary operations (traditional and innovative forms and methods of teaching, etc.) on the stored international Culture-data. The aim of the practice is to widen and improve "professional seeing" (skills) and enriched vocabulary by teaching students more dynamic cultural alternatives to everyday life-situations and English words and phrases, helping to prevent conflict, to explain conflict situation, to learn the methods of making wise decisions. And this is the point, enable us the spirit of the times.

Culture today is an approbated educational item in a course of multinational practice as a sphere of educator’s activity. It is a method of upbringing in a personality the so called international intellect, spirit and mind, as a necessary condition of ecological and intellectual survival of the mankind. Even more - the only foundation for progressive sustainable functioning of the human society. Cultural-tolerant education for all of us today is principal – centered. We can negotiate and communicate with each other, joining our scientific and practical experience and achievements. Professional teacher’s productivity means today a creation of useful measures – methods, skills, approaches for fruitful cultural education. A real product of it would be a Global citizen, as a bright representative of his (her) own nation and politically and spiritually oriented to the common living values and progressive tasks of the World. To be useful to any society and community, Cultural education can help each teacher to be more confident and productive in all kinds of activity.

We consider cultural education to be a process of working up the knowledge of the others. It is mutual respect through mutual understanding. Cultural teaching as a method and approach develops in students the ability to accommodate the problems of everyday living using cultural information in communication, correct oral language and manners, psychological understanding of the situation and sense of own responsibility for solving the problem. It is always the task for those more clever and more moral as individuals. Whose culture is an inner ability and demand to be right, being industrious, educated, polite and reliable.

The ability to accommodate the problems of everyday living starts with a family. Family is the first classroom to prepare to cultural learning-living, as there always is some adjustment to be made to accommodate others. The second classroom is school, then college, or University. Those who pass most of cultural way of thinking and behavior tests of cultural learning-living, have the consciousness of appreciating the good in people and in situations. Those receiving lower marks usually have shades of degrees of disapproval. And those who pass with honor use the power of cultural
tolerance as a shield of protection so, that internal serenity remaines untouched. [1.
M.Azarenkova (2013), p.128] The theme of Culture, as an object and subject of
effective and productive communication of parents with their children must start with
understanding such a notion as “Don’t stop talking- Some Do’s and Don’ts of
communicating “, described in many research works of the foreign scientists. We
consider it to be interesting in the light of our theme. They are:
Do have your whole family practice good communication skills from the most trivial
conflicts like who’s to do dishes, to more important concerns, such as whether or not
your teenager should smoke cigarettes.
Do your best to understand what’s really on your teenager’s mind. Practice listening
for the meaning, not just the words your teenager speaks.
Don’t belittle, attack or destructively criticize. Respect your teenager’s feelings, even
if you disapprove of his or her actions.
Don’t give a standard lecture when your teen has a problem. Don’t use statements
like: ’When I was your age…”, “After all we have done for you…”, “What will the
neighbors say…”, “ Act your age…”.etc. Instead, personalize your feelings with “I”
statements such as “I am really concerned about your health…”, etc.
Do use praise. Everyone loves to feel appreciated. But Don’t use it manipulatively or
you could lose your teenager’s trust.
Don’t let angry words be your last words on an issue. If it comes to a shouting match,
call time out and allow for a cooling –off period. Your goal is to find a solution, not
win a war.
Don’t give in, and Don’t give up if at first you don’t succeed. Try different
approaches. It may take time for your point of view to sink in.
It is the very beginning of cultural introduction to theory and practice, a first
presentation of correct models of communication from the point of view intellectual
culture.

Conception of upbringing, teaching and cooperation with A Personality for A Future
denotes a process of shaping A model of a New Personality Competence on a base of
cultural values, involved in the process of teaching. We approbat the new approach
in the course of teaching at schools as well as at the Universities. It has been working
out during almost two decades, both with teachers and students in many countries all
over the world. In the course of discussing the point of our task – Culture as an
independent context of learning and applied discipline at the same time- the stages of
the process-activity and expected results had been discussed and foreseen by the
professionals. We considered Patton’s identification to be the most productive in as a
whole. The very process included teaching -learning and managing of a Group-
Leadership.[2 T.Buchholz,1944,p.368].

As Cultural Education, being tolerant and the most suitable for multicultural
auditorium to the point, we considered it to be a research process. Wee identified
the general research problems specifying the questions to be answered by teachers and
students in order to gain the very inner point- sense of the problem, as insight. The
questions were like these:
1. On what does the cultural educational process focus? (For example, on use of the
mind, demands of generation, social manipulation, multinational self- realization,
sense of security in a society, priority in a communicative links and so on)
2. By what teaching methods is the information about cultural education communicated? (traditional and innovative ones, as lectures, workshops, conferences,
workshops, role-plays, business-plans in media spheres, net-mail communication, compositions, reports and so on)

3. What are the characteristics of the people who do the educating (personal traits, attention to living values, base knowledge of history, literature, science, politics and economy of their native countries, advanced –or not – level in innovative technologies of learning-teaching, civil position, status, relation to learners, educators and those around, expected rewards, level of regard for people and for him/her/self and so on)

4. How does the person being educated culturally participate? (For example, are students accepting? defiant? competitive? cooperative? creative?)

5. How does the educator participate and what is his or her attitude?

6. What are the cultural things that are taught to some people and not to others?

7. Are there any discontinuities in the whole educational process?

8. What limits the quality and quantity of information a child (a younger, an adult) receives from the teacher? (For example, teaching methods? communicating methods and style? time? stereotyping? equipment? manner of explaining of a material?)

9. What forms of conduct control (discipline) are used?

10. What is the relation between the intent and result of the child’s (adult’s) education?

11. What self – conceptions are reinforced in the students? In the teachers?

12. What is the duration of formal education? What is the duration of Cultural and Tolerant education? What is the common point of the both ones?

The practice of preliminary preparation work with students and teachers contributed to establish the exact definition of Tolerant education concept used and enabled each individual involved to thinking independently about learning as a whole. From the first steps of realizing the rightness of tolerant cultural education for present and future, culture itself becomes a sphere of educator’s activity. It is method of upbringing a personality of international intellect, spirit and mind. Even more – it is a necessary condition of ecological survival of the mankind as the only foundation for normal functioning of the human society. The more we while remembering, suffering, enjoying, trying to understand and remember, comprehend the past of our Motherland and different people, the greater is our solicitude for the future; the deeper we love what is ours, the fuller we appreciate what is not ours. Being object, subject and aim not only survival, but sustainable development at an incredibly rapid rate world, cultural education proposes some measures. They must be defined as Food for Thought and Energy of Living.

The second stage of the penetration through Culture-education project was a process of definition of some principle positions concerning it. Among the main of them it is possible to mention some ones as a Declaration of Cultural tolerant education, adapted and approved by students and teachers:

It is the main foundation for self –realization of a person in the world;
- the main item of human rights;
- a value, motive and demand for affirmation of Order and Law in the movement of the World to rejecting racism, hatred, violence, nationalism and terrorism;
- due to its inner sense it is a base for creation of the World Culture, as foundation for living for happiness in education and education for happiness.

Cultural education in it’s foundation as a sum of the main principles may be called Peace education. The Peace education curriculum should contain a common core of
learning Peace through Cultural context as cultural philosophy, practice and theory of learning students to understand the central connected themes of their developing as personalities in multicultural socium.

Cultural education as a method of succeeding a Personality means recognition and acknowledgment for those others as “the our another’s” and their right for personal respect and self-identification. That is why it is extremely important to include in the typical curriculum subjects directly connected with philosophy of the world civilization:

- national and world history in common features and differences:
- national and world literature-
- national and world art culture, etc.

Technology as using different methods of teaching in Culture, for Culture and for the sake of Culture as a personal base-foundation should not be taught as “a nice sound”, and “sweet phrase”, but:
- tendency to know and act-
- tendency to believe-

Mental and moral personal system for answering questions about how to prevent conflicts and abolish wars—

- how to refresh attitudes and ways of viewing—
- how memorize basic facts, notions and skills from national-world cultural treasure as leadership and peace actions, etc.

Cultural education, gotten on different stages of teaching by the students of different abilities and possibilities to act independently in social sphere later, means a lot for all those involved. For teachers and parents it is very important to know the quality of inner moral and intellectual energy in our students and children, their ability to be very useful in situations for making up a principally new look at the problem and creative a strategy of effective actions.

Communicative functions from the cultural approach have been making up in the process of communication in an auditorium (national and international) and outside (in Russia and many foreign countries).

Nowadays, things in the world are not like before. In fact, there is less and less prejudices about possibilities and opportunities of Peace Business as a result of Cultural tolerant teaching in order to solve the problems of our Common Home. For teachers and students it means to get skills necessary for academic success and assimilation into the workplace or any post-secondary pursuits. Cultural approach helps students being armed with information about the world culture encourage excellence in studying, future occupation, feelings, right attitude to all main world values. The students learn to understand and recognize the truth, common for all cultures and all nations— if you become upset at injusticies of any kind connected with any conflicts and wars you are Individual, Personality, Homo Viator in reality of living and understanding. The students were rather independent and productive in the approach to the solving the problems of the role-games, organized by the teachers. They had to encounter concepts, principles and laws of different cultures in communication. The definition of the notion as “aspect of coexistence” belongs to them.
Sharing and supporting the UNESCO’ mission, ITA promotes intellectual cooperation among institutes of higher learning and academics throughout the world to permit access, knowledge sharing within and across borders. The work on a project included the following steps:

1. Preparatory (getting acquainted with the topic “Culture as world and national treasure” and definition of the project structure);
2. Project development (gathering information about the term “Culture”, its component as a notion, directions in development and tradition, analysis and preparation for the project presentation);
3. Presentation of the project and summing-up.

Finding information and the discussion could be carried out in different ways: individually, in pairs and in groups-teams. The student wrote and discussed issues about different cultural aspects, including foreign and mother languages, providing in their research works the importance of learning culture in a modern world.

Our interdisciplinary intercultural project seeks to investigate and explore the nature, significance and practices of international communication and the best learning-teaching methods it declares, supports and creates. It will encourage innovative trans-disciplinary dialogues. In cases of significant social tensions there are questions of what count as communication and cooperation, and how it moves from the level of individual in a family and in class to community, national and international relationships. With the help of questionnaires, answered by students, we could reach the conclusions that young people (and adults- here- their parents) are oriented towards themselves and their own world, consisting of their family, friends, colleagues, community, etc., recognition culture in relationship as a tool of making right decision in relationship.

From this point of view the Cultural tolerant education may represent the whole Universal situation, that may be described as The Wreck and The Ralf, while The Ralf is the way of Cultural education. The very such kind of approach to tolerant education may improve the Contingency of Matter and Society by the universal language of communication and fulfillment of new aims as tasks and goals of a new universal education. The Universal situation consists of a lot of factors we are to take into account in accordance with teaching process. The Human dissatisfaction in a sum of such factors as death, isolation, the anxieties, hazard, envy, the obsession with money, the automation vacuum, death by numbers, the necessity of hazard of unexpected events and so on – are aspects of human living to overcome and bite on. Understanding- as cultural tolerant teaching and upbringing through patience appears to respond calmness, reliability, responsibility. The educators choose to express an attitude that will eliminate conflict and bitterness, being themselves positive, energized and ready to move forward. That is why we consider as extremely important at the third stage of our Project research to define the main trends of penetrating through education in real practice and enriched theory. Among a number of them we stressed out the most effective and significant in the circumstance, of teaching-learning, declared them as prolonged trends of activity:
See your life as an adventure of learning and appreciation of communicating skills for the common use and profit;
Evaluate Evaluations due to your positive contribution to the life, career and wellbeing of those distinguished from you are a bit or lot;
- Radiate positive energy at study and at work through culture as practice of a wise living;
- Use your energy to move forward;
- Learning to be leaders leading a balanced life, controlling leadership as relationship;
- Express a friendly attitude to all relations with others;
- Cooperate rather than compete with others;
- Gladly give help where needed;
- Consider common sense in teaching – learning like insight. It lies in engaging in worthwhile activities.

If we are going to talk about improving conditions for all involved, there must be some give – and – take. It always works. Under” We” we mean teachers. Sometimes it is necessary, including families, neighbor relations, professional contacts, if we can talk professionally, collaborate and compromise a little bit. Discussion creates accountability. [3..M.Azarenkova,(2015),p.5 ]

The course of the whole project was divided into 4 parts logically following one another, waiting for research, description and analysis. In order to explain, what the very headline” Cultural Values in and for sustainable development world” meant for everyone, we proposed the students and teachers theu should work out projects on the topics below:
1. Understanding more about me. Background: Personal culture, emotional culture, mental culture, physical culture, culture of communication. We should summarise and analyze three most important stages of the process:
   Practice by thinking over the topic;
   -Practice by doing useful things on the topic;
   -Practice by teaching others;
   -Applying effective communication skills.
2. Leadership in the world of a sustainable development.
   My native country and its’ heroes in literature, history, art;
   -Famous people in history, literature, science, sport, etc., belonging to the world;
   - Why native and foreign famous people are leaders for the whole world?
   - Is a notion “Sustainable development” possible without sustainable culture in communication and understanding of development itself?
3. What are Values Topics in the national and world Culture due to your opinion?
4. Working with parents. It included two parts, for students and for teachers, providing suggestions for teachers to work effectively with the both groups of taught.
5. Working with the community.

This section of the project suggested ways to create awareness and support within the community for the school prevention efforts. There were examples which included recommendations how to work with local law enforcement officials, health and social service agencies, religious leaders, the media, merchants, park and recreation officials, other civil and municipal leaders from the point of view cultural approach to communication.
The result – resume of practical activity in the lines of a project was the so called “An Open Letter To…” with the civil position of correspondents “Why Culture in different ways of existing and demanding is so important for Peace and Development.” The answers included information about Global Culture and our Global community, Students’ Philosophy and Responses, Declaration of Responsibility to Nature, Human behavior, Environment protection and Intercultural culture as a firm fundament for peace. The main resume of all students’ research works was like this:” My World is Our World”.

- Culture and peace;
- Poetry and prose about Culture (national and world)
- Dealing with the past in different families, countries, etc. (reconciliation, culture of remembrance, etc.)
- Psychological approaches to Cultural education in class, family, society, country, world./ Azarenkova International teacher /

Accountability had been defined as one of the expected results of any kind activity. Accountability proposes productivity. The educators make sure their expectations with tolerant position in different kind of professional or any life situations are clear and precise. They must go directly to the source. What is the source? We consider it to be: 1. Unity in teaching. Cultural leadership in a humanistic world. 2. The highly professional quality of teachers of all levels – stages (school – college – university) 3. International exchange methods of leadership in an independent world in the course of teaching.

International Teacher’s Association, (with centre in Copenhagen, Denmark) appeared to be the first field for working up and contributing to the process of international teaching-learning the ideas of tolerant education. The very teachers unite in their searching for effective methods of teaching the obligatory regulations and notions – firm, understandable, valuable, unforgettable and significant, common for everybody in the world from the position of time-demands and common sense, - as the unique value. The Unity of teachers as a style of professional thinking, practical method of solving the problems of those taught and need the assistance – is the scientific approach in growing national and international intellectual and spiritual mentality. It may effectively contribute to overcoming crisis of any kind in a society or prevent it, that is even more important. That is what International Teacher’s Association (ITA) has been carrying out for many years, and as any good will and good deed needs time for prolonged embodiment.

In a wide sense educating means a special unique mission of those teaching and learning. Those carrying out educating function see their mission as that of reconstructing the world attitude to values that are more rich than oil or gas or it’s sharing among nations. It is a historical mission, in the point of which is arising people of different nations to the realization of a notion” unite. ”To unite” means to tie or unite their efforts in restoring their national self-confidence within, and it’s power and prestige abroad.
Affecting the attitude-forming, the teachers in combined efforts shape the persona enable to feel oneself to be in responsibility for others in their striving to perfection through self-estimation (evaluation). A unique individuality is reliable and useful as a lifeguard in a need and in a victory. What does it mean? Cultural approach to education as method and action, should provide teachers and students with the intellectual tools and social skills of communication in the society in order to cope with the complex human, spiritual, moral and technical problems in present and future – as mission to survive and to create. As there are anglophile people, the teachers are to become multicultural persons themselves, interested in and liking multicultural world. Liking multicultural world means liking people and things, having loyalty and reliability as strong points of international character, being fair and sincere in getting along well with international society. It is wrong to dive in, or give up, if at first we do not succeed. It is right to try different approaches. It is right to have teacher’s whole international community practically good communication skills from the most trivial conflicts like – who is the most important? It is right to respect all peoples feelings, even if disapprove their actions sometimes.

At the process of penetrating through the whole idea of cultural tolerant education, firstly theoretically, we developed a series of interviews, and then, active professional connections with teachers and students from Japan, Poland, Russia, Bulgaria, Kazakhstan, Sakha-Yakutia, Sweden, Denmark, Australia, Nepal, the USA, China, Canada, the Baltic countries and different regions of the world, promoting of Cultural Educational Thought and Research. It was extremely important for educators of all nations to popularize this tolerant education as essential basis in sustainable development of a democratic an peaceful mentality and culture, as a foundation of an intellectual and moral success in our teacher’s business. A series of interviews would be launched as”Cultural Education Today: Conversation with Contemporary Thinkers”, and provided by qualified teachers, specially trained for that purpose, effectively linked to academic or vocational training in all fields. The results of different levels of complicity interviews showed that it would necessary to convert into data the information directly given by teachers as interesting. The information gotten had been transformed into numbers of quantitative data by using of the attitude scaling or rating –scale techniques, proposed by Bruce W. Tuckman. [4. T.Buchholz,1944,p.28].

Having identified the various purposes for which questionnaires and interviews had been used, we got all necessary additional information to contribute fruitful conducting cultural tolerant teaching in four stages: 1.Description. 2.Discover. 3.Classification. 4.Comparison.

A true, real Culture in a communicative process may be called “a tolerant patience. It demands a nobility and honesty from every person, responsibility and reliability, as a rightness of a life. A real and honest human – being’s life has only one way – to a Intellectual Culture as a knowledge, ready to learn to bare, to admit and to adopt critics. Only in such a way of existence a Culture as a method and arm (not weapon!) possesses it’s protective power.

So, if honesty in teaching - learning as a tolerant foundation of an achievement professional and personal as well, is a first condition and a demand, it is possible to approve a proposal of our foreign colleagues to describe a real situation in an
auditorium as a place, where, after a family, a real process of cultural tolerant teaching begins.

Personal and collective application of such ethics and professional principles involves experimenting to see what works best for the sake of self-growth and prosperity in education and upbringing. Honesty is to speak that which is thought and to do that which is spoken. The first step in the procedure we mean “educational process” – the recognition problem itself, being different for those being up brought and educated wrong or right. The road to education as success and common sense in all spheres of Human living is the road to psychological comfort and calmness, as an obligatory demand for prolonged sustainable development. A corner stone of a success in all spheres of Human living is relations, communication, interpersonal connections, etc. – is a very long way, as road, being always under construction. If we change the very approach, recognizing this fact, we acquire additional opportunities to everybody. There is a wise explanation in a story of Jacob.A.Riis’s, we want our students to read and think over: “... Look at the stone cutter hammering away at his rock, perhaps a hundred times without as much as a crack showing in it. Yet at the hundred-and-first blow it will split in two, and I know it was not the last blow that did it, but all that had gone before.” People need some kind of an additional mental and moral information in order to understand - What is a cultural education itself. If we summarize everything mentioned in a bright Charles Swindoll’s quotation, we shall get enriched definition of it from the position of a common sense and prosperity, described by an educator: “The longer I live, the more I realize the impact of attitude on life. Attitude, to me, is more important, than education, than money, than circumstances, than failures, than successes, than what other people think, or say, or do. It is more important than appearance, giftedness or skill. It will make or break a company, a church, a home. The remarkable thing we have every day is our choice, regarding the attitude we will embrace for that day... So, we are in charge of our Attitude.”

A human being Personality is the unique and specific expression and performance in one shape and form. In the process of education we penetrate not only through specific professional information needed for a future career, but through a full range of human experience-hope, despair, honor, dedication, struggle, triumph, etc, for the safe of life without wars as a fruitful field for a prolonged constant education. The whole understanding of this truth inspires teachers and students with a determined love for work not only in getting useful knowledge from teaching, but joint-combined learning, training, coaching, schooling and doing the best in every kind of practice. We named this practice as Diplomacy of living and teaching-learning in Peace with yourself and the others, which is possible only under cultural education circumstances. That is why the important step in our scientific method realization was a collection of experimental facts or data. So, we consider the process of a new personality formation not as something “imposed by external force, including the so called “pure education”. We consider it to be an independent inner perfection of an individual, as insight, when the whole education promote the personal’s development without discouraging it occasionally. Declaring some necessary items of a new education we take a definition of” A Winner” - A Leader.

We recognize, that, “The Winner is always a part of the answer. The loser is always a part of the problem. The winner says: “Let me do it for you.” The loser says: “That is not my job.” The winner sees a green near every sand trap. The loser sees two or three
sand traps near every green.” The winner sees an answer for every problem. The loser sees a problem in every answer”. So, the cultural peace-education declares to be a winner, a friendly, cooperative person, getting along with colleagues, class-mates, neighbors, relatives, yourself. Some practical measures to increase the vitality in realization of true Peace-Tolerant education appeared to be effective and wise and acting in such a way we meant realization of some expected results as transformation the present “culture of violence” in common understanding and recognition their own role in the happiness of the so called “close” and “far” people. The core of the solution we see in recognition, learning, realization and appreciation of life-values common for everybody in different cultures. The whole way is rather difficult, but it may have been overcome. In the face of chosen psychological method reaching tolerant education procedure we denote practical performance as “Inspired Teachers and Students”. In order to reach more understanding in communication and teaching a wide range of themes well suited for teaching purposes includes: 1. Highlights of the world literature. 2. History of the World through communication in the past. 3. History of art and music for the world without wars. 4. Traditions and realities of the world in common features and presentation. 5. Peaceful coexistence as a blue dream of a mankind.

The main idea of international communication as a fruitful sphere of cultural teaching-learning is also a personal health everyone involved in the process of communication. It is self-estimation. In our attempt to foresee a future world and a Human being personality in a future, the very idea is extremely important. Under personal health we mean not physical condition but relates to how we see ourselves as individuals; how our egos develop (the ego is that part of ourselves that needs to develop a sense of self and fulfillment); what we hope to achieve: how we define success for ourselves and the others around us. We each find self-fulfillment in unique ways, defined by what we value and what we hope to accomplish for ourselves and our community, even in case when community stretches to the borders of different countries and people. We can define for ourselves endeavors that bring us ego satisfaction only taking into account the motives, demands and purposes of survival and fulfillment of the whole vast community, exclusively through reliable and reasonable intercultural communication with it’s the very unique and single engine we define as tolerant peaceful education. It is that having been produced by a good teaching.

Cultural education is a process of working up the knowledge of the others. It is mutual respect through mutual understanding. Tolerant teaching develops the ability in students to accommodate the problems of everyday living. It starts with a family. Family is the first classroom to prepare to tolerant learning-living, as there is always some adjustment to be made to accommodate others. School is the second classroom. Tests of tolerant learning-living are taken each and every day of our life. Those who pass most often have the consciousness of appreciating the good in people and in situations. Those receiving lower marks usually have shades or degrees of disapproval. And those who pass with honor use the power of tolerance as a shield of protection so, that internal serenity remains untouched.

Tolerant education as teaching and learning raises in a personality tolerant understanding itself. It enables the individual to face and transform misunderstandings and difficulties. To tolerant life inconveniences is let go, be light, make others light,
and move on. International Teacher’s Association has worked out principles of a tolerant education and a system of pedagogy methods leading to an upbringing and teaching a leader of a sustainable development world. The stability of international teacher’s unity comes from the spirit of equality and oneness the noble values embodied in core universal unity. The whole Association is built from a shared vision of right Teaching, a noble hope and a cause for the common good. To apply this knowledge means for teachers of the world to have power over bad circumstaces and actions in a life. By sending positivity in to the atmosphere of teaching the teachers will have it’s reward from the students enriched by information and a model of behavior. On the other hand, positive intentions can be recognized when the individual naturally and automatically gives respect and benefit to others; sees uniqueness and qualities in each person; and gives people freedom to be themselves. The discussion of the main principles of tolerant education organized by International Learning Centre on a base of ITA took into account all positive intentions, opening doors of opportunity of being a leader. If every individual also took sole responsibility for performance in a society (teaching, parenting) etiquette via thoughts, words, actions, that would result in countless responsible leaders, capable work effectively in a team of the leaders.

Theory and practice of cultural education in their logical connection and interconnection obliged us:
1. Learn and analyze political situation in the world, world ecology, level of connection of cultures, religious problems, hopes, dreams, fears and longings of the close and far peoples in order to understand the needs and helps the others and ourselves. Being upset at injustices of any kind connected with any conflicts in a family, school, university, community, country, world—a person becomes Individual, Personality, Homo Viator in reality.

The task of those using a tolerant method in Peace education is to teach children at school and students at University to manage conflict of any kind. We are individuals with different needs, views, values, tastes. We conflict because of lack ability tolerate others differences. Our professional work may help us to turn conflict into an opportunity for learning more about ourselves and others through professional skills as advices and solutions. That is the very thing The International Teacher’s Association has been doing for all period of it’s existence.

We adapted Memorandum of a Culture--lover teacher, a Peace-lover psychologist. The document consists of three parts:
1. A psychological portrait of a new time teacher
2. The Program of Action
3. Problem-solving skills and dealing with responsibility (charge) curriculum.
They look like common findings:
Tolerant, Culture -lover teachers are keenly observant, intelligent and have a great desire for learning and self improvement. They think in broad terms and are concerned with the world beyond their own personal sphere- town, nation, country, world. They are likely to become involved in community affairs, social organizations, they enjoy being part of a group endeavor and find themselves organizing, managing and supervising group activities. They are forward-looking and progressive, staying current and up to date. Having experimental mind they respond to contemporary
social, political and cultural trends. Their strong points include concern for human welfare and social betterment. They establish themselves with wisdom.

Tolerant teaching explains objectives to be motivating in the process of learning as main principles of a successful every-day personal development. They may be small and immediate to learn in order to achieve a success. It is an obligatory condition to have even a small success on a long way to personal self-improvement, recognized and approved by the others as useful action, to read a lot, to think a lot, because it is a source of power.

Defining the trends, directions and approaches to a tolerant-peace education as methods of its realization, we proposed our teachers and students that they should choose for their own practice the most important definitions of a personal growth from a position of their own personality. We realized it in a course of a series-system of role plays, oriented to several goals to be achieved. We have done this work in different countries, so, the results gotten were very interesting. The task was to choose and to explain different items of personal-living values in order of their significance for a person. The final goal was to describe a cultural leader as a personality of a new progressive society—civilization. So, the line of qualities to discussed looked like that below: sense of power, feeling important, feeling loyable, feeling self-confidence, feeling natured, feeling valued/respected, knowing and living by ones’ values, feeling unique, feeling successful, feeling accepted, being assertive, maintaining one’s integrity, managing stress effectively, daring to risk, being self-disciplined, having self-defined goals, managing conflict effectively, accepting responsibilities and challenges, feeling capable of influencing others, feeling in control of one’s life, having positive body image, being able to accept praise and criticism, having broad range of emotions, being able to act independently and interdependently, feeling proud, being able to give and receive, feeling useful, feeling connected, feeling competent to make decisions, dealing effectively with peers and authority, feeling safe, knowing it’s okay to make mistakes, feeling trusted/trustworthy. Summarizing and analyzing the results of oral and written tests and different stages of role-plays system as one of the very effective teaching methods showed that all items consisted of a Culture Tolerant Leader Image, but in different consequence due to each personal choice. Some problem-solving skills and dealing with charge we consider being the most important were:
- I can identify problems and propose possible solutions.
- I can find and use a range of information from different sources.
- I can distinguish between facts and opinions.
- I can evaluate different solutions to a problem and select the best one.
- I can be positive when faced with a new situation that is difficult.
- I can show I have a strength to adapt to a major charge.

Our preliminary work was constructed as a road to Personal Improvement, included progressive variants of concrete solutions on some behavior’s aspects, necessary to be taken into account by teachers—leaders. We discussed effective measures of prevention-denial of drug problem; work, marital, financial ones; anger, physically abusive, poor appearance, loaded with secrets, depressed, high absenteeism from school or work, quilt, embarrassment, hides the alcohol, argues with family member’s situations. At this point, so much effort has been directed towards the investigation of international intercultural communication nature itself. More attention is now
focused on finding a scientific theory that fits experimental data (as real practice of communication) over the entire range of all barriers and difficulties. In reality it is a dynamic structure factor in IIC formation model – family, school, university, community, society, country, world. The International Teachers Association represented and approved international pedagogical methods, and having compared all of them had chosen the very right and universal – a tolerant education, as a complex of principles and methods useful in the study of time-dependant cooperative phenomena of development.

A cultural tolerant education serves humanity, and teachers are the very persons have the power to face. It is well known we have the freedom to choose our behavior. We can be the ones whose behavior comes under the influence of the atmosphere in a family, school, university, etc. Or we can be the ones who change the atmosphere. In a team-work it becomes a unique task of communication, responsible for the successful result of the tolerant teaching-learning as a whole process.

In other words, by demonstrating those positive attributes and beliefs through our behavior, we feel that experience within and serves as example to others. The greatest authority is experience, as that has the capacity to affect others, which, in turn, can subtly influence the atmosphere in a powerful way. In tolerant teaching teacher’s values clarify what they stand for. It gives them commitment to follow those highest values as responsibility, confidence, sense of useful, stability and high professional qualification. That is why the teachers are capable to propose the students the tasks should be solved out in the process of common-team work. The tasks are:
1. To identify the core values which underlie the global vision statement concerning a Personality, A Leadership, A Communication under circumstances of an international team-work;
2. To identify the barriers which prevent us from adopting and living those core values and following the best models of behavior and intention.
3. To develop strategic action plans (organizational, community or personal) in order to overcome those barriers and thus make the Global Vision Statement of a new personality a reality.

A Tolerant teaching itself has a fast-growing research culture, bringing together a unique combination of a knowledge about teaching and an artistic combination of professional skills, subjects and educators, quality parenting findings and a wise theoretical new approaches of international researchers to unite everything in a strict system of a new understanding world global vision. Exciting alliance of teachers from different countries on a base of International Teacher’s Association established a Learning centre for teacher training and continuing professional development. It was established as a part of a broader concern to foster understanding of human development and a personality establishment in a world of new opportunities for a personal growth. In order to do our best and to research the problem arising, additionally courses of a tolerant teaching have been worked out.

A systematical activity in a direction of establishment in developing a complex of a new personality- a tolerant one- is a module of a competence for a new world. This is one more hypothesis the teachers all over the world have been trying to realize, to work out and forward to. At the head of the process of this pedagogical construction is idea of raising and advancing the mental- intellectual level of a personality. In the
course of a series of interviews, tests and seminars in workshops and student’s leadership managing team-groups we compound a psychological portrait of a student, ready to realize and to forwards to a cultural teaching. It looks like this:

‘‘ He/she/ is a freedom-loving, strong-willed and independent-loving individual. He insists upon living his own life as he sees fit, that does not mean ignoring convention and tradition his own one and another nationalities. In personal relationship he /she/ can not be owned or possessed, and while he is willing to share himself /herself/ with another, he always adjust easily to the emotional give and take of a close relationship. Being intellectually open, he /she/ can not be stubborn, opinionated and inflexible on a one-to-one and a one-to-group level. He /she/ has strong convictions and feelings fairness and equality and he tries to live by his ideals. He /she/ has ideals how people should treat one another and always takes into account human weaknesses, differences and needs.”

We consider the preliminary stage of working with international team of learners be very important, because the answers to our questions helped us to construct group norms for prolonged work. The questions were:

1. Who do you need to contact?
2. Are you the right person to connect with these people?
3. Who is influential in your family, school, college, university, community?
4. How can you involve parents, teachers, social service agencies, church leaders, education officials, health officials etc.?
5. What will facilitate or inhibit your efforts?
6. What challenges will you face?
7. What questions do you need to ask?

To know the quality of inner moral and intellectual energy in our students was very important. In order to use this energy the knowledge of the main items of tolerant education, strictly combined with antinationalism and fundamentalism seemed to be very useful for making up a principally new look at the problem and creating a strategy of students’ actions. We organised some workshops, sittings, conferences, role-plays, maximally close to a reality of a modern life from the point of view of professional managing and prevention conflicts in ordinary socium’s existence. One of the most crucial problems to be solved by intercultural cooperation as teaching-learning was connectedness.

Communicative functions have been making up in the process of communication in an auditorium and outside. A document, called as “Ground Rules and Ground Norms” has been worked up in order to help students in making-up right decisions and prove rightness professionally. The structure of such a system compound from rules and norms was effectively serving itself as a guide on the path of communicative value of so complicated, even hard material for over thinking. To guarantee pragmatic and cultural knowledge through real communication four levels fore levels of theoretical and practical activities had been proposed to follow:

1. Surviving. 2. Adjusting. 3. Participating. 4. Integrating. Within each level we have organized the functions into general types as school and then college, university of effective living. They were:


That means, the emphasis for all teachers in their principal-centered to a tolerant education position is an urgent necessity to negotiate and communicate not only their
students and colleagues in their own countries, but with educators and students, youngsters and adult – abroad.

So, a document – Demands for a new generation teacher as an ideal educator had been worked out and approbated in different countries. The main items of the document read:-

Must know the best and most political, cultural and economical material about tolerance as a basic notion for tolerant teaching.

Must know the specific and unique for each culture feathers and items of material and how they can work “pro” and “contra”.

-Is to have knowledge to improve his/her/ ability to analyze, synthesize and develop insight his field.

Has personal and professional competence.

Is interested in some kind of promotion the talented and hardworking students.

Possesses social skills, such as cooperativeness.

Does not do what interests him/her/ most without regard to the needs of the students and multinational group as a whole.

Is practical and realistic.

Has initiative.

Has some scientific abilities.

Keeps up with teaching-learning progress and grows professionally.

So, in our teaching and learning practice we are trying to build and keep alive Emotional Health and Professional effectiveness as A Key and Instrument in forming a tolerant education as a whole.

On a base of a scientific-methodical centre of an International Teacher’s Association a prolonged system of a practical daily work for teachers and students in a line of a tolerant education has been worked out and is checking up systematically concerning analyzing of results gotten in different countries. There are some recommendations, being important in the course of a work teacher’s team from different countries:

Read a lot about different trying to find out a motive and reason for a cultural learning-teaching in mental, social and political sphere of material having been read at classes and outside.

Maintain common sense by looking through newspapers and watching TV.

Choose your own tolerant, loving and giving attitude and attention to people and share it with them.

Be able to define the subject and object of Culture in approaches to a tolerant education as final expectations and results of activity.

Know the names and biographies of well-known Culture-loved educators, writers, psychologists, scientists, actors, sportsmen, doctors, etc.

Be able to list some most effective ways to eliminate conflict and wars from life of Humans, and, particularly, terrorism as a kind of war with a help of rightly chosen tolerant education for a world.

Taking into account, that we, teachers of the world have a goal to shape a new personality, a leader, when a tolerant education is a base and a module of a competence a Human being Personality in a sustainable development world, on a base of International Teacher’s Association Learning centre has been worked up a prolonged scheme of a cultural tolerant education for mutual benefit and effectiveness.
teaching in different countries. Being supported by UNESCO, it appeared to be useful as a main direction of development.

A cultural teaching for a new world, developed on a base of ITA, is tied to the development of the tolerant education-upbringing itself and perspectives, but also influences it through interpretation and clarification of that agenda. International unity of teachers, being supported by UNESCO in research approaches and practical activity, approbated the main principals of this organization as alive and effective:

1. Future thinking: actively involves stakeholders /our teachers and students/ in creating and enacting an alternative future without wars and multinational conflicts;
2. Critical thinking: helps individuals assess the appropriateness and assumptions of current decisions and actions;
3. Systems thinking: understanding and promoting holistic change;
4. Participation: engaging all in sustainability issues and actions

An idea about international cultural tolerant education must raise a profile of education as a whole internationally. It must gain resources of all kind from governments to make basic education of a new level an entitlement for all. Education is a motive, a source, a moving power and an engine in the process of a personal development, guaranteeing decency, prudence and wisdom. As UNESCO document declares, ”It is education of a certain kind that will save us, as the issues now looming so large before us in the twenty first century”[5.R.Wade, J. Parker, 2008, p.5].

So, constructing a cultural education we stay as practical, as generous in our ideas, keeping our eyes on the stars and our feet on the ground. The definition of the notion of a cultural education was born in the process of a series of role-plays, a most effective and a compound part of a tolerant teaching-learning itself. Students had to experience the different aspects of a modern world before they learn the terms of a tolerant education and its symbols used to explain it. The students discussed the manner and ethics of communication in a tolerant teaching-learning. Among more than one hundred terms of positive items in communication they have chosen: confidence, trust, kindness, sympathy, wisdom. The biggest advantage was that the information was urgent and spread widely simultaneously in different countries through ITA. [6.M.Azarenkova.(2011), p.1] Special training seminars with teachers and students help to raise educational level as a whole and enrich intellectual possibilities. The forms may be different, but the principles remain common for all.

They declared Human rights values, vocational basic skills, values of spiritual and environmental sphere, skills in critical thinking, systems thinking, intergenerational and future’s thinking, strengthens basic and higher level skills which enable people to deal with change, risk and uncertainty. Cultural education creates the world. Education through cultural values, findings, treasures of upbringing and friendship, scientific approaches to communication of children and adults, professionals of creative pedagogical work, as teaching and personal model as example of behavior- is a hard labour. At the same time it is a blessing inspiration, a huge responsibility, a great mission. That is why we dare to remind an old prayer and look at it from the position of those overcoming obstacles on their way to sustainable development intercultural world: ‘‘ Time passes. Life happens. Distance separates. Children grow up. Jobs come and go. Love waxes and wanes. Men don’t do what they are supposed to do. Hearts break. Parents die. Colleagues forget favors. Carees end. But! Every day teachers come to the World back to real treasures of life, surviving and saving the
main of them on the base of Culture without borders – Intellect, Justice, Beauty, Responsibility, Honesty and Peace.
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The Use of iPads to Improve Attainment in Technology for Pupils with Learning Difficulties

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Abstract
A radical change to how and what children in Wales are taught is underway 26 years after the National Curriculum was first introduced. The Successful Futures report recommends computer programming and I.T to be on an equal footing with literacy and numeracy in all classes (Donaldson2015). Whilst pupils with learning difficulties could struggle with technology requiring high levels of cognitive competence it is reassuring to note that technological advances can also allow those pupils access to educational opportunities unavailable to them in the past. Following a whole school review of pupils’ access to the curriculum through ICT, it was agreed to undertake a whole school investment in the use of iPads as a tool for teaching and learning. Staff received training and each iPad was personalised to match the needs of each individual pupil and Apps were purchased. The school used an assessment package to assess pupil’s progress in ICT. At the end of the school year the analysis software used the data recorded by teachers to produce a report and graphs. Individualised school iPads helped to improve pupils’ ICT skills with attainment in ICT improving by over a P Level (1.1) from 19% of P5 to 28% of P6 for the 2014-2015 academic year, compared to an increase of 0.6 for 2013-2014 academic year. The rapid improvement in pupil attainment within the area of ICT from January 2015 –June 2015 was likely to be due to the introduction of individual school iPads.
Introduction

Believing in the opportunity for the iPad to have a big impact in a special school due to the communication needs of its pupils the senior management team decided that forward planning was needed to enhance the curriculum development of our pupils through the use of individualised iPads. In the autumn term 2013, we undertook a whole school practical enquiry into the use of the iPad tablet as a tool for teaching and learning. This involved each teacher being given an iPad and training in the use of iPads before trialling the technology in classes. In the summer term 2014 teachers worked closely with the ICT coordinator and school technician to determine suitable iPad apps for each individual pupil. In the autumn term 2014 pupils were given individualised iPads.

Impact on provision and learners’ standards is outlined below

**Graph showing ICT progression over 5 years period**
Pupil Responses
In July 2015 pupils were given questionnaires about their use of ICT. The response from pupils was overwhelmingly in favour of continued use of iPads.
Conclusions

Individualised school iPads helped to improve pupils’ ICT skills
Attainment in ICT shows a sharp increase from Sept 2014 to June 2015, compared to previous years.
The rapid improvement in pupil attainment within the area of ICT was likely to be due to the introduction of individual school iPads.

Examples of how technology has helped pupils to improve their learning include:
increased cause and effect and exploration skills through use of a touch screen and individualised Apps
improved independent choice making using tablet computers to help multiple sensory processing.
increased communication for both verbal and preverbal pupils increased ability to make choices
Progression shown on B Squared

Jay Ashcroft, director at Learnmaker reports "Having worked with Apple products in education for a number of years, I’ve seen the proof first hand that iPads in particular have the potential to transform the learning experience. The reality is, however, that there are so few schools who have really succeeded with iPad that very few have experienced that transformational learning experience themselves. Many schools I meet feel that the financial impact is the barrier to a good tablet computing project, but in reality the only thing stopping your school having the same success is leadership." (Ashcroft 2015)
References

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Learning Exponential-Logarithmic Equations through Values-Driven Interventions

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Abstract
Mathematics is, undeniably, a fundamental skill that a learner should acquire and master. Its purposes since the era when man learned to write his annals cannot be overemphasized. The learners should explore independently the intricacies of the subject; hence, constructivist approach. As developed by Jerome Bruner, it is where the learners construct new ideas based upon their current or past undertakings. This study covered the performances of selected 34 College students in learning exponential-logarithmic equations. Revealed here were: pretest and post-test performances have averaged differently; the null hypothesis of no significant difference between the two performances is rejected. The null hypothesis stating that the interventions used have equal influence to post-test results is accepted; the most predominant behavioral changes are determination, organization of thoughts, self-confidence, and humility; all interventions used are assessed effective. As concluded, a significant difference exists between the two performances and that the interventions have equal influence over the post-test performances.

Keywords: exponential-logarithmic equations, values-driven interventions, constructivism
Introduction

Mathematics is, undeniably, a fundamental skill that a learner should acquire and master. Its purposes since the era when man learned to write his annals cannot be overemphasized. Its rudiments have been perfected generation by generation until such time when mathematics is difficult to understand. They must create their own constructs or frameworks of understanding based on the established mathematical principles; hence, constructivist approach. By constructivism we mean learning by doing. A learning theory that is developed by Jerome Bruner, its major theme is that learning is an active process in which the learners identify, select and transform data into meaningful information to guide them in their formulation of hypothesis and decision making. (Source: http://www.thirteen.org/edonline/concept2class/constructivism/) It is in this light that the researcher had attempted to explain how the learners acquire understanding and mastery of exponential-logarithmic equations.

Conceptual Framework

The central theory adopted for this study is the importance of independent cognition, or independent learning. Aptly stated, and the researcher quotes, “Jerome Bruner's constructivist theory is a general framework for instruction based upon the study of cognition.” Originally, Bruner focused on the mathematical and scientific studies which served as foundation of higher learning for young children.

At the confines of a constructivist, his concentration is the learner; very minimal to him or herself. Contradictory to common notion towards constructivism, the importance of teachers is not neglected. Their roles are just modified. (Source: http://www.thirteen.org/edonline/concept2class/constructivism/)

Whitehead (1929) as cited by Slaterry (2013) pronounced that “students are alive, and the purpose of education is to stimulate and guide their self-development.” This leads to the universal recognition of the vitality of addressing the nature of the learners. Kersey & Masterson (2013) added that there is a need for positive guidance with our young children today. They had elaborated too the essence of having a creative teachers available for help, coaching, and facilitating.

In the constructivist model, learners are encouraged to work for their own learning, conceptualizing, and processing. In harmony with what the JRU Faculty Manual declares, a teacher is expected to guide students in a wholesome environment and in the adoption of habits that would improve their character and personality, which is the very core of constructivism.

In its entirety, the researcher had made used of different values-driven interventions whereat the participants had engaged themselves actively. These included socialized blended recital, student-led discussion, board work / demonstration, and math video / film showing. Adoption of these approaches had subscribed to the ideas of Zulueta (2006), who emphasized that learning must be interactive. He believes that it is only when the individual reacts to the stimulus in the environment that learning is likely to occur.
Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of the study. As the learners are exposed to their own learning environment, they could explore the lessons on hand, determine what is essential from peripheral, and crystallize what are the precise preconceptions. These will lead to their improved academic performance and behavioral changes. While these are for students to experience, it is also expected that the curriculum would be further enriched through modelling learning exercises.

**Significance of the Study**

Bearing in mind the relevance of student-centered approach of teaching nowadays, this present research would be beneficial to the following:

School administrators. They will be able to formulate classroom policy in institutionalizing administrative support to independent learning environment.

Teacher-facilitators. They will be able to effectively gauge their students and provide academic support in order to make the learners understand mathematical concepts and acquire necessary competencies through learner-centered approach.

Learners. They will be provided with optimum collaboration for individualized instruction and independent exploration giving them opportunity to unlock their own learning difficulties and misconceptions.

**Scope and Limitations**

This evaluative study covered the performances of the participants in acquiring understanding and skills involving exponential-logarithmic equations, an Advanced Algebra lesson. The researcher did not attempt to compare and contrast performances of the participants according to their strategies/approaches employed rather focused on the overall pretest and post test results only. This limitation the researcher had positioned outset could prevent the direct comparison of the interventions used by the
participants. Instead, he reduced to the comparative analysis of their overall improvement marks. While it is true that the researcher also gave consideration to the participants’ perceptions, these had been corroborated by their post-test performances.

**Definition of Terms**

The following terms were operationally defined by the present researcher.

**Behavioral Changes.** This term refers to the manifested behavioral change of the participants from pre-intervention to post-intervention when learning the logarithmic-exponential equations.

**Constructivism.** As a learning theory, this refers to the process / approach employed in the present undertaking whereby the participants were allowed to explore their own potentials in acquiring pre-determined mathematical competencies of understanding and applying logarithmic-exponential equations.

**Values-driven interventions.** These interventions were determined by the researcher in which the participants could employ independent learning. These were specifically limited to blended recital, student-led discussion, board work/demonstration, and math video / film viewing.

**Hypothesis**

The following are the null hypotheses that the researcher had tested at 0.05 alpha level of confidence:

- **Null Hypothesis 1** There is no significant difference between the performances of the participants during the pretest and post-test administration.

- **Null Hypothesis 2** The independent variable INTERVENTIONS USED has equal influence upon the dependent variable (Y) POST-TEST RESULTS
  
  \( \text{(Statistically stated: } b_1 - b_2 = 0 \ldots b_n - b_{n+1} = 0) \)

**Statement of the Problem**

Stemmed logically from the premises set earlier pertaining to independent learning and research objectives, he sought the answers for the following problems:

1. What were the performances of the participants during pretest and post-test?
2. Is there a significant difference on the performances of the participants during the pre-test and post-test?
3. What values were predominant among the participants in learning mathematics through programmed interventions?
4. How effective integrating values were in learning math subject content after the intervention period?
Research Design Used

The researcher employed mixed experimental-descriptive design of research. As such, the researcher ascertained that there were planned interferences in the natural order of learning events among his participants. This prompted him since he wished to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena (mathematics teaching) and to describe "what exists," which in this research pertains mathematics learning with respect to variables or conditions in a situation. Essentially, the overall research design is that of an action research. Navarro & Santos (2013) explained that action research is an inquiry process conducted by any stakeholder in the teaching-learning environment to address a felt need or address daily problems.

Population, Sample and Sampling Scheme

For School Year 2014-2015, the researcher handled eight (8) mathematics classes. Four (4) of these are Advanced College Algebra and the remaining four (4) classes are all Elementary Statistics. Considering that Elementary Statistics are already conducted through Course Redesign Program (CRP), these classes were no longer included in the selection of the sample; thus, only the Advanced College Algebra classes remained. The researcher resorted to fishbowl lottery sampling which gave me the 102G class as research samples.

Data Gathering Procedure

The data gathering protocol that the researcher had observed entails the following – initialization, evaluation, and post-evaluation. In a flowchart below, it summarizes the entire procedure observed by the researcher:

![Flowchart](image)

Figure 2. The Flowchart on Data Generation and Processing
During the initialization, he had informed the class (102G) that they were randomly selected as research participants. During the first week of January when classes were resumed, the researcher had emphasized to the participants that their involvement in this research is voluntary, non-discriminatory, and non-bearing either to their periodic or overall mathematics g.p.a.; thus, consent forms were distributed and retrieved before the evaluation phase. When properly filled up consent forms were received, the researcher proceeded in administering the pretest to the 48 participants. He grouped the participants into four comprising 12 members each. Each group was assigned with a specific values-driven intervention –blended recital, student-led discussion, board work / demonstration, viewing math videos/films.

The four groups had utilized the assigned intervention strategies in acquiring knowledge and understanding of exponential-logarithmic equations. This is the researcher’s evaluation phase. In here, they were given one and a half (1½) weeks, January 19-27, in teaching-learning the said mathematical concepts. The researcher sometimes allowed the participants to argue among themselves as to the accuracy of their own processes, solutions, and answers. After the intervention period, he administered the post-test and again recorded their corresponding stores. It must be noted here that during post-test administration, only 34 participants were available. Some of them did not come for the post-test while one (1) was no longer allowed by her guardian to participate.

On his post-evaluation, the researcher endeavoured to solicit qualitative feedbacks from the participants using a separate research instrument. This, when returned and assessed, amplifies the available statistics derived from tests analysis.

The Research Instruments

There were two research instruments that the researcher had used namely Pretest-Post-Test on Exponential-Logarithmic Equations developed and copyrighted by Dr. Abdelkader Dendane, a UAE Professor, and a Post-Test Evaluation Sheet that the researcher had purposively created to gather substantial feedbacks from the participants. Dr. Dendane instantly and gladly granted permission to use his material provided that it (the pretest-post-test material) will only serve educational research purpose as communicated.

The pre-test –post test had included properties of exponential and logarithmic equations. The competency ultimately tested is finding all the permissible solutions to five (5) exponential and five (5) logarithmic equations.

To bolster data gathering, the researcher developed a Post-Test Evaluation Sheet where the participants provided more specific details vis-à-vis to the interventions they employed and their perceptions on its effectivity on promoting values.

Statistical Treatment of Data

The researcher had used both the descriptive and inferential statistics to complement and supplement all the findings in this study. Descriptive statistics that hed had employed were frequency counts, percentage, means, weighted means, and standard deviations. As regards to the inferential statistics, separate-variances t-Test for the
difference, ANOVA (F-Test), and simple linear regression were utilized in order to propose later on further studies to ascertain generalizability of the present research.

**Results and Discussions**

The data were taken from the class registry and record during the administration of the pre-test and post-test. The statistics that follow were generated by PHSta2v29.

Table No. 1

**Pretest and Post-Test Performances of the Participants Clustered According to Intervention Used**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intervention used</th>
<th>No. of Examinees</th>
<th>Pre-test Mean Score</th>
<th>Post-Test Mean Score</th>
<th>Var</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blended recital</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>5.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-led discussion</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board work/ Demonstration</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>5.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math video / film viewing</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>7.63</td>
<td>5.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>AVERAGE</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.28</strong></td>
<td><strong>7.11</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.85</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Var = variance

It can be gleaned from the table above that there were notable changes on the performances of the participants when they took the post-test. Initially in the pretest, the participants had attained only an average of 2.28 points. When they took the post-test, their performances had leaped to and hit a very high average of 7.11 points. Evaluating from within, among the four interventions used, student-led discussion posted the lowest positive variance of 4.00 points, while the blended recital, board work/demonstration, and math video/film viewing posted bit higher positive variances of 5.13 points each.

Gleaning further, the average positive variance of 4.85 suggests that the four values-driven interventions, when properly and timely executed, could improve low mathematics performances.

![Figure 3. Average Test Performances during Pre-Intervention and Post-Intervention](image-url)
Figure 3 shows the comparison of two test averages attained during the pre-intervention and post-intervention. Glaringly noticeable is the big gap or difference between the two tests administered purposively.

Meanwhile, Table No. 2 below exhibits the participants’ frequency distribution of the improvement marks based on the values-driven interventions that they had employed.

Table No. 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interventions used</th>
<th>Inc (f)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Dec (f)</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Unch (f)</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blended recital</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>87.50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-led discussion</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>90.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Board work/ Demonstration</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>87.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math video / film viewing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>87.50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total and Average</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>88.13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.75</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As reflected in the table above, there were 30 participants or 88.13% whose performances have increased while there were 3 participants or 8.75% whose performances have decreased. Only one (1) participant or 3.13% has an unchanged performance. Interestingly, that sole participant came from blended recital group only. Analyzing it further, the results posited that student-led discussion, board work/demonstration, and math video/film viewing as learning interventions had slightly decreased the performances of those who had employed them.

Table No. 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>t-computed</th>
<th>Critical value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>-45.9438</td>
<td>±2.0195</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td>7.11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two-tailed test; \( \alpha = 0.05 \)

Table 3 shows the test of significant difference between the pretest and post-test performances of the participants. It can be seen from the table that the mean performance during pretest is 2.28 while during post-test is 7.11. Based on the computations made, the t-statistic absolute value of –45.9438, which is lower than the absolute t-critical value of –2.0195; thus, the null hypothesis which states that there is no significant difference between the pretest and post-test performances of the participants is rejected. Therefore, a significant difference exists between the two performances of the participants.

While there is a significant difference that exists between the participants’ pretest and post-test performances, the ANOVA (F-Test) results for interventions used and the post-test performances provide another interesting result as explained in the succeeding texts.
As shown in Table 4, the computed F-value is 0.0148 is lower than the critical F-Value of 0.9039; thus, the null hypothesis which says that the INTERVENTION USED (Blended recital, student-led discussion, board work/demonstration, and math video/film viewing), as a set, have equal influence to Post-test results is accepted. This means that the four (4) intervention methods have the same influence over the performance of the participants during their post-test.

Figure 4. Scatter plot and the Regression Equation

Figure no. 4 shows the scatter plot for Interventions Used and Post-test Results data. It shows the regression equation $y = -0.0139x + 0.8889$. Meaning, for any Pre-test (x) score, say 8, the post-test (y) score of the student would be 0.7777 higher.
Table No. 5
Predominant Behavioral Changes as Ranked by the Participants in Blended Recital

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predominant Behavioral Changes</th>
<th>Participants’ Ranking</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Translated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attentiveness. <em>I became alert during random calls.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determination. <em>I became eager to participate, answer, and share.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patience. <em>I became patient to wait for my turn to be called.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readiness. <em>I became readily available for help when nobody wants to answer.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness. <em>I became focus on the learning content.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table No. 5 exhibits the rankings made by the participants who have the blended recital discussion as learning intervention on the predominant behavioral changes they experienced. Based on the table, Determination ranks first with a raw rank of 2.00 which was followed by Attentiveness with a raw rank of 2.50. Responsiveness is ranked third with a raw rank of 3.25. Tailoring at the end are Patience and Readiness with the same raw ranks of 3.63. Accordingly, a constructivist teacher provides tools such as problem-solving and inquiry-based learning activities with which students formulate and test their ideas, draw conclusions and inferences, and pool and convey their knowledge in a collaborative learning environment. This is observed too during the blended recital.

Table No. 6
Predominant Behavioral Changes as Ranked by the Participants in Student-led Discussion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predominant Behavioral Changes</th>
<th>Participants’ Ranking</th>
<th>Raw</th>
<th>Translated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attending to details. <em>I became sensitive and particular to words, symbols, and sounds during discussion.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clearness / organization of thoughts. <em>I became organized when discussing with my group mates.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enthusiasm to share. <em>I became animated and passionate during my discussion time.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keenness. <em>I became perceptive on others’ shortcomings in learning mathematics.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precision. <em>I became meticulous on the procedures involved when doing mathematical tasks.</em></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table No. 6 exhibits the rankings made by the participants who have the student-led discussion as learning intervention on the predominant behavioral changes they experienced. Based on the table, Clearness/organization of thoughts ranks first with a raw rank of 2.20 which was followed by Attending to details with a raw rank of 2.30. Enthusiasm to share is ranked third with a raw rank of 3.10. Tailing at the end are Keenness and Precision with the same raw ranks of 3.70. As expected among the
learners, they have become organized when discussing with their own group members. This is evident especially when the leader responsibly managed their work. In a constructivist environment, though there is minimal supervision of the teacher, a leader among the learners could surface during the process. Their emergence must be supported. It is when a leader is born among the learners, an optimization of the potential of an individual.

Table No. 7
Predominant Behavioral Changes as Ranked by the Participants in Board work / Demonstration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predominant Behavioral Changes</th>
<th>Participants’ Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articulacy. I became expressive during board work / demonstration of the mathematics content.</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compliance. I became conforming to the requirements of the task.</td>
<td>3.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperation. I became supportive with my colleagues while demonstrating the process of solving mathematics problems.</td>
<td>2.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neatness of work. I became aware of the necessity to work with efficiency especially with numbers.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confidence. I became confident / buoyant while it was my time to demonstrate on the board.</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table No. 7 exhibits the rankings made by the participants who have the board work / demonstration as learning intervention on the predominant behavioral changes they experienced. Based on the table, Self-confidence ranks first with a raw rank of 1.75 which was followed by Cooperation with a raw rank of 2.50. Articulacy and Compliance are ranked third with the same raw ranks of 3.38. Tailing at the end is Neatness of work with a raw rank of 4.00. Perhaps the primary reason of such low ranking of neatness is the practice the participants have been accustomed to. Erasures and trials are allowed in mathematics as we attempt to answer or prove mathematical equations.

In here, Whitehead (1929) gets affirmation. Students are truly alive and must be encouraged to work for their own learning, conceptualizing, and processing. In the board work or demonstration, participants have acknowledged the significance of the concept of self-worth apropos learning by doing. This may be the underlying reason why the participants have ranked self-confidence the highest.
Table No. 8
**Predominant Behavioral Changes as Ranked by the Participants in Math video/film viewing**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predominant Behavioral Changes</th>
<th>Participants’ Ranking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creativity. <em>I became creative in approaching mathematical problems, thus helping me to solve correctly.</em></td>
<td>3.38 Raw 4 Translated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exactitude. <em>I became careful when complex mathematical problems are at hand.</em></td>
<td>2.75 Raw 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humility. <em>I became unpretentious knowing that there are people who deal mathematics with difficulty.</em></td>
<td>2.00 Raw 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promptness. <em>I put emphasis on the essentiality of learning mathematics.</em></td>
<td>3.63 Raw 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity. <em>I became creative in approaching mathematical problems, thus helping me to solve correctly.</em></td>
<td>3.38 Raw 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table No. 8 exhibits the rankings made by the participants who have the math video / film viewing as learning intervention on the predominant behavioral changes they experienced. Based on the table, Humility ranks first with a raw rank of 2.00 which was followed by Exactitude with a raw rank of 2.75. Vigilance is ranked third with a raw rank of 3.25, followed by Creativity with a raw rank of 3.38 and tailing at the end is Promptness with a raw rank of 3.63.

Bruner is right when he said that in the constructivist milieu, learners should be given ample opportunities to explore by themselves the learning environment they have. Upon doing, they are moved, changed, transformed. These are the primary impacts of viewing Math – related films. Most of the videos that the participants have watched have promoted special consideration to people of different learning backgrounds. Most of the participants have watched ABAKADA INA (Philippines), A BEAUTIFUL MIND (U.S.A.), and CITY HUNTER (S. Korea) that shows struggles of, and compassion to people who are either mathematically gifted or challenged.

Across all interventions employed, the most predominant behavioral changes are determination, clearness / organization of thoughts, self-confidence, and humility substantiated by their high raw ranks made by the participants.

Table No. 9
**Distribution of Participants’ Perception on the Effectivity of the Interventions Used**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceptual Response</th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effective</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Effective</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>34</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table No. 9 exhibits the frequency and percentage distributions of the participants on their perceptions on the effectivity of the interventions used. All of the 34 participants
claimed that the interventions the specifically used during the acquisition of exponential-logarithmic equations are effective.

Interspersing these perceptions on their post-test performances, their aggregate belief is evidently true. Their perceptions are supported and validated by very high improvement marks of 4.85 points from a low average of 2.28 points to 7.11 points. This positive leap is enormous considering that the participants were just given a rationed time allotment of two classroom meetings.

At that point, Kersey & Masterson (2013) had emphasized the impact of positive guidance with the learners no matter how short the contact is. Creative teachers do give meaningful experience to the children and influence how the learners perform. Concerning this assessment of the participants, they acknowledge the operative influence of the values-driven interventions where they had engaged themselves worthily and actively.

Conclusions

Based on the foregoing findings that were revealed in this study, the researcher formulates the following inferences:

1. The participants have yielded higher test performances during the post-intervention phase.
2. A significant difference exists between the pre-intervention and post-intervention performances and that the interventions (blended recital, student-led discussion, demonstration, and have equal influence over the post-test performances.
3. In each values-driven intervention, a predominant behavioral change surfaces.
4. The participants claimed that the post-intervention measures explored and employed by them were effective in learning exponential-logarithmic equations.

Recommendations

Congruent to the findings revealed and conclusions formulated, the researcher hereby recommends the following:

1. Extend the values-driven interventions to other classes. This is to support or negate the positive results that the interventions have caused to the performances of the participants.
2. Expose the students to different teaching strategies/approaches and learning styles.
3. Explore student pre-conceptions from where to build firmer foundation of new mathematical learning.
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The Efficacy Beliefs of Social Studies Teachers Candidates Regarding the Teaching-Learning Process

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Abstract
The aim of this study was to examine special field efficacy beliefs of social studies teacher candidates related to the teaching-learning process. It was focused on the areas of sub-competence of their own field who had been studying in social studies education section of education faculties at the final year; in addition, to determine whether these levels were changed in terms of variables of gender and type of education and what were the expectations of them. 360 volunteer social studies teacher candidates continuing education in final year selected from five universities, were the study group. To analyze the gathered data, descriptive statistics, correlations and t-tests were performed. Besides, content analysis was made to analyze the qualitative data. The findings indicated that there was a highly significant positive relation among the areas of sub-competence, besides female Social Studies Teacher Candidates (SSTC) and SSTC in evening education had significantly higher efficacy beliefs regarding the teaching-learning process. It was also found that SSTC who wanted some modifications towards the teacher training program that they received.

Keywords: pre-service Social studies teachers, efficacy belief, teaching-learning process

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Introduction

Teacher training programs' content, scope and objectives that are intended to be reached by the teacher candidates studying in faculties of education is of great importance, on the other hand teacher candidates’ for whom these programs were implemented, reaching the teacher training program’ goals or beliefs is a major importance. Teaching profession by its very nature is based on spiritual factors, so students who are trained in this direction must believe in that they can do this profession.

No matter how rich or heavy theoretical or practical knowledge is provided during the undergraduate education, it can be only observed in the performance of the profession. There are many factors that affect teachers' learning and teaching skills in the educational process. One of them is the beliefs intended for competences that they should have.

The concept of self-efficacy, developed by Albert Bandura, is one of the most basic concepts of Social Learning Theory which was changed as Social Cognitive Theory in 1986. In this theory, aspects of many what has been done are primarily shaped in thought. People's efficacy beliefs affect the types of their scenarios that they configure and rehearse for the future. People who have sense of high proficiency visualize successful scenarios that provide positive guidance and performance supporting. Those who doubt about their proficiency, visualize failure scenarios and stands on many things that can go wrong. It is difficult to achieve success while struggling with continuous self-doubt (Bandura, 1993).

Bandura (1995), revealed self-efficacy which distinguish people on matters of thinking, feeling, acting and self-motivating. Self-efficacy is their beliefs about what the individuals can do related to particular field. The low sense of self-efficacy is associated with stress, depression, helplessness and anxiety. Such individuals have low self-perception, also pessimistic about their success and personal development. A strong sense of efficacy facilitates the cognitive processes and performance in the various frames including effective decision making and academic achievement. In the case of behavior, self-efficacy can affect people's preferences for action. Motivation for levels of self-efficacy can enhance or undermine. People with high self-efficacy undertake an enterprise and do not avoid to resolve the similar problems and challenges. Individuals' self-efficacy beliefs are to determine the levels of motivation about how they would persevere to face with difficulties. The triumphs obtained in the face of difficulties indoctrinate a stronger belief to the person about ability to face difficulties. Bandura explains self-efficacy such as beliefs which functions as human motivation, a series of important proximal determinants of influence and action. These beliefs create a form of an action as a means of motivational, cognitive, and emotional processes (Bandura, 1989; Bandura, 1989:67). A higher level of perceived self-efficacy leads to higher level of targets that people set for themselves and to be affiliated with these goals at a higher level (Zulkosky, 2009).

The teacher (trainer) self-efficacy refers to individual beliefs about their ability to help students to learn. A teacher's efficacy belief is a judgment towards oneself related transport abilities to the desired goals even if there are reluctant students and including those with learning disabilities (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). Beliefs related
individual efficacy in promoting and developing teaching by teachers, effect learning environments they create and the level of the academic process devoted to student success (Bandura, 1993). Social cognitive theory predicts that teacher’s self-efficacy beliefs affect students’ self-efficacy, action choices, perseverance, effort and success in the same way. Teachers with high self-efficacy beliefs develops inquiry activities, help to provide students success and are insistent on students with learning difficulties (Schunk & Pajares, 2009:38). In addition teachers’ efficacy beliefs are also closely related to their behaviors in the classroom. Efficacy influences their efforts to develop education, trying to reach the goals and the levels of passion. Teachers who have a strong sense of efficacy tend to exhibit a higher level of organizing and planning. Furthermore, they are more open to new ideas and more willing to try new methods to better meet the needs of students. Efficacy beliefs effects teachers' resistance to confrontation setbacks and their persistence for solution-oriented if things do not go right. High efficacy level enables them to be less critical when their student do error, to work more with challenging students and to be less prone to direct the student with learning difficulties to special education. (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

Hoy (2000) revealed that expertise experiences gained through years of training and education was at top of the most powerful effects in the development of teaching efficacy. Therefore, the first years of teaching play a critical role on long-term development of teaching efficacy. Hoy, based on the work of Bandura, explained other factors that would affect on the teacher's sense of efficacy in two groups: vicarious experiences (one teacher may observe effective practices of another teacher, thus they feel more aware of himself and can be more successful to reach students applying these), social persuasion (in the school environment, it can be form of feedback emphasizing the effective educational behaviors or laudatory speeches).

Numerous studies indicate that there is a close relationship between student achievement and teachers' knowledge, skills and practices (Guyton & Farokhi, 1987; Hawk, Coble & Swanson, 1985). Therefore, what teachers know and perform is of great importance on what students can learn (Darling-Hammond, 2002). Ross (1992) examined effect of teachers’ efficacy on student achievement (cognitive and academic skills) in his research with a group of seventh-and eighth-grade history teachers. After the application, it was observed that achievements of students was higher in classes whose teachers were more in contact with counselors who worked to develop teachers' efficacy and in which the students were more willing to participation in teaching event.

Increase of teacher' self-efficacy who live their early years in the profession is critically important for the student success in schools which especially need qualified, competent and confident educators (Elliott, Isaacs & Chugani, 2010). As stated by Goddard, Hoy & Hoy (2000), "To obtain and retain the most brilliant teachers is not enough, it is also required that these teachers should believe who successfully handle difficulties which may arise when pursuing their duties." Teacher candidates, who graduated with a low sense of efficacy, tend to have controlled routing, they’ve a pessimistic perspective towards student motivation, and they use the temporary rewards and punishments to make students study based on the solid-class regulations. Once engaged in the education of students, efficacy beliefs have also effect on behavior. Interns with high individual teacher efficacy, are evaluated in a more
positive way by the internship teacher on issues of lecturing, classroom management and behavioral inquiry (Saklofske, Michaluk, & Randhawa, 1988).

In the teaching process, the majority success or failure of teachers are based on their ability of instant decision-making with respect to the impact on students and managing classes. In order to be successful, the teacher should feel confident in point of capabilities such as reading and interpreting verbal or non-verbal communication of students, recognizing, reflecting and handling their own feelings, also helping students to overcome emotions and their experiences of classroom learning (Hoy, Hoy & Davis, 2009).

Social studies teachers, who work in the second stage of primary education, try to let the students gain various features through scientific knowledge and skills acquired the education they received. In order to make the students gain the specified knowledge, skills and values, it is required that social studies teachers are equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills about the quality and features of this field during their training in faculties of education. In this context, teacher candidates studying in the department of social studies education, take courses such as history, geography, psychology, philosophy, sociology and educational sciences (Demircioğlu, 2006). However, as a result of a four-year undergraduate education, do teacher candidates think to have qualifications required for the teaching profession? To use teaching skills more effectively, teachers need to have self-reliance, in other words they should have strong efficacy beliefs. Efficacy beliefs in a specific area of social studies teachers may not affect the other areas, those efficacy areas are: Organization and Planning of The Teaching Process, Teaching-Learning Process, Monitoring and Evaluation, Collaboration on School-Family and Community, Providing Professional Development. Teaching-Learning process area may be the most important of these areas because it is directly related to students. In this respect, this study was conducted for the purpose of putting forth about how they see themselves on the teaching-learning process related to the vocational fields of the teacher candidates studying social studies education section.

Sub-Competences related to Efficacy Area of Teaching-Learning Process

Sub-competences related to the Learning and Teaching process determined by taking of Studies Teacher Special Field Competences which were designated by Ministry of National Education into consideration. These include skills the knowledge of field and educating-teaching, method and regulation in order to make the teachers fulfill their duties effectively.

**Sub-competence 1,** To make students gain the consciousness of the protection and promotion of cultural heritage and basic elements and processes that constitute Turkish history and culture.

**Sub-competence 2,** To help students perceive the interaction of human, earth and environment.

**Sub-competence 3,** To get them comprehend the impact of economic activities and developments on societies.
**Sub-competence 4,** To make them gain the consciousness of understanding the democratic governance, and the people have responsibilities towards people, society and humanity because of their innate and acquired rights.

**Sub-competence 5,** To get them comprehend the importance of the basic principles that are based on Atatürk’s principles and reforms and the meaning of the Turkish revolution, and its effects on the society's political, social, cultural and economic areas developments.

**Sub-competence 6,** To be able to make practices which take students who need special education and special needs into account.

**Aim of the Study**

This study aims to evaluate social studies teacher candidates’ (SSTC) efficacy beliefs in relation to the teaching-learning process according to areas of sub-competences. The study addresses the following research questions:

1. How are the efficacy beliefs of social studies teacher candidates related to the teaching-learning process according to gender and education type variables?
2. How are the expectations of social studies teacher candidates about the learning-teaching process towards the teacher training program at the undergraduate level?

**Method**

**Research Model**

This study was carried out using the causal comparative research method. Because of the descriptive method generally used in educational research in order to learn about attitudes, beliefs and views of the selected group about a specific topic (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006) in this study, descriptive (survey) method was used as the basic research design. This study examines the beliefs levels and relationships between variables of gender, education type and correlations of sub-competences.

**Participants**

The number of ongoing students was 21849 in the department of Social Studies Education during the academic year of 2012–2013 in Turkey. The sample was selected by Purpose Sampling. Universities were selected that represents different regions of the country. During the 2012–2013 academic year, of all the 360 participants, 159 were female (44.2%) and 201 were male (55.8%) final year students in social studies education section at the faculties of education of the selected five universities (Çukurova University, Gazi University, Akdeniz University, Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University and Niğde University), located in the central and southern part of Turkey. according to education type, of the entire participant, 199 were (55.3%) in daytime education and 161 were (44.7%) in evening education.

**Instruments**

*Inventory of Social Studies Teacher Candidates' Efficacy Beliefs Regarding Teaching-Learning Process (ISSTCEBRTL):* The inventory –developed by researchers- was designed to determine actual candidates’ beliefs in accordance with competencies that are revealed by Turkish Ministry of National Education. The inventory consists of five sub-areas each of which has its own factors: These areas are described above. (For example, sub-competence area 1’s item: “I can make
students realize the change and continuity of basic elements of Turkish history and culture.”, sub-competence area 2’s item: “I can make students gain the skill of spatial perception.”, sub-competence area 3’s item: “I can make them to recognize the structure, features of the economy and the factors affecting the economy.”, sub-competence area 4’s item: “I can make them to comprehend the basic principles of democracy and democratic governance approach.”, sub-competence area 5’s item: “I can make them to comprehend the basic principles based on Atatürk's Principles by presenting the examples.”, sub-competence area 6’s item: “I can do the planning to ensure social development of students who need special education and special needs.”) The inventory consists of 46 items and 1-5 Likert rating scale. High marks taken from each sub-competence area indicate the presence of those candidates’ beliefs. In addition, there is a chapter attempting to measure candidates' desires towards their probable deficiencies in the last part of the scale. (For example, an open-ended item for qualitative data: “At the undergraduate level, to which subject or courses do you want to be given weight to find solutions for some deficiencies that you stated in items.”)

In the process of test construction, factors of test were generated based on experts' opinion and it was made foreground application. For the validity, factor analysis was administered. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was found .92 as ISSTCEBRTLp. The factor loads of the inventory changed from .44 to .72. As for the reliability, Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was found to be .94 as ISSTCEBRTLp.

**Data Analysis**

Quantitative and qualitative analysis were used for the analysis of the results. Descriptive statistics and comparison analysis were used for quantitative data analysis. The results were analyzed using the IBM SPSS 20.00. Quantitative data were analyzed using the independent sample t-test, Pearson correlation coefficient and descriptive statistics. Qualitative data were analyzed using the content analysis. Data obtained from two data sets were analyzed in comparison.

**Results**

1. How are the efficacy beliefs of social studies teacher candidates related to the teaching-learning process according to other variables?

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of the Sub-Competences Regarding Teaching-Learning Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Competences</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.688*</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.550*</td>
<td>.652*</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>.612*</td>
<td>.732*</td>
<td>.637*</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>.544*</td>
<td>.529*</td>
<td>.441*</td>
<td>.589*</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>.364*</td>
<td>.457*</td>
<td>.429*</td>
<td>.543*</td>
<td>.360*</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.01.**

796
Means and standard deviations are given as well as the correlation coefficients among areas of sub-competences for the teaching-learning process in Table 1. As seen in Table 1, there are good levels of beliefs in each area and positive correlations among all sub-competences. Looking at means, it was observed that positive beliefs at the highest level were in the fourth area while the lowest level in the sixth area. Looking at items one by one, candidates felt themselves most competent about this item: “I should be careful to be democratic and tolerant about my daily communications and teaching process (M=4.48)” and most incompetent items: “I can cooperate with relevant institutions and organizations by preparing projects in order to identification of fundamental rights and responsibilities (M=3.63)”, “I can guide my colleagues in the preparation of projects introducing and adopting democracy (M=3.64)”, “I can make students create ideas for the future and to produce solutions in cooperation with institutions and organizations towards problems encountered in interaction of human, place and environment (M=3.69)”.

As a result of analysis, it is seen that there was a highly significant positive relationship between fourth area of sub-competence (To make them gain the consciousness of understanding the democratic governance, and the people have responsibilities towards people, society and humanity because of their innate and acquired rights) and second area of sub-competence (To make students perceive the interaction of human, earth and environment), and there were medium level positive meaningful relationships among the other sub-competencies.

Considering the fact that areas of sub-competences related to teaching-learning process are supplementary each other, it was found that positive relationship appeared among these sub-competences that directly relate to each other, was regarded as an expected point.

Table 2. SSTC’ Mean Scores of Sub-Competence Areas according to Gender and t-test results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-Competences</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>32.21</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>1.913</td>
<td>.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>31.29</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>28.55</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>1.514</td>
<td>.131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>27.94</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>24.19</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>.793</td>
<td>.428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>23.93</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>50.22</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>2.804</td>
<td>.005*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>40.43</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>25.16</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>2.857</td>
<td>.005*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>23.94</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>27.98</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>2.319</td>
<td>.021*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>26.68</td>
<td>5.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>188.34</td>
<td>19.85</td>
<td>2.722</td>
<td>.007*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>201</td>
<td>182.23</td>
<td>22.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.05. M (Male), F (Female)
In comparing the sub-competences beliefs related to the teaching-learning process according to gender of SSTC, the results of the t test for independent samples (Table 2) were examined, it was observed that there was no statistically significant difference in dimensions of sub-competence 1, sub-competence 2 and sub-competence 3 according to gender variable.

It was observed that there was a statistically significant difference according to gender in the area of sub-competence 4 \([t(358)=2.804; p<.005]\). Looking at the arithmetic average scores, it was observed that the difference was in favor of female SSTC. This finding could be interpreted as the efficacy beliefs of female SSTC were more positive when compared with the male SSTC relating to the sub-competence 4.

It was observed that there was a statistically significant difference according to gender variable in the area of sub-competence 5 (To be able to get them comprehend the importance of the basic principles based on Atatürk’s principles and reforms with the meaning of the Turkish revolution, its effects on the development of the society's political, social, cultural and economic areas) \([t(358)=2.857; p<.005]\). Looking at the arithmetic average scores, it was observed that the difference was in favor of female SSTC. This finding could be interpreted as efficacy beliefs of female SSTC were more positive when compared with the male SSTC relating to the sub-competence 5.

It was observed that there was a statistically significant difference according to gender variable in the area of sub-competence 6 \([t(358)=2.319; p<.021]\). Looking at the arithmetic average scores, it was observed that the difference was in favor of female SSTC. This finding could be interpreted that efficacy beliefs of female SSTC were more positive when compared with the male SSTC relating to the sub-competence 6.

When sub-competence areas were examined in conjunction with all dimensions, it was observed that there was a statistically significant difference according to their gender in the sub-competences beliefs related to the teaching-learning process of SSTC \([t(358)=2.722; p<.007]\). Looking at the arithmetic average scores, it was observed that the difference was in favor of female SSTC. This finding could be interpreted that sub-competences beliefs related to the teaching-learning process of female SSTC were more positive than male SSTC.
In comparing the sub-competences beliefs related to the teaching-learning process according to education type of SSTC, the results of the t test for independent samples (Table 3) were examined. It was observed that there was a statistically significant difference according to education type in the area of sub-competence 1 \( [t(358)=2.163; p<.031^*] \). Looking at the arithmetic average scores, it was observed that the difference was in favor of SSTC studying in evening education. This finding could be interpreted as efficacy beliefs of SSTC studying in evening education were more positive than SSTC studying in daytime education relating to the sub-competence 1.

It was observed that there was a statistically significant difference according to education type in the area of sub-competence 2 \( [t(358)=2.005; p<.046^*] \). Looking at the arithmetic average scores, it was observed that the difference was in favor of SSTC studying in evening education. This finding could be interpreted as efficacy beliefs of SSTC studying in evening education were more positive than SSTC studying in daytime education relating to the sub-competence 2.

It was observed that there was no statistically significant difference in dimensions of sub-competence 3, sub-competence 4, sub-competence 5 and sub-competence 6 according to the education type variable.

When sub-competence areas were examined in conjunction with all dimensions, it was observed that there was a statistically significant difference according to their education type in the sub-competences beliefs related to the teaching-learning process of SSTC \( [t(302.95)=1.982; p<.048^*] \). Looking at the arithmetic average scores, it was observed that the difference was in favor of SSTC studying in evening education. This finding could be interpreted as sub-competences beliefs related to the teaching-learning process of SSTC studying in evening education was more positive than the SSTC studying in daytime education.
2. How are the expectations of social studies teacher candidates related to their deficiencies about the learning-teaching process towards the teacher training program at the undergraduate level?

At the end of the inventory about the teaching and learning process, study group was asked to write their expectations related to teacher training program that they received. 100 participants from study group were randomly selected for content analysis.

**Table 4. SSTC’ Expectations about the Teacher Training Program They Received (N=100)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>F(%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Related to the program</td>
<td>In the program, I want that practical courses should be given weight rather than theoretical courses.</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I would like that the Special Education course should be given weight and I want this course to be more application oriented.</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The educational science courses should be given weight such as Child Psychology, Developmental Psychology, Special education, Instructional Methods and Techniques, Counseling, Measurement and Evaluation.</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want the internship should be elevated to two or more years.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want the lessons include recent history issues.</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want the courses such as Elocution, Problem Solving, Communication and Empathy and Student recognition techniques be included in the program.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want the Communication courses more.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It should be explained how we can express ourselves and how we can understand the others in college.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>An opportunity should be provided to increase the number of elective courses and give a variety for them.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I think the core courses such as History and Geography should be given weight.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I would like to increase the amount of courses such as Citizenship, Turkish Culture, Law and Communication.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want to increase counseling services for students in college.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I would like to increase the amount of vocational knowledge courses as well as field courses.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want the new courses that include new technologies should be given place.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I think the International Relations course should be given.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I want the educational science course should be given specific to the field of social studies education.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 4, it is shown that modifications are expected by SSTC towards to the teacher training program in Social Studies section. According to the results of the content analysis, responses are concentrated on the first four items as shown above (66%). Social studies teacher candidates primarily complained about the presence of the theoretical course, in contrast they asked for more practice-oriented courses. Secondly,
they found themselves inadequate in the field of Special Education and want this course to be more application oriented. Thirdly they want the educational science courses such as Child Psychology, Developmental Psychology, Special education, Instructional Methods and Techniques, Counseling, Measurement and Evaluation must be given weight.

In fourth line, some of SSTC wanted the internship must be elevated to two or more years. Apart from these, they wanted some issues such as recent history, elocution, problem solving, communication, empathy and student recognition techniques must be included in courses (18%). Additionally, SSTC stated their expectations for some other matters as shown above (16%).

Discussion

Many researchers have examined the impact of self-efficacy on the profession of teaching from different perspectives. Looking at these researches, it is observed that researches regarding teacher efficacy have increased in recent years. The reason of addressing the teacher candidates' efficacy beliefs by many researchers is a direct effect to the teaching-learning process related to the profession efficacy beliefs. Teachers' efficacy beliefs affect both student achievement and their vocational success (Bandura, 1993; Guskey, 1988; Stein & Wang, 1988; Ross, 1992; Midgely, Feldlaufer & Eccles, 1989). Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs contribute significantly to students' academic achievement and job satisfaction (Caprara et al., 2006). Dönmez & Avcı (2012) showed that social studies teacher candidates seemed to trust themselves about being good models to their students, believe themselves sufficient about how they used strategies that could lead to positive change in the student’s character. Results of our study demonstrated that social studies teacher candidates had an upper-average efficacy beliefs regarding the teaching-learning process in all sub-competences (means=3.96-4.03-4.00-4.10-4.08-3.89) (Table 1). This result indicates that the social studies teacher candidates think that they can perform their profession in a good way. In other words, teacher candidates participating in the study see themselves adequate in teaching-learning process, and it shows that they trust in their knowledge and skills. However, the gathered findings from the qualitative dimension are supporting the opinion that the teacher training program they received is not sufficient for SSTC.

In this study, statistically significant difference was found according to gender. There was a statistically significant difference according to gender in the area of sub-competence 4, 5, 6 and in summed score in favor of female SSTC (Table 2). On the contrary, some studies showed that there was no significant difference between gender and self-efficacy (Akbaş & Çelikkaleli, 2006; Çakıroğlu, Çakıroğlu & Bone, 2005; Şahin-Taşkin & Hacıömeroğlu, 2010). Demirtaş et al. (2011) concluded that pre-service teachers had a positive attitude towards the profession and male candidates perceived themselves more competent than female candidates. However, efficacy beliefs related to the teaching-learning process of female SSTC was more positive to male SSTC in this study. The reason for this may be that earlier studies made in different branches. In social studies branch, teacher candidates find themselves more adequate. Demirtaş et al (2011) revealed that self-efficacy beliefs of pre-service teachers did not differentiate according to the variable of education type. On the contrary, it was observed in this study that efficacy beliefs of SSTC studying
in evening education were more positive than SSTC studying in daytime education. The higher belief levels on self-efficacy of female SSTC and SSTC in evening education can be explained as the female teacher candidates are diligent in comparison to male and the evening education students are zealous compared to the daytime education students, in general.

Teacher Practice course plays an important role in the development of teacher candidates' efficacy beliefs. Hoy (2000) also emphasized the importance of vicarious experiences on teacher efficacy; it was consistent with qualitative findings of the study. SSTC asked for more practice-oriented courses and wanted that internship must be elevated to two or more years. The reason for this may be that teaching profession is implementation oriented by its very nature.

According to the qualitative findings, SSTC felt inadequate on special education at most. This finding was parallel to the previous research results. Some studies showed that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs were affected by their students' disability, there was a relationship between the increase in academic achievement of students with learning difficulties and the increase of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs; teachers could develop a sense of inadequacy when they felt that they could not solve the problems of students' disability (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Schachar & Schmuelivitz, 1997; Dembo & Gibson, 1985).

Teacher candidates' efficacy beliefs towards their profession have great influence on their teaching abilities. Before becoming experienced in the profession, providing effective learning experiences to their students is usually effective. In addition to other branches of teaching, social studies teaching may be the most often associated field with individual psychology due to the its structure. Social Studies teacher candidates' higher efficacy beliefs associated with their profession on teaching-learning process may mean that they will perform their profession better. Even if SSTC had high efficacy beliefs, they would like to make several modifications towards the teacher training program they received. When selecting courses for social studies education sections, the qualitative results of this research will be useful in particular.
Reference


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Tropical Summer School Experience: Gleaning EFL Students' Responses

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Abstract
Learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) might be a daunting experience especially if it were to take place in a foreign land comprising of speakers from diverse cultures and backgrounds. This paper thus aims to describe the responses of participants for a Summer School Programme at a tropical university in Asia. The respondents were non-native speakers of English but of Asian origin. Data were collected using closed and open-ended questions in a set of questionnaire. Forty respondents took part in the study. The obtained quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistic while qualitative data employed thematic analysis. The findings revealed that the respondents responded positively towards the Summer School Programme in relation to course contents, venue of the class, textbook and teaching and learning materials used as well as classroom facilities and accommodation. In contrast, regarding the trips and visits, a mixed response was obtained. Data emerging from thematic analysis also revealed that the Summer School programme had given the students an opportunity to use more English Language pertaining to listening and speaking skills. Apart from this, they had also gained experience in terms of better intercultural relationship and increased their confidence level in using English as a form of communication. This programme had become an eye-opener to its participants on the importance of using English and had enriched their experiences in their language learning. The paper concludes with proposed future improvements of the programme.

Keywords: English, Summer School, Oral Communication, Education, EFL

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Introduction
As the oldest technical university in Malaysia, Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) has a lot of to offer in terms of science and technology. It has produced number of graduates in various disciplines, especially engineering and science and many of them are now working worldwide. UTM is a place to fulfil students’ aspirations in which these students share the same goals and they would like to excel in their own field regardless of the country they come from. As part of UTM, the Language Academy helps to realize the aspirations of these students. Thus, the Summer School Project was created in the effort to bridge students from various nationalities. Starting 2014, with the support of UTM International Office and in collaboration with a Japanese University, the Language Academy began its new Summer School Programme.

Among the objectives of this programme are as follows: (1) to provide English Communication Skills Practice for undergraduates with emphasis on science and technology; (2) to develop confidence and ability to speak discipline-related matters in English; (3) to conduct and participate in groups discussing related science and technology issues in English; (4) to develop their ability to deliver an oral presentation in English. Thus, the aim of this paper is to share the participants’ general responses towards a Summer School Programme at a tropical university in Asia namely, UTM.

Literature Review
The concept of Summer School is originated from its definition itself. Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary (2015) defines a summer school as:
“a school or school session conducted in summer enabling students to accelerate progress toward a diploma or degree, to make up credits lost through absence or failure, or to round out professional education.”

Nevertheless, for language learning purposes, it can be defined as, “special classes that are taught at a school during the summer” (Merriam-Webster Online Learners’ Dictionary, 2015).

In this paper, the Summer School concept is defined as a special class that is taught during a specific duration for the intended English as Foreign Language (EFL) speakers.

Learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) might be a daunting experience especially if it were to take place in a foreign land comprising of speakers from diverse cultures and backgrounds. It is fundamental for learners to be given a chance to experience a supportive learning environment in which they could nurture their language abilities to the fullest potential. Bearing this in mind, Vygotsky’s zone of proximal development (ZPD) involving the scaffolding process (Verinikina, 2003; 2008) is necessary in harnessing the language ability of the leaners until they are confident to display their language ability. In this situation, it is a negotiation taking place between the learner and a more advanced language user complement the goals of the learning (Richard, 2002). Furthermore, Richard (2002) also points out that the learners must also possess the necessity to be open to social interaction that is going to take place and to have the right attitudes towards the target language and also other users of it.
Richard (2002) highlights that in order for English as a Second Language (ESL) learning to occur, the learners must be equipped with the following elements: (1) a comprehensible input in the target language; (2) a supportive interactive environment; (3) an environment which provides support for learners to negotiate meaning in L2 with the help from teachers and from the others; (4) an environment which provides opportunities for communicative interaction with others; (5) a purposeful and meaningful conversation and tasks for the learners; (6) a safe environment for learners to express themselves.

ESL / EFL language learning scholars have identified several factors that affect language learning. These are intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Among intrinsic factors as highlighted by Malaysian Institute for Teacher Training or known as Institut Pendidikan Guru (2011) are “age of the learner, personality, motivation, experiences, cognition abilities and his native language” (p.11). On the other hand, some examples of extrinsic factors involve, “mode of instruction, and the opportunity to interact with native speakers both within and outside the classroom” (Institut Pendidikan Guru, 2011, p.11).

Numerous studies have also been conducted in language learning motivation scholars such as Dornyei (1998), Csizer and Dornyei (2005), to name a few. Prasangani (2015) also found a significant relationship between learner selves and motivated learning among undergraduates of Sri Lankan which identified L2 learning is also driven from one’s personal’s goals. Bahous (2015) discusses several issues in motivation in language learning among which are: (1) clarity and purpose and motivation; (2) positive learning experiences and motivation; (3) attitude, anxiety and motivation; (4) interactive communicative methods and motivation; (5) impact of teaching strategies and motivation; and she suggested that scaffolding is necessary for the learners especially for non-existence communication in the target language.

Having this in mind, one of the tasks that language teachers or instructors is to come up with suitable tasks for their target audience. These tasks are related to Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Communicative Language Approach. Some of the principles of Communicative Language Approach are as follows (Institut Pendidikan Guru, 2011):
(1) The target language is used for communication purposes; (2) errors are tolerated; (3) teaching is more learner-centred; (4) one of teacher’s major responsibilities is to promote communication; (5) communicative interaction encourages cooperative relationships among students. (p. 85)

Drawing from Communicative Language Approach which is being applied in CLT (Richard, 2006), task-based learning (TBL) is considered to play an important role for language learning and providing momentum to the teachers and learners. The TBL aims to integrate all the four skills namely, reading, writing, listening, and speaking and escalates from fluency to accuracy plus fluency (Institut Pendidikan Guru, 2011; Richard, 2006). It has the goal to provide a natural context for using the language and in this matter classroom activity is considered as the task and the target language has to be used in order to complete the task. This task is an activity which reflects real life such as problem solving, playing games, sharing information or experiences and many others (Institut Pendidikan Guru, 2011; Richard, 2006). Hismanoglu and Hismanoglu
(2011) reported that EFL has been drawn to task-based approach since 1980s due to its view towards the language as a communicative tool as well as being learner-centred.

Overall, the above literature provides the fundamental in staging the programme to take place.

**Methodology**

The respondents of the study were non-native speakers of English and they were all Asians. There were 40 of them involved in the study. Their age range was between 20 and 23 years old. All of them belonged to a university in Japan pursuing a Degree programme in engineering or science.

In gathering the data, a mixed-method approach was employed. A set of questionnaire was employed in collecting the data. It comprised two parts namely, close-ended and open-ended. There were eight sections available in the questionnaire.

Quantitative data obtained were analysed using descriptive statistic namely, frequency and percentages while qualitative data employed thematic analysis. These will be presented and discussed in the Findings and Discussion section, later.

**Findings and Discussion**

The study has revealed some important findings. In general, the findings from the close-ended questions indicated that the respondents gave positive feedback towards the overall programme in which all the items were rated more than 50 percent.

The course contents obtained 90 percent while the lecturers and buddies had percentages ranging from 90 to 100 percent. This was the good side of the programme in which the contents were very well-liked by the learners as well as the lecturers and the buddies, who were comprised from UTM students.

Accommodation obtained slightly lower percentage which was 73 percent, followed by venue of the class (68 percent), textbook (60 percent) and classroom facilities (58 percent). These few items were the items that the host lecturers had little control over them. For instance, if the learners did not like the textbook as their learning materials, the host lecturers could not help it because the textbook was determined by the learners’ own university.

In terms of activities, namely trips/excursions and in-campus visits, the students had a mixture of responses. Though majority of them liked the visits, a few did not like them. It was probably due to the learners’ personal background.

The findings from the open-ended questions, revealed 4 main themes namely: (1) Opportunity to use more English; (2) Increase in confidence level in using English; (3) An eye-opener to the participants on the importance of using English; (4) Better experience in terms of intercultural relationship.

With regard to the opportunity to use more English pertaining to listening and speaking skills, some participants voiced out that:
“I think it was good that my speaking skills became good. I was afraid that I talked in English so far, and it was able to be improved by having come to Malaysia. I want to come to Malaysia again.”

Here, the learners felt very happy because they were able to overcome the barriers of being frightened to speak in L2. The joy of speaking was heightened by the buddies who were always willing to help them in using the language. This was depicted earlier in the literature where the learners emerged from the “not known” zone to the “known” zone in Vygotsky’s ZPD. The UTM buddies as the more advanced language users had scaffolded the Japanese English language learners in bringing out the learners’ language potential.

The following excerpt also portrays this situation:

“In conversation with UTM students, when I couldn’t understand what they said, they spoke slowly. So, it was help for me practice of English. It was great experience in this 2 weeks.”

Hence, the buddies play an important role in helping the EFL learners in overcoming the fear of using the target language.

In relation to the increase in confidence level in using English of the learners as a form of communication, the following depicts their responses:

“There are a lot of chances for practicing English in this course. And UTM students will be friend, also they are kind. So, you can enjoy and improve English…”

and also reflected in this,

“In UTM, I learned English that will be useful in the future. Also, I learned how to do my presentation. At first, I didn’t like to do it. But, as I study how to do my presentation and do it many times, I became used to it. So now, I’m not nervous when I do my presentation. I could gain my confidence.”

In learning the target language, learners will be able to study and grasp mastery of the language if they are given a supportive environment. This has been supported by Dornyei and Csizer (1998) and also in more recent studies such as carried out by Gilakjani et al. (2012) who outlined three levels of motivation which include: (1) finding learners’ passion; (2) changing learners’ reality; (3) connecting to learning activities.

The programme has connected with the leaners’ passion in learning the language. By providing ample opportunities to learners to practice their L2, it also increases their confidence level to the extent that they are able to do it independently at the end of the learning period.

Furthermore, as the programme being an eye-opener to the participants on the importance of using English and enriched their experience in their language learning in which the following portrays their responses:
“I think it’s awesome. Because everything was new to me. There were many opportunities which I had never do before. For example, we have to speak English in front of everybody and communicate with UTM students. I could not speak English because I was shy and afraid of using English. But, due to give me many opportunities, I become of wanting to use English.”

“This course is very interesting for me. I wanted to learn more English here.”

“I grow up (improve) English skill, communication skill by joining this programme. And, I could make new friends in UTM. So, I want other students to know it.”

Supportive learning environment provides an avenue to the learners to improve their English language skills. In interacting with the instructors and fellow buddies, they were not scolded because of making mistakes in which the approach of CLT is emphasized. Hence, they would feel comfortable and as their confidence level escalated, more new vocabulary and longer sentences became visible in the production of the language.

Finally, the qualitative data pointing to better experience in terms of intercultural relationship had responses as portrayed in the following responses:

“I want to stay here more. My best experience in UTM is culture sharing session and trip to Tanjung Piai with UTM students. In these events, we can know each cultures easily and pleasantly.”

“Culture sharing session with UTM students because we could know each other and we could learn about English and Malaysia.”

“Exchanging culture and I could make friend with students in UTM.”

The above excerpts show that by sharing each one’s culture promotes the richness and uniqueness of each national culture of the learners, and thus, respecting each other, which is the important value instilled among learners. Furthermore, this sharing was done in L2 and not in the mother tongue of the learners. Hence, sharing one’s culture does not limit one to the native language of the participants/learners.

**Recommendation of This Programme to Others**

Data from quantitative has shown that the programme was favourable to all participants and they liked the programme very much where all of them (100 percent) said that they would recommend it to other students. This indicated that they had gained valuable experience throughout their learning process at UTM and that a few pointed out their regrets for not joining earlier as stated by a participant who pointed out that “if I had known the benefits of this programme, I would have joined it during my first year…” . This was indicated since about 50 percent of the participants were in their final year of studies. Thus, the programme has been fruitful to the learners in meeting their personal aspirations in learning the target language.
Conclusion And Recommendations

Conclusion

In general, the course was a beneficial course to improve learners’ communication skills. Theoretical underpinning the teaching methodology employed by the instructors has enabled the learners to carry out the given tasks such as to practice their speaking skills through in-class presentations, group discussions as well as talking to buddies and other UTM communities. Furthermore, having undergone this programme, the learners also realized the importance of English. They were also able to improve their confidence level in using English and eliminate their shyness while using the language. In terms of intercultural relationship, the course was also able to expose the students/learners to a new culture and respect each other both from Japanese and Malaysian students’ perspectives.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following are the recommendations for future improvement of the programme:

1. Revise course materials from time to time to meet the learners’ needs.
2. Improve condition of the classroom.
3. Train the buddies (TTB) for future purposes.
4. Omit places that are not likeable to the learners.
References


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Abstract
This paper focuses on the qualities and characteristics of Chinese university students’ favorite and least favorite professors. The paper looks to answer the question: What qualities and personal characteristics do favorite and least favorite professors have and how does that affect Chinese university students? In surveying over 280 students from 3 different universities, 226 surveys were completed and analyzed. The research found that Chinese students favored professors who are entertaining, who help them learn more and who provide them with helpful feedback on their assignments. Students do not favor professors who are boring, arrogant and do not provide helpful feedback or help them learn more. Since many studies showed that students were motivated by their relationship with their teachers, it is important for universities to find professors who are not only experts in the field, but also engaging and personable. It is also important for current professors to develop relationships with their students in order to enhance students’ learning experiences.

Keywords: teacher quality, motivation, characteristics of teachers, favorite professors, least favorite professors, professor traits, teacher impact
Introduction

Education in China has long been held in high regard. Stemming from a Confucian worldview, teachers have traditionally been honored in Chinese society and students have studied in order to meet the rigorous requirements of different examination systems throughout history (Hayhoe, 1984). The Confucian worldview places importance on a hierarchical form of obedience in which students are submissive to teachers as children would be submissive to parents. It also places morality and memorization as the cornerstones of learning. In the past, students who were able to memorize the classics and carry themselves with a high standard of moral uprightness were granted high places in government offices (Lee, 1985). Beginning in the mid 19th century, China began to experience a variety of tumultuous changes that drastically influenced its education system. The influx of foreign powers, the instability of the Chinese government and the Communist revolution led to multiple reforms in Chinese education that have impacted how students in China learn today.

Among the most influential changes in Chinese education in the past 150 years has taken place during what is now being called the reform era. This was the time period from 1979 until the present day. The reform era was initiated by Deng Xiaoping and has been characterized by modernization, globalization and economic reform. Education in the reform era has gone through many changes in its own regard, but has generally been known for its emphasis on competition (Parker & Parker, 1986). Students compete against one another in their performance on the all important Gaokao, the standardized test taken at the end of a students’ high school career. How well one does on the Gaokao determines what schools one will be accepted into and what direction one’s life will take.

Teachers in China have traditionally been trained to teach to the test; to help students memorize the information that is needed to do well on what will be the most important test of their lives. Recently however, research has indicated that rote memorization and standardized testing may not be the all-encompassing indicator of a productive or successful individual (Zhao & Ting, 2013). Although Chinese students rank high in standardized test scores when compared to the rest of the world (Al Jazeera, 2013), their perceived ability to innovate and think creatively is lacking. This is seen in China’s Ministry of Education’s desire to improve critical thinking skills (Ministry of Education, 2001). The traditional Chinese “virtuoso” teacher (Paine, 1990), a teacher with a vast knowledge base who teaches students to recite what he knows, is becoming less relevant in an increasingly globalized China.

As education in China changes, so does the concept of good teaching. Tam, Heng and Jiang (2009) noted that Chinese official policy have pushed toward a jiaoren (to teach the people) view of teaching and away from a jiaoshu (to teach books) view. Although some teachers and professors still hold to a more traditional view of what good teaching ought to be (Walsh & Maffei, 1994), there is a notable move towards student centered teaching. Much of the western world, countries without a Confucian worldview, has embraced a more student centered way of teaching that seems to correlate with higher levels of critical thinking skills (Socha & Sigler, 2012). In these countries, teachers are finding ways to aid students in their learning by providing motivation that goes beyond a grade.
Primary Research Question
The purpose of this study is to examine university student perceptions of teacher quality in contemporary China. What are Chinese students' perceptions of their teachers and how do these perceptions affect Chinese students? In this study, teacher quality is defined as the teacher’s “personality traits that help to build strong rapport with students,” knowledge about subject content, curriculum, instruction, and professional skills (Tam, Heng, & Jiang, 2009). Specifically, the study aims to learn what characteristics university students like in a teacher, what characteristics they do not like and how this might affect these students’ academic performance.

Other research questions to consider
The study also aims to know the reasons behind the preferences students have and if professor characteristics influence the academic performance of the students. Do students work harder for professors they like? Do they learn more in their favorite professor’s classes? What is the significance of student and teacher relationships? What do Chinese university students value in their professors? A study done by Tam, Heng and Jiang (2009) suggested that students in contemporary China are seeking not only a transformation of the mind, but also of the heart. Therefore, Tam, Heng and Jiang (2009) argued that the importance of relationship and affective teaching in China has been raised to “another level”. This study will explore student-faculty relationships and determine if these relationships are as important as Tam, Hen, and Jiang (2009) make them out to be.

This study is relevant to university human resources departments, professors, teachers and lecturers in China because it shows what Chinese students are looking for in teachers. Because of globalization, it is also relevant to university human resources departments, professors, teachers and lecturers in other nations as well. This study is relevant to those who wish to know the characteristics of favorite professors in China for the sake of research or other academic purposes. Those who want to, or currently live, work or teach in a cross-cultural context may also find this study interesting because it’s a glimpse into what cross-cultural students think about and prefer.

Literature Review

Student Motivation. Student motivation is one of the most powerful determining factors of student success in the classroom (Dorneyi, 1994, 2000; Jung, 2011; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Williams, 1994). It greatly influences student involvement and achievement (Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009). When students are not motivated, they fail to grasp the concepts being taught. This is reflected in their grades and feedback from their instructors (Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp-Lyons, 2004). There are many kinds of motivation and ways to motivate students. In this study, motivation will be categorized into two types, namely extrinsic and intrinsic. The study will primarily deal with intrinsic motivation and how teachers play a role in intrinsically motivating students. Teachers also provide extrinsic rewards such as grades or special days for turning in assignments or good behavior, which is worth examining briefly for the purposes of the research. An understanding of how students perceive teachers’ motivational styles is imperative when evaluating the quality of a teacher.

Extrinsic Motivation. Extrinsic motivation can be defined as the energy and desire one directs towards a certain task; it is fueled by the possibility of external gains such as money, good grades, rewards, praise, and so on (Brown, 2007; Rugutt & Chemosit,
Extrinsic motivation is also fueled by the avoidance of punishment (Brown, 2007). Many students are motivated extrinsically through grades, praise from their instructors, and the prospect of securing a good job in the future (Pratt, Agnello, & Santos, 2009; Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009). Extrinsic motivation helps to push students toward a goal when there is a loss of intrinsic motivation. A study by Pratt et al. (2009) found that the strongest motivator among Spanish language students to continue taking Spanish classes was grades. Students who received high marks persisted in studying the language because they thought it would be relevant for their future and they felt competent in the task of learning Spanish (Pratt et al., 2009).

Another extrinsic motivator, which may also be categorized as intrinsic, is personal relationships. Students are motivated by the relationships they have with other students and faculty (Pratt et al., 2009; Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009). It is possible to determine whether a relationship represents an intrinsic or extrinsic motivation by asking the following questions: Do students achieve for the sake of gaining positive relationships, or do the positive relationships intrinsically motivate them to achieve? Do positive relationships correlate with academic success and learning? Relationships as a motivation to achieve are important to the findings of this study.

**Intrinsic Motivation.** Intrinsic motivation represents the energy and desire directed toward a particular task; it is fueled by an innate sense of satisfaction (Brown, 2007; Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009). Of course, intrinsic motivation is often stronger than the extrinsic motivation mentioned in this study. Intrinsic motivation does not require a reward or a punishment; rather, it involves innate desire. Students who desire to learn have a high aptitude for a certain subject, adequate prior knowledge of a certain field of study, strong attention skills, and strong critical thinking skills; based on such intrinsic motivators, they also have a statistically greater chance of academic success (Rugutt & Chemositt, 2009; Socha & Sigler, 2012). This makes academic choice an important factor in motivating students. When students have options related to what they can study, they choose fields that suit their interests. This adds intrinsic motivational force to their chance of academic success.
Teachers and Students

The interaction between teachers and students has a noticeable effect on students’ motivations, attitudes, and success (Micari & Pazos, 2012). In more difficult university courses, students may have less peer support and must rely on the relationships they have with their professor (Micari & Pazos, 2012). However, the impact of student–teacher interaction stretches beyond difficult courses. Greater and more positive student–teacher interaction results in more engaged students and a higher academic self-concept (Komarraju, Musulkin, & Bhattacharya, 2010; Micari & Pazos, 2012; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005). When considering this interaction, it is important to take into account the relationships that teachers develop with their students and the effects these relationships have.

Teachers’ relationships with students. Relationships are significant in all spheres of life. How we interact with others has consequences that influence the behaviors and outcomes of ourselves and others. Academia is no different. In the context of an organic chemistry course, a study by Micari and Pazos (2012) showed that students who felt they had a positive relationship with their professor scored higher in the course than those who felt they did not have a positive relationship. In the study, Micari and Pazos (2012) defined a positive relationship as “looking up to the professor, feeling comfortable approaching the professor, and feeling that the professor respects the students.” In other words, according to Micari and Pazos (2012), positive influence yields positive results. Another study by Estepp and Roberts (2013) also showed an interesting relationship between teachers and students. In terms of teacher–student rapport, Estepp and Roberts (2013) found a positive relationship between such a rapport and student expectancy for success. Students who have good relationships with their professors tend to think they will succeed in class. However, the quality of the teacher–student relationship does not rest solely on the efforts of the professor; rather, students must also make effort to create the best opportunity for success.

Teachers’ influence on student motivation. Studies have shown that an emphasis on student–faculty interaction, encouraging students, providing positive feedback to students, developing personal connections with students, and cultivating a positive environment in the classroom all strongly affect student motivation (Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009; Hardre, 2012; Hardre, Sullivan, & Crowson, 2009; Tam, Heng, & Jiang, 2009). Positive teacher interactions with students are a statistically significant predictor of student motivation, thereby influencing positive academic change (Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009). A teacher’s role in the motivation of a student is to identify why students are unmotivated and create effective strategies to motivate them. Some students need to know the relevancy of what is being taught, some need the subject matter to be interesting and others need to have a genuine personal connection with their teacher (Hardre, 2012; Hardre & Sullivan, 2009). One study showed that uninteresting classes and lack of will to study discouraged students from learning (Jung, 2011). Another found that overarching themes of caring and high expectations motivated at-risk adolescent students to graduate from high school (Rowan, 2013). Students need teachers who are genuinely interested in them as people, not just pupils.
Teacher Qualities

The personal and professional qualities and characteristics of teachers influence the motivation and output of students at all school levels (Gennerman, 2009; Liu & Meng, 2000; Miller, 1987; Reynolds & Tedlie, 2000). Teachers who have positive social, professional, and organizational qualities tend to have students that are more likely to be motivated and produce quality learning outcomes (Buchanan, 2007; Liu & Meng, 2009; Miller, 1987; Reynolds & Tedlie, 2000; Tam et al., 2009). When teachers are unorganized, unprofessional, apathetic, and boring, student learning outcomes and motivation are negatively affected (Foote, Vermette, Wisniewski, Agnello, & Pagano, 2000; Strickland, 1998). It is important to consider the personal and professional qualities of a teacher in light of the motivation and learning outcomes of students.

Characteristics of great teachers. Great teaching is instruction communicated to students that is effectively processed by students and applied to their studies and life. According to students in a study by Miller (1987), great teachers have contagious enthusiasm, time for student questions and comments, control of the classroom pace, and competency in their chosen field. Great teachers are humorous, encouraging, patient, caring, creative, and challenging (Miller, 1987). Effective teaching processes include time management, classroom organization (preparing lessons in advance), explaining the purpose and structure of the lesson, using effective teaching practices, and adapting practices to different sets of learners (Liu & Meng, 2009; Reynolds & Tedlie, 2000). Great teachers put forth a persistent effort to see students achieve and want to grow in their own profession as well (Gennerman, 2009). A 2009 study by Gennerman found that great teachers share both internal and external characteristics. The internal characteristics include a strong view of self, a positive view of others and the work of teaching, use of humor in the classroom, desire to learn continuously, and commitment to giving students what they need (Gennerman, 2009). The external characteristics that Gennerman (2009) found to be evident in great teachers were as follows: working in a risk-taking environment, using research-based practices, having a strong connection with students, and working together with colleagues and administration. In other studies, students’ views support Gennerman’s (2009) findings; they reported that they want teachers to have a strong connection with their students, to be humorous in class, and to be positive (Buchanan, 2007; Liu & Meng, 2009; Miller, 1987; Reynolds & Tedlie, 2000; Tam et al., 2009).

In contrast, poor teaching is instruction that is ineffectively communicated by the instructor and cannot be applied to students’ studies or life. Weak teachers do not have adequate knowledge of the subject they are teaching, have poor classroom control, act unprofessionally, focus on inappropriate teaching goals or have no goals at all, and emphasize methods rather than students (Foote et al., 2000; Strickland, 1998). Poor teachers make students dislike the subject matter by making it seem boring or irrelevant (Foote et al., 2000). One obvious characteristic that weak teachers share is inconsistency (Foote et al., 2000; Strickland, 1998). They may be too strict at times and too lenient at other times. Some are temperamental and have little self-control when displaying their displeasure with students. Poor teachers do not work well with their colleagues and administration and are found to be lazy (Foote et al., 2000). Many of the characteristics of great teachers are the opposite of those of poor teachers.
**Student perceptions of teachers.** How students perceive and interact with teachers has an effect on how they perform (Buchanan, 2007; Hardre, 2012; Hardre & Sullivan, 2009; Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009; Tam et al., 2009). Research has shown that Chinese undergraduate students want teachers who are enthusiastic about their class, have a sense of humor, are competent, show a certain degree of expertise, are caring, are entertaining, use different teaching methods, are able to communicate effectively, are fair and approachable, are able to make students feel smart, are organized, use relevant material, lead lively discussions, and encourage students to be creative (Levy & Peters, 2002; Mu, 2002; Tam et al., 2009). Mu (2002) classified qualities of a good teacher into three categories, namely personality, competence, and delivery. Medical students in Mu’s (2002) study reported that their favorite teachers were those who possessed these qualities. Although some of these attributes are congruent with the traditional view of a Chinese teacher, many have been influenced by reform and globalization. Chinese undergraduate students in the 21st century have the world at their fingertips. Because of the internet, different social and political ideologies are a finger click away. They exercise a greater amount of freedom than their parents and have not experienced major social or political commotion in their lifetime (Tam et al., 2009). These factors, among others, influence what Chinese undergraduate students want from their professors. Students want teachers who are competent and knowledgeable, genuinely interested in the subject, and challenge their thinking. Students want a close relationship with their teacher (Buchanan, 2007).

In contrast, students do not want teachers and professors who are arrogant, selfish, and teach directly from the book (Buchanan, 2007; Hardre, 2012; Hardre & Sullivan, 2009, National Public Radio [NPR], 1977). They want to be interested in the subject they are studying, and they want their teachers to make the subject interesting.

**Methodology**

**Sampling**

This study used convenience sampling and purposive sampling, similar to the sampling employed by Tam et al. (2009). Surveys were sent out to three different universities in Shanghai, and Chinese students ages 18–36 were recruited as participants. The purpose of the research was to survey students who had completed at least one year of university, as they would be more familiar with what they preferred in a professor’s attributes. Both male and female students were surveyed, and the participants were primarily English majors or needed to have a strong command of the English language because the survey was written in English.

**Approach**

In order to have a strong English base, students in a few English elective courses and on the campus of a medical university were surveyed. Classroom access was gained through colleagues at a university in Shanghai. At the medical university, participants were found in high traffic areas of the campus. The total number of surveys distributed was 279. Only 226 surveys were completed thoroughly enough to provide significant information. Therefore, the total number of participants used in this study was N=226. Data were collected from January to March 2014.
Instrument
Participants were asked about their age, gender, major, average grade point average (GPA), home province, and year of school. They were then asked to identify the ethnicity of their favorite teacher and their least favorite teacher, the subjects they taught, and three qualities to describe each of the two teachers. A five-point Likert scale was then employed to determine whether students completely disagreed or completely agreed with a set of 10 statements about their favorite professor and their least favorite professor. The first five statements were about professor characteristics: expertise, caring, entertaining, high expectations, and good lecturing ability. The next five statements focused on student feelings in the class: feeling smarter, learning more, feeling respected, receiving helpful feedback, and trying harder. The final question was open ended and asked students to finish the statement taken from the survey by Tam et al. in their 2009 study: “I wish my university professor would…” Student identity remained anonymous and the information provided was given voluntarily. Similar to Tam et al. (2009), the qualitative data collected were analyzed, coded, and categorized according to similar words, phrases, and sentences.

Demographics
Teacher quality is essential for the educational growth and development of students (Korur & Eryilmaz, 2012; Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009). To determine teacher quality, one must look at the product the teacher is generating. Are teachers motivating their students to learn? Are they competent in the subject matter they are teaching? Can students depend on their teachers to transfer valuable skills and information to them? The best way to examine the quality of a teacher is to question the students they teach (Tam et al., 2009). As stated previously, this study surveyed 226 students from universities in Shanghai in order to identify the qualities of good teachers and assess how students respond to what they consider good teachers.

Age of Participants
The initial age breakdown of students surveyed is as follows: The youngest student surveyed was 18 years old and the oldest was 36 years old at the time of the survey. The range of ages spanned 18 years. The mean age of students surveyed was 21.5 years (SD=2.8). The median age of students surveyed was 20.5 years. The mode age of students surveyed was 20 years.

Gender of Participants
Of the students surveyed, 55% (119) were male and 45% (97) were female. Ten respondents did not answer the question on the survey. In 2009, the ratio between males to females in Shanghai was 103–107 males to every 100 females (Caguioa, 2010), and between 50.3% and 51.9% of college admissions in China were female in 2013 (Xinhuanet.com, 2013). The data collected slightly exceeded the normal population distribution as reported by Caguioa (2010). It was also off by approximately 5% in relation to the male to female ratio among students in Chinese universities.

Household Income of Participants
The Chinese national monthly income is 2,600 RMB; however, Shanghai has a higher average monthly income, at 3,200 RMB (NY Times, 2013). The vast majority of student households earned above the national average of 2,600 RMB per month. In fact, they earned more than double the national average. Only 16% (30) participants
earned similar to or less than the national average. Exactly 84% (152) of participants earned more than the national monthly average, while 51% of participants earned more than double the national monthly average. The average monthly income in China varies greatly depending on location (rural or urban, coastal or inland) and educational background (Gaokao, college graduates).

**Participants’ Majors**

Because of the variety of majors, this demographic was broken down into seven categories. Participants were categorized as medical, humanities/communications, engineering/technology, language, life/physical sciences, math, or economics/business majors. The medical major category ranged from nursing to pre-med students and included medical fields such as surgery and gynecology. Humanities included law, art history, and philosophy. Language majors (of which there were only 10; 5% of the sample) were studying Chinese language, English, and teaching Chinese to speakers of other languages. Life and physical science majors included biology, physics, chemistry, and anatomy. Math and economics/business majors are self-explanatory. Of the 226 students surveyed, 28 (12%) left the question of college major blank, which left the participant pool at N=198. Most of the students were majoring in the fields of technology/engineering (33%) and medicine (29%). As stated above, only 5% of participants studied a language. However, the lowest percentages were found in economics/business and math; only 8% of participants majored in either math or economics/business. In 2010–2011, the most popular major among American postsecondary students was business. A different was evident in the students I surveyed. Most of the participants were science majors.

**Data Analysis**

The following data will give a basic analysis of what undergraduate college students in Shanghai think of their favorite and least favorite teachers. The primary type of analysis I used for these data were frequency tables and descriptive statistics. The goal during analysis was to determine the qualities of students’ favorite teachers and least favorite teachers and identify attributes that favorite teachers have in common with one another and that least favorite teachers have in common with one another. Frequency tables show how common answers were distributed among survey participants.

**Favorite Professors**

The first five items related to characteristics of favorite professors and the next five related to how favorite professors made students feel. The first five items were as follows: “My favorite professor is an expert in his/her field,” “My favorite professor cares about students,” “My favorite professor is entertaining,” “My favorite professor has high expectations of his/her students,” and “My favorite professor is a strong lecturer.” As shown in Figure 1, students indicated greatest agreement concerning three characteristics of favorite teachers, namely expertise (85%), being entertaining (84%), and caring (83%).
Figure 1. The percentage of participants in agreement or complete agreement with each of the five statements about characteristics of favorite professors ($N=226$).

The next five statements concerning favorite professors were directed at how the professors made the student feel and act. These statements were as follows: “As a student, I feel smarter in my favorite professor’s class,” “I learn more in my favorite professor’s class,” “I feel respected by my favorite professor,” “I receive helpful feedback from my favorite professor,” and “I try harder for my favorite professor.” As shown in Figure 2, students indicated greatest agreement with three effects on students, as follows: feeling respected (82%), learning more (79%), and receiving helpful feedback (78%).
Figure 2. Bar graph showing the percentage of participants in agreement or complete agreement with each of the five statements about favorite professors’ effects on students ($N=226$).

**Linear correlations for respondents’ favorite professor.** When running linear correlations, the data for favorite professors revealed significance between what students thought about the characteristics of their favorite professors and how they were affected by these characteristics.
Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of How Participants Think and Feel about Their Favorite Professors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Quality</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expert in the Field</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>(0.99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cares about Students</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>(0.98)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertaining</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>(1.04)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has High Expectations</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>(0.99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Lecturer</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>(1.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor’s Effect on</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Feeling Smarter</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>(1.02)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn More</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>(1.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feel Respected</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>(1.03)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receive Good Feedback</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>(0.99)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Try Harder</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>(1.03)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Participant responses were measured on a Likert scale where 1=completely disagree and 5=completely agree.

Table 2

Correlations between Five Teacher Qualities and Five Effects on Participants for Favorite Professors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<th>7</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Expertise</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Caring</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Entertaining</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Expectations</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Good Lecturer</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Feel Smarter</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Learn More</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Feel Respected</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Good</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.69</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Try Harder</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Participant responses were measured on a Likert scale where 1=completely disagree and 5=completely agree.

As shown in Tables 1 and 2, the correlation coefficient between students feeling smarter and professor caring was r=0.58, p<.05. Students feeling smarter and professor expertise was r=0.57, p<.05, and students feeling smarter and professor being a good lecturer was r=0.58 p<.05. The correlation between students’ reporting learning more and professor expertise (r=0.59, p<.05) was statistically significant. The correlation between students’ reporting learning more and professor being a good lecturer (r=0.56, p<.05) was also statistically significant. Students’ reporting that they felt respected correlated well with professor caring (r=0.68, p<.05), expertise (r=0.63, p<.05), and entertaining (r=0.61, p<.05). Students receiving positive feedback from teachers was strongly correlated with caring (r=0.60, p<.05), expertise (r=0.58,
p<.05), and being good lecturer (r=0.58, p<.05). Students’ trying harder was strongly correlated with professor being a good lecturer (r=0.56, p<.05), caring (r=0.55, p<.05), and expertise (r=0.55, p<.05).

The favorite professor characteristics that had the strongest correlations with student effects and behaviors were caring (r=0.59, p<.05), expertise (r=0.58, p<.05), and good lecturing (r=0.56, p<.05). The correlation between favorite professor characteristics and high expectations was the weakest (r=0.45, p<.05).

**Favorite professor qualities.** Student participants were asked to name three qualities of their favorite professor. Through a process of categorization, nine types of qualities that students attributed to their favorite professor were identified. These were as follows: appearance, class simplicity, enthusiasm, experience, ability to hold students’ interest through entertaining classes or humor, intelligence, professional skills, personal relationship, and negative qualities. The following graph shows the frequency of participants’ responses to the first of three favorite professor quality prompts (Figure 3). Keeping students interested (42%) and connecting relationally (24%) were the top two categories of responses.

![Figure 3. Percentage of first responses to the prompt “Name three qualities of your favorite professor” (N=207).](image)
When we aggregated all three responses from each student (see Figure 4), the results were nearly the same, with only two responses switched—relational connection (32%) and keeping students interested (24%). Also noteworthy is the number of participants who listed a quality that fit into the category of professional skill (9% and 17% respectively). To a lesser degree, students also seemed to value organization, responsibility, class structure, and the ability to deliver meaningful lessons.

**Least Favorite Professors**
The first five items in this section of the survey related to characteristics of least favorite professors and the next five related to how least favorite professors made students feel. The first five items were as follows: “My least favorite professor is an expert in his/her field,” “My least favorite professor cares about students,” “My least favorite professor is entertaining,” “My least favorite professor has high expectations of his/her students,” and “My least favorite professor is a strong lecturer.” As shown in Figure 5, students indicated greatest agreement with two characteristics of least favorite teachers, namely expertise (45%) and good lecturing (30%).
Figure 5. Percentage of participants in agreement or complete agreement with each of the five statements about least favorite professors (N=209).

The next five statements concerning least favorite professors were directed at how the professor made the student feel and act. These statements were as follows: “As a student I feel smarter in my least favorite professor’s class,” “I learn more in my least favorite professor’s class,” “I feel respected by my least favorite professor,” “I receive helpful feedback from my least favorite professor,” and “I try harder for my least favorite professor.” As shown in Figure 6, respondents indicated the greatest agreement with two effects that the least favorite professor had on students—feeling respected (24%) and trying harder (23%).
Figure 6. Percentage of participants in agreement or complete agreement with each of the five statements about least favorite professors’ effects on students (N=209).

**Linear correlations for the least favorite professor.** When running linear correlations, the data for favorite professors revealed a significant association between what participants thought about the characteristics of their least favorite professors and how these characteristics affected them.
Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of How Participants Think and Feel about Their Least Favorite Professors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Quality</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expert in Field</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>(1.71)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cares about Students</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>(1.13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entertaining</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>(1.25)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has High Expectations</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>(1.20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong Lecturer</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>(1.23)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Professor’s Effect on Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Expertise</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Caring</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Entertaining</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Expectations</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Good Lecturer</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Feel Smarter</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Learn More</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Feel Respected</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Good</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>0.64</td>
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<td>Feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Try Harder</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Participant responses were measured on a Likert scale where 1=completely disagree and 5=completely agree.

As shown in Tables 3 and 4, students’ reporting feeling smarter was strongly correlated with professor being entertaining (r=0.48, p<.05) and caring (r=0.45, p<.05). Students’ reporting they learned more was strongly correlated with professor being entertaining (r=0.58, p<.05), caring (r=0.58, p<.05), and being a good lecturer (r=0.54, p<.05). Students’ reporting feeling respected was strongly correlated with professor caring (r=0.68, p<.05) and being entertaining (r=0.49, p<.05). Students’ reporting receiving positive feedback was strongly correlated with professor being entertaining (r=0.59, p<.05), caring (r=0.53, p<.05), and being a good lecturer (r=0.50, p<.05). Students’ reporting trying harder was strongly correlated with professor being a good lecturer (r=0.51, p<.05) and being entertaining (r=0.50, p<.05).
The least favorite professor characteristics that had the strongest correlations with student effects and behaviors were professor being entertaining \((r=0.53, \ p<.05)\), caring \((r=0.52, \ p<.05)\), and good lecturing \((r=0.48, \ p<.05)\). The least favorite professor characteristic with the weakest correlation was expertise \((r=0.30, \ p<.05)\).

**Qualities of the least favorite professor.** Student participants were also asked to name three qualities of their least favorite professor. Through a process of categorization, nine types of quality that students attributed to their least favorite professor were found. These were as follows: poor appearance, classes with difficult material, irresponsibility, unfriendliness, dullness, arrogance, lack of qualifications, communication issues, and positive qualities. Figure 7 shows the frequency of participant responses to the first of three least favorite professor quality prompts: Dullness (40%) and positive qualities (14%) were the top two categories of responses. Other notable categories were class difficulty, arrogance, and poor communication.

![Figure 7. Percentage of first responses to the prompt, “Name three qualities of your least favorite professor” (N=164).](image-url)
Figure 8. Percentage of all responses to the prompt, “Name three qualities of your favorite professor” (N=164).

When we aggregate all three responses from each student (see Figure 8), the results are nearly the same. The percentage of student response evens out in favor of other responses and the top five responses change position, but the top two remain in the same order. To a lesser degree, students also seem to consider their least favorite professors to be unfriendly, irresponsible, and unqualified.

Comparing Favorite and Least Favorite Professors
The two graphs below comparing answers to the statements about favorite professors and least favorite professors. Figure 9 combines the data received from the “My favorite professor…” and “My least favorite professor…” statements. The other graph combines the data received from the “With my favorite professor, I…” and “With my least favorite professor, I…” statements.
Figure 9. Percentage of participants in agreement or complete agreement with each of the five statements about the favorite and least favorite professors (N=209).

Figure 10. Percentage of participants in agreement or complete agreement with each of the five statements about favorite and least favorite professors’ effects on students (N=209).

Considering figures 9 and 10, the greatest difference between statements of agreement or complete agreement was found in the category of “My favorite and/or least favorite professor is entertaining.” Eighty-four percent of participants agreed or completely agreed that their favorite university professor was entertaining, while 19% of participants agreed or completely agreed that their least favorite professor was
entertaining. The closest margin was found in the category “My favorite and/or least favorite professor is an expert in his/her field.” Eighty-five percent of participants agreed or completely agreed that their favorite professor was an expert in their subject, while 45% of participants agreed or completely agreed that their least favorite professor was an expert. Two other notable differences were found in the categories of “I receive helpful feedback from my favorite and or least favorite professor” and “I learn more from my favorite and/or least favorite professor.” The percentage differentials for those two categories were 60 percentage points and 64 percentage points, respectively.

Conclusions

Summary
The presented data allow some conclusions to be reached. First, according to the participants surveyed, university students’ favorite professors are those who are entertaining, help students learn more, and provide helpful feedback. Students also value professors who care about and respect them. Large percentage gaps indicating student agreement between the characteristics of least favorite and favorite professors were the best indicator of what students value in their professors. The largest percentage gap was found in students thinking their favorite or least favorite professor was entertaining (84% of participants found their favorite professors to be entertaining, 22% of participants found their least favorite professor to be entertaining. The percentage gap in this category is 62%).

These conclusions are also supported by some of the qualitative data collected in this survey. At the end of the survey, participants were told to finish the sentence, “I wish my university professor would…” Out of the 226 participants, 129 responded. Of those who gave a response, 30% (68) of participants mentioned “fun,” “funny,” “humor,” “interesting,” or “entertaining” in their responses. A representative answer is that of a 27-year-old male biology student, who stated, “I wish my university professor would be funny, knowledgeable and focus on the details of our class.” A 24-year-old male medical student, made the following statement: “I wish my university professor would be an expert in his or her field and organize the class very well. I want him to make the course clear and easy to understand and be good at using examples for our comprehension. He should also be interesting.” From the prompt, it became clear that students wanted their professors to be kind, good communicators, entertaining, competent, knowledgeable, and social. They wanted to have a connection with their professors beyond the classroom and hear about their professor’s experience.

Perceptions of Teachers and Their Effect on Students
In response to the primary research question—“What are Chinese students’ perceptions of their teachers and how do these perceptions affect those same students?”—the study showed that Chinese university students view their favorite professors primarily as entertaining, experts in their field, caring, good communicators, and good at helping students to learn more. Chinese university students view their least favorite professors as unentertaining, boring, arrogant, and poor at communicating and helping students to learn more. Many of those surveyed also commented on how they wanted their professors to give them good grades and help them in their research. This is in accordance with the
works of Pratt et al. (2009) and Rugutt and Chemosit (2009), who reported that many students are motivated extrinsically through grades. These studies also support the notion that extrinsic student motivation comes from instructors’ praise. Helpful feedback was a significant trait of favorite professors and one of the least significant traits of least favorite professors in this study.

The data also reiterated the importance of student–faculty interaction. Encouraging students, providing positive feedback, developing personal connections with students, and cultivating a positive environment in the classroom all strongly affect student motivation (Hardre 2012; Hardre et al., 2009; Rugutt & Chemosit, 2009; Tam et al., 2009). This can be shown in what participants think of their favorite professors and in their answers regarding favorite professor characteristics. Many students want their professors to care about them, show an interest in them, and give feedback that can positively influence their learning. When professors make their classes interesting, or even entertaining, it positively affects students’ intrinsic motivation. Students also desire what previous studies have shown to be the characteristics of great teachers. As mentioned above, Miller’s (1987) study demonstrated that great teachers have contagious enthusiasm, time for student questions and comments, control of the classroom pace, and competency in their chosen field. They are humorous, encouraging, patient, caring, creative, and challenging (Miller, 1987). Students identified similar characteristics as desirable in their professors. Enthusiasm, time, humor, encouragement, care, and creativity were all repeatedly listed by the participants as qualities of favorite professors.

Chinese university students viewed their least favorite professors in a different light. From many of the responses, it is likely that many Chinese university students find their least favorite professors to be boring. This is in accordance with the results of Foote et al. (2000), who found that poor teachers make students dislike the subject matter and make it seem boring or irrelevant. Chinese university students also perceived that the least favorite professors have a lower chance of affecting their learning. The correlation between least favorite professor effects and behaviors and how students viewed their least favorite professors in light of their professional characteristics was lower than the correlations with favorite professors. The least favorite professor characteristic that had the strongest correlation with student affects and behaviors was entertaining (r=0.53, p<.05). The least favorite professor characteristic with the weakest correlation was expertise (r=0.30, p<.05). The favorite professor characteristic that had the strongest correlation with student affects and behaviors was caring (r=0.59, p<.05). The favorite professor characteristic with the lowest average correlation was high expectations (r=0.45, p<.05). Outside of the high expectations characteristic, all favorite professor characteristics had a higher correlation on average with student effects than the strongest correlation of least favorite professor characteristics. The weakest correlations were 15 percentage points away from each other.

The correlation data revealed the effect of certain teacher qualities have on student outcomes. Students will likely feel smarter with favorite professors whom they find to be experts, caring and good lecturers. Moreover, students will likely think that they learn more with favorite professors who are good lecturers, caring, and experts. Students will likely feel respected by favorite professors who are caring, experts, and entertaining. In addition, students will likely think that they receive helpful feedback
from favorite professors who are caring, good lecturers, and experts. Finally, students will likely try harder for favorite professors who are good lecturers, caring, and experts. In terms of least favorite professors, students will likely feel smarter with those who are entertaining. Students will likely think they learn more with least favorite professors who are entertaining and caring. Furthermore, students will likely feel respected by least favorite professors who are caring and entertaining. They will likely think they receive helpful feedback from least favorite professors who are entertaining and caring. Finally, students will likely try harder for least favorite professors who are good lecturers and entertaining.

If universities are looking for smarter students who learn more and receive helpful feedback, then they must also recruit caring professors who are good lecturers and are considered experts in their field. If they are looking for students who try harder, again, they must seek out caring professors who are experts in the field and are good lecturers. If they want students to feel respected, they must hire expert professors who are caring and entertaining. It is important for students’ professors to be good lecturers, experts, entertaining, and caring. Students will likely learn more, feel smarter, receive helpful feedback, and try harder.

**Concerns Regarding Data Collection**

There were some concerns that arose during the collection, interpretation, and data analysis phases of this study. Perhaps the greatest issue regarding the reliability of the survey had to do with the interpretation of the information. Seven of the questions in the survey were coded qualitatively which created room for potential error. Such qualitative analysis involves the potential for misinterpretation of what the participant wants say, faulty coding, and other task-related errors. Translation may be another issue. Students took the survey in English, which was not their first language, resulting in a risk that participants might not understand a question or might use vocabulary incorrectly. In fact, some of the students surveyed wrote their answers in Chinese. I had a Chinese friend interpret the answers for me and added the translated responses to my codebook, which could be a cause of concern. Another potential issue I would like to address has to do with the sampling procedure. Because I am a unilingual English speaker, I was unable to sample a greater variety of majors and types of students, since many Chinese follow courses that are conducted only in Chinese and do not have a working knowledge of English. My survey was given only to those who were able to complete it in English, thereby overlooking the large population of Chinese students who may not be proficient enough in English to participate. Finally, in trying to use as much of the data as possible, some incomplete forms were used for certain parts of the data. This did not skew any of the numbers, but instead added to the total number of participants for various parts of the survey.

Another concern is that this study did not address the relationship between entertainment and student learning. Some research has found that student evaluation fuels lighter workloads and easier grading from professors, who depend on good feedback to keep their jobs (Greenwald, 1997; Williams & Ceci, 1997; Wilson, 1998). These studies have shown that students rate professors on their appearance, hygiene, and entertainment value more than their ability to guide them in learning. However, the data from this study indicated that although students want entertaining professors, they do not want them to simplify their learning. The students surveyed wanted their professors to be entertaining in a social way; moreover, they wanted their professors...
to befriend them so that they could learn more comprehensively and holistically. This is supported by statements such as the following: “I wish my university professor would care for students, be professional and entertaining and help me in my future career.” Although there were students who made comments such as “I wish my university professor would give me good grades,” or “I wish my university professor would give me little homework and make me pass the class,” these statements about class ease only appeared 13 times out of the responses of 129 participants who completed this portion of the survey. Statements about professor appearance appeared four times.

Suggestions for Future Research
This study could be expanded on and carried out in other cultural contexts with different age groups. Moreover, future research could address questions such as the following: Are there universal qualities for favorite teachers/great teachers? Do students in different age groups prefer other qualities in their teachers? What qualities are the same or different in secondary school teachers and postsecondary teachers? It would also be interesting to see how subject matter plays a role in student preference. What affects student learning more, the professor or subject? Further questions could be developed as this research progresses.

Based on this research and previous studies, one suggestion is for universities to greatly consider personal qualities and characteristics when hiring professors. University students are motivated by good relationships with their professor and being engaged with the class. Expertise, although important, is not necessarily what students are after. Expertise must be accompanied by a desire to teach and grow in the profession, as well as wanting the best for and out of one’s students. Another suggestion is for universities in China to adopt a more comprehensive approach to learning. Chinese students want their professors to be able to aid them in learning through personal communication and fun. It is also important for professors to make an effort to get to know their students, respect them, and care for them. Chinese students want a professor to be more of a mentor and friend than a general or leader. This relationship and communication must be partnered with expertise in order to provide Chinese university students with the education they need and desire.
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Appendix

Favorite Professor Correlation Charts

Figure 8.1. Out of the factors tested, in relation to favorite professor expertise, the likelihood of feeling respected was the highest correlation ($p<.05, r=.6298$). Other factors that co-varied were learning more ($p<.05, r=.5913$) and receiving helpful feedback ($p<.05, r=.5811$).

Figure 8.2. Out of the factors tested, in relation to favorite professors who care, the likelihood of feeling respected was the highest correlation ($p<.05, r=.6795$). All the other factors co-varied were well with trying harder being the lowest ($p<.05, r=.5566$).
Figure 8.3. Out of the factors tested, in relation to favorite professors who are entertaining, the likelihood of feeling respected was the highest correlation (p=<.05, r=.6108). The other factor that co-varied was feeling smarter (p=<.05, r=.5481).

Figure 8.4. Out of the factors tested, in relation to favorite professors with high expectations, the likelihood of feeling respected was the highest correlation (p=<.05, r=.5137).
Out of the factors tested, in relation to favorite professors who are good lecturers, the likelihood of receiving helpful feedback was the highest correlation (p=<.05, r=.5868). The likelihood of feeling respected was the lowest correlation (p=<.05, r=.52).

Least Favorite Professor Correlation Data

Out of the factors tested, in relation to least favorite professor expertise, the likelihood of feeling respected was the highest correlation (p=<.05, r=.3548).
Figure 9.2. Out of the factors tested, in relation to least favorite professors who care, the likelihood of feeling respected was the highest correlation ($p<.05$, $r=.5831$). Other factors that co-varied were learning more ($p<.05$, $r=.5628$) and receiving helpful feedback ($p<.05$, $r=.5354$).

Figure 9.3. Out of the factors tested, in relation to least favorite professors who are entertaining, the likelihood of receiving helpful feedback was the highest correlation ($p<.05$, $r=.5949$). The other factor that co-varied was learning more ($p<.05$, $r=.5796$).
Figure 9.4. Out of the factors tested, in relation to least favorite professors with high expectations, the likelihood of receiving helpful feedback was the highest correlation (p<.05, r=.4742).

Figure 9.5. Out of the factors tested, in relation to least favorite professors who are good lecturers, the likelihood of learning more was the highest correlation (p<.05, r=.5469). The other factor that co-varied was trying harder (p<.05, r=.5143)
The Impact and Benefits of Therapeutic Interaction on Educational and Behavioural Outcomes

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The Asian Conference on Education 2015
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
‘In many educational settings and contexts throughout the world, there remains an assumption that teachers are the possessors of knowledge which is to be imparted to students, and that this happens in neutral, impartial and objective ways. However, learning is about making meaning’ (IAFOR 2015) For students with learning difficulties this is especially so and for them to be in the right frame of mind to learn is crucial. Often students with severe or profound and multiple learning difficulties have to overcome barriers to learning such as physical pain or emotional turmoil. For students with learning difficulties this is especially so and for them to be in the right frame of mind to learn is crucial. Often students with severe or profound and multiple learning difficulties have to overcome barriers to learning such as physical pain or emotional turmoil. At Pencoch Special school therapists work alongside teachers to deliver therapeutic intervention in order to enable students to be better able to access the curriculum. The school delivers 17 different therapies. The school has been researching the impact of therapeutic intervention on student's behaviour and on their educational targets. This paper will share data and reports from therapists that illustrate the impact and benefits of therapeutic interaction on educational and behavioural outcomes. Sometimes the impact is qualitative and sometimes it is quantitative. The aim of the paper is to demonstrate how we can encourage learning for those who find learning most difficult.
Introduction

Pupils
All pupils had severe learning difficulties and received therapy for at least two school terms.

The majority of the pupils also had ASD. Some pupils had physical disabilities.
Session: 40 mins at least once a week. Aim: Child led. No requirement for them to produce a finished piece of work. Any work that is created is displayed with the pupil’s permission.

Targets: Individual and taken from Individual Education Plans (IEPs), usually related to communication or personal and social skills and well-being.

Assessment: Routes for Learning (RfL) P levels (B Squared) and CASPA (online assessment tool) are used. Therapist evaluates work & records observations. Targets are said to be achieved if they occurred naturally on a minimum of three occasions. Therapist shares observations directly with the class teachers weekly and this in inputted into the school assessment tool.

Impact

Data provided by therapist in Music

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Number of Targets</th>
<th>Achieved outright</th>
<th>Targets ongoing</th>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CL</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>SLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TB</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LH</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MW</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ME</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EB</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LR</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DB</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Positive feedbacks from both pupils and parents
Requests to continue receiving the therapy once course is completed
There is always a waiting list for places.
Development of emotional literacy using different genres of music and activities.
Empowers pupils to progress and make decisions at their own pace
Development of self-esteem and general well-being

Example 1
Over a three month period. Significant improvement in behaviour resulted in MB choosing to reintegrate into the classroom environment. Minimal therapeutic intervention at present helps to maintain his positive behaviour within school.

Example 2
JN, a school refuser with challenging behaviour from mainstream started at YPC and received this therapy immediately. He performed at the Xmas concert that year.
choosing to play the electronic keyboard. Minimal behaviour problems as a direct
result of receiving this therapy.

Data provided by therapist in Art

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Receptive Communication</th>
<th>Expressive Communication</th>
<th>PSHE including Citizenship and Self Help</th>
<th>Creative Development/ Art &amp; Design</th>
<th>Physical Development/ Fine Motor</th>
<th>Maths</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Number of Targets</th>
<th>Achieved Outright</th>
<th>Targets ongoing</th>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EG</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EM</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LW</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>SLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MF</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>SLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TO</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JH</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MO</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LG</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>SLD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Progress made in Areas of:

All the pupils attending come willingly when offered a choice.
84% of the targets set have been achieved outright

Targets not achieved yet relate to pupils who are only part of the way through their set of sessions.

Positive feedback received to date from parents and staff
Waiting list for places.

Example 1
M.O. was referred because she frequently chooses to be non-communicative and has difficulty relating to adult requests in class and at home. By her third session she was smiling and speaking freely in the Art Room. She responds to suggestions in a positive manner and has complied with all requests. She now asks and answers questions during her sessions. She is reported as being more communicative on her return to class, and has told them about her experiences.

Other Examples

J.H. said “I wished it was my day in the Art Room yesterday because I was really upset”. The parents of T.O., who is non-verbal, reported that he said “paint” at home, and now uses his paints all the time. He is happy and relaxed when painting. E.G. does not usually show distinction between the adults working with her yet she acknowledged the Art Teacher and has smiled and said hello during sessions. M.F. experienced an emotional crisis before one of his sessions but relaxed in order to attend session.
The class teacher of E.M. reports that he is often more relaxed on his return to class, and counts down the days until he can go again.

DATA Provided by TACPAC therapist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Number of Targets</th>
<th>Achieved Outright</th>
<th>Targets ongoing/new</th>
<th>Diagnosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>SB</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2 new</td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DB</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ME</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ED</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1 new</td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PC</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RD</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LH</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>PMLD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LG</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2(absent)</td>
<td>ASD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JR</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>SLD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All pupils attending have been able to show preferences for object and piece of music they want
90% of targets achieved outright
Positive feedback from staff and parents. Waiting list for places.
Pupil with ASD making major steps in learning since attending TACPAC sessions
Another pupil with ASD has begun to count whilst attending TACPAC
Pupil with ASD has begun giving eye contact, signing ‘Hello’ and making vocalisations
Pupil with ASD has shown noticeable decrease anxiety levels
Pupil with ASD now leading therapist to session room
Pupil who is tactile defensive is now reaching out to objects and holding them for short periods
Pupil with PMLD showing lower heart rate and higher saturation levels after sessions
Pupil with PMLD responding with relaxed limbs, opening hands and giving increased eye contact

DATA provided by therapist in Play

Target records for JH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>SDQ parent</th>
<th>SDQ teacher</th>
<th>IEP/IBP</th>
<th>Recorded incidents</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>autumn</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spring</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>summer</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Achieved</td>
<td>1(see notes)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>results</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-4</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-5(see notes)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTES
The only recorded incident since starting Therapeutic play was in the summer term, when investigated this incident happened after the two week Easter break and due to a training day there wasn’t a play session that week.

DATA provided by auditory integration therapist
We have been using AIT since April 2015 and due to its intense nature have only seen 3 pupils to date. However, the impact reported by both school staff and parents is very positive and there is statistical evidence to back this up.

One excited Mum contacted the AIT assistant to say that her son is “speaking so much more, pointing things out when he is watching tv programmes, requesting things, making much more observations than he did previously and following instructions better”. She said she is certain that the AIT is the cause of the improvements.

**Recommendations**

There is a need for a moderation panel to be set up to oversee recommendations for therapies and to monitor the therapies effectiveness. There is a need for the regular delivery of comprehensive and standardised Psychological and Mental Health summative and formative assessments.

**Suggestions for Future Research**

There is a need for a systematic research study into the use of therapies across state maintained special schools: Researchers must determine empirically the educational and social-emotional impacts of therapeutic intervention on students.

**Contact email:** Angelique_Anderson@flintshire.gov.uk
**Blended E-Learning for Postgraduate Research-Article Writing:**  
*A Case Study in one University in Thailand*

Ampapan Tuntinakhongul, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, Bangkok, Thailand  
Muangnakin, Patcharee, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, Bangkok, Thailand

The Asian Conference on Education 2015  
Official Conference Proceedings

**Abstract**

This study aimed at utilizing blended e-Learning as a tool to enhance genre-based instruction in traditional classroom in order to facilitate the learning of research article genre and the English language for research article composition. The study was a quasi-experiment conducted in the natural classroom context of the course Academic Paper Writing for postgraduate students at a Higher Education academic institution in Bangkok of Thailand. Moodle's e-Learning platform was employed to deliver the lessons. Twenty-four doctoral students of Education participated in this study for a period of one semester. The research instruments consisted of a pretest, a posttest, and a questionnaire. The pretest and posttest measured students' understanding of quantitative Education research articles and the English language used to achieve the research articles' rhetorical functions. The questionnaire examined the participant's attitude towards the ease of use and the usefulness of the e-Learning technology and e-Learning contents and activities. The *t*-test value showed that there was a significant difference between the pre and posttest mean scores of the groups at 0.05 level which signified that the blended e-Learning enabled the participants to expand their knowledge of research article genre and the English language for composing research articles. The questionnaire findings indicated that the participants had positive attitudes on the ease of use and the usefulness of the e-Learning technology and e-Learning contents and activities. Therefore, our study can conclude that Moodle's e-Learning technology has a potential for supporting research article genre learning and writing.

Keywords: research article, research article genre, e-Learning, Moodle
Introduction

In the recent decades, research article (RA) genre and the research article writing practices of postgraduate students who are nonnative-English-speaking (NNES) novice researchers have received a lot of attention from instructors working in the realms of English for Academic Purpose (EAP) (Cargill & O’Connor, 2006; Flowerdew, 2000; Li, 2007). This importance has been stressed by institutional pressure for postgraduate research article publications. In particular, academic institutions in Thailand have attempted to improve the quality of their instruction and research by means of internationalizing their educational practices. Therefore, postgraduate students are encouraged to interact with members of their disciplinary communities and to participate in research activities at the international level to acquire specialized knowledge and skills (Flowerdew, 2000; Kwan, 2009; Li, 2007). Publishing English-language research articles in international scholarly journals has become a graduation requirement for doctoral candidates at universities in Thailand. Nonetheless, writing English-language RA is a difficult task for NNES students (Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2006; Hanauer & Englander, 2011). This is particularly true for Thai postgraduate students especially of Education disciplines.

Previous research has attempted to help novice researchers understand the rhetorical conventions of research articles. The structures and functions of moves and steps in the major sections of research articles have been described (Li, 2007; Lim 2006, cited in Bruce, 2008; Kanoksilapatham, 2005). Other studies have provided genre-based instruction to facilitate the RA composition of NNES postgraduate students for improving their English research article writing skills (Mavor & Trayner, 2001). Also, genre-based instruction has been reported to provide students with an analytical framework to examine research article genre and relevant language use for composing research articles in their disciplinary fields (Cargill & O’Connor, 2006; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Mavor & Trayner, 2001; Peters, 2011).

Although several studies have examined RA genre in Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching (Basturkmen, 2009; Bruce, 2009; Hirano, 2009; Kwan, 2006; Sheldon, 2011; Yang & Allison, 2003), Sociology (Brett, 1994), Business Management (Lim, 2006), and Philosophy of Education (Peters, 2011), our understanding of Education RA genre is still limited. In fact, research on academic preparation intended to assist NNES postgraduate students in this discipline to study RA genre and achieve international RA publication has been underemphasized especially in case of Thai postgraduate students. Moreover, the potential of e-Learning tools for helping these postgraduate students to master RA genre has not been adequately examined. Therefore, this study was intended to utilize Moodle's open source e-Learning platform to foster the traditional instruction of genre-based approach in order to help raising postgraduate students' awareness of RA genre, and enhance their knowledge of English for RA composition.
Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study was to determine:

1. to what extent blended e-learning improves knowledge of RA genre of Education postgraduate students
2. the levels of Education postgraduate students’ satisfaction and their attitudes towards blended e-learning system and online activities.

Related Literature and Research

Problems found in RA writing process of NNES students

Previous research in Applied Linguistics focusing on the RA writing process of novice researchers using English as a second language has reported several problems that novice RA writers often encounter. Composing RA in English for international publications is a difficult and demanding task and it appears to generate a lot of stress, anxiety, and burden (Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2006; Cargill & O’Connor, 2006; Flowerdew, 2000; Hanauer & Englander, 2011). Novices’ limited knowledge of disciplinary genre could contribute to writing difficulties and poor quality of RA manuscripts (Flowerdew, 1999; Swales, 1990). Research has also reported that they have difficulties in structuring their arguments, choosing content to report, organizing content, using evidence to support arguments, evaluating models and methodologies (Dong, 1998; Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2006; Li, 2007). Furthermore, novice RA writers with limited English proficiency experienced a lot of difficulties when writing research articles for international publication (Flowerdew, 1999, 2000; Cargill & O’Connor, 2006). Flowerdew (1999) added that their writing processes, in general, are time-consuming, extensive, laborious, and stressful and their English is often seen as nonstandard and it is prone to contain mistakes. Bitchener & Basturkmen (2006) pointed out that NNES RA writers encountered a variety of problems both at the sentence and paragraph levels, in particular, new researchers failed to utilize modal verbs appropriately when making claims about their research findings. Martinez (2003) found that language deficiencies and errors tended to impede the clarity of meaning conveyed in their RA manuscripts.

The findings of other studies could confirm the problems mentioned above. Casanave and Hubbard (1992) conducted a survey with faculty members at Stanford University on their perception of the problems that NNES doctoral students encountered when writing in English, compared with English-native-speaking graduate students. The problems were incorrect use of punctuation marks, misspellings, incorrect grammar, inappropriate language and style, ineffective idea development, poor overall paper organization, and poor quality of content. Other meticulous linguistic problems included incorrect use of articles, prepositions, and tenses. The constraints appeared to hinder novice RA writers from meeting the requirements of publication. Gosden (1996) investigated the writing practice of 16 Japanese novice researchers by conducting in-depth interviews. The study reported that these novices had to work exhaustively on the revision of their English-language research articles, correcting grammar and sentence structure, and choosing appropriate vocabulary. Flowerdew (1999) studied the wiring practice of 583 scholars in diverse academic fields in Hong Kong and reported that two-thirds of these scholars found themselves at a disadvantageous position when competing for international publication with English-native-speaking researchers. Moreover, the study of Hanauer and Englander (2011)
indicated that 148 scientists in Mexico encountered a great deal of language difficulties which significantly increased difficulties, anxiety, and dissatisfaction when writing research articles in English as their second language.

**Research Article (RA) Genre**

Genre analysis activity and genre-based instruction have been advocated by several ESP and EAP researchers and instructors as a useful pedagogical approach (Cargill & O’Connor, 2006; Flowerdew, 2000; Li, 2007; Swales, 1990). The typical RA genre often consists of four major sections: Introduction; Method; Results; and Discussion (IMRD) (Swales, 1990). The rhetorical organization of each major section is described in terms of structure and functions of moves, steps and sub-steps in relation to Linguistic choices (Swales, 1990).

In the first RA genre section, Introduction, the Create A Research Space (CARS) model has been widely used for investigating RA genre Introduction (Swales, 1990). The CARS model consists of a sequence of four rhetorical moves including: (1) establish the field in which he or she is working, (2) summarize related research in the area of concern, (3) create a research space for the present study by indicating a gap in current knowledge or by raising questions and (4) introduce the study by indicating what the investigation being reported will accomplish for the field (Swales, 1990).

The second RA genre section or Method is believed to be highly discipline-specific (Swales, 1990). Very limited research has established frameworks for examining the rhetorical organization of RA Method section. However, some studies analysed and found three moves in this section. Lim (2006) examined the RA Method genre in Business Management which included: (1) Describing the data collecting procedures, (2) Delineating the procedures for measuring the variables, and (3) Elucidating data analysis procedures.

In the third RA genre section, Results, Swales and Feak (2004) suggested three moves including (1) Locating the findings, (2) Highlighting the important findings, and (3) Discussing the findings. However, Kanoaksilapatham (2005) analysed the result section of Biochemistry RA genre and reported four moves which were (1) Restating methodological issues, (2) Justifying methodological issues, (3) Announcing results, and (4) Commenting on results.

The last fourth typical RA genre is Discussion. The moves structure in this section often used are based on Peng’s framework (1987 cited in Swales, 1990) and Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988). The moves include (1) Giving background information, (2) Summarizing results, (3) Indicating (un) expected outcome, (4) Referring to previous research, (5) Explaining, (6) Giving example(s), (7) Deducting and hypothesizing, and (8) Giving recommendations. Nevertheless, in practice, Results and Discussion have been written as one section in the RA composition. Yang and Allison (2003) examined the Results and Discussion section of Applied Linguistics RA genre and reported their findings in seven moves. These were Providing background information, Reporting results, Summarizing results, Commenting on results, Summarizing the study, Evaluating the study, and Making deductions from the research.
These previous studies on RA Genre analysis have provided us a useful framework for studying the rhetorical structure of Education RA. The literature also suggests that formal instruction can help novices understand RA genre and develop themselves to be more independent RA writers (Cargill & O’Connor, 2006; Gosden, 1995; Flowerdew, 2000; Li, 2007). However, very few studies have focused on RA genre of Education discipline.

**Blended e-Learning and e-Learning Tool**

Blended e-learning refers to the combination of traditional classroom teaching with e-learning activities to enrich delivery in the learning environment. Blended e-learning, so called blended learning is related with presenting the major learning activities online while retaining traditional classroom teaching. This tends to use classroom time for activities which benefit the most from direct interaction (Lee & Hung, 2015). A great deal of research has pointed out the benefits of blended e-learning. Garrison and Vaughan (2008) investigated perceptions on blended e-learning in higher education and found that it facilitated flexibility in learning times and increased students’ responsibility for learning; he concluded that blended e-learning can cultivate students’ learning experience. Albrecht (2006) revealed high student satisfaction with blended learning. Bourne and Seaman (2005) reported the benefit of blended e-learning to educational process. Jacob (2011) investigated benefits and barriers in blended learning and concluded that blended e-learning was well accepted due to its efficiency.

E-Learning can be a tool to facilitate the achievements of educational goals as it provides academic institutions, teachers and learners with a variety of innovative instructional instruments and communication tools. E-Learning technologies can encourage new and creative educational approaches that enhance teaching and learning (Liaw & Huang, 2013). Instructors can orchestrate a variety of learning activities and assist students in learning; students can actively participate and collaborate in extensive learning opportunities using synchronous and asynchronous communication tools outside the classroom (Escobar-Rodriguez & Monge-Lozana, 2012; Liaw, 2008). In essence, e-Learning offers learners flexibility to choose convenient time and place to learn according to their interest and the level of knowledge (Pituch & Lee, 2006).

Moodle is a popular e-learning system that meets the needs of e-Learning; it is easy to use and allows instructors to deliver online instruction, and manage course and learning (Escoba, & Rodriguez, 2012). Moodle contains a range of tools that permit the integration of a variety of internal and external multimedia sources, activities, assignments, electronic delivery of learning resources, workshop, synchronous and asynchronous communication channels (chat and forums), quizzes, and learning records (Dougiamas, 2010). Thus, Moodle tends to have a high potential for supporting postgraduate students to study RA genre.

There have been studies which have informed that Moodle supports learning in various aspects. Focusing on project-based writing for undergraduate students, Robertson (2008) integrated Moodle's Course Management System (CMS) into the process pedagogy and reported that Moodle offered flexible CMS for the instructor to organize and deliver course resources and opportunities for students to independently utilize the learning resources. In addition, Moodle encouraged cooperative and
reflexive learning which are crucial to the writing process. Students could view course schedule, see and communicate with other classmates, submit written assignments, read supplementary materials, create individual or group journals, do quizzes, request additional learning materials, and communicate with the instructor. The study integrated quizzes which students could use to assess their knowledge of grammar, punctuation, and vocabulary. Therefore, the instructor could continually monitor students' performances. However, the findings of Robertson (2008) were anecdotal as the study did not provide empirical evidence of students' learning outcomes as a result of participating in the e-Learning environment.

In another study, Dougiamas (2010) employed Moodle's open-source e-Learning software in an English as a Second Language writing class and suggested that Moodle is appropriate for the process approach to writing instruction which highlights prewriting, revising, editing, and reflexive learning. Student writers can help their group brainstorm ideas in the pre-writing session, receive feedback on their writing from peers in the revising stage, and submit their final draft in Moodle's system. However, the study of Dougiamas (2010) did not report empirical evidence related to students' learning outcomes contributed by Moodle's e-Learning application.

At present, a variety of criteria for evaluating e-Learning have been proposed. The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) first proposed by Davis in 1989 has been applied to survey user attitude towards information technologies and e-Learning systems (Montaghian et al., 2013). The model has been widely used and extended to predict user technology acceptance, adoption, and use of information system (Al-hawari & Mouakket, 2010; Escobar-Rodriguez & Monge-Lozano, 2012). The TAM model posits that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use are important determinants that cause people to either accept or reject information technology (Davis et al., 1989; Montaghian et al., 2013). Perceived usefulness refers to the degree that using a particular e-Learning system could improve his or her knowledge and performance (Davis et al., 1989). Perceived ease of use refers to the degree that the user feels using a particular e-Learning system does not need extra effort (Davis et al., 1989). However, it has been adapted to suit the learning objectives and students' needs. Our framework for evaluating the blended e-Learning for postgraduate students to study Education RA genre and the English language was also based on the TAM model. The evaluation focused on the perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use of the e-Learning technology and its contents and learning activities (Liaw, 2008; Montaghian et al., 2013).

**Research Methodology**

The study was a quasi-experiment conducted at one higher education institution in Thailand. It took place in the natural setting of the English course, Academic Paper Writing, for postgraduate students in the first semester of the academic year 2013. Blended e-Learning was integrated into the traditional instruction of this regular class. Pre and posttest were employed to investigate the impact of blended e-Learning intended for raising students' awareness of language structure, vocabulary, and RA genre. In addition, a questionnaire was utilized to examine students' attitude towards the e-Learning technology and e-Learning contents and activities.
Research Participants
Twenty-four doctoral students in two sub-disciplines of Education, including Curriculum and Evaluation, and Educational Administration participated in the blended e-Learning project. The majority of these doctoral candidates were fulltime instructors and administrators at state schools and universities. These doctoral candidates are required to publish two full-length research articles to disseminate their research in recognized scholarly journals or conference proceedings. Nonetheless, the participants in this group seemed to have very limited exposure to academic English and lack adequate English language proficiency to accomplish the task. Thus, it appeared that these postgraduate students were undertaking a remarkably difficult task of publishing their research articles in English.

Research Instruments

1. Pretest and Posttest
The pretest was intended to measure the participants’ understanding of Education RA genre, including content, grammar, and vocabulary to achieve the rhetorical functions in the major sections of Education RA. This research was focused on Education RA which employed the quantitative research methodology in the studies. The extracts were drawn from RA published in academic journals. The original extracts of the Abstract, Introduction, Method, Result, and Discussion were slightly modified as the research attempted to maintain the original rhetorical structure and language pattern of the RA as much as possible. The pretest contains 40 multiple-choice questions and each question is presented with four alternatives. Items 1-5 were based on the generic structure of the RA Abstract. The other items are constructed based on the move structure of the major sections in RA: Introduction (Items 6-12), Method (Items 13-25), Results (Items 28-33), and Discussion (Items 34-40). The pretest was piloted and revised. The reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the pretest was 0.77 which was considered acceptable. Then, a parallel-format test was constructed and used as the posttest at the end of semester.

2. Questionnaire
The questionnaire contains two major sections. In the first section, the students are required to fill in their background information. The second section asks the participants to rate their attitude towards the blended e-Learning system intended for studying Education RA genre and language on a 5-point Likert-scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree). Based on the TAM model, this study examined perceived the ease of use and perceived usefulness of the e-Learning technology and the e-Learning contents and activities. The third section asks the participants to provide short responses stating the benefits and problems of the blended e-Learning for studying RA genre. Moreover, the participants are asked to provide recommendations for improving e-Learning lessons and activities for studying RA genre and writing research articles for publication.

3. Moodle
Moodle's open source e-Learning template allows the study to incorporate useful resources related to educational research such as videos available on Youtube's website. In this study, the videos offered the doctoral students with learning opportunities to study disciplinary epistemologies and research methodologies from English-speaking professors at universities overseas. In addition, the participants could
download additional learning materials provided in the system for studying sentence structures and tenses on their own.

Moodle provided the participants with weekly exercises related to the instruction in class. The extracts of the Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion of published research articles in two sub-disciplines of Education: Curriculum and Evaluation, and Educational Administration were used to design language exercises in the e-Learning mode. Key language features (verbs, active and passive verb forms, tenses, and academic vocabulary) used to perform the rhetorical functions of the major sections of the selected RA were purposively deleted to construct language exercises in the cloze and multiple-choice formats. Four alternatives were presented for each question item. The e-Learning system allowed the students to take these exercises multiple times and the automatic responding system revealed the scores and correct answers. At the end of the semester, the students were asked to submit two sections of their research article draft: Introduction and Research Methodology in Moodle's e-Learning system. Moodle provided communication channels for the participants to communicate with one another and the instructor; furthermore, they could submit their assignments, manage their own learning, and view course outline.

**Research Procedures**

The procedures of the study were as follows. First, all doctoral students were required to take the pretest. Twenty-four students completed the pretest. They then attended classes. This three-hour class met regularly, once a week, for 12 weeks. The instruction in classes employed a genre-based approach focusing on studying the rhetorical structure and linguistic devices used to convey meanings in the major sections of Education research articles (Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion). Each section was discussed and moves and steps were presented (Weissberg & Buker, 1990). The students were equipped with cognitive and linguistic devices for research article composition. They spent time outside the classroom to complete exercises, watch videos, and do activities in the e-Learning system.

After completing the course, the participants completed the posttest constructed in the parallel format of the pretest. After that, the participants completed the questionnaire in which they rated their satisfaction level with the e-Learning technology, and course contents and learning activities.

**Data Analysis**

The pretest and posttest results were analyzed in terms of means and standard deviations. Then, the pretest and posttest means were compared using t-test. The quantitative data from the questionnaires were analyzed statistically. The findings were reported in terms of means and standard deviations. The levels of attitude were identified; 4.51 - 5.00 is interpreted as "Very High," 3.51 - 4.50 is "High," 2.51 - 3.50 is "Neutral," 1.51 - 2.50 is "Low," and 1.00 - 1.50 is "Very Low". Then, quantitative responses in the open-end section were analyzed and categorized using content analysis.
Results

The results are shown in the figures as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Knowledge of RA and English language</th>
<th>No. of participants</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>t value</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15.18</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>2.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 : Pretest and posttest means (n = 24)

Table 1 revealed that the participants’ knowledge of RA genre and the English language for composing research articles improved. The average posttest score of the group (15.18) increased from the average pretest score (13.23). The t-test value (2.24) indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest means (1.95) at 0.05 level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>x</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>e-Learning Technology Ease of Use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The e-Learning in Moodle for research article writing uses appropriate technology which is easy to use.</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I can communicate with other learners in the class in Moodle easily.</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The information delivery system helps me to receive course information easily.</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I can submit assignments in the system easily.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I can communicate with the teacher in the system of Moodle easily.</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I can express my opinions in the communication channel in the system easily.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>e-Learning Technology Usefulness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The learning record system helps me to understand my knowledge and performance level and manage my learning more effectively.</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The system displays contents in the lessons clearly and in an orderly manner.</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The automatic responding system which reveals the correct answers helps me learn independently and more effectively.</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>The e-Learning system has appropriate speed to display letters, pictures, and video clips in the lessons effectively.</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 : Perceived ease of use and usefulness of the e-Learning technology (n = 24)

The findings in Table 2 illustrated that the participants generally advocated the e-Learning lessons designed in this study. The average mean of all items measuring the e-Learning technology was 4.13. It also showed that the levels of perceived ease of use and usefulness of the e-Learning technology appeared high for all aspects. The participants viewed that Moodle provided appropriate technology and design for e-Learning which is easy and convenient to use. The information delivery system helped them to receive course information and submit assignments in the system conveniently. The communication tools of Moodle allowed them to contact with the
teacher and classmates easily; furthermore, the e-Learning system provided them with a channel easy to express their opinions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td><strong>e-Learning Contents and Learning Activities Ease of Use</strong>&lt;br&gt;I can search documents and download them to study easily.</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The contents in e-Lessons for research article writing are easy to understand.</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td><strong>e-Learning Contents and Learning Activities Usefulness</strong>&lt;br&gt;The e-Lessons in Moodle for research article writing help me spend time outside the classroom useful for learning English.</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>Very High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>The e-Lessons in Moodle for research article writing provide opportunities to study English from various sources which are useful.</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>Very High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The e-Lessons in Moodle for research article writing support me to develop self-learning.</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>The e-Lessons in Moodle for research article writing are useful and help me improve my knowledge.</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>The e-Lessons in Moodle for research article writing help me participate more in learning activities.</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>The e-Lessons in Moodle for research article writing make my learning effective and help me understand the content better.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>The e-Lessons for research article writing are flexible and allow me to study according to my preferences and performance level.</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The e-Lessons in Moodle for research article writing have appropriate contents and meet the learning objectives of the course.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>The contents in e-Lessons for research article writing meet my needs and appropriate to the level of my knowledge.</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>The multimedia from the Internet, such as video clips are useful and helpful for me to understand English grammar.</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>The contents in e-Lessons for research article writing are varied and interesting.</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>The e-Lessons in Moodle for research article writing suit the level of my knowledge and interest.</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>The documents for download are useful.</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>4.07</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.12</strong></td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Perceived ease of use and usefulness of the e-Learning contents and learning activities (n = 24)

Table 3 revealed that the average mean of all items assessing the e-Learning contents and learning activities was 4.07, showing that the attitude levels for these two aspects were high. These findings clearly illustrated that the participants enjoyed the benefits from e-Learning. Overall, the participants viewed that the e-Learning contents and
activities for studying RA genre, language structure, and vocabulary were easy to understand and useful for RA composition. The levels of their perceived usefulness were very high for the opportunities to spend useful time outside the classroom on studying English from various sources. Moreover, they believed that the e-Learning supported them to develop self-learning and improve their knowledge.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1) Ease of use</th>
<th>2) Usefulness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Easy to find information as the content is well-organized.</td>
<td>1. Able to use the information as a reference for writing their own research articles.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Easy to revise and practice anywhere and anytime.</td>
<td>2. Able to learn from the distance when assigned the task.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Easy to access as it is online.</td>
<td>3. Able to communicate with the lecturer online or drop questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Easy to understand the structure of research articles.</td>
<td>4. Able to study and practice anywhere and anytime.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Easy to apply the information into their own RA writings.</td>
<td>5. Able to reduce stress in class when left behind.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3) Problems</th>
<th>4) Suggestions for improvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Poor quality of network causing slowness or delay.</td>
<td>1. Use more attractive design in the webpage for both the lay-out and contents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Unclear instructions for some parts.</td>
<td>2. Develop e-Testing in the future.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Too long contents and exercises.</td>
<td>3. Provide a user’s manual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Provide more time for counselling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Provide more attractive visual and audio tools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Provide more authentic examples.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Provide more useful links or websites.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Provide an explanation for the answer of each question.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Qualitative findings about the blended e-Learning for studying RA genre and the English language for RA composition

In Table 4, qualitative findings obtained from the open-ended responses are presented. Overall, the findings demonstrated that the participants had satisfaction with the ease of use and usefulness of the e-Learning technology, and the contents and learning activities. These findings supported the quantitative findings obtained from the questionnaire data. The participants indicated the particular benefits of e-Learning, such as easy to study anywhere and anytime, easy to understand the structure of research articles, able to communicate with the instructor online, able to reduce stress in class when left behind, and able to use the information as a reference to write their research articles. Obviously, the findings signified that the use of blended e-Learning technology in postgraduate RA writing course could bring a lot of advantages and benefits to the traditional style of teaching and learning.
Discussion and Conclusion

The empirical findings of our study showed that genre-based instruction which utilized blended e-Learning resulted in students' improved learning outcomes and positive attitudes; the positive aspects of e-Learning reported in this study are in line with the findings of previous research which support that RA genre could be formally taught in order to help raise awareness and enhance genre knowledge of novice RA writers (Flowerdew, 2000; Gosden, 1995; Li, 2007; Peters, 2011). The findings also accord with Dougiamas (2010) that Moodle's e-Learning technology supports learner autonomy and the socio-constructive learning approach.

In addition, this study yielded many positive results that reflected students' positive attitude towards e-Learning. The participants agreed that the e-Learning had appropriate contents and learning activities that met their learning objectives and the level of their knowledge and interest. Besides, the contents in the e-Learning for RA writing were varied and interesting. Moreover, the multimedia from the Internet, such as video clips were useful and helpful for studying English grammar. These findings are supported with Liaw (2008) who stated that these factors concerning the quality of e-Learning contents and learning activities are the predictors of e-Learning effectiveness and students' perceived satisfaction.

In light of e-Learning assessment, our study found the factors which are consistent with earlier findings that could determine the ease of e-Learning technology use which include user-friendly interface for learning and communication. The factors influencing perceived usefulness of e-Learning technology include useful system functionality and system quality (Montaghian et al., 2013; Pituch & Lee, 2006; Sirithongtaworn & Krairit, 2006; Sun et al., 2008). The factors that could determine the ease of use of e-Learning contents and learning activities include easy to archive and easy to understand. The factors that could contribute to the usefulness of e-Learning contents and learning activities involve information quality and useful learning activities (Sirithongtaworn & Krairit, 2006), useful instructional multimedia (Liaw et al., 2007), interactive responses (Liaw et al., 2007; Liaw & Huang, 2013), learner fit, flexibility, and autonomous learning. These factors could consequently create the overall quality of e-Learning system.

However, some problems were encountered. These included poor network quality which sometimes caused slowness or delay, unclear instructions for some parts which caused confusion, and the lengthy contents and exercises which were sometimes too exhausting. Nevertheless, the participants provided some useful suggestions which could help improve the e-Learning project in the future. According to their views, the e-Learning project should provide the followings: a user’s manual, a more attractive layout of the webpage and content page design, additional useful visual and audio tools, more useful links or websites, more authentic examples, an explanation for the correct answer of each question, and more time for the instructor to give online advice. In addition, the participants suggested developing e-Testing for Education postgraduates to assess their English knowledge for RA composition. These recommendations should be taken into account because the e-Learning project that provides support, interactive learning activities, and a variety of educational multimedia can meet the needs of students who prefer self-directed learning mode and interactive learning environment. In addition, this study was conducted with a small
group of doctoral students in two sub-disciplines of Education at an academic institute in Thailand. The findings may not yield a strong effect generalizable to the population of postgraduate students of Education in general and postgraduate students of other disciplinary fields. Therefore, similar research in the future should be conducted with postgraduate students in larger groups of Education and from other academic disciplines to confirm the findings of our study. In addition, future research in this area should progress to the stage of rigorous RA writing for publication.

In summary, our study has provided evidence of significantly improved posttest mean score of the group on English for understanding Education RA genre and content. Moreover, the positive attitudes of doctoral candidates towards e-Learning can help to confirm the benefits of blended e-Learning. Therefore, we would like to conclude that blended e-Learning can facilitate RA composition well and should be used to support NNES novice researchers in Thailand to learn to write RA for international scholarly publication.
Acknowledgement
We are very grateful to the Faculty of Industrial Education, King Mongkut’s Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, Thailand that provides research funding to this study.
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An Investigation of Taiwanese College English Majors’ Learning Motivation and Self-Identity Changes

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Most studies investigating learners’ motivation has probed into the relationship between motivation and learners’ linguistic outcomes; however, not many looked into the relationship between motivation and nonlinguistic outcomes such as learners’ identity formation (Gao et al, 2007; Teer, 2013). Thus, the purpose of the study was twofold; one was to investigate students’ self-identity changes and the other was to determine the correlation between students’ learning motivation and their self-identity changes. A total of 231 Taiwanese college students who majored in the English department participated in the study. Major methods of data collection include two surveys adapted from Gardner’s (2004) Attitude/ Motivation Battery Test and Xu as well as Gao’s Self-identity Change Questionnaire (2011). Results of the study showed that the majority of the students showed high motivation toward English learning. Among the six categories of self-identity changes, the most prominent change was learners’ self-confidence change. Participants also responded to have undergone productive and additive changes, which showed that learners appreciated their native languages through the learning of their target language and vice versa. Significant correlation was also found between motivation and students’ self-identity changes, except for split identity changes. It is hoped that this study can be used to provide future researchers and teachers a better understanding of English learners’ motivation and identity formation within the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Keywords: EFL; identity change; identity formation; bilingualism; motivation

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Introduction

The issue of language and identity has caught much attention in the field of second language acquisition. However, when investigating the notion of identity, scholars in the past adopted a more categorical approach, using groups and categories, such as gender, ethnicity, or social class to define identity (Tracy & Robles, 2013). The notion of identity was “treated as straightforward, easily categorized, relatively homogeneous and static group variables” (Duff, 2012. p.2). Firth and Wagner (1997) argued that prevailing studies in the past within SLA research were “individualistic and mechanistic,” and failed “to account in a satisfactory way for interactional and sociolinguistic dimensions of language” (p. 285). Individual learners under this notion are often seen as stable and uniform beings and “are considered self-contained, independent entities, extractable from individual minds” (Hall, 2012, p.30). Recent studies on identity have placed more emphasis on how the social context and educational background shape learners’ perceptions of themselves and the world (e.g., Norton Pierce, 1995, Norton, 1997; Gao, 2007; Yue, 2012; Duff, 2012). Norton (1997) indicated that the notion of “identity” should be seen as “how people understand their relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future” (p.410). Similarly, Gao (2009) stated that identity is “self-defined, pluralistic and dynamic, constantly negotiated between the individual agent and the social environment” (p.111). Identity should not be seen as “a composition of discrete entities or a fixed set of traits, but rather a diverse construction, which is interwoven with self-perceptions and experiences in relation to the wider social culture context” (Duo, 2014).

Motivation is another major topic that received much attention in the field of Education. Teachers and researchers have devoted much time and great efforts in trying to figure out the best motivator, to motivate students to learn and to be autonomous. Ryan and Deci (2000) stated that “to be motivated means to be moved to do something” (p. 54). Ormrod (2000) described that “motivation is something that energizes, directs, and sustains behavior; it gets students moving, points them in a particular direction, and keeps them going” (p. 472). Dörnyei (2001) indicated that motivation is responsible for why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to persist in the activity, and how much effort they are willing to put into the activity. In the field of foreign language learning, motivation is defined, by Gardner
Gardner’s socio-education model in second language acquisition (SLA) has been influential and studied for decades. In Gardner’s socio-educational model (Gardner, 1979; 1985), the four variables/phases viz., social milieu, individual differences, second language acquisition context, and outcomes, are interrelated when one is learning a second language. Social milieu refers to one’s cultural beliefs or environment. Individual differences include intelligence, aptitude, motivation, and situational anxiety. The third variable/phase is second language acquisition context. It refers to the setting in which the target language is learned, and it could be a formal or an informal setting. The last variable/phase is outcome. There are two kinds of outcomes: linguistic outcome and non-linguistic outcome. Linguistic outcome refers to the second language proficiency, such as knowledge and skills in grammar, vocabulary, and so on. Non-linguistic outcome refers to learners’ attitudes and values of the target language community, developed from the second language learning experience. In 1985, Gardner revised his model, adding integrative motive as a part of individual differences. Integrative motive includes attitudes toward the learning situation and integrativeness. Attitudes toward the learning situation refer to attitudes toward the elements in the learning situation, such as evaluation of the teachers, the lesson plans, and the textbook. Integrativeness is considered as a learner’s interest in the cultural community/group of people of the target language.

However, in Norton’s viewpoint, Gardner’s (1985) notion of instrumental and integrative motivation failed to explain the intricate relationship between power, identity, and language learning (Norton, 2000). Dai (2009) also stated that motivation itself could not reside from the interaction of the individual with his or her environment and social context in which they are situated. Drawing from Bourdieu’s sociological construct that language encompasses a form of cultural capital, Norton (1997) proposed the concept of “investment”, which is used “to signal [the] socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to target language and their
sometimes ambivalent desire to learn and practice it” (Norton, 1997, p.411). This point of view provides an alternative perspective on learner motivation, which assists in understanding the concept of learners’ motivation. As De Mejia (2002) indicated, “language may be seen as a symbolic resource which can receive different values depending on the market. The possession of symbolic resources, such as certain highly valued types of linguistic abilities, cultural knowledge and special skills, help provide access to valuable social, educational, and material resources” (p.36). As such, if learners invested in a target language, they would expect a good return on the investment, and would hope to acquire a wide range of material resources or symbolic resources, and in return, “increase the value of their cultural capital” (Norton, 2000, p. 10). This notion provides not only another perspective to examine reasons behind learners’ motivations for learning a language, but also to understand how learners self-perceive themselves and how their identity is formed within a larger social context.

Numerous empirical studies have been conducted on learners’ identity formation in different contexts; however, only a few have examined the relationship between language learners’ motivation and their self-identity changes (e.g., Gao et al., 2007; Teer, 2013). In most English departments in universities in Taiwan, creating a learning environment, which on one hand enables students to be immersed in the target language environment and on the other hand, motivates students to learn the target language have become the focus and course objectives of education planning. Nevertheless, as a teacher teaching in an English department, this often led the researcher to ponder how it might affect the students’ culture identity construction. After being immersed in an environment in which learning the English language and culture is the primary objective, how do leaners perceive themselves as English learners and how does it affect their own perceptions of their culture identification? Thus, the purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between English majors motivation and self-identity changes. Based on the purpose of the study, the research questions are:

1) What identity changes have college English majors undergone?
2) Is there a significant relationship between students’ learning motivation and self-identity changes?
Method

Subjects
A total of 231 students (female, n=177; male, n=54) who studied in the Department of Applied English in a private university in Taiwan participated in the study. Among the subjects, there were 57 freshmen, 38 sophomores, 71 juniors and 65 senior students and participants’ average age was 18-19 years.

Instruments
To fulfill the purpose of the study, a modified version of Gardner’s (2004) Attitude/Motivation Battery Test (and Xu & Gao’s (2011) and “self-identity change” questionnaire was used. The motivation questionnaire included a total of 8 questions measuring students’ language learning motivation. The self-identity questionnaire contains 38 items and employs a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. A few statements were slightly modified so that they would be more appropriate for the Taiwanese context. The self-identity questionnaire was categorized into six subcategories, each including five items. Based on the definition given by Xu & Gao (2011), the six categories are listed and defined as follows:

(1) Self-confidence change: This refers to changes in an individual’s perceptions of his/her confidence in a positive direction. According to Gao et al. (2005, 2007), a self-confidence change here is not the “factor” affecting the students’ English learning process, but rather is defined as the outcome of learners’ English learning process. The category itself is independent of the other categories.
(2) Additive change: This refers to the coexistence of two sets of languages, behavioral patterns and values, each specified for the particular context.
(3) Subtractive change: This is the replacement of the native language and culture by the target language and culture.
(4) Productive change: This means the target language and native language reinforce each other in a positive way.
(5) Split change: This refers to the struggle between two different languages and cultures that might cause an identity conflict. Based on the definition given by Gao et al. (2005, 2007), this change can be considered as an intermediate phase that students might overcome during the language learning process.
(6) Zero change: This category is used for comparison and mainly refers to the absence of an identity change.

Among the 6 categories, only “additive change”, “subtractive change”, “productive change” and “split change” are considered as categories related to a culture-identity change. The reliability of the motivation questionnaire and self-identity survey was calculated to be 0.84 and 0.73 respectively using Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient. Klimczak and Wedman (1997) had proposed that a Cronbach Alpha reliability value of 0.70 is considered appropriate for survey questionnaires.

Results

The results of participants’ perceptions of six types of identity changes are shown in table 1. A one-sample t-test was performed to evaluate whether perceptions of the participants were statistically different than a normal population distribution with a mean value of 3. Results show that all five categories displayed significant differences, except for “zero change”. As shown from the table, “confidence (positive) change” (M = 3.79) had the highest mean score, followed by “additive change” (M = 3.48) and then “productive change” (M = 3.35). This shows that the majority of the students gained confidence after learning English and were able to maintain a balance between two different languages and cultures. The mean values for “subtractive change” (M = 2.88) and “split change” (M = 2.67) were lower than the average mean, indicating these changes were not common among the students. The results of the study were similar to Gao et al. (2007), Dai (2009) and Teer’s (2013) study, which also employed Gao’s research framework.

Table 1 Summary of English majors’ self-identity changes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subcategories</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>µ</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>confidence</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.55**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>additive</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.53**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subtractive</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-3.05*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>productive</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.83**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>split</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-8.64**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zero</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **p<0.01; *p<0.05
Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to assess the relationship between learners’ motivation and self-identity changes. Table 2 shows different degrees of correlation among the variables. According to Dancey & Reidy’s (2004) categorization of the strength of correlation, $r = 1$ indicates a perfect correlation, $r=0.7-0.9$ represents a strong correlation, $r=0.4-0.6$ shows moderate correlation, $r=0.1-0.3$ indicates weak correlation and $r=0$ shows no correlation. Based on this categorization, we can see that there is a moderate positive correlation between motivation and several positive identity changes, including confidence change, additive change as well as productive change. Weak positive correlation was found between motivation and subtractive identity change and weak negative correlation was found between motivation and zero change. Overall, this shows that increase in motivation change was positively correlated with increase in learners’ confidence, additive and productive change.

Table 2 Pearson Correlation Coefficient between Learners’ Motivation and Self-identity Changes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>motivation</th>
<th>confidence</th>
<th>subtractive</th>
<th>additive</th>
<th>productive</th>
<th>split</th>
<th>zero</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>motivation</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.57**</td>
<td>0.14*</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>-0.17*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confidence</td>
<td>0.57**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.25**</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
<td>0.49**</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subtractive</td>
<td>0.14*</td>
<td>0.25**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
<td>0.62**</td>
<td>0.58**</td>
<td>0.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>additive</td>
<td>0.37**</td>
<td>0.44**</td>
<td>0.36**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>0.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>productive</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>0.49**</td>
<td>0.62**</td>
<td>0.50**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.43**</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>split</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.58**</td>
<td>0.30**</td>
<td>0.43**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.25**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zero</td>
<td>-0.17*</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.25**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.05   **p < 0.01

Discussion

The purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between English majors’ motivation and identity change at a Taiwanese University. Results showed that the majority of the participants did not experience an identity split or a loss of their primary language and culture identification. Instead, they gained more confidence after learning English and were able to maintain a balance between two different languages and cultures (see Table 1). Some studies (e.g., Lin, 2002; Wu, 2008; Shen,
2010, etc.) showed concerns over the possible erosion of learners’ ideologies and cultural identity due to English learning. However, other studies have shown different results. Downes (2001), for instance, investigated the Japanese cultural identity of children enrolled in the English immersion program in Japan and concluded that children did not feel “less Japanese” nor did they develop negative feelings toward their native language and culture. Similarly, Chuang (2008) conducted a study to examine students’ perspectives on their cultural identity in an English partial immersion program in Taiwan. The results of the study also contradicted with the popular beliefs that bilingual programs might interfere with students’ native language and culture. Instead, the majority of the students in the study reported to enjoy both languages and cultures.

Significant correlation was found between motivation and learners’ confidence, additive and productive change. Results of the study was similar to Dai’s study in 2009. Dai conducted a study to investigate the relationship between Taiwanese college students’ motivation and identity change. Results showed that there was a significant relationship between five types of motivation (integrative, individual development, social responsibility, learning situation, and instrumental) and learners’ self-identity changes. Integrative motivation was found to correlate with additive, productive, and split changes while subtractive, productive, and split changes were reported to be correlated with social responsibility. Similarly, Gao et al. (2007) surveyed more than 2000 Chinese university students from 30 universities in China using a Likert-scale questionnaire to identify the relationship between motivation types and learner’s self-identity changes. Results showed that the most prominent correlation between the variables was between long-term motivation and positive self-identity change. In addition, significant correlations were also identified between individual development motivation and self-confidence change, short-term motivation and negative change, as well as social responsibility motivation and polar change.
Conclusion and Recommendations

This study investigated the relationship between college English majors’ learning motivation and self-identity changes. Results of the study indicated a positive correlation between students’ motivation and self-identity changes. However, a few major limitations should be taken into account when interpreting the results. First, the study did not include equal amount of students from different grade levels. The study examined a group of English majors which is composed of different grade levels (freshmen, sophomore, and junior students); nevertheless, among all the subjects, only a small portion of sophomore students were included in the study while the number of other grade levels were equally the same. Furthermore, The findings also imply that it would be desirable to conduct more longitudinal investigations in the SLA field in order to capture the dynamic interaction between learners and contextual and social factors. In addition, since subjects of this study were mainly students from the same department, the results of the study might not be representative of the larger population who also study English as their major. As a result, extensive studies are also required before generalizing the results to the wider population.
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Guilford Press.


The Innovation of Music and Computer Courses Designed to Improve the Skills of Thai Music Students in Silpakorn University

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Abstract
The Music and Computer course, 431 210 is designed to improve the skills of Thai music students, both majors and minors, at the Faculty of Arts, Silpakorn University. Computer functions in the course as a musical tool incorporated with music software for notating, recording, as well as creating other musical works related to the program of study that has been used since 2002 and revised in 2010 as appropriate for technological advances in Thai society.
I. Introduction

1) Background and significances of the research (teaching methodology/ teaching materials)

The Music and Computer course, 431 210 is designed to improve the skills of Thai music students, both majors and minors, at the Faculty of Arts, Silpakorn University. Computer functions in the course as a musical tool incorporated with music software for notating, recording, as well as creating other musical works related to the program of study that has been used since 2002 and revised in 2010 as appropriate for technological advances in Thai society.

Even though students enrolling in this course have passed western music notation transcription from the course 431 204, that course content only requires students to notate the music by hand; hence, students still need experience in using notation software. As a consequence, 431 210 is designed to incorporate the application Sibelius 7 in order to enhance student capability to apply this computer skill in preserving Thai Music through western notation. Along with the software operation, students are assigned to do a biographical project of one Thai music master and notate his or her music by using Sibelius 7. The assignment will be presented with Microsoft PowerPoint. Students could also utilize this assignment as a project presented in the course 431 217 Project in Thai Music in the second semester of their fourth year of study, or modify it for further use in their professional career after graduation. Nevertheless, the benefits of the course after the graduation, especially towards social and public, cannot be emphasized enough.

As such, an innovative project has been designed by one instructor who is experienced in computer music applications. He also works as a part time instructor in teaching two courses: TVB 2203, Music and Sonic Design for Radio and TV Media and CAM 2505, Sound and Music Production for Communication Arts (Broadcasting) department, Faculty of Management Science, Suan Sunandha Rajabhat University since 2013 to present. This subject aims to teach students computer applications for sound design and production in communication arts business encompassing both theory of music and broadcasting. As a consequence, he has developed an innovative application to support teaching and learning using Music and Computer course (MUS 431/210) as a means of teaching. The course content involves the application GarageBand, a software of Apple products in i-Life operated under OSX and IOS system. Considered a user friendly application beneficial to people with a non-music background, the program can help create music and compositions through instrument designation, together with playing in an autoplay function. Once the chord is selected to start the application, the system will conduct an ongoing rhythm and tempo providing the background for further input.

Moreover the application is also capable of combining sounds through mixed-sound function of 8 tracks, giving users an opportunity to mix various musical instruments with the option of exporting files to share in social networks including YouTube, SoundCloud, etc., or saving in iCloud to rework in GarageBand on a Mac system. Although GarageBand is one of the most popular applications containing large amounts of audio files of both western and regional music, it does not contain any file of Thai music. Hence, people worldwide have not had the opportunity to experience
Thai music from GarageBand. Realizing this disadvantage, *Music and Computer* provides students study project to develop a simple Thai music composition of 3 minutes under the condition that it has to reveal Thai musical identity. The Instructor of the course will teach students how to operate the application as well as guide them through the composition process before recording and uploading to online media for public users. With this course assignment, Thai music can be integrated with modern technology, along with Thai music preservation and publication.

Students’ projects will enhance their methodology in notating Thai music with modern notation in the *Sibilius* application. In addition to the project, students have to conduct a research project on the life and work of one Thai music master with a music score attached and presented through PowerPoint, as well as a teaching presentation on a case-based study. Students will conduct a group project on Thai music composition for the GarageBand application. All of the course assignments will be published on the Thai Music department website. The course outcome can reinforce a new student-centered learning assessment, which provides students freedom in their thinking process under the instructor’s guidance.

Through *Music and Computer*, the modernistic evaluation system will assess the project, considered a new integration in teaching and learning, in which Thai musical knowledge has merged with computer applications. As such, it could maintain Thai musical heritage in a creative way congruous with this present-day society.

2) Principle of the project

The goal of the project is to educate both Thai music major and minor students how to integrate Thai music knowledge with technology of the GarageBand application so that they can create and present their works to the public by uploading to online media channels.

3) Objectives of the project

3.1 To enlarge the learning outcome of the course 431/210 *Music and Computer*, Music and Dramatic Arts, Faculty of Arts, Silpakorn University
3.2 To enlarge the learning outcome through Project-based innovative teaching for individual and group project creativity
3.3 To develop educational integrating system with work-based system relying on student center accountability through project assessment and evaluation
3.4 To develop the 5-learning outcomes as mentioned in the curriculum standardization
3.5 To promote the university notability in innovative teaching

II. Project Description

1) Project factors

The main factor is to create an innovative program in a GarageBand Application. Students will be assigned to compose a simplified Thai music piece, approximately 3–minutes length. The instructor will guide student in operating the application as well as providing advice on matters of composition. Students will then upload the files to
online media channels. General application users can derive benefit from students’ works, as such this innovative program can serve the society in its full capacity.

2) Procedures in utilizing teaching resources

2.1 Introduction process
Instructor introduces course objectives to students, along with explaining the assessment system in evaluating both the individual and group projects. Meanwhile, he teaches *Sibelius version 7* to enhance students’ skill in notating Thai Music with western notation system. After students have managed the competency in using *Sibelius*, the Microsoft PowerPoint program is introduced for creating a project presentation. Students will be assigned an individual project on the study of one Thai Music master’s biography and notate a work of the selected Thai music master by using *Sibelius 7*, as well as a brief description of his music literature. The project aims to teach students’ the ability to integrate the knowledge of notating music in western notation with the ability to conduct the research in Thai music master’s biography. Hence, student’s individual project will be announced through the department website.

2.2 Project creation process
GarageBand application is introduced to students. The project is assigned on a group basis. Each group has to compose 3 pieces of 3-minute-long Thai music. Melodies are required to reveal Thai musical identity following to the instructor’s advice. After the compositions are made, students have to present their works by performing with 3 different types of ensemble:
- *Pii-pat* Ensemble (soft mallet) which consists of Ranat-ek, Ranat-tum, Kong-wong-yai, Klui, Saw-u, Ching, and Klong-kaek.

The performance will be recorded and then, exported as sound files to work in GarageBand. Each instrument is placed through the 8-tracks of mixed sound channel according to the number of the instruments in each ensemble.

3) Conceptual Framework in Developing Teaching Innovation

By clarifying the project framework, students can realize the potential of integrating modern technology with the national treasure of Thai music. Thus, the application of Thai musical heritage on the Garage Band application is indeed a new innovative project that can widen the gateway of Thai music for the first time to reach a modern hemisphere of international publication. In processing this project, a strong cooperation from students together with the expertise of experienced sound engineers are significant components to turn Thai music recording into a valuable utilized package. This would definitely establish learning-teaching innovation guideline for a further development of Thai music education.
III. Utilizing the Project

1) Methods in utilizing the teaching package

Instructor assigns students to publish their project via online networks and social medias such as Facebook, YouTube, Sound Cloud, etc. Hence, the information published in these medias will be of benefit to the public. Moreover, the instructor can evaluate the project by observing the media feedback.

2) Condition in utilizing teaching package

2.1 For the instructor, the goal is to assure the student’s ability in notating Thai music with western notation system by using Sibilius 7 as well as obtaining research and presentation skill individually in studying the biography of Thai music master and presenting the study outcome through PowerPoint presentation. Instructor will be giving advice throughout the process and open the forum for in-class critique. The other condition is to assign a group project to create group dynamics in composing 3 pieces of Thai music, each within the duration of 3-minutes and containing the melodic characteristic of Thai musical identity. Instructor will teach students to operate the GarageBand application, along with transforming their music for the upload process. More importantly, the rehearsal of the pieces has to be ensured for recording readiness. The evaluation will be done as a final step after the recording process is completed. Hence, grading is made for both individual and group project evaluation.

2.2 For students, the individual and group projects are required to be fulfilled at the productive level, including achieving potential and an understanding in operating music programs including Sibelius, Microsoft PowerPoint and GarageBand effectively. Moreover, student must be able to integrate computer technology and Thai Music knowledge for the purpose of preservation and general public utilization.
IV. Report of the Project Progress

Instructor assigned students to setup a Facebook group under the name “Ethnic Music 58” (don-trii phao-pan 58). In the individual assignment project, in which students conducted their research on a Thai music master’s life and work, students have uploaded information through Facebook and shared with the public. Through this assignment, 12 students have presented their individual works on the following topics:

1. Prince Narisara Nuvadtivongs
2. Prince Paribatra
3. Prince Benbadhanabongse
4. Phraya Prasarnnduriyasap
5. Phra Praditpairau
6. Luang Praditpairau
7. Kru Choy Soonthornvatin
8. Jangwang Tua Patayakosol
9. Kru Montri Tramot
10. Kru Chalerm Buatang
11. Kru Prasit Thavorn
12. Kru Boonyong Ketkong

After finishing their individual projects, students continued with their group project by composing 3 pieces of Thai music of 3-minutes each. The melody is interpolated with Thai musical characteristic under the guidance of the course instructor. The music composed must possess the identity of Thai Music under the instructor’s supervision. As a result of the group project, 3 Thai music compositions were created: 1) Aksara, 2) Vijitrotjana, and 3) Maan-mek. The composition “Maan-mek” is performed with Pii-part mai nuam (soft mallet) ensemble, “Aksara” is performed with mixed strings ensemble with Kim, and “Vijitrotjana” is performed with mixed string ensemble with Saw-sam-sai.

Before the recording, students have submitted their compositions to the instructor and rehearsed the pieces 2 times a week. The recording was made on May 23, 2015 at the recording studio of the western music department, Faculty of Humanities, Ban Somdej Chaopraya Rachabhat University, with Sompas Sookchana (Collage of Muusic), an expert of Thai music recording, serving as a project recording enginner.
Recording Studio

The recording had been done under 8 Mixed-sound Tracks which equivalent to the number of musical instruments used in all 3 ensembles of the project and is suitable for the GarageBand application.

The recording of 3 songs; *Aksara*, *Vijitrotjana*, and *Maan-mek*

Students were all well prepared through effective rehearsals and advising. As a consequence, the recording process took only 3 hours. It reveals students high enthusiasm and effective team work organization. The recording files were then transferred to Garage Band program.
V. Outcomes of the Development of Innovative Teaching Project

1) Initiating the development in innovative teaching and learning from the Project-based assignment.
2) Creating a student-centered assessment and evaluation.
3) Developing the education system involved with integration and work-based operation.
4) Developing students learning competency in 5 areas according to the curriculum standardization.
5) Initiating student’s awareness towards social need and community service
6) Promoting the institution’s (Silpakorn University) notability since it is the first institution encouraging Thai music students to implement their Thai music knowledge by using the GarageBand application for general public benefit. Hence, it also provides more opportunities to the Thai music area in expanding to other creative projects.
Abstract
The Students Grants-in-Aid Program for Poverty Alleviation (SGP-PA), under which this study was carried out, aims at addressing chronic poverty through the expansion of educational opportunities to at least one child of every identified poor household by sending them to school to finish a college degree. Philippine Normal University, as the National Center for Teacher Education in the Philippines, was identified as one of the partners in the program implementation. Justifiably, this study focuses on the description of the students-grantees’ educational experiences and personal histories of transcending boundaries toward empowerment, and future life aspirations. Data were gathered through open-ended interviews, narrative histories and focus group discussions. Transcripts from the interviews and focus group discussions were analyzed for themes related to the statements of the purpose. Findings suggest that the students-grantees have demonstrated improvement in their personal-social, career, and academic dispositions. Moreover, this study reveals that the students-grantees’ aspirations include becoming educational leaders and role models who can help break the cycle of poverty and continue to become lifelong learners.

Keywords: poverty alleviation program, self-empowerment, teacher-training, lifelong learners
Introduction

Hunger, malnutrition, disease, lack of shelter, illiteracy, and other poverty related concerns are considered as global phenomenon. Over the years, poverty rate in the Philippines continues to increase. The Poverty incidence among Filipinos in the first semester of 2014 was estimated at 25.8 percent based on the July, 2014 Annual Poverty Indicators Survey (APIS) conducted by the Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA). During the same period in 2013, poverty incidence among Filipinos was recorded at 24.6 percent. In addition to the thresholds and incidences, the PSA also releases other poverty-related statistics in the report such as the income and poverty gap. Such data pose an imperative demand for policymakers to exert their efforts to institute national programs to address all poverty-related concerns in the country.

Numerous studies conducted in the Philippines and in other countries about poverty (Ariola, 2010; Asian Development Bank, 2009; Dumaguit, 2005; Mallari, 2009; Reyes & Valencia, 2002; Uriarte, 2008) point out the need to institute programs aimed at reaching the very poor to improve the quality of life. Various strategies were identified that would help propel the economic activities of the communities towards achieving sustainable socio-economic growth. In 2012, the Philippine government developed a mechanism for poverty alleviation called “Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program” (4Ps), aimed at improving the disadvantaged sectors in the Philippines. In line with this, the Students’ Grants-in-Aid Program for Poverty Alleviation (SGP-PA) was initiated, where a member of the 4Ps family was identified and was sent Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) to study tertiary education. The grant covers the costs for tuition and other school fees, purchase of textbooks, board and lodging in PNU Dormitory, uniform, health assistance and other valid related educational expenses and support services to sustain and enable him/her to complete his/her degree program.

SGP-PA was implemented through the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD), Commission on Higher Education (CHED), State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) and the Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE). The program began in academic year 2012-2013 aimed at providing college grants to a family member of around 4,026 eligible Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino Program (4Ps) beneficiaries in the country. The program is aimed at supporting a student to be able to complete a college degree. The primary objectives of the program are to ensure that the grantees are enrolled in CHED priority courses in selected SUCs duly recognized by CHED, Such will ensure that the future graduates will have an opportunity to become productive members of society. Also, the SGP-PA aims to contribute in the increase of the number of enrolment in higher education in line with the national government's priority degree programs among poor households and support college graduates’ entry to labor markets through placement assistance.

Philippine Normal University, as the National Center for Teacher Education in the Philippines, was identified by CHED as one of the partners in the program implementation. Sixty four eligible grantees were enrolled in PNU in 2012. As an HEI, it helps in the development, implementation, and management, monitoring and reporting of the grantees progress in the program. Hence, it is imperative to come up with a study which focuses on the description of the students-grantees’ educational experiences and personal histories of transcending boundaries toward empowerment.
Poverty Alleviation and Empowerment Programs

Poverty alleviation programs on existing local management efforts to be successful are built on critical grassroots approach (Carr, 2008). In a study on the Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) program conducted by Leroya, Ruelb, & Verhofstadt (2009) found out that CCT provide a positive impact to improve child nutrition. In the same effort, the ASEAN foundation has initiated 43 projects for poverty alleviation. A big contribution was made through the Japan-ASEAN Solidarity fund (Uriarte, 2008). Similarly, Bangladesh has its Micro-credit and Poverty Alleviation program to assist in the development of the living standard of their poor and vulnerable people (Shukran & Farhana, 2011). These programs are meant for empowerment which refers to the expansion in people’s ability to make strategic life choices in a context where this capacity was previously denied to them (Kabeer, 2001).

Empowerment has become an attractive concept in the development of youth policies and services in recent years (Chiu & Wong, 1999; Foster, 2001; Lee, 1999) as cited by To (2009). Empowerment is the process of enhancing the capacity of individuals or groups to make choices and to transform those choices into desired actions and outcomes. Zimmerman (2012) made a significant contribution in his empowerment theory. The three components include individual empowerment, organizational empowerment and community empowerment. Zimmerman summarized his theory as “connecting individual well being with the larger social and political environment”. Empowerment programs are aimed at providing avenues or opportunities for individuals to make better their lives, organizations, and communities. Findings on the study about Hong Kong School Social Workers' Experiences in Generating Empowering Practices suggest that empowerment can be generated through a number of activities promoting individual and collective success.

Empowerment program is the creation of physical, social, emotional, and creative spaces where the beneficiaries can explore, try-out newly acquired skills, build positive self and healthy relationships, and experience personal and collective success (Jennings, Medina, Messias & McLoughlin, 2006). The authors believe that poverty alleviation programs should focus on empowering individuals through capacity building, skills training and human resource development.

The purpose of this study is to provide a description of the students-grantees’ educational experiences and personal histories of transcending boundaries toward empowerment. This is attained by considering participating student-grantees’ thoughts, reactions and feelings on (a) their educational experiences in the university (b) their personal histories of being empowered, and (c) their future aspirations in life.

This study is significant to the student-grantees as it provides an avenue to describe their experiences of transcending boundaries towards empowerment. These experiences will give the program facilitators feedback on how the program and activities that were developed, implemented and managed are perceived by the beneficiaries. It can also shed light to research gaps in documenting poverty alleviation experiences and to further practice-based research to understand how a specific empowerment program may have influenced the beneficiaries differently.
The figure above describes the framework of the Student Empowerment Pathways which is aimed at providing support to the transition of student-grantees into the college by providing them services and environment that promote academic achievement, successful completion of degrees, personal-social development, and career advancement. This framework is anchored on Chinman and Linneys’ Adolescent Empowerment Cycle as cited by Jennings et. al. (2006). The Adolescent Empowerment Cycle model is based on psychological theories of adolescent development and describes processes aimed at positive social bonding and enhancement of self-esteem. The model focuses on three dimensions: adolescent participation in meaningful activities, opportunities for skills development and positive reinforcement and recognition from adults throughout the process. The student empowerment pathways cover the student-grantees stories of participation in the intervention programs planned and developed for their holistic growth. Importance is given in their lived experiences as a grantee in the university, their thoughts and feelings and their journey on how the program has shaped them as a person and their aspirations in life.

**The Students-Grantees’ Profile**

**Intelligence.** The student-grantees’ may be described as having an average intelligence (32%) while 29% are in borderline and below average (27%) based on the results of an administered standardized intelligence to them. The grantees’ intelligence profile was considered in the development of the interventions specifically, the bridging program.

**Learning Style.** Based on the Learning Style Inventory that they have taken, results show that majority of the student-grantees are digital learners (44 %). They listen mostly to reason and logic in what they hear, see or feel. They also tend to communicate by reasoning out logical level. Others are kinesthetic learners (28.13%) while some are auditory learners (13%). Six percent are visual learners and kinesthetic-auditory learners (6.25%) and visual-digital learners (3.13%). This information served as basis in the development of the intervention programs for the student grantees.
Personality. A Filipino-made personality test called Panukat ng Pagkataong Pilipino Test (PPP) help in identifying the grantees’ personality traits. Results indicate that grantees’ have the tendency to strive for excellence including neatness in work and self, regardless whether it involves routinary tasks. The result may also signify that they can easily be aroused to emotions while maintaining composure and likely to be obedient to other people’s demand (Pagkamasikap, Pagkamaramdamin, Pagkamasunurin, Pagkamatulungan, Pagkamaayos, Pagkamahinahon, Pagkamatiyaga). In connection to this, the grantees’ obtained low percentiles on considering self as an intelligent one (Pagkamatalino), recognition of other’s privacy and beliefs, difficulty in admitting the mistake/s they have committed, and carrying out task in own’s initiative (Pagkamatalino, Pagkamagalang, Pagpapakumbaba, Pagkaresponsable).

The identification of the student grantees’ intelligence, learning style and personality helped in the development of program and specific activities which were aimed at addressing the unique needs of the grantees and to provide avenues to facilitate their holistic development.

The PNU SGP-PA Program
Effective intervention programs are based on developmental approach model (Borders & Drury, 1992). A developmental program is proactive and preventive, helping students acquire the knowledge, skills, self-awareness, and attitudes necessary for successful mastery of normal developmental tasks. There is also substantial empirical evidence that these programs promote student development and academic success (Borders, 1992). It is through this idea that the PNU SGP-PA Program was conceptualized and developed for implementation.

![Figure 2. The PNU SGP-PA Program](image)

The Office of Student Affairs and Student Services (OSASS) of the Philippine Normal University developed a four-phase program for the SGP-PA grantees from NCR and Region 4B. In managing the delivery of these services, specific university officials from different offices were designated. The program comprises the four phases discussed below:

**Phase I – Selection and Application Process.** Eligible applicants are high school graduates, drawn from identified and classified poor households in the 609 focus.
municipalities covered under the Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino (4Ps) of DSWD. The student applicants from the DSWD who intend to pursue a degree in Education were forwarded to the university.

**Phase II – Academic Intervention Program (AIP).** The bridging program called Academic Intervention Program (AIP) includes Reading, Language, Mathematics, Values, Civics and Personality Education. The program was handled by volunteer PNU faculty members. They also helped monitor and evaluate the performance of the student scholars. Those who passed the examination after the one semester bridging program proceeded with the 1st year first semester courses. First year second semester courses were offered to the grantees in Summer of 2013. Those who were not able to pass the bridging program and the PNUAT were recommended to take other courses.

**Phase III – EMPOWER Program.** The assigned counselor/s and coordinators have developed a program for the SGP-PA grantees. This program is designed to prepare the grantees to meet the demands during and after college, helping them develop as an empowered person. Developmental and primary prevention activities that are information-based and providing social support are the strategies employed in developing the program for the grantees.

All scholars under the SGP-PA program were eligible for participation in all activities of the University (PNU) including but not limited to the following: a. Big Brother & Big Sister Program (Peer, Body system) b. Supplemental classes, values formation, leadership training and other learning experiences c. Student Assistantship and d. Outreach programs. A coordinator will monitor and serve as mentor and counselor to the students in this program. The program focuses on addressing the academic, career, and personal-social development of student-grantees. The following are the activities facilitated to them: (1) Guidance and Counseling Orientation for Student-Grantees; (2) Personal Inventory (3) Routine Interview (4) Counseling (5) Testing and (6) Guidance Sessions which focuses on Study Skills and Test Skills, Resource Management, Stress Management, Values Reinforcement and Social Graces Seminar, Pre-marital Sex Prevention Seminar, Problem-solving, Goal Setting and Decision-making.

**Phase IV – Student Teaching and LET Performance.** Upon completion of the student’s third year in the PNU main campus, he/she is now ready to go back to his/her province/region to apply the knowledge and insights through practice teaching. Part of the responsibility of PNU System as the implementing party is to monitor the Licensure Examination for Teachers performance. This is the last phase of the program. Data will be made available upon the student-grantees completion of their academic program.

**Methodology**

A qualitative-descriptive design utilizing guided interviews, focus group discussions and oral histories (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003) of the research participants were used to gather data for this study. A total of 43 students-grantees who are currently enrolled beneficiaries of the PNU Students Grants-in-Aid Program for Poverty Alleviation Program (PNU-SGP-PA) from the National Capital Region and Mindoro (Region IVA) were drawn from identified poor households in the 609 focus municipalities covered under the Pantawid Pamilyang Pilipino (4Ps) of DSWD. Several focus group discussions using guided interview were undertaken to gather data from the
participants. Facilitators in the focus group discussion are professional social worker, Values Education teacher, a guidance counselor and an English teacher. The researchers reviewed the coded transcripts, identified themes and contexts in which they appear. At the end of the analysis, findings and interpretations were given back to the student-grantees to check for further interpretations and explanations. The participants expressed their agreement with the findings and interpretations and contributed some further insights to some themes. These expressions were included in the manuscript.

Results and Discussion

The PNU SGP-PA Experience

The grantees’ educational experiences are characterized by series of events and changes in their life. Three themes that emerged are as follows: Personal-Social Adjustment, Academic and Non-Academic Engagement, and Career Outlook.

Personal-Social Adjustment. Being in college was a big challenge for the grantees. There were issues and concerns that they have encountered during the program implementation. They were able to express the most remarkable experiences that they’ve had during their stay in the university under the program.

Leilani before she entered college, vividly recalled “I was really nervous, I stopped schooling for a long time. I don’t know whether I will be able to perform like my classmates who just graduated from school.

Academic and Non-Academic Engagement. The bridging program handled by volunteer PNU faculty members was one of the most memorable experiences according to the grantees. This program helped them to adjust in their college life and in gradually overcoming their fears related to schooling. Also, the opportunity for non-academic activities facilitated by faculty counselors was remarkable for the grantees. These activities include orientation and socialization for student-grantees, the counseling sessions which focuses on enhancing life skills such as, study and test skills, resource management, problem-solving, goal setting and decision-making. Added activities are educational trips, social graces seminar, and a night with the University President.

We had a great time during our special performance at the CHED Office. It was the General Assembly and the special guests were the Secretary of DSWD and Presidents of various colleges and universities. –Jen

I will never forget the time when we went to Enchanted Kingdom (amusement park) because everyone was there; it was a very enjoyable activity. –Mark
Career Outlook. Most of the student grantees experienced changes on how they see their future and what are the things that must be valued. Some of the grantees have experienced being employed in blue-collar jobs. Most have experienced difficulties of receiving very small income and unhealthy working environment. As teachers-in-training, they see a more stable and comfortable life in their future.

*This program served as an eye opener about the importance of education in my life and in working towards my future work. This program also gave me hope to overcome difficulties and challenges in life. All the things that I am receiving at present are products of this poverty alleviation program.* - Manuel

**Journey to Empowerment**

The grantees’ journey to empowerment entails how the program helped them in creating positive changes in their outlook in life. Empowerment for the grantees mean being able to feel and be seen as a more confident individual and stronger person amidst all the trials in life.

*SGP-PA has been a big help for me. First, I was given a chance to prove and return the trust in myself.* - Jomalyn

In empowering individuals, significant opportunities where one can learn life skills, take personal responsibility, and exhibit personal abilities must be prioritized.

*I was helped in building my self-confidence. Also, through the program, I felt proud of myself.* - Jomalyn

*My personality changed. My communication skills and my status in life improved. Most significantly, little by little, my knowledge improved and I was able to regulate it to maintain positive relationships with others.* - Christian

Youth empowerment through higher education according to Okeke and Emanalo 2008 as cited by Ekpiken and Ukpadio (2015) can be realized though teaching and providing educational experiences which help promote not only the fullest individual development but also through acquisition of knowledge, attitudes, behavior and occupational skills for lifelong living in the community. If effective learning process occurs, it will cultivate positive change or impact to the whole system.

**Grantees’ Perceived Selves of being Empowered**

When the grantees were asked to describe themselves before their university life, some of them see themselves as shy, emotional, lacking or having low self-esteem. Others have viewed their family, living away from their family and home sickness as their weaknesses. Some have expressed that they have experienced difficulties in some academic subjects specifically English and Mathematics. Few have shared that they have fears in presenting a lesson in front of class.
Rudolf is very shy, he cannot really speak in front class but not he even volunteers and he can speak in front very well. - Observations of Dan, friend and SGP-PA grantee

The grantees’ perceived selves of being undernourished, sickly, and poor were turned into perceived selves of confident, motivated and excited for what the future will bring. Young people are ready to change their behaviors as long as they are provided with positive and creative personal space.

SGP-PA has been a big help for me. First, I was given a chance to prove and return the trust in myself. – Jomalyn

The grantees now view themselves as flexible, hard working and intelligent individuals. They can also accomplish their various academic tasks like an ordinary or regular college student. They now consider being faithful, jolly, industrious and good followers as their personal strengths. According to the other grantees, some of the personal attributes that they possess include being understanding and having good interpersonal skills. They persevere and always try to be active or participative in all student activities. Some mentioned that they now have skills in lesson planning and preparing instructional materials.

When given the opportunity to create positive life changes, students will take their learning to higher levels. Marks of being empowered include enhanced self-esteem, being an engaged learner, and being able to contribute personal insights. Significantly, exposure to opportunities and challenges within a safe and supportive environment is a major foundation.

Life Aspirations

When the grantees were asked about what they want to do after graduating, some of them shared that they want to immerse themselves in the profession of teaching. Others have also shared that they like to pursue higher education like taking a Master’s degree or taking another degree specifically, Architecture, Accountancy, Music, and Criminology. Majority of the student-grantees have expressed that they really intend to help their family after finding a job. Some have personal intentions to help others when they are able to do so.

My dream is for my child to have a good future.
– Jomalyn

My dream is to make my family happy and to better my family’s status from extreme poverty. – Christian

Educational, career and life goals were formulated by the grantees themselves. The opportunity to study in college through the government’s support was considered as a great opportunity to them. This premise has increased their motivation to finish school and what they have started. Grantees’ perceptions of this expanded opportunity lead them to adjust their aspirations accordingly.
Conclusions
This study is an attempt to voice out the student-grantees’ thoughts, feelings and reactions to topics related to their being a direct beneficiary of the Philippines’s poverty alleviation program. There is uniqueness in the stories shared to the researchers but there is also commonalities in the educational experiences and situations in these student-grantees’ lives. Empowerment means providing supportive and caring environment that can provide opportunities for individuals to develop personal capacities. An empowerment program has the capacity to create positive changes and events in the physical, social, emotional, and creative spaces of an individual’s life. Being empowered means trying out newly developed skills, cultivating positive self and healthy relationships, and experiencing personal success. Moreover, this study reveals that the students-grantees’ life aspirations include alleviating the status of one’s family of origin, becoming educational leaders and role models who can help break the cycle of poverty and continue to become lifelong learners.

Recommendations
Youth empowerment should be considered as a necessity for the sustainable development of developing communities. There is also a call for incorporating activities that can address the other needs and/or the needs that arise during the implementation of poverty alleviation and youth empowerment programs. Giving feedback to various stakeholders as regards to the program’s progress can serve as good measures of accountability and quality assurance. Stakeholders in exchange should encourage the youths on choices and pursuits of professional courses in higher education that will empower them to create positive life changes. Lastly, future studies (e.g. Program Evaluation, Tracer Study, Impact Study, etc.) on poverty alleviation and youth empowerment programs must be continuously done.
References


Personality Tendency that Contributes Self-Adjustment of The Migrant Students in Jakarta

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Abstract
Self-adjustment in a new living environment is a challenge for every person, and intelligence aspect is considered the contributing aspect for a person to get adjustment. However, numbers of studies have reported that highly intelligence person does not necessarily become the key aspect in self-adjustment. Numbers of highly intelligence persons may experience difficulties in adjusting themselves in new environment, especially when there is cultural gap. Cultural gap is the difference between two cultures that hinders mutual understanding or social relations. Issues on cultural gap in Indonesia for example exist in the context of migrant students. Various issues on educational settings in Indonesia have become discussions in resolving the migrant students who pursue education such as in Jakarta. Students from other Indonesian islands reported that they had difficulties adjusting their life in Jakarta due to different social norms. Numbers of highly intelligence migrant students are not necessarily easy to get adjusted in Jakarta; on the contrary, they who are average students can easily get adjusted in the capitol city of Indonesia. Personality aspect may contribute important roles on self-adjustment. Using the Big 5 Personality (McCrae & Costa), this research is aimed at finding the personality tendency that supports the migrant students to get adjusted easier in the new living environment. The result indicates that personality tendency contributes greater than intelligence aspect in self-adjustment. Further considerations are discussed on the cultural issues that also influence the adjustment processes.

Keywords: Self-Adjustment, Personality, and Student Migrant.
Introduction

When a person enters adult years, one of the tasks a person needs to do is finding a career. In order to find career in future, person may need to enter a university. Santrock (2002) considers that years in a university is a transitional developmental period of an adolescent from high school to higher education in adult years. Cristinawati (2015) considers that university education is a period where intellectual ability and personal development merge primarily in verbal development in critical thinking and moral conscience. Besides, the socialization processes in the university tend to be different that in high school years for they tend to be more independent as the individuals are entering the adult years.

Based on the Indonesian Department of High Education, the number of Indonesian university students were 4, 273, 000 in 2012 and 6, 878, 345 in 2015. There have been increase of university students and many of them are migrant students, or students from different island that the place where the university is located. For example the department of psychology of Tarumanagara University in Jakarta in 2012 registered 152 freshmen including 32 from Bandar Lampung, Pontianak, Pangkal Pinang (cities in different islands in Indonesia), and Semarang (different state although in the same island); in 2013 there were 148 freshmen, and 38 were from Semarang, Bali, and Palembang. In 2014, there are 174 freshmen and 56 students are from Semarang, Pontianak, Medan, Denpasar.

Most students tend to look for education programs in accordance to their interests with possibilities for better education in order to proof their independence decision as responsible adults (Santock,2002). In order to find out better education in accordance with their interests, many students need to move from their families, going to different states, different islands, even to different countries. As a result, they need to get adjusted in their new living environment, to deal with various novel conditions that they previously have never encountered. Many of them need to deal with these challenging conditions without any support from their family members or parents; and thus they have to deal with the new conditions by them selves. Quoting Schneiders, Cristinawati (2015) explained that self adjustment is an ability to deal with life pressure and frustration by developing proper psychological mechanisms. Winata (2014) explained that students self adjustment is important to support the individual to socially interact with the environment.

Prastyo (2015) reported that in north Sumatra a student (Pandi Gultom) commited suicide by hanging himself in his room. He is from Sipirok (South Tapanuli state), and was taking sport science in North Sumatra University; he was in the 8th semester. Based on further investigation, the only possible reason for him to commit suicide was personal stress in dealing with his challenging life and education. Primasari (2014) concluded her research on students in Bekasi explained that migrant students experienced anxiety and uncertainty because of different language and lifestyle. The uncertainty also relates to the limited information in the new environment. Fitriany (2008) on her research on migrant students in UIN Jakarta concluded that adversity quotient determines whether students can get adjusted with the new environment. Those with high adversity quotient will get adjusted well in the new environment; those with low adversity quotient will have problems in self adjustment. Anggraini (2014) explained that the more independent the students, the better the students get

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adjusted with the new environment. Her research was based on migrant students in Malang.

Runyon and Haber (in Winata, 2014) explained that a person needs to have the ability to become flexible in the society in order to get adjusted with social settings and social challenges. The society and the environment tend to change from time to time, and the individual within the society needs to get adjusted in accordance to the changing environment. Therefore, in the context of education, the academic achievement may not merely be influenced by intellectual aspect but also personality aspect such as emotional maturation, or the natural ability of a person to get adjusted with the environment (Wijaya in Winata, 2015).

Personality is a unique characteristic of an individual, which tend to be consistent (Feist & Feist, 2009). They who are unable to get adjusted or having difficulties in socially adjusted with the environment may tend to have specific personality aspect that inhibits the adjustment processes; similarly, they who get easily adjusted may have specific personality aspect that supports the adjustment process. These aspect may contribute the academic achievement of the students with greater proportion that the intelligence aspects. Based on such conditions this research is aimed at finding the personality aspects that contributes migrant student self adjustment in the department of psychology of Tarumanagara, Indonesia.

Method

The participants
There are 62 participants of migrant students recruited based on non probability sampling from the department of psychology Tarumanagara University. They are merely classified as migrant students, and not classified based on race, ethnicity, economy and gender.

Type of research
This quantitative research utilized 3 questionnaires to obtain data; those are a) The Big 5 Personality Questionnaire, b) The CFIT, c) Social adjustment and emotional scale. The research is aimed at finding the contribution of personality aspect and intelligence on the social and emotional adjustment of migrant students in the Department of Psychology of Tarumanagara University.

Personality
Personality is a relatively consistent tendency of a person with some uniqueness specific to the person. This tendency relatively consistent. Whereas Allport consider that personality is a dynamic organization of psychophysical functioning on an individual to get adjusted uniquely in the environment (Feist & Feist, 2009). Eysenck considers that personality is a totality of real and potential behavior of an organism determined by genetic and environment. Big 5 Personality theory explained that personality traits are Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism, and abbreviated as OCEAN.

Openness refers to being open to experiences, interested to various aspects, having high curiosity, having wide perspectives; they who have high score in this aspect tend to be flexible, easy to accept changes, and able to contribute creative ideas in solving various problems. Conscientiousness refers to orderliness, discipline and will to have
hing achievement. They who have high score in this aspect tend to be discipline, not postponing task and assignments, having high standar work quality, and able to self motivate although in pressure. Extraversion refers to openness on social interaction, a reverse than being introvert. High extraversion score reflects easy to make friends, having confidence in public, energetic and enthusiastic. Agreeableness refers to cooperativeness, tend to avoid conflict, understand there are differences, avoiding trivial conflict, tend to be helpful to others. Neuroticism refers to instability, tend to experience negative emotion, having difficulties to keep positive attitude while in pressure.

Social Emotional Adjustment
According to Weinberger (1997) social emotional adjustment can be evaluated based on ability to control emotional impulses, ability to suppress aggression, ability to consider the presence others, and being responsible. Lazarus (in Wijaya 2007) explained that failure to get adjusted resulting uneasyness and create imbalances within.

Migrant Students
To immigrate is to move from one state to another or from one country to another (KBBI, 2005). There are 6 conditions of being migrants (Solihin, 2014): a) leaving the home land, b) personal (self) will, c) for a long period of time, d) to find a new life or knowledge or skill, e) to return home eventually, f) as an agent of culture. Whereas the students here is university students. The migrant students are they who left their homes in different states to participate in education in Jakarta to obtain degree as graduate in a university; their age range is 17-25 years.

Result

Multiple regression is utilized to measure the contribution of the predictor to the varians social emotional adjustment. Social emotional adjustment is the dependent variable. The personality trait and IQ predict the varians of social adjustment at 44.50%, \( F (6,55) = 9.152, p < 0.001 \). From both variables only the Agreeableness \( (\beta = 0.461, p < 0.001) \) and Consciousness \( (\beta = 0.322, p < 0.01) \) that can predict social emotional adjustment; whereas IQ and other personality traits (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness) do not significantly contribute to the adjustment process.
Based on the result above, agreeableness and conscientiousness contribute more on social-emotional adjustment compared to the other aspects and compared to intelligence aspect. If a person tends to be more agreeable and conscientious, the social emotional adjustment of the person will be better.

**Discussion**

The result indicates that personality aspects contribute more compared to intelligence aspect on adjustment problems. High intelligence students do not necessarily make them easier to get adjusted in new environments. On the contrary, personality traits specifically agreeableness and conscientiousness contribute more to the students on dealing with daily challenges in the new environment. Agreeableness contributes greater in creating non-conflicting situations and considerably usable in creating new friendships. Conscientiousness contributes more on making them more independent by being disciplined, organized, and full with care.

Considering that there are cultural differences between migrant and local students, the migrant students experience various problems when they came for the first time to Jakarta. The problems are a) language differences (including slang and dialect), b) food and appetite, c) transportation problems (transportation system), d) socialization, e) home economics, and f) independency. Difficulties on food, transportation, socialization, and financial issues (home economics) remain in the following semesters. Meanwhile, homesickness becomes their new problems as the semester goes on.
References


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Is Shiroi Howaito? English Loanword Modifiers in Contemporary Japanese

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Abstract

Historical contact between English and Japanese led to the extensive introduction of English-based lexicon. Although, the Japanese language had successfully incorporated Chinese-based written system and a considerable number of Chinese loanwords, the contact with the English language due to the political and historical factors was drastic and uncontrollable.

According to different estimates loanwords constitute about 10% of Contemporary Japanese Lexicon and this percentage keeps increasing due to the constant borrowing from English. The inflow of loanwords results in the increase of near synonymic pairs (with one word being of native or Sino-Japanese origin, and another being of English origin). There is a number of problems loanwords cause to speakers and learners of Japanese, as well as to Japanese learners of English. Stanlaw (2010) singles out several problems that English loanwords pose for the learners of Japanese, such as, ‘Students believe English loanwords mean the same thing as their original words do in English.’ or ‘English loanwords seem to reflect a Japanese copy-cat mentality’.

Present research aims at clarifying the use of the particular group of English loanwords – English adjectives-based loanword modifiers. Based on the data from Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese (BCCWJ by National Institute of Japanese Language and Linguistics) we demonstrate the constraints on the use of loanword modifiers and argue that the extensive borrowing of English words is one of the ways for the Japanese culture to differentiate between similar phenomena of native and foreign origin.

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1 In this paper we use the terms adjectives-based loanword modifiers, loanword adjectival modifiers, adjectival modifiers, gairaigo modifiers interchangeably.
Introduction

The contact between English and Japanese that started in the mid-19th century and drastically increased after WWII led to the extensive borrowing of English words into Contemporary Japanese vocabulary. For many decades the problem of active lexical borrowing from English and other European languages into Contemporary Japanese has been addressed from various perspectives. Some researchers were interested in the processes of English loanwords assimilation (Kay, 1995; Irwin, 2011), others studied semantic changes in loanwords (Daulton, 2008), and still others focused on the sociolinguistic nature of this phenomenon (Loveday, 1986, 1996). Most of the previous studies are dealing with loanword nouns, however, adjective-based loanword modifiers, i.e., words that are adjectives in the donor language (mostly English), and often used as adjectival modifiers in the recipient language (Japanese), were not sufficiently studied.

There is an important difference between loanword nouns and loanword adjectival modifiers. While loanwords nouns are considerably more numerous than adjectival modifiers (which is the case, when lexical borrowing happens in most languages), most of loanword nouns are used to fill lexical gaps (refer to Section 2). Therefore, they have clear usage constraints, and do not have near synonyms in the recipient language, i.e., Japanese.

On the other hand, most loanword adjectival modifiers do not introduce any conceptually new phenomena, and, therefore, they may have at least one corresponding native or Sino-Japanese near synonym. Therefore, the problem of the constraints imposed upon the use of loanword adjectival modifiers, and the differentiation between loanword modifiers and the corresponding near synonyms of other origin requires a deeper research.

For example, there are a lot of near synonymic pairs like hotto and atsui meaning ‘hot’, gurē and haiiro meaning ‘grey’, rongu and nagai meaning ‘long’, etc. The differentiation between previously mentioned near synonyms poses a serious problem for both native speakers and learners of Japanese. Native speakers are overwhelmed with the abundance of foreign language-based lexicon, while the learners of Japanese do not poses a native speakers’ introspection to choose the appropriate near synonym.
This paper aims to investigate the tendencies of collocation patterns of loanword adjectival modifiers of English origin with the help of data from the Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese (BCCWJ). We try to detect the connection between the origin of the adjectival modifiers and the origin of the nouns they are used to modify.

Firstly, we will give a brief description of etymological strata of Contemporary Japanese, and illustrate how it results in the problem of near synonyms in section 2. Then, in section 3, we will introduce some related previous studies and their limitations. Sections 4 and 5 are devoted to the description of the hypothesis, testing it on corpus data, and analyzing the results. Finally, in section 6 we will present some discussion of the results and explain the limitations of the present study.

**Etymological Strata of Contemporary Japanese Lexicon and the Problem of Near Synonyms**

The structure of the Japanese lexicon\(^2\) is a complex and rapidly developing system. Japanese vocabulary is traditionally divided into three main strata of words (Irwin, 2011) based on their origin: 1) \textit{wago} – native Japanese words; 2) \textit{kango} – words of Chinese origin; and 3) \textit{gairaigo} - words borrowed from English and other languages (mostly European, but not only), excluding Chinese. In this paper we mostly follow Irwin’s (2011) general description of each stratum as presented below.

As it was previously mentioned, the variety of lexical strata of the Contemporary Japanese lexicon results in numerous near synonyms of different origin. For example, the concept \textit{COLOR} can be expressed by at least three words of different origin: native - \textit{iro} (色・いろ), Sino-Japanese – \textit{shikisai} (色彩) and English-based loanword - \textit{karā} (カラー), written in different scripts: \textit{kanji} (Chinese ideographic characters) or \textit{hiragana} (a type of Japanese syllabary), \textit{kanji} (Chinese ideographic characters), and \textit{katakana} (a type of Japanese syllabary), respectively.

\textit{Orthography} is one of the ways of differentiating between near synonyms of different origin, the choice of particular orthographic style, and, therefore, one of the near synonyms can be motivated by a number of reasons, such as register conventions, target audience, stylistic effect etc.

There is also a historically developed stylistic constraint differentiating the use of

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\(^2\) In this paper the terms ‘lexicon’ and ‘vocabulary’ are used interchangeably.

\(^3\) There are several transliteration systems, but in the present research we will follow Hepburn transliteration system to write Japanese words.
native and Sino-Japanese near synonyms. Since a lot of Sino-Japanese vocabulary was introduced via written sources from China in different historical periods, there is a strong tendency to use Sino-Japanese lexicon in written speech, as opposed to the use of native vocabulary in spoken Japanese.

There are slightly different numbers given on the percentage of loanwords in Contemporary Japanese lexicon, however most of the researchers would agree that no less than 8% of contemporary Japanese vocabulary is of English origin (e.g. Stanlaw, 1982), and the number of loanwords is growing. Daulton (2008) states that “English words have become especially important since WWII, and these loanwords have become genuine parts of the Japanese lexicon, found in daily conversation and the world of letters” (Daulton, 2008, p.11). With the introduction of new technology and sciences as well as new Western-based life style gairaigo can be found in all registers of Contemporary Japanese. Therefore, gairaigo near synonyms seem to compete with both native and Sino-Japanese near synonyms.

On the one hand, excessive and inappropriate use of loanword near synonyms over native near synonyms can cause distress and misunderstanding among Japanese native speakers as well. In 2013 Japan’s broadcasting company NHK was sued over use of English words by one of its viewers, who was claiming that the use of loanword near synonyms over native ones complicates the understanding and is unnecessary in many cases.

On the other hand, the appropriate choice and use of near synonyms is very challenging for learners of Japanese. Stanlaw (Stanlaw, 2010) demonstrates four problems that English loanwords cause for learners of Japanese, who are English native speakers or have some command of English. For example, one of the problems is that “Students believe English loanwords mean the same thing as their original words do in English.” Another problem is that some “Students believe an English loanword can just substitute for a native Japanese term.” To some learners of Japanese “English loanwords seem simply random and arbitrary.” or “seem to reflect a Japanese copy-cat mentality.” (Stanlaw, 2010, p. 53-56) Thus, the appropriate use of English loanwords is a multi-facet and acute problem for both naïve speakers and learner of Japanese.

To summarize this section, Contemporary Japanese has a complex structure integrating words of different origin, which results in the abundance of near synonyms. Although corresponding native vs. Sino-Japanese near synonyms have worked out the
differentiation in their functions due to the peculiarities of cultural contact and long history of assimilation, English-origin near synonyms in many cases still do not have clear-cut constraints on their use and are perceived as ‘competing’ with both native and Sino-Japanese near synonyms.

Limitations of Previous Studies of Gairaigo in Contemporary Japanese

In the Introduction we already mentioned that loanwords in Japanese had been a topic of various studies by both native and foreign linguists. The main approaches to the research related to loanwords include phonetic and morphological assimilation of gairaigo (Kay 1995, Irwin 2011, etc.); semantic changes (Daulton 2008, etc.); influence of gairaigo on the Japanese language acquisition (Stanlaw 2010, Rebuck, etc.), and sociolinguistic impact and influence (Loveday 1986, 1996, etc.).

Since the function of English loanwords is tightly interconnected with the development of the Japanese society, one of the the attempts to address the problem of differentiation between loanwords (gairaigo) as opposed to native (wago) and/or Sino-Japanese (kango) near synonyms was by Loveday (1996), who suggested that the occurrence of the near synonymous pairs wago/kango vs. gairaigo is the result of the “Westernization of Japanese culture” and these pairs exist “in semantic opposition where a word referring to a Western phenomenon is English-based and ‘complementary’ with a word deriving from (Sino-) Japanese and referring to a related version of the phenomenon belonging to native culture” (Loveday, 1996, p. 81). Thus, loanwords and native and/or Sino-Japanese near synonyms have different phenomena they refer to in the reality.

In this study we will call Loveday’s hypothesis the Hypothesis of Referential Foreign vs. Native Dichotomy (HRFND). According to Loveday, Contemporary Japanese has a relatively clear-cut opposition between wago/kango vs. gairaigo near synonyms for concrete nouns, i.e., gairaigo concrete nouns are used to name foreign phenomena, while (Sino-) Japanese words are used to name native phenomena. For example, futon (‘quilted bedding’) vs. beddo (‘bed’), etc.

Loveday’s hypothesis and the examples he provides deal with near synonymic concrete nouns. However, it is not clear how to apply HRFND to the differentiation of abstract nouns or adjectival modifiers. The examples provided are also quite limited and based on questionnaires and mass-media usage. Thus, the general tendency of loanwords use in Contemporary Japanese is not fully illuminated.
Another interesting approach was introduced by Rebuck (2002), who tried to single out 3 main functions of English loanwords. The functions of loanwords in Contemporary Japanese include:

① Filling ‘lexical gap’: naming ‘things or ideas when no equivalent native word exists’, e.g. *rajiro* (‘radio’), *roketto* (‘rocket’).
② ‘Substitute for native equivalents to achieve some kind of special effect’. This function includes a number of sub-functions such as ‘conveying “Western qualities”, ‘using English to be trendy and modern’, ‘triggering “ethnocentric stereotypes”, ‘changing the image’ of something old fashioned, ‘telling East from West’, and ‘providing supplementary vocabulary’.
③ Euphemistic function: using loanwords ‘because the native equivalent sounds too direct’ or it has ‘negative evaluation’, e.g., *shiruba* (silver for ‘senior citizen, pensioner’, instead of a more explicit terms, like *roujin* ‘old person’ or *nenkin seikatsu* ‘pensioner’).

Although function ① is clear, since it is one of the main functions of loanwords across languages, it is questionable if there is a valid point for differentiating functions ② and ③. We can consider that euphemism is also ‘some kind of special effect’, because it allows of referring to some phenomena in a polite and indirect way. Rebuck as well as Loveday gives mostly examples with loanwords nouns, and does not consider other categories. If we look more carefully at the sub-functions of function ②, we can see that they are not consistent, and some of them, such as ‘providing supplementary vocabulary’ is overlapping with function ①.

Therefore, we can say that most of the previous studies are focused on loanword nouns, but loanword adjectival modifiers and their collocations are not investigated thoroughly. In addition, a lot of previous studies are based either on questionnaires or newspapers/magazines data. Finally, most of the studies are descriptive and do not provide any guidelines or constraints for learners of the Japanese language on functions and use of loanwords that have native or Sino-Japanese near synonyms.

**Present Research: Research Questions and Working Hypothesis**

In the previous sections we demonstrated that, although English loanwords had been investigated from various perspectives, so far not enough attention was given to loanword adjectival modifiers and their collocations.

Therefore, in the present research we will address the problem of usage constraints of English-origin loanword modifiers in Contemporary Japanese. We will try to clarify the following research questions. What kind of nouns are loanword adjectival
modifiers are used to modify? Is there any tendency? Can we determine the constraints of the usage of loanword (gairaigo) modifiers?

To address these issues Bordilovskaya (2012) conducted a corpus study which illuminated that most loanword color terms were more frequently used to modify loanword nouns rather than nouns of other origin. On the basis of the findings it was assumed that there was a tendency for homogeneity of the origin of members of collocations with some gairaigo modifiers in Contemporary Japanese (Bordilovskaya, 2012). This assumption is at the core of Homogeneous Collocation Hypothesis for Gairaigo Modifiers (HCHGM is a reformulated version of the extended Hypothesis of Foreign vs. Native Dichotomy (eHFND in Bordilovskaya, 2012).

The scope of the current study is the English-origin loanword modifiers introduced into the Japanese language during Meiji period (1868 - 1912). Therefore, we will test HCHGM on a group of gairaigo modifiers having comparable assimilation background. Moreover, HCHGM will also be tested on loanword adjectival modifiers regardless of their semantic field to see if HCHGM is applicable to gairaigo modifiers other than color terms.

Borrowing of adjectival modifiers for the description of the qualities of foreign-originated phenomena as opposed to native/long-term assimilated ones can be explained by the fact that Japanese culture and language have a historically elaborated opposition between cultural ‘nativeness’ and ‘foreignness’, which includes not only phenomena introduced to Japan from foreign cultures, but also a kind of inventory used for the description of the qualities of those phenomena, since they are perceived as not being equally corresponding to the similar ones existing in Japanese culture. It can be found on the level of nouns and loanword adjectival modifiers. For example, gohan (cooked rice served in a traditional bowl) vs. raisu (cooked rice served on a flat European plate), when used referring to ‘cooked rice’ the form of the representation of it (the way the cooked rice is served) can be one of the factors triggering the ‘foreignness’.

In other words, HCHGM suggests that gairaigo adjectival modifiers (excluding ones which were not borrowed to fill ‘lexical gaps’) are used for the description of the qualities of foreign-originated phenomena and, thus, they are more likely to modify gairaigo nouns. Therefore, gairaigo modifier (GM) + gairaigo noun (GN) collocations are preferred over other patterns of collocations. Schematically the realization of HCHGM can be represented as shown in Figure 1.
Thus, following HCHGM buraun no jaketto (brown jacket) and hotto no kafe ratte (hot café latte) would present more native-like collocations than buraun no haori (Japanese traditional jacket) and atsui kafe ratte.

The important difference between the original Loveday’s HRFND hypothesis and our HCHGM hypothesis is that the former one refers to the difference in usage of separate words (concrete nouns), while the later one considers collocations - combinations of adjectival modifiers and nouns. HCHGM offers a broader look at the problem of gairaigo modifiers’ function in the Contemporary Japanese and deals with a linguistic level.

**Testing of HCHGM on BCCWJ: Methodology and Results**

In this section we will investigate the tendencies of gairaigo modifiers borrowed in Meiji period and still in use in Contemporary Japanese based on the etymology of the nouns they are used to modify. We will focus on combinations of loanword (gairaigo) modifiers + nouns, and we will try to demonstrate that the etymological factor has the influence on the choice of the partner in such combinations. For the purpose of the present research we call such combinations - collocations, since the constituting elements are found in the immediate closeness to one another, i.e. co-occur in the texts.
**Methodology**

The main method of data collection of this study is a corpus analysis. In the present research we use data from BCCWJ\(^4\) by National Institute for Japanese Language and Linguistics (NINJAL), because it presents a model of Contemporary Japanese reflecting its general tendencies and it is balanced across registers.

We examine the following pattern common for *gairaigo* adjectivals for modifying nouns in Contemporary Japanese:

\[1\] *Gairaigo Modifier + Linker ('-no-' or '-na-') + Noun.*

Nouns found in the above mentioned collocation patterns can be native – *wago* nouns, Sino-Japanese – *kango* nouns, or loanword – *gairaigo* nouns\(^5\). Based on Sanseido’s Concise Dictionary of Katakana Words (2005) and Kadogawa Dictionary of Loan-words (1977), we compiled a list 101 of *gairaigo* adjectival modifiers (adjectives in English) borrowed from English during Meiji period (1868-1912). We investigated BCCWJ for the collocation patterns of 101 *gairaigo* modifiers described in \(1\) taking into consideration only the original meaning(s) of modifiers introduced in Meiji period. We excluded the cases of semantic change, etc. Data collection was conducted in May – August 2015. Out of 101 loanword modifiers only 47 had a frequency of more than five tokens of *gairaigo* modifiers + noun collocations in BCCWJ.

**Results**

The results of the BCCWJ corpus search for 47 loanword adjectival modifiers are presented in Table 1 (see Appendix 1) and Figure 2 below. Figure 2 demonstrates the distribution of *gairaigo* modifiers collocations with nouns of different origin: *gairaigo*, *wago* and *kango*. *Gairaigo* nouns are color-coded in blue, *wago* nouns in red, and *kango* in green.

\(^4\) http://www.ninjal.ac.jp/english/products/bccwj/

\(^5\) Hybrid words were excluded from the results, however, their attestations were insignificant.
Figure 2 Testing of HCHGM on Loanword Adjectival Modifiers

There are two main tendencies for the collocation patterns of gairaigo modifiers: they are mostly used to modify either gairaigo nouns or kango nouns. We will look at two patterns of collocations separately, depending on the origin of nouns found in
collocations. Collocation pattern, when loanword adjectival modifiers are used to modify loanword nouns can be considered to be in coherence with HCHGM, because this collocation pattern demonstrates the tendency for homogeneity of the origin of its members. In other words, *gairaigo* modifiers that prefer this homogeneous collocation pattern have an etymological constraint on their use and can be considered as a restrained type of loanword modifiers.

*Gairaigo* modifiers that are frequently used to modify *gairaigo* nouns rather than *wago* or *kango* nouns are *ierō* (‘yellow’), *orijinaru* (original), *orenji* (‘orange’ in the meaning of ‘orange color’), *guddo* (‘good’), *kurashikaru* (‘classical’), *kuria* (‘clear’), *gurīn* (‘green’), *kēru* (‘cool’ in the meaning of ‘cold’ referring to temperature and colors), *gurē/gurei* (‘gray’), *shirubā* (‘silver’), *sutandāto* (‘standard’), *pāpuru* (‘purple’), *buraun* (‘brown’), *burakku* (‘black’), *burū* (‘blue’), *hebī* (‘heavy’), *hotto* (‘hot’), *howaito* (‘white’), *yangu* (‘young’), *reddo* (‘red’), *rongu* (‘long’), *waido* (‘wide’), *wairudo* (‘wild’). Most of loanword modifiers following this collocation pattern refer to physical qualities of phenomena, especially those, that can be easily identified visually or by other senses (such as color, size, age, temperature, etc). For example, *kuuru na beesu* (‘cool base’), *buraun no botomu* (‘brown bottom’), *yangu no redisu* (‘young ladies’), etc.

Loanword modifiers that are more often found modifying *kango* nouns are *akutibu/akuchibu*\(^6\) (‘active’), *erochikku/erotikku* (‘erotic’), *kurīn* (‘clean’), *shimborikku* (‘symbolic’), *sumūzu* (‘smooth’), *sofuto* (‘soft’), *naibū* (‘naive’), *nashonaru* (‘national’), *fea* (‘fair’), *besuto* (‘best’), *rōkaru* (‘local’). Interestingly *gairaigo* adjectival modifiers followed by *kango* nouns refer to more abstract qualities or qualities that can are difficult to identify by senses, especially visually. This is in coherence with the general historically developed tendency of the Japanese lexicon, in which *kango* words are generally refer to abstract phenomena, scientific terms, etc. For example, *shimborikku na hyougen* (‘symbolic expression’), *nashonaru na kikan* (‘national institution’), etc.

\(^6\) Some of *gairaigo* modifiers demonstrate different orthographical representation due to the peculiarities of the Japanese phonological and writing systems. For example, according to dictionaries loanword for ‘active’ can be written as アクチブ akutibu or アクチュ akuchibu, demonstrating 2 different ways of representing the donor language [it] syllable.
Another peculiarity of the kango nouns found in collocations with gairaigo modifiers is that some of those Sino-Japanese nouns are relatively new Sino-Japanese coinages like kaisha (‘company’), created in Meiji period for newly introduced foreign notions (Frellesvig, 2010).

A number of gairaigo modifiers did not demonstrate any preference for a particular type of nouns to modify. Such modifiers were relatively equally found modifying gairaigo and kango nouns (biggu ‘big’), or gairaigo, wago and kango nouns (ofisharu ‘official’, suito ‘sweet’, sutorēto ‘straight’, happī ‘happy’, surō ‘slow’). On the one hand, this can be partially attributed to the sample presented in BCCWJ. Nevertheless, even when gairaigo modifiers were used to modify wago nouns, those nouns referred not to Japanese cultural phenomena, but culturally neutral ones, e.g. ofisharu na tegami (‘official letter’), surō na ugoki (‘slow movement’) etc.

The results of BCCWJ search for the collocation patterns with a loanword modifier being used to modify a noun with a help of linkers ‘-na-’ or ‘-no-’ demonstrated that there is a group of gairaigo modifiers explicitly following HCHGM. At the level of collocations such loanword adjectival modifiers are used to modify gairaigo nouns, rather than wago or kango nouns, therefore, they support the tendency for homogeneity of the origin of the members of collocations. Therefore, we suggest that this type of loanword modifier has a clear-cut etymological constraint on the choice of their collocation partners. Thus, we can call this type of loanword modifiers an etymologically constrained collocation type.

Another group of gairaigo modifiers has demonstrated the tendency to modify kango nouns or wago nouns. However, the wago or kango nouns found in such collocations refer to culturally neutral phenomena or to phenomena introduced from foreign cultures. Thus, we can suggest that although the loanword modifiers following this collocation pattern are not following HCHGM explicitly at the level of the word origins, but there is still triggering Foreign Culture Frame at the level of concepts. In other words, loanword modifiers following second collocation pattern do not have an etymological constraint, but they are still constrained by the semantic meaning of the collocation partners (nouns), which should not refer to culturally Japanese phenomena. This type of gairaigo modifiers can be called a semantically constrained collocation type.
We can also formulate two major constraints on the use of loanwords in ‘-na-’ or ‘-no-’ linker collocations with nouns:

- Etymological linguistic constraint – stimulates to choose gairaigo modifier (if available) for a gairaigo noun, which also contributes to the homogeneous orthographical realization of the collocation (both members are written in katakana).
- Phenomena origin constraint – allows a loanword modifier to modify a noun that expresses either a foreign or a culturally neutral concept or object.

Thus, we can say that, although in case of a pair of loanword and native near synonyms like howaito and shiroi, which both could be used to refer to the same color, they will be differentiated in their use by the choice of nouns they will modify. Meanwhile native modifiers, like shiroi have a wider semantic field and theoretically can substitute loanword modifiers, a loanword modifier like howaito might seem more appropriate for the description of the qualities of foreign objects or phenomena from the Japanese language and culture perspectives.
Conclusions, Discussion and Research Limitations

In present study we have introduced a new approach to the analysis of the constraints of the use of English origin loanword adjectival modifiers. Our findings allow us to suggest a new classification of loanword modifiers that incorporates HCHGM providing information necessary for foreign learners of Japanese, so that they can differentiate between *gairaigo* and *wago/kango* near synonymic modifiers and use them in a way which is balanced and easily processed by native speakers of Japanese. However, we cannot ignore the existence of counter examples, i.e., cases when *gairaigo* modifiers are used in collocations with *wago* nouns referring to native phenomena. Such collocations are possible when the writer/speaker tries to achieve a stylistic effect by violating the existing tendency to draw the attention of the audience. This can be found in advertising, product names, since Japanese culture has been in the process of experimenting and mixing old and new, traditional and cutting-edge, native and foreign. Nevertheless, it is probably unlikely to find unique traditional native modifiers (for example, color terms used in traditional *kimono* industry) used for the description of foreign-originated phenomena, for example, European style clothes introduced after Meiji period.

The present study is based on the data from BCCWJ, thus, the results are limited to the sample presented in one corpus. We suggest that the increase of data set can give more information about *gairaigo* collocation in Contemporary Japanese. It is also necessary to have a deeper insight into the assimilation processes diachronically to trace the historical processes of the assimilation of loanword modifiers.
References


Appendix 1 Table 1 Testing of HCHG on Loanword Adjectival Modifiers

The words are arranged in the order of the Japanese syllabary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Loanword modifiers</th>
<th>Loanword nouns</th>
<th>Native nouns</th>
<th>Japanese nouns</th>
<th>Sino-Japanese nouns</th>
<th>Total (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  akutibu/akuchibu ‘active’</td>
<td>14 (34%)</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>23 (56%)</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  ierō ‘yellow’</td>
<td>11 (73%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4 (27%)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  intânashonaru ‘interational’</td>
<td>7 (32%)</td>
<td>5 (22%)</td>
<td>10 (46%)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  erotikku/erochikku ‘erotic’</td>
<td>7 (10%)</td>
<td>19 (26%)</td>
<td>46 (64%)</td>
<td>72</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  ofisharu ‘official’</td>
<td>2 (29%)</td>
<td>4 (57%)</td>
<td>1 (14%)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  orientaru ‘oriental’</td>
<td>5 (24%)</td>
<td>6 (29%)</td>
<td>10 (47%)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  orijinaru ‘origjinal’</td>
<td>136 (46%)</td>
<td>37 (12.5%)</td>
<td>122 (41.5%)</td>
<td>295</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  ōrumaiti ‘all-mighty’</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3 (43%)</td>
<td>4 (57%)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  orenji ‘orange’(color)</td>
<td>48 (53%)</td>
<td>23 (25%)</td>
<td>20 (22%)</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10  guddo ‘good’</td>
<td>5 (62.5%)</td>
<td>3 (37.5%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11  kurashikaru ‘classical’</td>
<td>30 (58%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>18 (34%)</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12  kuria ‘clear’</td>
<td>21 (44%)</td>
<td>11 (23%)</td>
<td>16 (33%)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13  kurin ‘clean’</td>
<td>24 (35%)</td>
<td>10 (14%)</td>
<td>35 (51%)</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14  gurin ‘green’</td>
<td>125 (62%)</td>
<td>55 (27%)</td>
<td>23 (11%)</td>
<td>203</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15  kūru ‘cool’</td>
<td>13 (36%)</td>
<td>18 (40%)</td>
<td>5 (14%)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16  gurei/gurē ‘gray’</td>
<td>153 (64%)</td>
<td>54 (23%)</td>
<td>32 (13%)</td>
<td>239</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17  shirubā ‘silver’</td>
<td>50 (75%)</td>
<td>14 (21%)</td>
<td>3 (4%)</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18  shinborikku ‘symbolic’</td>
<td>6 (21%)</td>
<td>3 (10%)</td>
<td>20 (69%)</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19  suito ‘sweet’</td>
<td>12 (41%)</td>
<td>7 (24%)</td>
<td>10 (35%)</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20  sukai burū ‘sky-blue’</td>
<td>2 (33%)</td>
<td>4 (67%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21  sutandâto ‘standard’</td>
<td>34 (63%)</td>
<td>7 (13%)</td>
<td>13 (24%)</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22  sutorēto ‘straight’</td>
<td>16 (49%)</td>
<td>14 (42%)</td>
<td>3 (9%)</td>
<td>33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23  supesharu ‘special’</td>
<td>12 (48%)</td>
<td>4 (16%)</td>
<td>11 (44%)</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24  sumûzu ‘smooth’</td>
<td>14 (13%)</td>
<td>16 (15%)</td>
<td>78 (72%)</td>
<td>108</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25  surō ‘slow’</td>
<td>19 (44%)</td>
<td>13 (30%)</td>
<td>11 (26%)</td>
<td>43</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26  sofuto ‘soft’</td>
<td>31(23%)</td>
<td>22 (16%)</td>
<td>82 (61%)</td>
<td>135</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27  daburu ‘double’</td>
<td>4 (57%)</td>
<td>1 (14%)</td>
<td>2 (29%)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28  dandi ‘dandy’</td>
<td>3 (37.5%)</td>
<td>2 (25%)</td>
<td>3 (37.5%)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29  naihbu ‘naive’</td>
<td>3 (14%)</td>
<td>6 (29%)</td>
<td>12 (57%)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30  nashonaru ‘national’</td>
<td>1 (9%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10 (91%)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Word</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>-------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>happī ‘happy’</td>
<td>11 (19%)</td>
<td>20 (35%)</td>
<td>26 (47%)</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>pāpuru ‘purple’</td>
<td>12 (57%)</td>
<td>3 (14%)</td>
<td>6 (29%)</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>biggu ‘big’</td>
<td>12 (50%)</td>
<td>3 (12.5%)</td>
<td>9 (37.5%)</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>fea ‘fair’</td>
<td>2 (7%)</td>
<td>5 (17%)</td>
<td>22 (76%)</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>buraun ‘brow’</td>
<td>30 (65%)</td>
<td>14 (30%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>burakku ‘black’</td>
<td>16 (80%)</td>
<td>1 (5%)</td>
<td>3 (15%)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>burū ‘blue’</td>
<td>155 (55%)</td>
<td>82 (29%)</td>
<td>45 (16%)</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>besuto ‘best’</td>
<td>31 (24%)</td>
<td>17 (13%)</td>
<td>83 (63%)</td>
<td>131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>hebī ‘heavy’</td>
<td>8 (57%)</td>
<td>2 (14%)</td>
<td>4 (29%)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>hotto ‘hot’</td>
<td>4 (66%)</td>
<td>1 (17%)</td>
<td>1 (17%)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>howaito ‘white’</td>
<td>16 (67%)</td>
<td>5 (21%)</td>
<td>3 (12%)</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>yangu ‘young’</td>
<td>7 (87.5%)</td>
<td>1 (12.5%)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>reddo ‘red’</td>
<td>4 (66%)</td>
<td>1 (17%)</td>
<td>1 (17%)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>rōkaru ‘local’</td>
<td>18 (20%)</td>
<td>9 (10%)</td>
<td>63 (70%)</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>rongu ‘long’</td>
<td>12 (63%)</td>
<td>3 (16%)</td>
<td>4 (21%)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>waido ‘wide’</td>
<td>11 (73%)</td>
<td>1 (7%)</td>
<td>3 (20%)</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>wairudo ‘wild’</td>
<td>15 (58%)</td>
<td>5 (19%)</td>
<td>6 (23%)</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Correlation between Moral Disengagement and Cheating Behavior in Academic Context

Samsunuwiyati Mar'at, Tarumanagara University, Indonesia
Annisa Prameswari, Tarumanagara University, Indonesia
Gayatri Ardhinindya, Tarumanagara University, Indonesia

Abstract
Cheating behavior is a form of academic dishonesty that violates integrity in the academic life. In Indonesia, cheating behavior in university has become a serious issue for the government and the educational institution. Cheating behavior is influenced by personal and environmental factors such as moral disengagement. Bandura explained that moral disengagement is a form of cognitive distortion within a person to accept behavior that violate moral. Using Moral Disengagement Scale (Bandura), this research is aimed at finding the correlation of moral disengagement on cheating behavior of the students in a university. Cheating behavior includes cheating acts during the exam and during working on assignments. The scale being used is McCabe Cheating Behavior Scale. The participants are the students who are registered taking courses in the university. Statistical analysis is conducted by using correlation analysis.

Keywords: Cheating Behavior, Academic Dishonesty, and Moral Disengagement
Introduction

Cheating is a form of academic fraud which frequently happens among students. Cheating mostly happened during exam, written assignment, and in plagiarism (Jensen et al., 2002). Cheating is a form of abnormal behavior that violates social norm (Moeck, 2002). Cheating also considered as a form of behavior that ruins morality, norms and integrity in academic setting.

In Indonesia, cheating frequently happens among students in academic settings. Cheating means copying others’ work. In academic setting, plagiarism is considered as significant cheating, and an example of a case in Indonesia was plagiarism by a candidate for doctor (Kristianti, 2010). Cheating is conducted by various ways such as by asking to friends, exchanging answer sheets, looking at notes or by using electronic devices (Friyatmi, 2011).

Cheating is influenced by various individual and environmental factors. One of the factors that can be contribute to cheating is moral disengagement. Moral disengagement as a part of cognitive distortion (Bandura) is a factor that contributes social acceptance on cheating (Jensen et al., 2002). According to Bandura (Moore et al., 2012) moral disengagement happens when a person conducts moral violation. Moral disengagement is the process of convincing ourselves that the ethical standards not applicable in a particular context when doing unethical behaviour. It may inhibits and hinder negative consequences for the individual (Jackson & Sparr, 2005). Moral disengagement usually occurs when an individual commits something that violates the moral or ethics. Various research explained that moral disengagement influence abnormal behavior, for example in violating ethics (Moore et al., 2012). Detert et al. (2008) pointed out that moral disengagement influences violation of ethics.

Based on the above concepts, this research is aimed at finding whether there is correlation between moral disengagement and cheating in academic settings. This research expcts to find out a predictor of cheating behavior to anticipate possibility cheating in an educational or academic setting.

Moral Disengagement Mechanisms

Bandura (1999) classified moral disengagement into 8 dimensions which are: moral justification, euphemistic labelling, advantageous comparison, displacement of responsibility, diffusion of responsibility, distortion of consequences, dehumanization, and attribution of blame.

Moral justification is a mechanism that happens when a person consider the self violate ethics for the sake of better condition. In an academic setting, moral justification happens in order to obtain better academic score. Euphemistic labelling is conducted by a person in order the violation become more accpeted by using another language that sounds more positive; thus also lessening the responsibility. In cheating, students consider that the behavior is a form of cooperation; thus it sounds more positive and creates lesser guilty feeling.

Advantageous comparison is a mechanism that compares one negative behavior to other negative behavior with greater consequences. The negative behavior with
smaller consequence is considered as more acceptable. For example a student considers his cheating behavior is allright because he only cheats a few answers from his friend, compare to others who cheats all answers. According to Bandura (1999) moral justification, euphemistic labeling and advantageous comparison are the three primary mechanism that neglects moral value when a person violate ethics.

Displacement of responsibility is a mechanism that considers that a person behaves in order to follow the order from the authority, thus they do not consider to have responsibility on their behavior (Jackson & Sparr, 2005). Conducting behavior against morality is executed on behalf of the order of the authority, thus they do not have the responsibility since they just follow their authorities (Bandura, et al, 1996).

Diffusion of responsibility is a mechanism that considers violating of ethics is acceptable since others do the same. A student cheats because other students do the same; therefore, there is no guilty feeling, and even worse they tend to be more courageous by knowing others do the same. Distortion of consequences is a mechanism that minimizes the consequence of behavior (Bandura, 1999). According to Jackon and Sparr (2005), a person tend to take advantage from others since the consequence is too small or even unseen.

Dehumanization is a mechanism on the victim of behavior. When a person conducts behavior that creates negative impacts on others, they who receive the negative impact are considered less human than the person who conducts the act (Bandura, 1999). The Attribution of blame is a mechanism that applies to the victim and considered the victim is the responsible person to receive the impact since the victim is considered as an appropriate person to receive such impact (Moore et al, 2012). A person conducts negative acts to others because he or she may previously looked down or dehumanize by others thus he or she retaliate the behavior with support as being provoked by others (Jackson & Sparr, 2005). Academic students tend to cheat because they considered that their teachers have lack of control during the exam.

**Methods**

**Participants**
The participants are 275 active students on baccalaurate level between the age of 17-22 years. First semester students are 20.7%, third semester students are 25.1%, fifth semester students are 40.4%, seventh semester students are 13.2%, with male students 29.1% and female students 70.9%.

**Materials**
The questionnaires are divided into 3 groups which are demographic questionnaire, moral disengagement scale and cheating behavior scale. On the demographic questionnaire the participants provide information about age, sex, and semester of their education. For the sake of confidentiality they do not have to include their full name.

Moral disengagement scale was developed by Bandura (1996) to measure a person’s moral disengagement based on 8 mechanisms. This scale consist of total 32 items, every dimensions consists of 4 items. An example of the items is a statement: “Fighting to defend a friend is normal”. The Likert scale being used is 1 to 5, while 1 =
Cheating behavior scale is an instrument developed by McCabe (2005) to measure the frequency of cheating by a person during an exam or while doing written assignment. This scale consist of total 16 items, 8 items for measuring cheating during exam and 8 items for measuring cheating on written assignment. One of the items for example is: “looking at others’ answer without being noticed”. Participant must calculate the frequency of the behavior. The scale utilizes Likert scale with 1 = never to 5 = always. The internal consistency is 0.873.

Data Analysis

Both moral disengagement and cheating behavior variables are considered as normal data, and to find out the correlation between variables we use Pearson Correlation.

Results

Based on Pearson Correlation, there is significant correlation between moral disengagement and cheating behavior which is r = 0.362. This indicates that there is positive correlation between moral disengagement and cheating behavior. Data is presented on Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moral Disengagement</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.362</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
r=0.362 and p=0.000<0.01

Tabel 1 : Pearson correlation

This result indicates that the mean of cheating behavior during exam is higher that the mean of cheating behavior during working on regular assignments. This indicates that participants tend to cheat more often during the exam rather than during working on regular assignment. The result is presented on Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cheating behaviour in Exams</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cheating behaviour in Written Assignment</td>
<td>2.6070</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cheating behaviour in Written Assignment</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cheating behaviour in Written Assignment</td>
<td>1.9882</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tabel 2 : Descriptive of cheating behaviour
Discussions

Results indicate that the higher the moral disengagement the higher the tendency of a person to participate in cheating. Moral disengagement is a form of cognitive restructuring when a person behave improperly (Bandura, 1999). Moral disengagement causes a person to have no feeling that he or she is conducting ethical violation (Jackson & Sparr, 2005). Bandura et al. (1996) also explained that moral disengagement caused people to accept ethical violation. Having moral disengagement, a person tend to violate ethical concerns, and cheating will not be considered as ethical violation. They tend to be easier to participate in cheating because they dont considered it as an ethical violation. Therefore, moral disengagement is one of the predictors that correlates with cheating behavior.

Further research is expected to find out other variables that contribute as predictors of cheating behavior. Besides, is may be necessacry to find out whether personality factors influence cheating behavior. Other future consideration is to find out differences in moral desengagement in ethical violation in cheating behavior in educational environment.
References


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The Efficacy of Placement Interviews for English Language Classes at a National Japanese University Based on a CEFR-J Model

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Abstract
From January 2015 to March 2015, the authors, in conjunction with other faculty members at a Japanese national university, created a system of five-minute English language oral interview protocol system based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and its adapted version, the Common European Framework—Japan (CEFR-J), and used these protocols to conduct 817 English placement interviews in April 2015 at the above mentioned Japanese national university. The first part of this paper will focus on the development of the interview protocols, including use of Can-Do lists, instructor collaboration, and interview norming. The second part is an analysis of quantitative data obtained through in-interview data collection, including: accuracy of interview results through comparison with TOEIC results, breakdown of student body by CEFR level, and interview protocol accuracy. The analysis suggests the efficacy of such an interview system for accurately placing and assessing students according to their spoken English level. In the discussion, the paper offers an overview of issues surrounding the development of English interview protocols - including question creation and norming issues - and future research planned by the authors on the oral interview protocol system.

Keywords: EFL, CEFR, CEFR-J, oral placement interview, Japan, tertiary education, national university.
Introduction

In 2013, the Japanese national university where this research was conducted reformed its English language curriculum after having become one of the funding recipients of the MEXT Global 30+ program. This program, supported by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), aims at promoting the internationalization of the academic environment of Japanese universities. The new language program developed through MEXT Global 30+ currently involves 16 full-time instructors and around 1,600 first- and second-year students of the faculties of Engineering, Medical Sciences, and Education and Regional Studies. The students are divided into 67 English language classes of 24 students each that meet twice, on average, a week for 90 minutes. The curriculum starts with a focus on personal communication and gradually shifts towards English for professional communication and TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) Listening and Reading test preparation.

Since, in compliance with the MEXT requirements, this recently implemented English language program has specific goals in terms of average TOEIC scores among the student population, the TOEIC test was also used during the academic years 2013-2014 for placement purposes. But, at the same time, given that the first part of the language curriculum starts with a focus on communication-based activities, the authors developed a new placement system that could place students according to their spoken English level, as well as an activity capable of producing a positive affective outcome in the interviewees. In order to develop a system that could be valid on an international level, but that at the same time could be flexible enough to be tailored to the specific needs of our student population, we decided to follow the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and its Japanese counterpart, the CEFR-J.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is a language framework developed by the Council of Europe as a method of learning and assessing language use in Europe. The CEFR divides learners into 6 levels (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2) according to their reading, listening, speaking and writing abilities. A language-independent framework by definition, the CEFR has been adapted to the specific needs of the English language teaching contexts in Japan by Tono and

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1 For more information, see the website on Global 30 Project -Establishing University Network for Internationalization: http://www.mext.go.jp/english/highered/1326725.htm.
Negishi (2013), who developed a new framework, the CEFR-J. This new language framework refines the “can do” descriptors developed by the Council of Europe, and further divides the original framework into 12 levels (Pre-A1; A1.1, A1.2, A1.3; A2.1, A2.2; B1.1, B1.2; B2.1, B2.2; C1; C2). Moreover, the CEFR-J introduces a wordlist of 5,639 words, covering the levels from Pre-A1 to B2. This wordlist is based on the analysis of major English textbooks used in Asian regions (Tono and Negishi, 2012).

Both the CEFR and CEFR-J "can do" descriptors for speaking were used as a starting point for the creation of a set of new descriptors for this interview protocol. Given the time constraints, in terms of both general preparation and norming process for the interviewers, as well as in terms of available time to concretely interview the students, the authors decided to develop the following simplified "can do" descriptor list:

A1 – I can ask and answer simple questions, initiate and respond to simple statements in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.

A2 – I can give simple descriptions of things and make comparisons. I can describe past activities and personal experiences.

B1 – I can explain and give reasons for my plans, intentions and actions.

B2 – I can develop an argument well enough to be followed without difficulty most of the time. I can speculate about causes, consequences and hypothetical situations.

The A1 level is preceded by a Pre-A1 level that does not currently have any "can do" description, given that we decided to define it as the result of the interview result in case the interviewee performance was not sufficient enough to be considered at the A1 level.

Apart from the Pre-A1 level, the four "can do" descriptors here reported follow the original CEFR scale model, except that they cover only the first four original levels (A1-B2). This choice has been made for two main reasons: the first one is that we expected our student population to be composed, in the vast majority of cases, of A- and B-level students, with only a limited number of C-level students based on previous TOEIC scores by students as well as our understanding of the CEFR level system and the level of text our students use. Consequently, we assumed that, for our expected student population, regrouping the levels B2, C1 and C2 into a "B2+" would not have affected in a determinant way the grouping of students in different classes. The second reason is directly related to time constraint: as explained in the following pages, since the interview protocol workflow always starts from the lowest levels (from Pre-A1 to B2+), the choice to avoid the assessment of the interviewee
performance beyond the B2 level would have helped the interviewers to stay within the time limit of five minutes per interview.

**Interview Logistics**

Placement interviews took place from April 7 to April 9, 2015 (the first week of classes) during students’ regular English class times. A total of 817 first-year students from three different departments (Engineering, Education, and Medical) were interviewed by 14 different instructors over six class periods during this three-day period, requiring a total of 69 periods of actual instructor labor time. There were 33 distinct English classes interviewed. Interviews were conducted in a number of places on the university campus including classrooms, instructor offices, and small multipurpose rooms. In general, one class (around 24 students for Engineering and Education; around 36 for Medical) required two instructors (three instructors for Medical) per one 90-minute class period in order to conduct each interview within the five-minute time limit.

**Development of the Interview Protocol**

*The 4 Stages*

The authors break up the development of the devised Interview Protocol (IP) into four distinct stages as described below

*Stage 1*

The original idea for the IP incorporated CEFR-J spoken production and interaction descriptors described above in order to devise a points-based system that would fit onto one piece of paper, making it easier for the interviewer to organize information and determine the interviewee’s level (See Figure 1). All questions are on one sheet and the interviewer works progressively up from Pre-A1 to B2 level questions as he/she determines the accuracy of the interviewee’s answers. Interviewers assigned 0 (‘Communication does not happen’), 1 (‘Communication needs help in order to happen’) or 2 (‘Communication happens’) points depending on the answer given by the interviewee. Point explanations and CEFR-J descriptor guidelines are also provided on the sheet to aid interviewers in conducting interviews efficiently. Issues arose with this initial IP, though, as it contained a lot of text, making it difficult to follow in a timely manner. Also, the three-point system proved too arbitrary to allow interviewers to determine expected CEFR levels with consistency.
Figure 1: Stage 1 Interview Protocol.

**Stage 2**

Several changes were made to develop the second iteration of the IP system. The main progressive level-up style was maintained, but a visual binary tree similar to a gameboard was developed in order to allow the interviewer more ease in following the question process (See Figure 2). This change reduces the time needed for interviews. Also, the three-point system was amended to a binary two-point system (‘Communication occurs’ or ‘Communication does not occur’) in order to reduce ambiguity and create more consistency among interviewers’ expected CEFR-level determinations. Finally, a ‘soft-landing’ exit question was kept to ensure interviewees did not end the interview on ‘wrong’ answers. However, the binary nature was determined to still be too confusing to follow, resulting in longer interview times.
Figure 2: Stage 2 Interview Protocol.

Stage 3
In Stage 3 of the IP, most of the characteristics of Stage 2 IP are maintained; however, the binary tree system of Stage 2 was further developed to a visually represented level-up system (See Figure 3). Interviewees would have to accurately answer two of three questions at the A1 and A2 level to move up to the next level, and the question at the B1 level in order to move up to the B2+-level question. Levels are clearly written on the right side of the page for quick level-reporting by the interviewer. In addition, base conditions for each level are also written to aid interviewers in determining the acceptability of an answer. Also, acceptable follow-statements for interviewers were added in order to elicit more responses for the interviewee if the need were to arise. A comments section was added as well to allow interviewers to record any additional information deemed necessary. Finally, a check box was added to each question for recording the occurrence of a question being posed to an interviewee.

Figure 3: Stage 3 Interview Protocol.

Stage 4 (Final Version)
In Stage 4 of the IP, most of the characteristics from Stage 3 were maintained. An additional B1 question was added and minor cosmetic alterations were made in layout to further ease visual reference (See Figure 4). Also, another check box was added (‘2x’) for recording when a question was asked two times as well as a place to record time length of the interview. Using this Stage 4 Interview Protocol model, a total of three IPs with different (but CEFR-equivalent) content were developed to be used for interviews.
Figure 4: Stage 4 Interview Protocol.

**Norming Process**

Norming for interviewers was conducted over two three-hour sessions in March 2015, approximately one week before interviews were to be conducted. This section will explain the general content of each session.

**Session 1**

Session 1 began with a general explanation of, and discussion on, the process for conducting an interview and the logistics on the days the interviews were to be conducted. Instructors were given a walkthrough on the actual interview process and explanation of the IP. Also, instructors were given their interview dates, times, places, and interviewee list. This was followed by training in conducting interviews through blind assessment and discussion of a number of CEFR interviews – both video-taped mock interviews conducted with students of a national university and CEFR interview-training resource videos found online. Finally, the session ended with discussion and refinement of IP questions.

**Session 2**

Session 2 began with final logistics discussion and further discussion on the interview process. Instructors also trained by conducting mock interviews with students from a national university. Each student was interviewed at least two times by a different instructor each time. This activity was followed by discussion to allow instructors to compare and analyze results with each other. The end of this session featured a discussion section on the IP to finalize all details of each of the three IPs.
Findings

An analysis of the results obtained from the interviews shows a general consistency with our expectations in terms of number of interviewees that could be assessed at a hypothetical C level. More specifically, the results were the following: 28 students at the Pre-A1 level (3.4%); 384 students at the A1 level (47%); 288 students at the A2 level (35.3%); 99 students at the B1 level (12.1%); 18 students at the B2+ level (2.2%). Moreover, these percentages are very similar to those found in the surveys conducted by Tono and Negishi (2012), who stated that: "the surveys on Japanese ordinary people's English proficiency reveal that more than 80% of Japanese EFL learners are Non/Basic Users (A1 or A2), with less than 20% in B levels (Independent Users) and almost nil in C levels (Proficient Users)."

![Figure 5: Interview results.](image)

As already mentioned, the oral interview system conducted in April 2015 substituted for the TOEIC test as a placement instrument, and consequently the students took their first TOEIC test of their university career only in July 2015, which means after roughly 30 hours of communication-based language instruction. Except for a mock
test taken to develop some familiarity with the TOEIC test format during the very last week before the real test, the students did not receive any explicit TOEIC test preparation during the 30 hours of language instruction subsequent to the placement interviews.

Even though the CEFR-based oral interview system and the TOEIC Listening and Reading test assess totally different aspects of language proficiency, we tried to compare the results of the CEFR-based oral interview system with the standardized TOEIC test developed and administered by ETS, in order to see how different the results would have been had we used the TOEIC Listening and Reading test, instead of the new interview system, as a placement test for the current academic year.

The following charts describe the results obtained.

Figure 6: Comparison between TOEIC and interview results - Faculty of Engineering.
To compare the results of the interviews of April 2015 with those of the TOEIC test of July 2015, we divided the students into groups according to their majors and their interview results, and we then calculated the average TOEIC score of each of these groups (the minimum score on the TOEIC test is 0 points, while the maximum score is 990 points²). The results obtained, as the charts above represent, show a marked

² The TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) Listening and Reading test is a standardized English-language proficiency test which, according to the Educational Testing Service (ETS), measures the everyday English skills of people working in an international environment. ETS reports that more than 2.3 million people in some 150 different countries took the TOEIC Listening and
difference in terms of average TOEIC scores for the groups of students who shared the same interview results. Moreover, considering that, according to ETS, the standard error of measurement (SEM) of the TOEIC Listening and Reading test is 50 points (ETS, 2013), the average TOEIC scores for the groups of students who shared the same interview results shows that the average proficiency in reading and listening between the groups of students with the same interview results was, in most cases, objectively different. This appears to validate the assumption that the interview system developed by the authors was an effective way to discriminate language proficiency according to different levels (Pre-A1, A1, A2, B1, B2).

Given the differences in terms of interview results according to majors, we also tried to compare the results according to interviewers in order to try to understand the efficacy of the norming process. Unfortunately, this analysis is problematic for a number of reasons. First of all, as can be noticed from the bar chart that shows the total results of the interviews, there are important differences in terms of results according to different majors. At the same time, for mere logistical reasons, each interviewer was randomly involved in interviewing only a different number of students from just a few (and not all) majors. Consequently, each interviewer conducted, in total, a different number of interviews (ranging from 12 to over 60), and sometimes the number of interviews conducted by each interviewer was simply too small to determine if, in those specific cases, their performances could be considered as the confirmation of a general trend, nothing more than a casual occurrence, or as a real norming-related issue. Nonetheless, conscious of the pivotal role of the norming process in this kind of language assessment, the authors will further analyze this issue through follow-up interviews scheduled for the end of the current academic year.

Another useful perspective to understand the protocol system is through a comparison of the results among the three different interview protocols, and whether these differences affected the interviews in any way. Anecdotally, the interviewers observed during the interviews that the third protocol seemed to be more challenging than the other two.

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Reading test in 2013. It has two sections with 100 multiple-choice questions in each section, and lasts approximately 2 hours.
Figure 10: Comparison of results among interview protocols - Faculty of Engineering.

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<th>Prot. 1</th>
<th>Prot. 2</th>
<th>Prot. 3</th>
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<tr>
<td>B2+</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tr>
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<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-A1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11: Comparison of results among interview protocols - Faculty of Education and Regional Studies.

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<th>Prot. 1</th>
<th>Prot. 2</th>
<th>Prot. 3</th>
</tr>
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<td>B2+</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-A1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
These four charts seem to confirm this trend, and demonstrate the need to rework the protocols and all the single questions, in order to improve the balance among the different protocols while keeping a stress-free conversational style at the same time.

**Discussion**

In conclusion, efficacy of the oral interview protocol system developed by the authors at a national university is suggested objectively when comparing students’ projected
CEFR levels from the oral interview system against the students’ TOEIC results. The total average TOEIC scores increase with each successively advanced CEFR level. However, further comparison with future TOEIC tests taken by students in this study as well as comparison against other oral interview systems is necessary to further show validity of the authors’ system.

In addition, another issue to be addressed in the future includes refining the norming process for all interviewers through additional training sessions, professional development seminars, and experience through mock interviews. Furthermore, interview protocols need to be refined more to ensure accuracy in all interviews conducted. As for the research presented in the paper, the authors’ believe it is necessary to analyze the data even further by breaking down the Education and Engineering department results by specialty. This additional analysis may yield interesting results for the further refinement of this oral interview protocol system.

The authors plan to continue and complement this research in a number of ways. First, the authors conducted qualitative research though questionnaires approximately two weeks after the actual interviews presented in this paper on all student participants and will use this data to develop research results which give insight into the qualitative aspect of this interview system from the participant’s perspective. Also, follow-up interviews on randomly selected students will be conducted in January 2016 in order to (1) test new interview protocols developed and (2) attempt to track English progress compared to the first oral interview conducted approximately 10 months earlier. Finally, this oral interview protocol system along with any revisions made to the system will be utilized again in April 2016 on first-year students entering a national university and data will be taken again to further assess the validity of this system.
References


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Possibility of Implementing Multiple Intelligence Theory Based English Instruction for Remedial Purposes

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Abstract
Declining English skills among new university students have been reported over the years in Japan. Some solutions adopted to overcome this problem include implementing remedial courses, facilitating support centers, and introducing Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). However, in the present circumstances, university students’ English levels have been becoming progressively worse for years, and the English ability gap among students has widened. This study proposes using multiple intelligence (MI) theory as a more radical measure to respond to these challenges. MI theory is believed to offer an efficient approach, although such an approach is rarely observed at the university level in Japan. This is a pilot study, which will become the foundation for constructing instruction courses based on MI theory. It is designed to identify the intelligence type of Japanese students whose major is related to rehabilitation and welfare, and to examine correlations between students’ intelligence and other variables in terms of cognitive, psychological, and behavioral aspects. The study involved 147 first and second year students. Two types of questionnaires were administered to these students. The data were stored in SPSS and used for descriptive and correlational analysis. This study found unique characteristics of participants’ MI profiles as well as gender differences. From the correlational analysis, some significant correlations were found between students’ MI profiles and their perspectives and attitudes toward English. Future studies can use these findings to describe ways of constructing and implementing MI theory-based English instruction for remedial purposes.
Statement of the Problem

Because globalization highlights the importance of communication skills in English, the Japanese government took various measures to build a system in which individuals are able to control English language. However, reports of falling English skills among new students are of great concern to universities. Responding to such a situation, various measures, including implementing remedial courses, proficiency-based classes, pre entrance education, and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach, were introduced.

Despite these measures, university students’ English levels are getting worse and the English ability gap in students has widened over the years. The target university of this study faces the similar issue. The results of English placement tests have been heading downhill for seven years. Although English classes at the university use CLIL, students who have lower English skills struggle with requirements and have low motivation for English classes. Therefore, the possibility of using Multiple Intelligence (MI) theory in English learning is suggested. MI theory, introduced by Howard Gardner, takes into account individual differences and needs and helps teachers to make use of students’ strengths and compensate their weaknesses.

According to Garner, individuals possess eight or more intelligences, which include linguistic, logical-mathematical, spatial, musical, bodily-kinesthetic, naturalistic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligence. Identifying leaners’ intelligence profiles has strong ramifications; teachers can accommodate different individuals more successfully according to their orientation to learning. In order to apply MI theory to university classrooms in Japan, it is necessary to identify MI characteristics of students and examine the related variables.

Purpose of the Study

The study is divided into two parts. The aims of the first part are to find:
① Rehabilitation majors’ perceptions and attitudes toward English and English classes
② Participants’ English language performance
③ Rehabilitation majors’ MI profiles
④ Gender differences of MI
The aims of the second part are to find:
① Correlations between students’ MI profiles and their English performance
② Correlations of students’ MI with their perceptions and attitudes toward English language learning

**Significance of the Study**

There are numerous studies on MI in primary and secondary school students. However, research in higher education is limited, especially in Japan. Increased concern about low levels of English proficiency and diversity among university students suggests that universities need radical measures to respond effectively. MI theory is believed to offer some efficiency. Available studies related to MI theories at university level focus on various majors in different foreign countries. However, as far as is known, no studies focus on students who are majoring in a rehabilitation or welfare. Therefore, this study will add reliability and validity to different populations regarding MI profiles and their relation to psychological, behavioral, and cognitive aspects. This investigation will help design and implement effective English classes. Under MI theory based instruction, students who are not academically or linguistically strong in English could have more options for learning, and be more motivated. It is hoped the study will help utilize individualized, student-centered strategies work in large student cohorts.

**Literature Review**

The literature review section will present as follows:
1) MI Theory
   Summary of MI Theory
   Description of each intelligence
   Implications of MI theory
2) University students’ profile of MIs
   Differences among majors
   Japanese students
   Gender differences
3) MI profiles and correlational studies
1) MI Theory

**Summary of MI Theory**

MI theory was developed by Howard Gardner. He defines intelligence as “the ability to solve problems, or to create products, that are valued within one or more cultural settings” (Gardner, 1983/2003). Gardner, therefore, establishes a broader concept of intelligence, rather than seeing it dominated by a single ability. Gardner argues that human beings possess several intelligences that relate to a person’s unique aptitude and set of capabilities. These intelligences are independent of each other and each individual has a different profile of intelligences. He also argues that intelligences can be strengthened if they have an environment that nurtures them, and weakened if ignored.

**Description of the 9 Intelligences**

The following are the intelligences Gardner proposes (1983/2003):

Interpersonal Intelligence. The ability to understand the intentions and feelings of others. The ability to interact effectively with others with verbal and nonverbal communication skills.

Intrapersonal Intelligence. The ability to recognize and understand oneself, develop a sense of self-awareness, and introspective awareness of beliefs and thought processes.

Logical-Mathematical Intelligence. The ability to complete mathematical operations such as calculations and quantifications, detect patterns, reason deductively, and think logically, abstractly, and conceptually.

Linguistic Intelligence. Having well-developed verbal skills. The abilities to manipulate languages effectively, to memorize and comprehend complex written languages, and to have mastery of spoken language.

Naturalist intelligence. The ability to recognize and categorize living things, such as plants and animals, and have sensitivity to the natural world.

Bodily-Kinesthetic Intelligence. The ability to control, manipulate, and coordinate bodily movement with well-developed mental abilities and physical skills.

Visual/Spatial Intelligence. The ability to interpret visual images accurately and...
abstractly, have spatial reasoning, manipulate images, and have good graphic and artistic skills.

Musical Intelligence. The ability to recognize, reproduce and create musical pitches, tones, timbre, and rhythms, and have a talent for singing and playing musical instruments.

Existential Intelligence. The ability to deal with deep questions about human existence, such as the meaning of life, why do we die, and how did we get here? Although MIs are anatomically distinct, they very rarely operate independently (Gardner, 1983/2003).

Implications of MI Theory

According to Gardner (1983), education and society tends to value only mathematical or linguistic intelligences, which excludes those who develop different types of intelligence. Using MI in educational settings is believed to create more opportunities to develop the potential of all individuals in which learners manage their own learning, value their strengths, and increase motivation. Knowing MI exists, teachers can create an effective learning environment in which students’ value and promote their strengths. At the same time, teachers can review their approach from different perspectives, to ensure they meet different needs and interests of students.

2) University students’ MI profiles

Differences Among Majors

Although the number of studies involving MI theory and practice at the university level is limited, research available attempted to identify the profiles of students in different majors.

The following two studies focused on MI profiles of engineering students.

Salehi and Gerami (2012) focused on 50 university students majoring engineering to find the relation between intelligence types and achievement score. Results revealed that logical-mathematical intelligence scored the highest, followed by interpersonal and body-kinesthetic intelligences. Linguistic intelligence was the lowest in these students.
Faller and Jubilo (2013) involved 413 engineering students, and found that the top three intelligences were logical-mathematical, musical, and body-kinesthetic. Both studies found that engineering students possess high logical-mathematical intelligence.

The following studies focused on students of different majors, including chemistry, athletics, government, and English.

Kutz and Campbell (2013) studied 85 athletics students (AS) and revealed that body-kinesthetic intelligence was rated highest, followed by intrapersonal intelligence, while verbal intelligence was the lowest. A study by Shahzada, Ghazi, Khan, Iqubal, and Shabbier (2011) involved 714 government major students and found that females rated themselves higher than males in perceived intelligence. For females, the highest intelligence was body-kinesthetic, followed by intra and interpersonal intelligences. For males, the highest was also body-kinesthetic, followed by inter and intrapersonal intelligences. For both genders, the lowest were musical followed by logical intelligence. Firozjael, et al. (2013) aimed to identify the relation between MIs, learning behavior, and English learning, involving 50 English major students. It was found that the highest was musical followed by naturalist, while the lowest was logical followed by visual intelligence.

Japanese Students

Although few studies have focused on the MI profiles of Japanese university students, a study by Tsuneyasu, Akutsu and Suzuki (2008) involved 44 Japanese students whose majors comprising technology, international studies, education, and agriculture. The technology majors were found to rank high in linguistics, spatial, and natural intelligence while international majors tended to have higher scores on each intelligence, compared to other majors, and were especially high in logical-mathematics, musical, and intrapersonal intelligence. Education and agricultural majors have similar MI profiles. Yamauchi (2014) studied 25 nursing students and found the most prevalent intelligence was musical followed by interpersonal, while the least prevalent was logical-mathematical, followed by linguistic intelligence. As described above, research on various majors indicates distinguishing characteristics are attributable to different groups. However, the limited number of studies as well as the sample sizes makes it difficult to draw a definitive conclusion.
Gender Differences

Some MI research examined gender differences. The following studies found no significant differences between males and females.

Saricaoglu and Arikann (2009) involved 144 (78 female and 66 male) students and found no significant gender differences in intelligence types. Only linguistic intelligence displayed a variation, but it was not significant (sig. 2 tailed=.020) Masoomeh’s study (2013) involved 40 university students whose English levels were intermediate. Findings indicated that linguistic, logical, and musical intelligence were more common among females. Significant differences between genders were only found in linguistic intelligence in which females shows higher intelligence.

On the other hand, other studies have found significant gender differences. Shahzada, et al. (2011) involved 714 government majors, including 379 males and 335 females. It was found that overall female students rated themselves higher than males. Females rated higher in terms of perceived linguistic intelligence, visual/spatial intelligence as well as inter and intrapersonal intelligence. On the other hand, male students rated themselves higher in logical/mathematical intelligence. Sadeghi (2013) studied 112 female and 138 male university students. It was found the mean scores of visual and interpersonal intelligence were high in both groups. However, the female group showed the highest score in interpersonal, followed by visual/spatial intelligence.

In the above-mentioned Faller and Jubilo’s study (2013) revealed that males possessed the highest body-kinesthetic, logical-mathematical, and musical intelligences whereas females had the highest musical, interpersonal, and logical-mathematical intelligences. Hanafiyeh (2013) investigated 140 students, aged 18 to 24. The study revealed that intrapersonal, linguistic, logical-mathematical, and musical intelligences were common among females. Significant differences between males and females were recorded in linguistic intelligence.

In conclusion, gender differences in MI profiles show mixed results and are not conclusive.
3) MI profiles and Correlational Studies

Many studies using MI theories measure MI profiles in relation to other variables such as dispositions, attitudes, and cognitive abilities.

The following studies focus on learning behavior.

Mohammadzadeh and Jafarigohar (2012) studied relations between MI and willingness to communicate, measured by the Willingness to Communicate (WTC) scale developed by McCroskey (1987). It involved 517 university students, which result indicates that linguistic, musical, and interpersonal intelligence were significantly correlated with willingness to participate in L2 communication. Firozjael et al (2013) aimed to identify the relation between MIs, learning behavior, and English learning. The study found some linkages between MI, preferred learning styles, and English performance. Students’ attitudes toward language learning were positively correlated to musical and intrapersonal intelligences, while anxiety was related negatively with visual intelligence. A kinesthetic learning style was related to naturalist intelligences. English performance was related to intrapersonal intelligence. Yi-an (2010) focused on 2425 college students to identify the role of MI in foreign language learning behavior and performance. In relation to motivation, musical and interpersonal intelligences showed a strong correlation with motivation while body /kinesthetic intelligence showed a negative correlation.

Some studies focused on the relations with affective domains, such as anxiety and self-efficacy. Saidi and Khorsravi (2013) aimed at investigating the possible interface between three intelligences, including linguistic, inter- and intrapersonal intelligence and foreign language classroom anxiety in 110 Iranian EFL learners. It was found a low negative correlation between these intelligence types and foreign language classroom anxiety. Among the components of foreign language classroom anxiety, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation correlated with linguistic intelligence. Zarei and Taheri’s study (2013) involved 148 university students. Regarding relations between the learner’s linguistic, inter and intrapersonal intelligence profiles and their foreign language classroom anxiety, the study revealed a negative low correlation. The study suggests that musical and linguistic intelligences were predictors of general self-efficacy.

While the above studies focused on psychological and behavioral aspects and their relation to MI, some research studied correlations of MI with cognitive aspects,
language proficiency, such as listening, writing, reading, vocabulary, and grammar skills. Naeini and Pandian (2010) studied the relation of MI to listening proficiency. The participants were 60 university students, including 50 females and 10 males. Their listening comprehension proficiency was measured using the listening section of a TOEFL test. The results indicated no significant relation between the listening score and any MIs.

The above mentioned Salehi and Gerami’s study (2012) examined the relation between intelligence types and achievement test scores that included grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, and idioms. The results revealed a low correlation between achievement scores and MIs. The study also found that intrapersonal and body-kinesthetic intelligence are negatively correlated with achievement scores significantly. Razmjoo (2008) studied 278 Ph.D. candidates, examining the relation between language proficiency and MIs. The results indicated no significant relation between language proficiency and intelligences in terms of combination, or any type of intelligence in particular. Moreover, he concluded that no intelligence type was a predictor for language proficiency.

The above three studies found no significant correlations while other studies reveal contrary findings. Saricaoglu and Arikan (2009) examined the relation between MIs and success in grammar, listening, and writing, involving 144 university students. The results indicated a positive relation between writing scores and musical intelligence, while a significant negative correlation was found between grammar and bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, and intrapersonal intelligences. Javanmard (2012) studied the relation between MI and vocabulary performance on 115 English majors. The study found body-kinesthetic intelligence had a positive relation with vocabulary test scores and body-kinesthetic and musical intelligences were better predictors of vocabulary test performance. Hanafiyeh (2013) sampled 140 university students to study language success and its relation to MIs. The study revealed a negative correlation between test scores in grammar and bodily-kinesthetic, spatial, and intrapersonal intelligences, whereas there was a positive correlation between musical intelligence and writing.

Razak and Zaini (2014) focused 60 science-oriented students. Students’ reading competency was measured by the Reading Competency in the Malaysian University English Test (MUET). The findings showed a positive correlation of the students’ reading scores with musical and interpersonal intelligences, while intrapersonal and verbal-linguistic intelligences showed negative correlations. However, the study
revealed that MIs cannot predict students’ reading skills and suggested this was due to individual differences in learning styles rather than MI preferences. In the aforementioned Yi-an study (2010), it was found that musical and verbal/linguistic intelligences were positively related to student listening scores, while naturalist intelligence was negatively related. Moreover, reading scores were related to musical and linguistic intelligence, while visual/spatial intelligence was negatively related.

Although the above studies mentioned mixed results, two studies found a negative correlation between grammatical skills and body-kinesthetic, visual/spatial, and intrapersonal intelligences. Moreover, all five studies showed positive correlations of musical intelligences with language proficiencies, such as writing, listening, and reading. Throughout the review of research on MIs, university student profiles, gender differences, and the possible relations between MI and different variables in psychological, behavioral, and cognitive aspects were revealed. However, as mentioned above, few studies focused on Japanese students, and, of those, the number of participants was very limited, which makes difficult to generalize results. In order to propose a MI based approach to improve low English performance in Japanese university students, studies involving larger samples are necessary. The current study focus on approximately 150 students in rehabilitation majors, such as Physical Therapy (PT), Occupational Therapy (OT), and Welfare and Psychology. The study proposes to develop a new approach based on MI theory.

Participants

The study participants comprised 147 first and second year students, including 92 males and 55 females who take required English classes. One hundred three are OT, 33 are PT, and 11 are Welfare and Psychology (WP) majors.

Research Methods

The questionnaire was completed in class. The purpose of the study, students’ confidentiality, and the right to accept or refuse participation was explained. Participants were also advised that responses could be anonymous. Two types of questionnaires were completed. One consisted of Yes-No questions, Likert scale questions, and multiple answer questions. It elicited students’ background information, perspective, and attitudes toward English learning and current classes. The second questionnaire was the MI profile test, modified by the author, but based on Gardner’s MI Model. (Questionnaires are available on request.) In addition, a participant
placement score (35 points total) and a final score of the first semester (80 points total) were used for this study.

Data Analysis

The data were stored in SPSS software. Both descriptive approaches, which include rank order, numerical interpretation, distribution, and frequency, and correlational approaches were applied. To examine gender differences in MI, an independent sample t-test was performed. The data was also analyzed inferentially by means of correlation analysis.

Results

The results are described in a manner corresponding to the aims of this study stated the above.

The first part describes in the following four points:

① Rehabilitation major perceptions and attitudes toward English and English class. Graph 1 describes participants’ responses on questions related to their perception and attitudes toward English and English classes. The words in the chart indicate the following statements with which participants agreed or disagreed:
   Difficult: I feel the current English class is difficult.
   Interest: I feel the contents of English classes are interesting.
   Useful: I believe the current English classes will be useful to my future.
   Seriously: I am working on English classes seriously.
   Culture: I am interested in learning about different cultures.
   Global: I have a feeling the world is globalized.
   Real life: I can’t relate English to my real life situation.
Graph 1: Students’ Perceptions and Attitudes toward English and English Classes

As indicated above, 34% participants found current English classes difficult (N=51 - 46+5); however, 74% (N=109-23+86) believed the content of the English classes were interesting. One hundred and twenty participants (81.6%) believed learning English was useful for their future and 114 (78%) stated they worked on English classes seriously. Forty-three percent (N=63) wanted to learn about other cultures and 48% (N=71) were aware of globalization, whereas 44.9% (N=66) could not relate English learning to their real lives.

The next graph shows students’ attitudes toward English.

Graph 2: Students’ Attitude to English and English Classes

As indicated above, 64% respondent disliked English while 36 % liked it. Those who stated they disliked English very much comprised 29%, whereas 6% had a strong liking.
The following graph shows whether students would take English classes as an elective.

Graph 3: Students’ Perceptions on English as an Elective

This revealed that less than a quarter (24%) would take English even if it were an elective, while almost the same percentage (22%) said they would not. Over half (53%) claimed that they were unsure. The study also examined the kinds of English skills the participants desired to acquire and the result is shown in Graph 4.

Graph 4: Desired Skill Improvement

The vertical axis indicates the number of responses to a multiple responses questionnaire. The most desired skills were conversation, followed by listening and
speaking. Only limited number of participants expressed a desire to improve testing or presentation skills in English.

② Descriptions of participants’ English performance

Table 1 shows the participants’ final and placement scores, and the graph 5 indicates score distribution of both examinations.

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<th>Highest</th>
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<th>SD</th>
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<tr>
<td>Final score (80 point full mark)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>48.16</td>
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<tr>
<td>Placement test score (35 point full mark)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>15.73</td>
<td>6.839</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Participants’ final and placement scores

Graph 5: Final and Placement Test Score Distribution

The mean of the final score is 48.16 of the 80 points full mark test. Also revealed, is a huge gap between the highest (80) and the lowest (7) scores with a standard deviation of 18.946. In terms of placement test score (35 points= full mark) the mean is 15.73. Similar to the result of the final score, a huge gap between the highest (32) and the lowest (3) was revealed by the analysis.

Participants’ English performance in high school was revealed by self-evaluation. The results are as follows:
Graph 6: Students’ Self-Evaluation of High-School English

As shown by Graph 6, more than half of respondents evaluated their high-school English as very good (N=7 4.8%) good (N=15 10.2%), and Ok (N=65 44.2%), while the rest self-rated as bad (N=34 23.1%) and very bad (N=19 12.9%). About one-third believed their English grade was not good while less than one-fifth believe they were good at it.

Table 2 shows the result of a correlational analysis of participants’ English performance, including final and placement scores and self-evaluation of high-school English grades. Regarding the proficiency scores, it shows a significant relation between participants’ final score and the placement score (r=.272, p < .005), but not with their self-evaluation on high-school English.

<table>
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<tr>
<td>P</td>
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** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Table 2: Corrections of Participants’ English proficiency

③ Rehabilitation majors’ MI profiles

The following graph describes the participants’ medium score (max=10 points) for each intelligence.
As indicated by Graph 7, intrapersonal intelligence had the highest mean score (5.42) followed by interpersonal (4.46) and musical intelligence (4.41). The lowest was linguistic intelligence (2.70) followed by visual/spatial (3.07) and logical-mathematical intelligence (3.15).
④ Gender differences of MI

The next graph (Graph 8) shows the medium scores of each intelligence by gender.

![Graph 8: Gender Differences of Each Intelligence](image)

As indicated, for females, the three highest mean scores of MI, in order, were intrapersonal (5.57), musical (5.08), and interpersonal (3.96), while the lowest was logical-mathematical (2.41), followed by linguistic (3.02). For males, the highest mean score was also intrapersonal (5.33), followed by interpersonal (4.75) and musical (4.75). The lowest was linguistic (2.51), followed by visual/spatial.

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**Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level  * Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)**

Table 3: T-test Results for gender differences
Table 3 indicates T-test results for examining gender differences. Significant gender differences were observed in logical-mathematics ($t=2.846, p < .001$), in which males showed a higher mean score; musical ($t=-2.521, p < .001$), in which females showed a higher mean score; and interpersonal ($t=1.998, p < .005$), in which females showed a higher mean score.

The second part of this section describes the following two points, which all involves a Pearson’s correlational analysis.

① Correlations of students’ MI profiles and their English performance

Table 4 indicates the correlation between MI profiles and participants’ placement test scores, scores of the final examination, and self-evaluation on high-school English grades.

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** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)   * Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 4: MI profiles and students’ English performance

As indicated, there were no correlations except that bodily-kinesthetic intelligence has a weak, but a significant relation with students’ final scores (.229 at $p < .001$).
Correlations between students’ MI profiles and perceptions and attitudes

Table 5 shows the results of the analysis.

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** Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)  * Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 5: Relations between MI and Participants’ Perceptions and Attitudes
As indicated, positive correlations were found with students who feel difficulty with English and naturalistic (.186 p<.001), intrapersonal (.210 p<.001) and existential (.212 p<.001) intelligences. There was a correlation between interpersonal intelligence and students’ dislike of English. Meanwhile, a negative correlation was found in students who are interested in English with musical (-.203 p<.001) bodily-kinesthetic (-.195 p<.001), intrapersonal (-.173 p<.001) and existential (-.256 p<.005) intelligences.

**Discussion and Implications**

The two main objectives of the study were to investigate the MI characteristics of Japanese university students and examine the relation of a particular intelligence with cognitive, psychological, and behavioral variables.

The descriptive data of this study revealed the overall characteristics of this sample group. Although many (64%) do not like English in general, they were likely to show interest in learning about other cultures and the majority was aware of globalization. Moreover, they believe English is useful for their future. Regarding current English classes, they thought it was difficult, but interesting and at an appropriate level. The skills students desired to acquire most were conversation, followed by listening and speaking skills, while presentation or test-taking skills were least desired. It seems that taking English tests, such as the TOEIC or EIKEN Test, or presenting their research in English speaking conferences in the future may not be included in their vision. Rather, these participants showed their desire to acquire practical and immediate use of English skills for their daily lives or future careers. It seems the connection between the real world and English learning should be strengthened so that students are motivated to learn and use various English skills. Moreover, participants showed a negative or passive attitude for taking elective English classes. Currently, the participants are taking English classes designed on a content- and conversation-based approach, intended to impart meaningful, pragmatic, and useful English. However, the result of the study raises questions about current practice. Reforming English classes is necessary to change students’ views and attitudes which motivate them better to take English classes, even if elective.

Regarding to their English performance, the noteworthy feature of this group was a large gap between the high and the low scorers. In such a mixed-ability level group, the main concern is the level and the content of classes. Designing instructions that more students can understand, maintaining classes for the lower level students, and
motivating higher or more complex learning for higher-level students are the biggest challenges.

**MI Profile Characteristics**

Although gender differences were found in this study, the most prominent intelligences among these students were intrapersonal, musical, and interpersonal respectively. On the other hand, the least relevant was linguistic intelligence. According to Gardner, people with high linguistic intelligence have well-developed verbal skills (1983/2003). From this standpoint, linguistic intelligence may have a strong relation with English language performance. As this sample group has low linguistic intelligence, this could contribute to their lower performance of English. However, the study revealed that there are no significant relations between linguistic intelligence and the three types of English performance. Yet, the literature review on linguistic intelligence showed mixed results and is not conclusive. Therefore, such MI profiles with low linguistic intelligence should not take for granted and need to be carefully considered.

The study also conducted correlational analyses examining relations between particular intelligences and participants’ attributional factors such as attitudes and psychological states. The discussion here thus focuses on three dominant intelligences, including intrapersonal, musical, and interpersonal, found in this group. People with high intrapersonal intelligence are good at recognizing and understanding themselves, developing a strong sense of self-awareness, and having introspective awareness of their beliefs and thought processes. Those with high musical intelligence have the ability to recognize, reproduce, and create musical pitches, tones, timbre, and rhythm. They are good at singing, composing music, and playing music instruments. People with high interpersonal intelligence understand the intentions and feelings of others. They interact effectively with others and use effective verbal and nonverbal communication skills. The correlational analysis revealed that interpersonal intelligence is correlated with students’ dislike of English and musical intelligence is negatively correlated with students’ interests toward English and English learning. Moreover, intrapersonal intelligence is correlated with students’ difficulty with English and negatively correlated with their interest in it. These three intelligences had no relation to desired skills. Negative feelings and attitudes, as well as difficulty among this group, could lead to low motivation. Working on affective filters should be considered. Meanwhile, in the current situation, students’ recognition of their MI characteristics can be an effective tool to improve motivation. For example, students
who have high intrapersonal intelligence may have strong affective variables, such as self-esteem and anxiety. They may be good at understanding their own feelings and monitoring their learning process. When these students recognize their weaknesses and strengths, the instructors’ role is to make this recognition beneficial. Independent work, individualized projects, and personal journals, in which students can monitor their learning process and achievement, may motivate learning.

Overall, the study concludes that MIs do not play a significant part in students’ cognitive domain, such as English language performance. However, some intelligences are found to be related to behavioral and psychological domains. It is not easy to implement activities that stimulate all different intelligence features, since each individual has a different MI profile and different levels of English proficiency. However, the current research provides a good opportunity to examine existing curriculums or instruction from different perspectives. Students’ recognition of their own intelligences, making use of these, and utilizing MI principle based instructions may be beneficial in the ESP classroom for development of student-centered teaching techniques.

**Limitation of the Study**

Although the current study provided quantitative evidence in an MI study on Japanese university students, the results may not apply to different populations. This research is a small-scale study, focused on rehabilitation university majors. However, this preliminary study provides a foundation for further research in which MI theory based instruction will be designed and implemented.
Bibliography


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A Case Study on the School Counselor’s Work Predicaments at Elementary Schools in Xinzhung District, New Taipei City

Mei-Fang Wang, Vanung University, Taiwan
Po-Hsun Shih, Vanung University, Taiwan
Yu-Chung Lin, Vanung University, Taiwan
Tzu-Shan Cheng, National Taiwan Normal University

Abstract
This study aims to investigate the work difficulties” and social support of new full-time counselors in junior high school, and then to provide some practical suggestions to the situation. This study adopted a qualitative research method. The subjects were six full-time junior high school counselors who were selected by purposeful sampling from Xinzhung District, New Taipei City. Semi-structured interview was applied for data collection. In addition, the study acquires five consulting directors’ and thirteen home teachers’ questionnaire data in five elementary schools. Through the analyses of the interview transcripts, the study aims at four dimensions: the work load, the social relation problems and communication, the sense of achievement and identification from work, role ambiguity and conflict. The findings show:
1. The work load is heavy and the work is complicated.
2. The social relation and communication are good for them with other staffs.
3. They possess high sense of achievement and identification from work.
4. They seldom had role ambiguity and conflict.
At last, several suggestions regarding working difficulties and following research have been proposed based on the research results: The division of labor, the demand for professional improvement, the human resource of counseling, the extension of the research.

Keywords: counselor, work predicaments
Introduction

Currently, as the society is losing its order, the importance of tutorship has been revealed: in view of this, the department of Education in Taiwan starts to promote a teaching system of full-time counselor. As a result, the research serves as an attempt to investigate on full-time counselors, and get a deeper understanding of the working conditions and problems they are faced at school.

Theoretical Framework

According to teaching grading, work of full-time counselors is basically focused on the second level, with the first and third level assisting. However, researches from 2007 to 2014 found that, these teachers generally felt a heavy working load, and they lacked a sense of achievement and identification; besides, there was a role conflict. Consequently, nowadays, there are more and more positive plans promoting, and whether the current plan makes a difference is the main aim of the paper.

Method

This study is a case study, and the Xinxhung District in Taiwan is the case. Researchers have selected six full-time teachers from Xinxhung District, New City, Taiwan. In order to understand their “work load”, “social relation problems and communication”, “sense of achievement and identification from work”, and “role ambiguity and conflict”, researchers have designed an interview outline, conducted an interview, concluded and analyzed, for the sake of probing into their current working situation and problems. Furthermore, questionnaire was used for collecting suggestions from directors and mentors, proving evidence as bystanders.

Research samples have been chosen upon a standard that teachers shall have at least one-full academic teaching year, and continue the job as a career for now. Based on this, the researchers are looking forward to providing a comprehensive understanding and course of teachers from Xinxhung District, New City, Taiwan.

Results

1. The Working Load

During the promotion course of full-time counselors, interviewees commonly believe that: policies of government organizations have yet made specific practices, classroom teachers lack professional counseling knowledge, counselors are running short, and psychologists and social workers fail to make stable cooperation, these are major problems they’re faced at present. Interviewees also generally feel a huge work load and difficulty.

2. The Social Relation Problems and Communication

In view of these two aspects, interviewees believe: leaders’ ambiguous working functions and frequent changing rate are major causes for relation problems. Nevertheless, most of them also indicate that, if leaders have more experiences and
assist full-time counselors, it should not be problems to quickly adapt to a new school culture.

3. The Sense of Achievement and Identification from Work

For most interviewees, compared to their previous experience, today’s job is to cooperate with leaders (directors) and mentors as a team. Such a form allows them to acquire more support and successful experiences instead of working alone. As a result, they could get the sense of achievement and identification from work.

4. The Role Ambiguity and Conflict

In terms of role ambiguity and conflict, interviewees say, they are of multiple roles. In Taiwan, counseling work is classified into three grades; but despite the grade they are at, they shall adjust working conditions at any time and be able to do the work of all three grades. Some mentors, team leaders and directors may not have enough counseling experiences and counselors are likely to help these people to increase professional skills. Though multiple, interviewees say they can handle it with ease.

Conclusions and Suggestions

Generally, interviewees reflect that they are faced with a heavy work load and pressure; whereas, there’s not much trouble in social relation, role ambiguity or role conflict. They can also feel a high sense of achievement and identification from work. According to results of the research, the author has put up some suggestions: 1. the government should clarify work functions; 2. Trainings on full-time counselling should be provided to all school staff; 3. More incentive systems should be set up to encourage and support related personnel.

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A Study on the Relationships between Time Management and Working Pressure for Teachers with Un-Administrative Positions in New Taipei City

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Since 1990, there has been a lot of education reform in the world. That reform has included many areas and subjects. Are teachers, even those educated in Teacher Education Institutions, competent to hold un-administrative positions in these dynamic times? The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between time management and working pressure for un-administrative elementary teachers, and the differences among different variables. This study used questionnaire survey to investigate the above direction. Researchers developed the “Questionnaire of Time Management and Working Pressure for un-administrative teachers” for investigation. The samples included 519 un-administrative teachers of 29 elementary schools in New Taipei City. The data were analyzed by T-test, Mean, Standard Deviation, One-Way ANOVA, and Pearson’s correlation.

The results show:
1. The un-administrative elementary teachers performed well in time management. Especially in the aspects of “time management” and “division of labor”.
2. The working pressure was on the medium grade, and the highest two aspects were “job stress” and “workload”.
3. The “female”, “age of 41 to 51”, or “working over 21 years” had better performance on time management.
4. The “age of 31 to 40” and “age of 41 to 51”, “working over 10 years”, “class teacher”, or “working in large-scale school” felt more working pressure.
5. Teachers who had better time management, possessed less working pressure, especially in the relation of “time management” and “pressure of professional knowledge”.

Based on those results, researchers offered some suggestions for educators and future research.

Keywords: mobile learning, students' willingness, English class
Introduction

In recent decades, with the rise of numerous reforms in educational, teachers’ job contents are very different from previous contents. How to achieve the desired objectives in limited time, and teachers’ ability to manage the time is increasingly important. Therefore, this study is aimed at exploring the status of teachers’ time management and work pressure as well as the relationship based on the time management model of Macan (1994).

Theoretical Framework

Macon’s (1994) time management model focuses on three kinds of time management behavior training to improve the perceived control and govern the control of time, reduce the tension and physiological stress caused by the work, and improve the satisfaction of work and performance. According to several studies of Taiwan, it can also be found that there is negative relationship between the time management and work pressure of part-time administrative teachers; while there are limited studies in this aspect of un-administrative teachers. Therefore, this study is planned to explore this aspect.

Method

This study will divide the variables of background of un-administrative teachers in primary schools into six categories, including gender, age, marital status, position, years of service and school size. The main variables of the study will be discussed in two parts. The first one is the time management of un-administrative teachers in primary schools, including the time planning, division authorization, interpersonal communication, tools application; and the second part is the work pressure of un-administrative teachers in primary schools, including the work load, role conflict, professional knowledge and workplace stress.

In this study, the prepared teachers of primary schools in New Taipei City are taken as the study samples. The sampling method is the layered sampling on the basis of different sizes (total numbers of teachers) of schools. A total of 596 questionnaires were issued, and 519 were recovered with the recovery rate of 87%. Excluding invalid questionnaires, 513 copies are valid with the availability of 86%.

Results

1. Analysis on Status of Time Management of Un-Administrative Teachers in Primary Schools

The scores of four levels of time management of un-administrative teachers in primary schools are higher than the average. The time planning level has the highest score of 3.33, and the interpersonal communication has the lowest score of 3.07.
2. Analysis on Status of Work Pressure of Un-Administrative Teachers in Primary Schools

Among four levels of work pressure of un-administrative teachers in primary schools, except for the role conflict and professional knowledge lower than the average, the score of other levels are higher than the average. The score of workplace stress has the highest score of 2.52, and the role conflict has the lowest score of 2.15.

3. Analysis on Difference between Time Management and Work Pressure of Un-Administrative Teachers in Primary Schools under Different Background Variables

The results show that un-administrative primary school teachers with different genders, ages, years of service have significant difference in the score of time management. There are significant differences in the score of time management of un-administrative primary school teachers with different ages, positions, years of service and school size.

Conclusions and Suggestions

It is found from the study that there is significant negative correlation between the time management and work pressure of un-administrative teachers in primary schools, that is, the teacher with proper time management feel less work pressure. In addition, there is highest correlation between the time planning of teachers’ time management and professional knowledge of teachers’ work pressure, so with the better time planning ability, the teacher will make the better use of time to improve the professional knowledge of teaching. According to the above findings, the school can increase the teachers in the time management to order to enhance their work efficiency and professional knowledge and so on.
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Learning and Teaching Beyond Boundaries – Educational Change Through Technologies

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Keywords: (STEM, Leadership development, Women in Technology, Education Technology)
Introduction
The UN Millennium Development Goals underscore the importance of applying the benefits of information and communication technologies (ICT) with institutions in developing countries and disadvantaged communities. This abstract highlights the role of technology as an educational change agent among the students and educators. Schools have focused on improving student’s achievements, have rigorous academic standards, assessments and accountability measures however a profound gap still remains between the knowledge and skills students learn in school, and the knowledge and skills they need in a 21\textsuperscript{st} century workforce. Very rapidly, technology is becoming a core differentiator in attracting students and communities and continues to be the key source of growth in international education.

Verizon Innovative Learning Program has believed that technology can be a vehicle to improve teaching learning and has been bringing educational change through technologies in India and The Philippines. With the focus on increasing efficiency of teachers and students in use of education technology to increase access to Science, Technology, Engineering and Math (STEM) education among girls from underprivileged societies, students are exposed to technology, and additional enrichment interventions throughout the academic year at their secondary school level to ignite and sustain passion for Science and Math. In a country like India where only 3\% females occupy positions in technology sector, where 16\% are at mid management and a huge 81\% percent are at junior rung, will such interventions change the figures in future? Based on the data gathered, the paper will highlight what kind of technological intervention will change the composition of IT sector in next decade.

The Need

Around the world, the participation of women in the fields of science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) has been historically low. Despite the incredible progress made in women’s representation in education and the workplace, there is still much room for improvement in the science and technology arenas. The disproportionately low representation of women and girls in STEM fields has significant implications for women’s financial security, economic growth opportunities, and global innovation.\footnote{1} It is vital to reduce the gender gap in the STEM fields.

The argument for encouraging girls’ interest and participation in STEM subjects is strongly supported by research studies indicating that proficiency in mathematics is a strong predictor of positive outcomes for young adults. A Survey of Adult Skills conducted by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), for example, showed that foundation skills in mathematics have a major impact on individuals’ life chances. The survey also demonstrated a link between poor mathematics skills and limited access to better-paying and more-rewarding jobs; at the aggregate level, inequality in the distribution of mathematics skills across populations is closely related to how wealth is shared within nations.\footnote{2}

\begin{figure}[h]
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\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure1.png}
\caption{Figure 1: Illustration of the impact of technology on education.}
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\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure2.png}
\caption{Figure 2: Comparison of STEM participation between genders.}
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\begin{figure}[h]
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\includegraphics[width=0.5\textwidth]{figure3.png}
\caption{Figure 3: Technological interventions in education.}
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\begin{table}[h]
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\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
\textbf{Year} & \textbf{Girls’ Participation} & \textbf{Boys’ Participation} \\
\hline
2000 & 20\% & 30\% \\
2010 & 25\% & 35\% \\
2020 & 30\% & 40\% \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Table 1: Participation in STEM fields over the years.}
\end{table}

\begin{table}[h]
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\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
\textbf{Country} & \textbf{Girls’ Participation} & \textbf{Boys’ Participation} \\
\hline
India & 15\% & 25\% \\
China & 20\% & 30\% \\
United States & 30\% & 40\% \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Table 2: Comparative participation in STEM fields across countries.}
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\begin{figure}[h]
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\caption{Figure 4: Technological interventions in education.}
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\caption{Figure 5: Comparison of STEM participation between genders.}
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\hline
\textbf{Country} & \textbf{Girls’ Participation} & \textbf{Boys’ Participation} \\
\hline
India & 15\% & 25\% \\
China & 20\% & 30\% \\
United States & 30\% & 40\% \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\caption{Table 3: Comparative participation in STEM fields across countries.}
\end{table}
The secondary school period is a critical time for young women to gain life skills that prepare them for higher education and career success. However, promising young female students in poorer communities rarely consider careers in STEM fields due to fears of the level of difficulty in understanding complex concepts in STEM. Additionally, teachers often lack the resources and training to motivate students to get involved in STEM fields.

The pilot phase of Verizon Innovative Learning Program—initiated in India in October 2013—was a small step toward addressing a bigger challenge. The program is running successfully in targeted schools, and IIE has effectively engaged teachers and students in teaching and learning science and math. Effective strategies have included:

• Need Assessment and Rapport Building: The Program Team makes frequent site visits and conducts frequent consultations with government officials and school authorities in order to continuously learn about stakeholder needs and to generate buy-in—key to fostering sustainability.

• Teacher Involvement: Teachers play a vital role in the program; they are VILP’s torch bearers and the main points of contact within the target schools. Beginning the program with teacher training helped build confidence and trust among the teachers. Their enthusiasm has helped maintain their investment and encourages innovation.

• Introduction of Education Technology: Teachers are using creative learning techniques in the classroom, mixing digital content with thinking maps and more traditional methods of teaching, creating a more interactive learning environment. Receiving the education technology from the principals also motivated the teachers further and increased their participation in the program.

• Involvement of Verizon Local Employees: The program successfully engaged 25 female Verizon employees working in Chennai and Hyderabad to mentor selected girls participating in the program. The mentors, who have diverse professional backgrounds at Verizon, are helping these girls to develop leadership competencies that will allow them to achieve a brighter future. Mentors help their mentees to identify short- and long-term academic and professional goals and draw upon their knowledge and experience to support mentees in reaching those goals. This relationship also helps to develop industry-institution partnerships that will continue even after the program expands to other schools.

Building on the successful Verizon Innovative Learning Program in India pilot and leveraging our lessons learned, we proposed to extend the program in Philippines and in India to support and encourage girls in secondary education to develop and pursue interests in the STEM fields. The program provided opportunities for girls in selected poor communities in Manila, Philippines, and Chennai, Hyderabad and Bangalore in India, to learn new career skills and undergo training in STEM. New technologies were integrated into the classroom and supplemented with extra-curricular mentoring by Verizon employees so that students are motivated and build capacity to pursue post-secondary education (academic or vocational training) programs that will lead to careers in the high-tech and science sectors. The program will fulfill IIE’s mission of increasing access to education globally and will leverage our proven global experience developing the leadership skills of women and girls.
The Case for Philippines:

Young students in Philippines face a number of challenges in gaining motivation and engagement in STEM subjects. Encouraging and engaging students in STEM at the secondary level is critical to nurturing the next generation of scientists, doctors and engineers who can contribute to the country’s productivity, growth and future role in globalization; girls in particular are deprived of potential careers because of their limited access to high-quality STEM education. As a result, high percentages of women are unable to participate in these key growth sectors, depriving them of employment and livelihoods and impeding economic growth in these industries and regions. Many experts agree that educating girls and women is critical to economic development in Philippines. One study cited that Philippines’ GDP could grow by nearly .2 percent each year with an increased investment in female education.

The Case for India:

The program will provide opportunities for girls in selected poor communities in the aforementioned three cities in India to learn new career skills and undergo training in STEM. New technologies will be integrated into the classroom and supplemented with extra-curricular mentoring by Verizon employees so that students are motivated and equipped to pursue post-secondary education (academic or vocational training) opportunities that will lead to careers in the high-tech and science sectors. The program will fulfill IIE’s mission of increasing access to education and will leverage our established experience developing the leadership skills of women and girls.

Approach

Research shows that it is not uncommon for young girls to be discouraged from pursuing math and science. In many countries, there is an unconscious perception that science and math are typically “male” fields, while humanities and arts are primarily “female” fields. These stereotypes further inhibit girls from cultivating an interest in math and science from a young age, while boys continue to have more significant access to educational support in STEM fields (e.g., tutoring, participation in science fairs, etc.) Teachers must work to encourage young girls to pursue opportunities in STEM by offering more hands-on workshops for girls to learn about science and technology. Schools must also consider bringing female engineers to talk to students about their professions and to reach out to young girls in particular. For this reason, our proposed approach will engage local Verizon employees in the program, building on our strong success doing so in India.

A. Program Aim

VILP aims to address gender inequity in STEM by providing extra support to female students by building their skills and confidence to successfully pursue STEM fields. Since teachers and principals are key to the success of students, the program will also enable teachers to provide cutting edge education through the use of innovative technology, benefiting the selected girls and their classmates.

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4 http://www.businessweek.com/articles/2013-03-07/the-economic-benefits-of-educating-women
Our integrated approach will improve secondary school outcomes for girls and increase access to STEM training for girls. Our approach incorporates the following best practices:

• **Combine technical training with enrichment support** focused on life skills, career development and entrepreneurship training.

• Integrate training in **education technology** for science and math education.

• **Build community ownership and buy-in** and take into account the local cultural and social elements that have contributed to barriers for girls to pursue secondary education in STEM subjects. The role of local Verizon employees has been integral to the program’s early success.

• **Invest in teacher training** for effective and sustainable intervention at the school level.

• **Respond flexibly to changing circumstances, utilizing ongoing assessment tools and quality control**, so that insights from monitoring and evaluation across the intervention sites are fed back into the program to improve outcomes.

B. Targeted Audience
In India our primary target will be 300 girls (100 in each city) studying in grade eight in five schools each in Bengaluru, Chennai and Hyderabad (15 schools total). Our secondary target will be 30 high school teachers in selected schools and the parents of selected girls and In Manila, 100 girls, 5 schools and 10 school teachers. Other female and male classmates in target schools will benefit from the integration of education technologies and teacher training in effective classroom pedagogies that are key elements of the program model.

C. Geography
The program will be implemented in the Verizon focus states of India – Telangana, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka and Manila, Philippines. The beneficiary high schools will be selected from the cities of Hyderabad, Chennai and Bengaluru in India and from Manila, Philippines.

**Goal:** The overarching goal of the program will be to increase girls’ participation in the economic development of each state by preparing them to succeed in the science and math subjects in 12th grade and pursue post-secondary education in STEM fields.

**Objectives:** To pursue this goal, we will seek to achieve the following process and product objectives during VILP Global:

(i) **Individual Level:**
*Girl students at the secondary class level:* IIE will support the development of learning environments conducive to teaching and learning, using creative learning techniques to engage female students in STEM subjects. IIE will set up coaching classes during after school hours and summer/winter vacations for selected students. Program-supported tutoring sessions also will be available for the students. These will include leadership and life skills training components to inspire confidence and provide tools to help girls succeed both in preparing for exams and entrance tests and also in envisioning and succeeding in finding appropriate career paths. The participating students will undergo hands-on experiential training to build communication skills, self-awareness and leadership potential.
One of the unique opportunities that selected students will receive is mentoring support from Verizon volunteers. Verizon volunteers will act as a catalyst to create interest in science and math subjects among students as well as to guide students in understanding career paths in the engineering and technology sectors. Students will also have an opportunity to visit the in-country Verizon facilities so they can learn about the various roles in the high-tech work force. Throughout the pilot phase of VILP, volunteers have been meeting with selected female students in a group every other weekend and engaging in interactive conversation around various issues of concern for the girls in the classroom and beyond.

Each program component will incorporate technology, including classroom pedagogy and use of distance learning and collaborative tools to encourage sharing and cross-learning among students in the different intervention sites.

(ii) School Level:

Science & math teachers and heads of institutions: IIE will organize trainings on educational technology for secondary school math and science teachers from selected schools. Our objective is to train the teachers to integrate technology into the classroom in order to teach subjects effectively, stimulate young girls’ interest in STEM and in pursuing post-secondary education in STEM subjects, and provide information about various STEM career opportunities. Teachers will participate in workshops, seminars and site visits to the Verizon facilities as well as program networking events. Targeted outcomes include the following:

- Teachers are exposed to creative learning techniques that support interactive learning environments and facilitate presenting the STEM syllabi in meaningful ways. Teachers will use education technology tools that will be provided to schools. We propose to continue working with the HCL enabled Myeducation software that uses animation, videos, and virtual labs for effective teaching and learning.
- Teachers and principals are better informed about various career opportunities for their students.
- Teachers and principals are inspired to motivate their students, especially girls, to aim high and apply for further training in universities.
- Teachers and STEM professionals from the industrial sectors (including Verizon volunteers) develop partnerships, facilitate visits to industrial settings and invite STEM professionals to visit classrooms and make presentations or hold workshops.

(iii) Family Level:

Encourage parents and family members: Regular opportunities will be offered to parents to attend workshops that open their minds to the career opportunities available to women in STEM fields and to help them become advocates for their girls in pursuing post-secondary education in STEM fields. Trained facilitators and high achieving female role models from various industries will interact with parents and teachers to help them visualize a different future for the girls, including the value of post-secondary education, various scholarships, government schemes and career opportunities. These sessions will also include an opportunity for parents and teachers to interact face-to-face and discuss the students’ progress and future options.
**Monitoring & Evaluation:** In the pilot phase, IIE developed a framework and design for the ongoing monitoring and evaluation of the program which we propose to continue to use in VILP Global. Using a baseline pilot report and end-of-academic-year end line survey, the program will have data to support the achievement of outcomes. We propose to use the same framework and tools to evaluate program outcomes in all three cities. As the post-implementation data can be gathered only after the annual exams are complete, we propose devoting three months following the school intervention for data gathering, analysis, report writing and submission.

**Incentives:** Cooperating principals will be awarded school-wide technology enhancements and girl students will receive a mentor from the local Verizon offices. The program will also provide certificates to teachers and students acknowledging their success in completing the training program.

**Sustainability:** The program is designed to be sustainable by focusing on the following activities: building the capacity of principal and teachers, inculcating vision and value for STEM education for girls and providing skills to teachers in education technology and effective pedagogy. The pilot phase in India is showing positive indicators toward schools’ ownership and commitment, which strengthens the program’s sustainability. Additionally, the most unique aspect of the program is that the intervention takes a holistic approach to gaining educational advancement. The participating girls are provided with a nurturing environment, including mentoring, exposure to positive role models and leadership and skills building, in order to generate interest in STEM. Additionally, since parents are decision-makers for or influencers of their daughters, the program will work with parents to provide community support to enable girls to make an informed decision on their post-secondary and/or career opportunities.
Conclusion

Verizon Innovative Learning Program has increased the number of educators with enhanced proficiency in education technologies for instructional purposes. Below graph proves that education technology can be very effective among educators in teaching Math and Science.

The number of teachers using computer often in the classroom have increased from 55 per cent to 86 per cent and those using internet often has increased from 45 per cent to 83 per cent. The percentage of teachers using computer for teaching showed a slight increase from 40 to 43 per cent and those using internet for teaching showed a slight decrease from 20 to 17 per cent.
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The Study of Students' Willingness to Use Mobile Learning in English Classes

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Abstract
Recently, New Taipei City of the Taiwanese government has made great efforts to promote mobile learning. For example, the related programs, “New Taipei City Mobile Learning Experimental Schools of Ministry of Education” in the 101 academic year and “New Taipei City Cloud educational studio” in the 102 academic year. Furthermore, in the 103 academic year, they were integrating tablet PCs to learning in different subjects. This study tried to know students’ “Usage Behavior” and “Usage Intention” of an English curriculum in a school in the above context. Based on the “Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology” [UTAUT], researchers designed questionnaires to discuss influence factors. The total sample numbers are 324 6th grade students, sample numbers are 324 and effective samples are 324, and the effective rate is 100%. Results show: (1) the variables of “Experience” and “Voluntary Background” of "Effort Expectancy" and "Social Influence" are significant deviations. (2) "Performance Expectancy", "Effort Expectancy", "Social Influence", “Facilitating Conditions", and “Usage Intention” present a significant positive correlation. (3) "Performance Expectancy", "Effort Expectancy", and "Social Influence" have predictive ability to "Usage Intention". (4) “Usage Intention” and "Facilitating Conditions" have predictive ability to "Usage Behavior".

Keywords: mobile learning, students' willingness, English class
Introduction

This study is planned to with the United Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) proposed by Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis (2003) as a framework, explore the impact of “Performance Expectancy”, “Effort Expectancy”, “Social Influence”, “Facilitating Conditions” and “Usage Intention” on students participating in the mobile learning curriculum.

Theoretical Framework

In 2003, Venkatesh et al. (2003) proposed the United Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT), developed the intent and four core elements used as well as four critical influencing factors. Compared to other models with only 17% to 42% of explanatory power, the explanatory power of the model is up to above 70%. Therefore, this study is intended to explore the impact of mobile learning on elementary school students with this model.

Method

With the United Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) proposed by Venkatesh et al. (2003) as the main framework, the first draft of this scale is divided into six levels, including four independent variables- “Performance Expectancy”, “Effort Expectancy”, “Social Influence” and “Facilitating Conditions” as well as two dependent variables- “Usage Intention” and “Usage Behavior”. In the development process, 7 scholars and professors were invited in amendment, and 56 students were conducted the pilot study. The statistical methods used include descriptive analysis, independent sample t-test, one-way ANOVA, Pearson product moment correlation and multiple regression analysis.

Results

1. Analysis on Research Samples

The analysis of samples show that the majority of research samples mainly include “boys”, “who want to use mobile learning to blend into English curriculum”, “who have information equipment for learning”, “who never use a tablet computer or smart phone to learn”, “who have network at home for Internet access”, and “who surf the Internet for a total of 1-3 hours every week”.

2. Correlation Analysis of UTAUT Model and Elementary Students’ Use of Action Learning to Blend into English Curriculum

According to relevant analysis of Pearson correlation, the “Performance Expectancy”, “Effort Expectancy”, “Social Influence”, “Facilitating Conditions” and “Usage Intention” show a significant positive correlation in the perspective relationship, and there is high correlation between “Performance Expectancy” and “Effort Expectancy”, as well as between “Effort Expectancy” and “Usage Intention”.

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3. Analysis on the Difference of Impact of Different Background Variables on UTAUT Model and Elementary Students’ Use of Action Learning to Blend into English Curriculum

According to the results of independent sample t-test and one-way ANOVA, students with different intention have significant differences in “Performance Expectancy” and “Social Influence”.

4. Prediction Analysis of UTAUT Model and Elementary Students’ Use of Action Learning to Blend into English Curriculum

The multiple regression method is used to analyze the prediction of potential variables and each perspective, which shows:

(1) Three variables with predicative functions for “Usage Intention” reach the significant level (P<0.001), which are “Performance Expectancy”, “Effort Expectancy” and “Social Influence” in order. These variables together can explain 59.1% of the total variation of overall intention level. Therefore, the “Performance Expectancy”, “Effort Expectancy” and “Social Influence” can effectively predict the “Usage Intention”.

(2) A total of two variables with predicative functions for “Usage Behavior” reach the significant level (P<0.001), which are “Usage Intention” and “Facilitating Conditions” in order. These variables together can explain 65.1% of the total variation of overall behavior level, and the “Usage Intention” can explain 61.5% of the total variation of overall behavior level, which is the most important predictive variable. Therefore, the “Usage Intention” and “Facilitating Conditions” can effectively predict the “Usage Behavior”.

Conclusions and Suggestions

It is found from the study that:

1. Two variables, “Experience” and “Willingness” have significant difference in “Effort Expectancy”, “Performance Expectancy” and “Social Influence” respectively;
2. The effort expectancy, “Performance Expectancy”, Social Influence”, “Facilitating Conditions” and “Usage Intention” all show significant positive correlation;
3. The “Effort Expectancy”, “Performance Expectancy” and “Social Influence” have the predictive power for “Usage Intention”;
4. The “Usage Intention”, “Facilitating Conditions” have the predictive power for “Usage Behavior”.

Therefore, the study also suggests the government units to promote courses related to the action learning, encourage students to conduct more such courses, and provide students more course training and assistance.
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‘Stepping Out of the Comfort Zone’: Pre-Service Teachers’ Reflections on International Service-Learning

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Abstract
Within the field of teacher education, international service-learning (ISL) provides a unique opportunity to help future graduates develop intercultural awareness and competency. This is significant given the diverse range of cultural backgrounds found in many schools, and particularly in many major urban settings. Drawing from extensive fieldwork in the area of ISL, the author’s previous research has revealed the potential danger of these cross-cultural experiences to perpetuate, rather than challenge stereotypes and ethnocentric viewpoints, which accentuates the importance of research that considers not only students’ learning experiences, but also the theoretical underpinnings and pedagogical practices implemented in these programs. This paper reports on a recent case study of Australian pre-service teachers abroad on a short-term ISL and cross-cultural program focused in the area of Teaching English as a Second Official Language (TESOL). The paper discusses students’ learning and critical self-reflection in relation to the themes of challenging cultural stereotypes, becoming more culturally aware, and developing pedagogical understanding. The students’ reflections are analysed with regards to their learning experiences, as well as discourses in the internationalisation of higher education. The analysis uncovers the transformative potential, as well as precariousness of students ‘stepping out of their comfort zone’ in these short-term cross-cultural experiences.

Keywords: intercultural competency; higher education; diversity; cross-cultural competency
Introduction

As a teacher educator, I am interested in exploring how pre-service teachers experience overseas practicum placements and how they view these experience in relation to the development of their professional competencies. With over 10 years of experience leading cross-cultural and international service-learning (ISL) for tertiary students, I have witnessed the potential of these types of placements to be catalysts for meaningful personal and professional learning to occur, for myself as well as my students. However, I am also acutely aware of the precariousness of student mobility programs and experiences – particularly surrounding the implications of sending students from the Minority World into Majority World contexts – that may further perpetuate cultural stereotypes, and create or subjugate the cultural ‘other’. Therefore, my own critical self-reflexivity is paramount in taking on the responsibility for leading ISL in pre-service teacher programs as I endeavor to scaffold students’ learning and development of intercultural competencies.

I was drawn to the following quote while reflecting on a recent ISL practicum where I led a group of Australian students to teach English in East Asia:

“I believe it is important to respect the culture and experiences of various groups in order to understand, learn and develop my own teaching practices and I hope to get the opportunity to continue doing this into the future, and continuously learn about new strategies and teaching pedagogies to assist students with a non-English speaking background.

This trip has inspired me to take a step out of my comfort zone more. As challenging as it has been at some points, it has also been a lot of fun and I have learnt many new things, not only about the country and its people, but also about myself.”

This quote was a student’s response when asked if and how the experience had contributed to their intercultural competency. The quote speaks to the potential of ISL to create transformative learning experiences for students, and in this case, provide facilitated opportunities to consider different perspectives, become aware of and move beyond ethnocentric viewpoints, and to be challenged to put into practice culturally responsive teaching approaches and pedagogies. Needless to say there are limits to these short-term experiences and caution is required to critically examine their purported outcomes; however, the opportunity to inspire students to step out of their comfort zones and to learn about the broader global context and themselves is a powerful ‘activating event’ (see Arnzen, 2008; McGonigal, 2005; Mezirow, 1991, 2000) when teaching for transformation. Furthermore, it may contribute to ongoing critical reflexivity and dialogue to examine innovative ideas and approaches for effective teaching in the diverse contexts of 21st Century classrooms.

Diversity and International Service-Learning in Teacher Education

Within the field of teacher education, international service-learning (ISL) provides a unique opportunity to help future graduates develop intercultural awareness and competencies. This is especially significant within a continuously changing ‘Western’ Minority World context, such as Australia, since “…the range of cultural backgrounds in Australian schools is considerable and extends from remote schools with
Indigenous children to urban settings with children from Asian, Middle-Eastern, South American, African or European backgrounds” (Synott, 2009, p. 134). The impact of globalisation and the ways in which it has brought cultures into contact with each other in unprecedented ways places new demands on teachers. For example, teachers are expected to have an openness to other cultures, an ability to understand different cultural contexts, and an awareness of global issues. This is exemplified by the Melbourne Declaration on Educational Goals for Young Australians, published by the Ministerial Council on Education, Employment, Training and Youth Affairs (MCEETYA, 2008). The declaration acknowledges the demands that globalisation has placed on Australian education, stating “As a consequence, new and exciting opportunities for Australians are emerging. This heightens the need to nurture an appreciation of and respect for social, cultural and religious diversity, and a sense of global citizenship” (p. 4). The document itself is reflective of globalised educational policy that increasingly emphasises notions of global citizenship.

Research in the field of internationalisation in higher education has grown exponentially in recent years (Montgomery, 2013; Streitwieser, 2014). Defined as “…the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary [i.e. tertiary] education” (Knight, 2003, p. 2), internationalisation strategies often include student and staff mobility, internationalising the curriculum, branch campuses, and cross-institutional cooperation agreements, amongst others (Kehm & Teichler, 2007; Mertova, 2013). While all of these are substantial features of internationalisation policies, of particular interest to teacher education research is outbound student mobility through service-learning and its impact on graduate outcomes in relation to intercultural understanding.

International service-learning includes elements of community volunteer work, study abroad, and global education, and is becoming increasingly prevalent in higher education (Bringle & Hatcher, 2011). However, while ISL is a large component of many internationalisation strategies, there are strong critiques of the extent to which these programs assist students in developing intercultural awareness and competencies (Razack, 2005; Root & Ngampornchai, 2012). My previous research conducted with pre-service teachers revealed the potential danger for these cross-cultural experiences to perpetuate, rather than challenge cultural stereotypes and ethnocentric viewpoints, particularly if these experiences are not facilitated and scaffolded through ongoing critical reflexivity and dialogue (Truong, 2007, 2015).

Correspondingly, Caruana (2010) notes that a determining factor for intercultural dialogue in students’ learning experiences is an academic’s view and understanding of internationalisation. Therefore, insight into the pedagogies and practices of academic staff to scaffold students’ cross-cultural learning is another emerging frontier for exploration, especially within the current educational landscape and national curriculum rollout in Australia, and its focus on Asia. While the Australian Curriculum, Assessment, and Reporting Authority (ACARA, n.d.) has identified Asia and Australia’s Engagement with Asia as one of three cross-curriculum priority areas, there remains limited research that examines how ‘Asia literacy’ is conceptualised or addressed in teacher education programs across Australia. Salter (2014) argues that ‘Asia literacy’ struggles for purchase in Australian education and curriculum statements are relatively broad regarding how the priority area will be addressed.
across learning areas. Thus, there is also impetus to understand how ‘Asia literacy’ is viewed and implemented in teacher education and school settings (Salter, 2013, 2014).

**Methodology**

Thus, this paper examines the ongoing research-teaching nexus that has emerged over the past several years. As such, it represents my action-oriented living practice and reflection upon my current and future research. This research is grounded in ethnographic approaches, which are characterized by direct participant observation, researcher’s reflexivity, interviews and in-the-field research conversations, and flexible and evolving research process (Creswell, 2007; Crotty, 1998). Furthermore, in my research I am guided by critical and poststructural approaches. In the tradition of critical inquiry this qualitative research seeks not only to understand students’ experiences with ISL, but also to effect change by facilitating critical self-reflexivity in order to develop more inclusive and culturally responsive learning and teaching practices. Reflexivity goes beyond reflection and involves not only being critically aware of one’s viewpoint, but being able to situate it within relationships of power, discourse, and knowledge. Drawing on the work of Foucault (1971), the concept of discourse helps us to understand a particular way of meaning-making within specific contexts and power relations, such as cultural representation and intercultural understanding while occupying spaces abroad.

The analysis was conducted using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss 1967, Strauss & Corbin 1998). Research conversations and narratives were analysed by identifying similarities and differences of ideas within and across the data, which formed the basis for broader research themes to emerge. Poststructuralist concepts of power, discourse, and subjectivities were applied throughout the analysis. In the following discussion the participants’ views and practices were explored through their narratives on developing self-awareness, pedagogical understanding, and empathy.

**Developing Awareness**

While the students’ everyday encounters in Australia involve cross-cultural interactions, the process of crossing borders, traveling overseas, and being immersed in a new environment created a unique context for them to explore intercultural learning. Furthermore, traveling with a group of students, particularly pre-service teachers, and working on a daily basis with the local host institution, generated what many students referred to as a sense of cultural immersion. This was viewed as quite distinct from overseas travel for tourism and leisure, based on the unique partnership with the local host institution and the service-learning purpose of the trip.

The ISL practicum required the students to pair with a local counterpart teacher to prepare and deliver lesson plans for secondary students. This afforded students the opportunity to observe local teachers’ practices and to collaborate together on a daily basis to generate effective and engaging learning activities in this cross-cultural context. This process itself, while challenging, provided many insights into the ways in which the Australian students viewed the learning experience and their intercultural learning, through journaling, daily debriefs and group discussions. Over the course of three weeks, the students were asked to reflect on the impact of the experience on the
development of their intercultural awareness and competencies. While the responses were diverse, one of the common themes was that being encouraged to remain open to different cultural understandings also required a high level of self-awareness; therefore intercultural competency necessitates the development of cultural- and self-awareness as expressed by two students in the following quotes:

“Intercultural interaction and cultural competencies play an integral part within globalisation and the spreading and sharing of knowledge. It then also becomes a valuable learning curve for all students, especially experiencing it firsthand. The aim is to reduce stereotyping and making judgements without even experiencing or putting yourself into the position. It is important to be open minded, accepting and also teachable in contexts like this as every opportunity is a valuable one.”

“I learnt to take into account that each student is different and has had differing personal and life experiences, as well as differing skills, beliefs, values and interests and it is vital to take these things into consideration.”

These are important pedagogical and humanistic reflections where the students understand their role in the construction of cultural understanding and representation. While this is subject matter that is taught in teacher education courses, these particular reflections become significantly more meaningful and resounding when they are learned through the experience of being immersed in another culture and being a participant-observer in the classroom.

**Developing Pedagogical Understanding**

The sense of cultural- and self-awareness is interrelated with the development of new pedagogical understanding, which was particularly important for the pre-service teachers in this group who all had varying levels of experience in schools and classrooms. Taking on the responsibility of teaching students in this cross-cultural context was viewed as important preparation to teach in highly diverse Australian classrooms, as shared in the following two quotes:

“It helped me develop strategies in being able to deliver information in multiple ways while keeping students engaged. I have realised that teaching requires a lot of patience and trial and error, and that you shouldn’t give up, even when things don’t go according to plan, because in the end the small goals account for so much more.”

“I feel like I have a greater appreciation for wanting to find different techniques and activities to engage learners. I found it challenging to find out what my students were capable of, most of my lessons were trial and error, however there was more of a personal incentive and determination to find activities that worked. I would love to see my knowledge put into practice, being more considerate when working with students who have English as an additional language.”

These reflections demonstrate the students’ understanding of the Australian context where many of them will likely teach in the future. For example, research suggests that Australian public schools in large urban centres, such as Sydney and Melbourne, reflect the country’s cultural diversity. Ho (2011) found that two-thirds of children in Australia attend public schools, and across Sydney, 50% or more are from language
backgrounds other than English. This underpins the important work pre-service teachers and educators must embark upon to think more critically about intercultural engagement, and cultural and linguistic backgrounds in the classroom. Additionally, these narratives suggest an evolving understanding of the soft skills for effective teaching, such as patience, flexibility, responsiveness, determination, and continual reflection and action to refine approaches based on learners’ diverse backgrounds and needs.

Developing Empathy

The experiential and authentic learning opportunities afforded by ISL practicum placements engage students in embodied educational experiences. The sights, sounds, scents, tastes, and tactile connections that are made in tandem with the social relationships gained, create a holistic learning experience. I have witnessed in the past how these experiences potentially engage students across different developmental areas, including physical, cognitive, affective, and spiritual domains. These lived experiences have the potential to resonate more meaningfully and affectively with students. In the example below, the experience of being in another country, and in this case being a minority, provided the student with a new understanding of what it might be like to go to school in Australia as an immigrant or student with a different background than the majority:

“I guess I never really understood what it was like going to another country and being a minority and not knowing the language. This has allowed me to step back and realise how it made me feel, and how it might make students who are foreign to Australia feel, for example, shy, intimidated, withdrawn etc., which is understandable, however I feel like that shouldn't determine their potential.”

This particular experience demonstrates how ISL placements provide a space for the development of empathy and self-reflexivity. While this process may emerge organically amongst the students individually or within the group, it should not be taken for granted that these understandings will be self-cultivated. Therefore, academic staff leading these experiences must strike a balance between understanding and recognizing students’ points of view and challenging them to explore new perspectives and theoretical frameworks that provides lenses for viewing the world differently.

Fostering a Deeper Understanding of Culture

The approach taken to guide critical self-reflexivity for myself and students on this ISL placement was grounded largely by Freire’s (1970) critical pedagogies and concept of praxis, and Mezirow’s (1991, 2000) transformative learning theory. As the academic staff member leading this practicum placement, as well as a participant observer present with the students for the duration of the trip, but also on a daily basis while they were teaching, I was able to observe them in action, provide timely feedback, and also facilitate journaling and reflection that was relevant, contextual, and responsive to their immediate experiences. The opportunity to be present with them in the classroom for this extended period of time – and especially since I am not ‘in-the-field’ with them during their regular teaching practicum placements – is quite a unique opportunity. I believe that this experiential and dialogical approach is highly
effective for fostering reflexivity, which involves not only being critically aware of one’s viewpoint, but being able to situate it within relationships of power, discourse, and knowledge.

While this is only one example, the students on this particular trip created an exceptionally positive learning environment built around mutual respect, dedication, and an openness to share and learn, which I think are critical aspects of intercultural learning. It was through this dialogical approach that opportunities to reflect on identity and culture developed, which led to different understandings of culture that also moved beyond tendencies to essentialise others based on stereotypes and generalisations. This final quote exemplifies this important awareness:

"Being from an immigrant family and having underwent the language learning and cultural adaptation process myself, I've always felt in the past that I had intimate and personal knowledge of cross-cultural sensitivities and was able to not succumb to ethnocentric biases both in interpersonal as well as educational relationships. However my participation in the program ... made me realise that I cannot simply apply assumptions to every situation.

I've found myself falling into a reverse-ethnocentricity, where my own background caused me to assume that I understand the “different” culture entirely, which is as equally untrue and ignorant a mindset as applying the dominant social discourse to all cultures considered the “other”.

For Said (1995), the construction of identity “...involves establishing opposites and “others” whose actuality is always subject to the continuous interpretation and re-interpretation of their differences from “us”. Each age and society re-creates its “Others”” (p. 332). The recognition of the ways in which we may construct, interpret, and represent the cultural ‘other’ is integral to the development of intercultural competency. “The contemporary cultural landscape is an amalgam of cross-cultural influences, blended, patch-worked, and layered upon one another. Unbound and fluid, culture is hybrid and interstitial, moving between spaces of meaning” (Yazdiha, 2010, p. 31). Thus, the understanding of culture and identity as complex, fluid, and evolving must accompany such intercultural learning.

Conclusion – Emergent Questions

As an educator, I will continue to reflect upon and engage with questions of how to unpack with students our understandings of culture and how to cross disciplinary/subject boundaries to foster the development of intercultural competency. The experiences shared throughout this paper will continue to guide my own pedagogical practices and curriculum development, leveraging from the catalytic potential of ISL in teacher education, while being cognizant of the precariousness of such endeavours. This research also indicates the continued need for further research that examines what internationalisation in higher education means with regards to teaching and learning (Estacio & Karis, 2015; Kreber, 2009). Sanderson (2011) argues that “a gap exists in the literature on internationalisation as it applies to teachers in higher education settings, both in terms of their knowledge and skills when working with internationalised curricula and of their personal and professional attitudes” (p. 661).
There is an enduring need for research on the student experience of internationalisation in higher education (Leask, 2010). This includes the ways in which graduate attributes related to the development of international perspectives are fostered and may influence how pre-service teachers interact with other staff and students. However, Caruana (2010) notes that a determining factor for intercultural dialogue in students’ learning experiences is an academic’s view and understanding of internationalisation. Therefore, future research should address education staff and students’ views on internationalisation, and more specifically the development of deeper levels of intercultural competency across teacher education programs. Through this process, staff and students may engage in deeper reflection on the transference of their learning and the development of pedagogical practices to effectively teach in diverse educational settings.
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Collective Will to Change Education Trajectory by Transcending Boundaries

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Abstract
It’s “a matter of wills”: cultural will, social will, organizational will, and political will. Dr. Ron Edmonds said, “We can, whenever and wherever we choose, teach all children whose schooling is of interest to us. We already know more than is necessary to do that. Whether or not we do it must finally depend on how we feel about the fact that we haven’t so far.” To address Dr. Edmonds’ question takes collective willpower - How do we feel about not having addressed the needs of every child? How can attention to transnational spaces ensure children transcend boundaries, thereby building a collaborative world? How do we establish the cultural, social, organizational, and political will to serve every child, ensuring their empowerment? Thomas Friedman maintains that the world is flat. In a flat world, how do we establish cohesive collaborative structures? Conference attendees will hear the Clover Park School District (Lakewood, WA, USA) story, an intentional design to transform student experiences. The premise: Do you understand the population of students with whom you are working and are you committed to ensuring their progress (cultural will)? Do you believe that every child brings assets to school and our responsibility is to address instructional delivery from that belief system (social will)? Are you willing to redesign the organizational structure to ensure closing of the achievement gap (organizational will)? And, are you willing to commit to policy at the governance level and have the courage to stand in the face of racism and criticism.

Keywords: social justice, educational achievement, closing achievement gaps, social-cultural-organizational-political will, change
Introduction

Reflection is not only good for the soul, it keeps one grounded in what it takes to reach goals. My journey in social justice began before my actual birth. My father, Earnest McEwen, Jr., was a champion for justice. As an early civil rights leader in the south, he constantly challenged the status quo. At that time in the south, a black man could be hanged for just appearing to look at someone the wrong way, yet my father choose to push back. He was a janitor at “Ole Miss” (The University of Mississippi) and knew that there was something better in store for him. When asked by one of the deans at Ole Miss what he saw for his future, he responded that he would like to go to college but did not have the money to do so. At the time, Ole Miss had not been integrated so the dean was not suggesting Ole Miss for him. However, he told him that William Faulkner might be a benefactor to help him pursue his dream of going to college. My dad, proudly walked into Rowen Oak, the home of William Faulkner, and asked to speak with him. William Faulkner provided the money for my father to attend Alcorn College (now Alcorn State University, Lorman, MS). My dad said he did not know how he would repay him. To that, William Faulkner responded, help someone else. So, with this grounding, I have lived by the favored gospel hymn, “If I can help somebody as I pass along….”

The social justice legacy continued as my dad attended Alcorn College, with a wife and three young children in tow, to pursue his Baccalaureate degree. While at Alcorn College, he became president of the student body. The students became disenchanted with the discriminatory practices of the college and the blatant disrespect of one of the professors (Clemmon King) who supported a known racist newspaper (the State Times) by submitting articles, defaming civil rights organizations, supporting racial segregation, and using pictures of Alcorn students without their permission to promote his positions. As a result, the student body, led by the student body president, Earnest McEwen, Jr., decided they would boycott classes. The result was closure of the university by the all-white board of trustees and firing of the President; Most of the student (489 of 571) body walked out in protest. (Williamson, 2008) The administration at Alcorn College, expelled all of the student leadership. When the incident occurred, my father was six weeks away from graduating. The National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) assisted my father by sending him to Central State University (Wilberforce, OH) to complete his degree. His journey in social justice continued throughout his life. For the purposes of this paper, the grounding in social justice was an ever present part of my life, as a result of the modeling from my father.

Education chose me as a profession for delivering social justice. My legacy (Burgess, 2006), personal legend (Coelho, 2005), so to speak, is in what I can give to children that will make them the orchestrator of their own destinies. Ron Edmonds (1935-1983) was very instrumental in framing my philosophical stance. Edmonds taught social studies at Ann Arbor High School (1964-1968), where I received my diploma, and was a professor at Michigan State University (East Lansing, MI), where I received both my Master’s and my Doctoral degrees. He is considered to be the founder of the Effective Schools Movement and established seven correlates of effective schools. (Education Week, 1992) Although I did not have the privilege of studying directly with Edmonds, I was privy to his work and the extension of his work by Drs. Larry Lezotte and Wilbur Brookover. Ron Edmonds said, “We can whenever
and wherever we choose successfully teach all students whose schooling is of interest to us; we already know more than we need to do that; and whether or not we do it must finally depend on how we feel about the fact that we haven’t so far.” (Edmonds, Effective Schools for the Urban Poor, 1979) It is this quote that has resonated in every aspect of my professional career and my personal life journey. I constantly ask myself and others, how do you feel about the fact that we have not educated every child? This is an intense moral question that leads to the framework of collective will. Must we only educate those whose schooling is important to us or do we have the will to establish educational systems that are structured to serve every child? The collective will to change education trajectory for children is accomplished when we transcend boundaries. Collective will is even clearer when we demonstrate that every child’s education is of interest to us. There are no boundaries, geographical or otherwise, that should keep us from working as a global community on behalf of every child.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the collective will to transcend boundaries. My experiences as Superintendent in Clover Park School District (Lakewood, WA) serve as a reference. The following questions frame the discussion: 1) How do we feel about the fact that we have not addressed the needs of every child? 2) How do we establish the cultural, social, organizational, and political will to serve every child, ensuring their global responsiveness? 3) How can attention to infrastructures ensure children interact globally? 4) In a flat world, how do we establish cohesive structures?

**Framework of Will: The Clover Park School District (CPSD) Story**

Changing students’ lives in the CPSD began with the mission that every child would be a productive member of their community. This was coupled with the belief that students who were educated in the CPSD would be prepared for their future, academically, socially, and emotionally, and look back on their CPSD experience with pride. In the CPSD, there is a moral imperative to educate children and a responsibility to extend hope. Some people in the community said, “Not every child will go to college.” As superintendent my response was, “They might not all go to college, but our collective responsibility is to give them the skills so they can make the choice.”

Just as Rev. Dr. Patrick O’Neill shared this information with his colleagues in the 1980s, his message remains true today – children are the future. (O'Neill, 1999) O’Neill wanted to know how our behaviors would change if we asked the question about children in America that the Masai ask daily: “How are the children?”

Among the most accomplished and fabled tribes of Africa, no tribe was considered to have warriors more fearsome or more intelligent than the mighty Masai. It is perhaps surprising then to learn the traditional greeting passed between Masai warriors. “Kasserian Ingera,” one would always say to another. It means, “And how are the children?”

It is still the traditional greeting among the Masai, acknowledging the high value that the Masai always place on their children’s well-being. Even warriors with no children of their own would always give the traditional answer, “All the children are well.” Meaning of course, that peace and safety prevail, that the priorities of protecting the young, the powerless, are in place,
that Masai society has not forgotten its reason for being, its proper functions and responsibilities. “All the children are well!” - means life is good. It means that the daily struggles of existence, even among a poor people, do not preclude proper caring for its young. (Patrick T. O'Neill)

Driven by the belief that in every child would be a productive member of their community, the vision for the CPSD was inspired by the vital question the Masai ask – How are the children? This is a critical question for those of us who are serious about the education of all students. We know that the answer should be: “And all the children are well.” Student wellbeing is manifested as a result of our daily practices. As superintendent, classrooms visits were a part of my routine schedule; every day between 7:30 a.m. and 9:00 a.m. At first, teachers were hesitant, the union skeptical. But if the trajectory of student lives is to change, it can be done only by changing what takes place in the classroom. The classroom is the single unit of change that impacts student achievement. The staff became accustomed to my visits, and eventually teachers would anticipate my visits. When I had not visited their classroom in a while, they would stop me, eager to ask, “How are the children?”

All the children are well when each one of them is successful and positively contributing to their community. That is the mission of the district, that is what underlies the belief system, and that shared belief system is what attracted me to CPSD. I knew that believing in the children helps them to believe in themselves. I said, “It is our expectations of them that determines whether they expect anything of themselves. It is our determination to ensure their success that determines whether they are successful. Changing the trajectory of student lives is a moral imperative.” Leadership compels a belief in oneself. It is about one’s own personal mastery. “The core to leadership strategy is simple: To be a model. Commit yourself to your own personal mastery.” (Peter Senge, 1994)

As I entered my tenure as superintendent in the CPSD, thoughts about how to portray the work in a cohesive form centered through four lenses: Social, Cultural, Organizational, and Political. Based on this framework, thus began in the CPSD the collective will for every child to be successful. This is how students’ lives and trajectory for their future were changed. The four Wills, coupled with the pervasive question “How are the children?”; and the establishment of a simple acronym ABCs framed the vision for students in the CPSD. The CPSD staff became committed to the ABCs: A – All, that is each and every, students can and will learn; B – Build bridges and infrastructures to ensure their learning; and C – Communicate and celebrate successes. The change work also included a curriculum management audit, which provided strategic direction for the work. The curriculum management audit recommendations were the basis for developing the strategic direction for the district but the framework was always within the four Wills.

Social Will

Social Will is about the belief in whether each and every child can and will be successful in the educational system. As previously mentioned, Ron Edmonds points out that to “successfully teach all students” is a choice. (Edmonds, Effective Schools for the Urban Poor, 1979) Ron Edmonds’ study on effective schools was a response to the Coleman Report (Coleman, 1966) which intimated that family background and
socioeconomic status contributed more to student achievement than what happens in schools. Edmonds’ position was that schools can and do make a difference in student achievement. He conducted a study in urban schools that showed success in student achievement despite family background and economics and devised correlates that directly impact student achievement (Edmonds, Programs of School Improvement: An Overview, 1982):

Leadership: the principal’s leadership and attention to the quality of instruction
Instructional Focus: a pervasive and broadly understood instructional focus
Safe and Orderly Climate: a safe and orderly school climate conducive to teaching and learning
High Expectations: teacher behaviors that convey the expectation that all students are expected to obtain at least minimum mastery
Evaluation: the use of measures of pupil achievement as the basis for program evaluation

These original five correlates were later expanded to seven (Lezotte, 1991): 6. Positive home-school relations, and 7. Opportunity to learn and student time on task. Most educators do not really believe that every child can and should go on to higher education. They make discriminatory determinations about who should be continue into high levels of learning and who should not. In other words, the success of students is in the minds of their teachers. My personal story might help amplify this point.

I was born in Oxford, Mississippi to sharecroppers. I spent my early days riding on a cotton sack because I was too young to pick cotton. In my family, education was a given. My father believed it was “the great equalizer.” I shared part of his story in the Introduction. Although he graduated from college, his struggle continued. Because he could not find work as an architect (the area in which he graduated) he once again became a janitor. My father continued his studies and became a self-taught hematologist and blood bank technician at the hospital where he provided janitorial services. He was later hired as an engineer at Ford Motor Co., many years after he had received his Baccalaureate degree. At times, my father worked five jobs so we could get ahead. Like many men of his generation, he worked very hard and died too young. My mother was a classic homemaker. She had a strong family ethic. When she married my father, she had not completed high school. She went on to earn her GED (General Education Diploma). Her greatest satisfaction has always been raising her family. Among her five daughters, they have 15 college degrees, including two with PhDs.’ and one with an MD. When the family joined my dad in the north, we did so in Detroit (MI). I went to upper elementary and junior high in Detroit Public Schools. It was when I moved to Ann Arbor (MI) that I faced my greatest challenge, covert personal racism as well as institutional racism in the public schools. My first challenge was getting into Algebra. They would not schedule me into Algebra. Because I attended the Detroit Public Schools, they said, “I was not prepared the same as students in Ann Arbor.” That did not sit well with my dad. He met with the principal and made it clear that I was to take Algebra and added to that I was not to have any, what he called, “Sop courses.”
When I was preparing my admission packets for college, my counselor refused to write a letter of recommendation for me to attend college. Did he change the trajectory of my life? He definitely could have sent it on a downward spiral. I had strong family support. Many of our children do not. My dad did not let that stop me from going to college. He insisted, “In my home, it’s not a matter of if you go to college, it’s was a matter of which college are you going to attend.”

Think of the enormous impact we have on children’s lives daily. We can change their trajectory with the stroke of a pen, with the words, we say, with whether we believe in them or not. Ron Edmonds asked us how we feel about the fact that we have not had the will to educate every single child although we know how to do so. It is about our belief system. As I previously stated, not everyone believes our children can learn at high levels. When we were engaged in high school reform in the CPSD, our fight came from many fronts – one of them was from our own staff who said, “If we educate all children for college, who will make the hotel beds?” This is appalling. What would our response be if we asked which of our own children we want to make up hotel beds? The responsibility is to model at the leadership level that this thinking is not acceptable. It is not okay to “dis” (disrespect) our children. We have succeeded because someone believed in us. We must do the same for the children in our schools. It is unacceptable to throw away another generation of children. Social will is about our belief system.

Cultural Will

Cultural Will is about understanding the population of students with whom you work. We all have culture, heritage, and background. Gloria Ladson-Billings stated: What makes this difficult is the finding that far too many teachers in U.S. schools possess only a surface understanding of culture - their own or anyone else's. As noted in another of my earlier studies, many middle-class white American teachers fail to associate the notion of culture with themselves. Instead, they believe that they are "just regular Americans," while people of color are the ones "with culture." This notion of regularity serves a normalizing function that positions those who are "not regular" as "others." Not recognizing that they, too, are cultural beings prevents these teachers from ever questioning taken-for-granted assumptions about the nature of human thought, activity, and existence. (Ladson-Billings, 1998)

One must embrace who they are first before they can truly understand who their students are and what they bring to the table. John Stanford, former superintendent in Seattle (WA), said there are no excuses for students not achieving. (Stanford, 1999) Understanding Cultural Will is about understanding the influence of heritage. Knowing the cultural nuances of students can be used to their advantage.

Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie’s story and the misperceptions that come from categorizing people based on lack of experience with their culture is an example. When she was 19 she went to study in the United States and was surprised when her roommate went to the “default position” of pity. She asked her to hear some of her tribal music and was shocked when Chimamanda played Mariah Carey. Chimamanda grew up in a middle class family in Nigeria, not in a tribal village, but was immediately categorized as tribal because she was from the continent of Africa. Media, literature, and other venues show people as one thing and only one thing and
hence that is what they become to others. Hence Chimamanda’s premise of the danger of a single story. She says, “Insisting on negative stories, flattens our experience. The problem with stereotypes is not that they are untrue, but that they are incomplete. Single stories rob people of their dignities. It emphasizes why we are different rather than how we are alike.”

Cultural Will embraces Chimamanda’s view of the danger of putting people into single categories. When we view people through their cultural lens, we enrich not only ourselves, but others as well. In the CPSD, we had district-wide book studies as a part of our monthly administrative meetings. Each of the Wills was studied over the course of a year or two. Books were chosen that would help further the conversation on the particular Will. We pushed the envelope to help individuals understand themselves as a cultural being and then to understand the population of students with whom they were working. The culminating project was a cultural quilt, with each piece done by a district administrator to reflect their cultural heritage and commitment to Cultural Will. This quilt was hung in the foyer of the central administration building (Student Services Center).

One of the best ways to establish relationships is to understand the culture and heritage of the students with whom you are teaching. A small gesture with a huge impact was to change the conversation from “all” students to “every” student.

As superintendent, I was often called to speak in large assemblies of either students or staff, or both. I noticed early on that when I looked at a crowd of people - sometimes as much as 2,000 persons, I saw a blur of faces. This was particularly true when I used “all” in my language. But when I used “every” it shifted my mental model, allowing me to focus on individuals. I proposed a change to the district’s mission statement. Rather than using the term “all students will learn”, change it to “every student will learn”. This small, but significant, gesture helped to reposition how educators in Clover Park viewed students.

Organizational Will

Organizational Will is about the infrastructure. What are the hiring practices that contribute to or impede student learning? Where are the most effective teachers placed? How is funding allocated? In the CPSD we used the urban teacher perceiver instrument to hire teachers. This survey provided guidance on whether an incoming teacher could work with our population of students. Research from Ed Trust tells us that it is the quality of the teacher that makes a difference in student achievement. “Teachers are by far the most important in-school factor in determining whether our students succeed and our nation’s schools improve. An ever stronger and more sophisticated body of scholarship confirms what parents have long suspected: Highly effective teachers help children soar, while ineffective teachers actually hobble students’ chances for success.” (www.edtrust.org) Ed Trust research showed students had very different achievement levels in 5th grade depending on whether they had been assigned 3 effective teachers or 3 ineffective teachers in prior grades. Students
assigned to three ineffective teachers lost ground; where in 3rd grade they scored at the 57th average percentile rank, by 5th grade they dropped to the 27th percentile rank. The teacher is the single unit of change for student achievement:

…teacher effects appear to be cumulative. For example, Tennessee students who had three highly effective teachers in a row scored more than 50 percentile points above their counterparts who had three ineffective teachers in a row, even when they initially had similar scores. An analysis in Dallas found essentially the same pattern: initially similar students were separated by about 50 percentile points after three consecutive years with high- or low-effectiveness teachers. (Hacock, 2009)

Organizational Will asks these question: “How are students placed in advanced placement classes?” What access do students have to college preparatory tests? Algebra is considered the gate-keeping course for students to do well in college. Why is Algebra not required of all students?

Organizational Will is also about the allocation of resources. Are schools funded equally or equitably? When every schools in a district receives the same amount of money that is not necessarily the most effective for student achievement. (Skria L., 2009) Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs) in schools with more affluent parents have the capability to raise more funds than PTAs in less affluent area. Some districts have gone to allocation of resources to schools based on their need. (e.g., Clover Park School District (WA) and Portland Public Schools, OR)

Organizational Will is about what you change in the structure of the school system and the schools within the system. Bolman and Deal call it reframing organizations to maximum effect. (Bolman, 1993), indicating that the structural frame helps establish and maintain formal roles and relationships, the human resource frame focuses on improving relationships, the political frame provides insight into managing the competition for power and scarce resources, and the symbolic frame addresses the need people have to find meaning in their work.

In the CPSD, some of the high school reform took the form of small learning academies with specific designations for example human services, communications, technology, science and math. Other reforms became school within a school where a large high school was reconstituted into four smaller independent schools. Still another reform was starting a school from scratch as a school with grades 5-12. This school phased in a couple of grades at a time. This school grew from 150 students to one with over 450 students and a waiting list to attend. It became the location of the district’s International Baccalaureate (IB) program. Putting this school in place took courage amid pushback from community and staff, which leads to Political Will.

**Political Will**

Political Will is the courage to do what is right for our children. It is the determination to change the trajectory of students’ lives from the policy level. In the CPSD, one of the first things we did as a superintendent and board team was to put a policy in place so that the position on every child being successful was clear. It was our equity and excellence policy. Because the position of superintendent is very tenuous, in order for
change to be sustainable, there needed to be a policy in place so that the work would be secured.

The same passion for equity guided the work at the Oregon Education Investment Board (OEIB). The Board was formed by the Governor of Oregon to provide policy recommendations on where strategic investments should be made to ensure equity of outcomes in education. The Chief Education Officer established four subcommittees to begin this work. One of the subcommittees, Equity and Partnerships, took on the task of developing and recommending an equity lens from which the OEIB could review its work. The lens was approved for OEIB, as well as agencies throughout the state. (McEwen, OEIB Equity Lens, 2012) It now serves as a guide for school districts and organizations as they develop their policies on equity.

Summary of the Framework of the Four Wills

The premise of the four “Wills” is that when taken together, the collective will can be actualized to close the achievement gap for students who have not been successful in the public education system. In the United States, these are primarily students of color. The four Wills are not in priority order. They must interface and are interactive. The four basic questions that frame the Wills are:

Do you believe every child brings assets to school and that it is the responsibility of educators to address instructional delivery from that belief system (Social Will)?
Do you understand the population of students with whom you are working and are you committed to ensuring their progress (Cultural Will)?
Are you willing to redesign the organizational structure to ensure closing of the achievement gap for marginalized students (Organizational Will)?
Are you willing to commit to policy at the governance level and have the courage to stand in the face of racism and criticism to make sure that every student is given the keys to their future (Political Will)?

When we have the belief, the understanding, the infrastructure, and the courage, we open the doors for transcending global boundaries.

Transcending Boundaries and the Framework of the Four Wills

Robinson says, “What is at issue is the relation between our knowledge of the world and social structures. Social structures is becoming transnationalized; an epistemological shift is required in concurrence with this ontological change.” (Robinson, 1998) Robinson goes on to espouse Featherstone’s (1990) point that “Human beings cannot interact in any meaningful way except through the medium of culture as shared symbols and adaptive systems, and a focus on “global culture” has an important contribution to make to transnational studies.” (Robinson, 1998)

The meaningful interaction of cultures occurs in several ways, not the least of which is the interdependence of educational systems. Schools and districts continue to reach across geographical boundaries and interact with students in other countries, thereby eliminating boundaries. There are examples of “sister city” exchanges, foreign student study programs, journal exchanges and visits from various countries. During my
tenure as superintendent, the district participated with the City of Lakewood (WA) in hosting students from Okinawa (Japan). The students lived with families of middle school students, exchanging culture and establishing relationships. (McEwen, Weekly Sharing for October 17, 2003, 2003). During my high school days, I was fortunate enough to have a foreign exchange student from Venezuela live with my family, exposing me to the value of interacting across cultures. Social media has allowed this to occur at an ever increasing rate. What is new is that technological changes have made it possible for immigrants to maintain more frequent and closer contact with their home societies. (Bruneau, 2010)

The University of Washington (Seattle, WA) had a teacher exchange program with Zayed University (Dubai, UAE), where professors at the University of Washington went to Zayed University to teach master’s level courses to students studying educational leadership. One of the major benefits of the exchange was the sharing of cultures. Visiting other countries provides a firsthand knowledge of cultures. The key is to be open to receiving the new experience in a nonpejorative way. There is richness in experiencing other cultures. In addition to these benefits, the experience also solidified collective will in transnational spaces, thereby minimizing cultural boundaries.

**Conclusion**

The Wills framework posits the connection between collective will and transcending boundaries:

- Social Will transcends geographical boundaries. Social Will is the belief that every student can be successful regardless of where a student is located in the world. It remains a moral imperative to have a belief system that embraces every student, without prejudice.
- Cultural Will calls for deep understanding of the culture of others. The value we put on others’ culture speaks volumes about how we value ourselves. This requires a commitment to develop our individual response to others. Our destinies are inextricably linked.
- Organizational Will requires a change in the infrastructure. Social media is accelerating infrastructure changes.
- Political Will commits to policy at the governance level to allow the interaction of students in social media space, and other mediums. It is the courage to ensure that education crosses boundaries and is considered from a global perspective.

The Social, Cultural, Organizational, and Political Will to educate every student is an idea whose time has come. The collective will to transcend boundaries and therefore change the trajectory for children is a concept whose time is past due. We can no longer live in isolated communities. The world is our communities. Educators must come together and look at ways to work to enhance the trajectory of children. The world does not exist for a few.
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