SEACE

The 3rd Southeast Asian Conference on Education

Singapore Management University (SMU) / Singapore EXPO & Online

February 10–13, 2023

ISSN: 2435-5240



Official Conference Proceedings

Organised by The International Academic Forum (IAFOR) in partnership with Singapore Management University (SMU), the IAFOR Research Centre at the Osaka School of International Public Policy (OSIPP) at Osaka University, and IAFOR's Global University Partners

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023

Official Conference Proceedings

ISSN: 2435-5240

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The International Academic Forum (IAFOR)
Sakae 1-16-26-201
Naka Ward, Nagoya, Aichi
Japan 460-0008
www.iafor.org

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COIL, COILer, COILing: English Language Learners Participating in Collaborative Online International Learning

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This practitioner research in education paper is based on the experiences of two English language educators taking part in a collaborative online international learning project, otherwise known as COIL. Synchronous and asynchronous teaching methods were used for English language learners to meet and work with students from other countries. The collaboration took place virtually between two institutions of higher education, located on different sides of the globe, namely Mexico and Singapore. Students met to work in groups on a project, in an authentic situation to practice the target language. The experience provided students with intercultural and transnational learning through interaction, collaboration and taking ownership of their learning. With little or no experience of taking part in COIL projects, the practitioners investigated three key questions: 1. What are the benefits to students of taking part in international collaboration? 2. What are the challenges of such a project? 3. How do students cope with misunderstandings resulting from cultural and ethnic differences? Data was collected through the analysis of written online learning logs using thematic coding to create a survey given to participating students at the end of the project. The benefits, as well as the challenges, are considered followed by recommendations based on first-hand experiences and reflections to offer a practical reference for colleagues and educators who may wish to explore the feasibility of taking part in such a project.

Keywords: Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL), English Language Learning, Institutions of Higher Education, Intercultural, Transnational

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Introduction

In many institutions of higher education (IHE) around the world, the English language department remains an important fixture. It is estimated that by 2050 half the world's population will be proficient in English as it continues to be the dominant language of global communication and increasingly, the language of instruction (Xue & Zuo, 2013). For the English language learner, the classroom is often monolingual, meaning students share the same first language (L1) and are learning English as a second or target one (L2). The motivation to use the target language in the classroom may be diminished due to various reasons including, but not limited to, lack of confidence, feeling artificial, and difficulty expressing ideas. Therefore, in such situations, creating authentic settings to practice L2 can be challenging.

As technology has developed, distance learning, digital learning and e-learning are reshaping education so that initiatives such as collaborative online international learning (COIL) have become increasingly possible. One of the first examples of COIL was instigated by the State University of New York (SUNY) when in 2010 the SUNY COIL Center won a grant to run a three-year project (SUNY COIL Center, 2013). Other notable institutions adopting COIL principles include University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific (UMAP, n.d.), the Institute for Innovative Global Education (IIGE, n.d.) and The Ontario School of Art and Design University (OCAD U, n.d.).

This paper provides a definition of COIL, before describing the methodology employed for this practitioner research in education. Preparation and curriculum development are considered before discussing findings aimed at addressing the following questions: 1. What are the benefits to students of taking part in international collaboration? 2. What are the challenges of implementing such a project? 3. How do students cope with misunderstandings resulting from cultural and ethnic differences? Finally, the paper concludes by reflecting on the benefits of such projects, pre-course preparation, course pedagogy, successes, challenges and recommendations for future collaborative online instruction.

What is COIL?

Not to be confused with technology, COIL is an approach to teaching that brings together instructors and students who are distanced geographically, culturally and linguistically to communicate and collaborate using online tools (Rubin, 2015). Collaborative learning refers to a strategy where learners work in small groups towards a common goal. Through IHEs creating mutual partnerships with equal contribution, courses and assignments can nurture multicultural dialogue and experiential learning through blended and often student-led learning projects. Fundamental to COIL methodology is the balanced co-creation of projects, with each partner considering the other's perspective (Gray, Asojo, Lindgreen, Nolan, & Nowak, 2021; OCAD U, n.d.).

Increasingly, global competencies are considered essential skills for students to be able to critically reflect on local, global and intercultural issues, and to understand different perspectives so as to enhance collective well-being and sustainable development (OECD, 2018). Therefore, COIL may be deemed intrinsically inclusive, allowing students access to study abroad experiences without having to leave home, and unlocking opportunities for students who may face accessibility challenges due to disability (de Klerk & Palmer, 2022), marginalisation, or lack of funds to study overseas (Marcillo-Gómez & Desilus, 2016). COIL

projects can also be used as a precursor to successful physical international exchanges by preparing students and reducing the impact of culture shock (Matus-Mendoza, 2020).

The global pandemic caused by the Coronavirus, accelerated the adoption of COIL as IHEs grappled with restrictions on movement both locally and internationally, and were forced to move to online teaching and learning. Although connecting classes from different parts of the globe is not without technical and administrative challenges, students can benefit from intercultural and transnational learning through working in partnership with students from other cultures and countries on self-directed learning projects (Naicker, Singh, & van Genugten, 2021). At the same time, such projects create affordances to strengthen ties between institutions and educators (Asojo, Kartoshkina, Amole, & Jaiyeoba, 2019).

The funded pilot project coordinated by SUNY COIL Center included 21 US institutions and 25 participating international partners. In their report, the most commonly cited positive student feedback was access to different points of view which allowed participants to see their own culture from a different perspective. Other benefits were skills learned that included language, communicative competence and overcoming technophobia. There was recognition of the challenge of working within such projects, but this was counteracted by the experience of deep learning which was also described as fun (2013).

Research conducted by Naicker and colleagues (2021) investigated the preparedness of students to participate in transcultural projects. They concluded that working collaboratively helps students to become more open to learning about the traditions and religions of other cultures whilst becoming the drivers and creators of new knowledge through research, sharing and adapting. In the context of a design course, Asojo and colleagues (2019) noted that participants became more human-centred in their design approaches by realising the need to conduct culturally sensitive research and avoid stereotyping potential clients. Ramírez-Marín and colleagues explored the impact of COIL on cross-cultural competence in the context of foreign language learning. They found that through self-reflection students demonstrated “positive attitudes, respect, openness, curiosity, self-awareness, sociolinguistic awareness, perspective-taking, empathy, relationship building and interconnectedness” (2020, p. 115) all of which assisted interactions between learners from different cultural and linguistic settings.

However, research also highlights a number of considerations to setting up successful COIL projects. At an institutional level, support needs to be offered to provide time and resources to plan and implement international virtual projects (SUNY COIL Center, 2013). Peer educators need to carefully prepare the course structure and content as well as plan what they are willing to try, the technology they wish to use, and anticipate any problems (Asojo et al., 2019).

Student feedback from the SUNY COIL Center (2013) pilot highlighted problems with the workload, unclear guidelines for assignments, time differences between participating institutions and lack of time for students to work collaboratively on tasks. Naicker and colleagues (2021) stress the importance of continued involvement of educators to assist student participants with their ongoing development of digital literacy skills, and the need to follow up with students who have low rates of participation. They also suggest regular synchronous meetings with all students as a checking-in mechanism to encourage debate and address queries and challenges.

Therefore, well-orchestrated COIL projects may provide many advantages for learning whilst removing barriers to participation. Students benefit from international exposure, gain a global perspective, as well as strengthen their digital, teamworking and problem-solving skills.

Methodology

The collaborating educators were both drawn to the invitation to participate due to increased confidence in using online instruction methods as a result of the global pandemic. Having little or no experience with COIL projects, we were intrigued to experiment with new pedagogies and hence wanted to find out whether the experience of such projects would be beneficial and viable in the longer term.

The sample of students was purposively selected to meet the criteria of young adults aged between 17 to early twenties, studying English language before continuing their studies in higher education. Two classes of students were matched and selected to take part in the project that was embedded into the syllabus in each institution.

There were two stages to the data collection. The first was the analysis of the online learning logs that the participating students wrote after each synchronous meeting. Learners were encouraged to complete reflections based on three questions: A) What did you do during the session? B) What did you learn? C) How would you use this learning when you meet again?

Analysis of the learning logs allowed us to extract themes that were used to create a survey given to the participants at the end of the project. The survey offered a variety of question types using a mix of 10-point Likert-scale questions to find out the perceived level of enjoyment, language practice and challenge of working with students from another country; check box options where students chose the top three benefits and top three challenges out of six choices for each category; open-ended questions to allow for verbatim feedback.

Preparation

Answering a call to participate in training and developing a COIL project in the third quarter of 2021, the application form collected details such as location, the course taught, and the demographic of students. An important part of the initial process, this allowed the organisers to match participating peer educators based on the subject area they taught. Once matching was complete, academics were invited to make contact with their paired collaborators and attend an initial synchronous induction session over Microsoft Teams to meet the trainer, be introduced to the concept and history of COIL and discuss recommendations for joint work.

This was followed by five weeks of asynchronous learning and tasks, using the learning management system (LMS) Moodle to access theoretical content and upload weekly assignments. We were advised that being in an interdependent relationship with our academic peers, meant that we should work with each other without sacrificing or compromising our values, inferring we needed to be mutually respectful of each other's perspectives. The success of the course, therefore, depended on the two educators working together. Additionally, we were given assurances that if we encountered any problems, we could contact our trainer.

Each week we were given theoretical content to read or watch via the LMS followed by a task the peer educators completed together but needed to upload separately along with a

screenshot of our virtual meeting. The course was not onerous in terms of time commitment, where the biggest challenge was finding a mutually agreeable time to meet online due to the 14-hour time difference. The scaffolded approach of the course and weekly content and activities posted on the LMS allowed us to get to know each other by exploring our similarities and differences. We then moved on to gathering information for the partnership based on pre-set questions that covered student demographics, goals and technology. As we progressed through the weeks, we started to develop the learning outcomes (see Table 1) and syllabus (see Table 2). The chosen topic was fairy tales on the premise that story-telling is found in all cultures and, therefore, all the student participants would have experiences and knowledge to share.

Name Teacher 1	**Name Teacher 2**
Damaris Carlisle	Judith Luna Sáenz
Subject Teacher 1	**Subject Teacher 2**
English for Academic Purposes / Creative Arts	English as a Second Language level 8
Topic COIL course	
Arts Focus: Students will be introduced to a variety of subjects, materials and projects related to the arts	
Objectives of the topic	
1. Arts appreciation 2. Cultural exchange 3. Reflective critical thinking	
Learning Outcomes Teacher 1	**Learning Outcomes Teacher 2**
1. Students will become familiar with a range of arts-based vocabulary	1. Students will be introduced to arts-based topics
2. Students will develop cultural awareness and be able to reflect on similarities and differences	2. Students will develop cultural awareness and be able to reflect on similarities and differences
3. Students will develop their critical reflective writing skills as part of the cycle of improvement	3. Students will develop their critical reflective writing skills as part of the cycle of improvement

Table 1: Objectives and learning outcomes developed during the online meetings between the academic peers.

Course Creation

The academic peers were both English language teachers; one was based in Mexico and the other in Singapore. The course in Mexico was part of a high school programme in English as a second language. The fifteen participant students were Spanish speakers, aged 17 to 18 years old and were in their final year before starting university. The course in Singapore was a pre-sessional English language course for students preparing to join diploma or bachelor's degree courses in the arts. Twenty Chinese and Korean students aged between 16 and 22, were living away from home.

As collaborators, we agreed to use a project that was already embedded in the syllabus for one of the courses. The project design included synchronous and asynchronous components to allow students to collaborate on their projects. The synchronous meetings took place across six sessions, from January to March 2022, over an eight-week period, taking into account school breaks, public holidays and exams. The final outcome involved students working together in groups to present a fairy tale. This could be a story they created or adapted from an existing fairy tale but were instructed to give the story a contemporary twist. The groups could choose how they would present their narrative, for example, by creating an animation, using slides with a voice-over or acting out the story.

We used the format suggested during the COIL training course, following a sequence of sessions that included ice breakers, comparison and analysis and collaboration. The ice breakers, designed to be light-hearted, focussed on pair or group activities playing name games and exploring cultural similarities and differences. In preparation for the final presentation, students compared and analysed fairy tales from their own culture before exploring the elements that are commonly found in myths and legends, such as a hero, a villain, a kingdom and a problem. The last two sessions were used to guide students through their collaborations and work on their brief to create or adapt a chosen fairy tale. To ensure the groups were meeting to develop their ideas they had to present storyboards that outlined the development of the plot before they made their final presentations.

The academic peers discussed a number of choices for technologies and platforms to use. The final choice of software was pragmatic, dependent on what was available within the two institutions and which would be the easiest to set up; the choice of LMS was between Moodle and Google drive for posting and uploading materials, and Google Meets or Zoom for the video conferencing platform. Google Drive was selected as outsiders of the institution could be invited to access shared drives without having to enlist the help of the ICT team. The additional benefit was the availability of collaborative tools such as Google slides, docs and Jamboard. Zoom was preferred as the teleconferencing platform because of access to breakout rooms which allowed students to work in groups during synchronous sessions. Student participants could choose how they would collaborate to complete asynchronous activities after each session. Most groups opted to communicate using Instagram or WhatsApp.

As we developed the syllabus (see Table 2) we anticipated possible problems which included the likely impact of the 14-hour time difference on attendance, especially since synchronous meetings had to take place outside the mandated classes. This challenge could have further impacted the students' ability to work collaboratively and manage their time when communicating asynchronously. A further anticipated issue, was one institution used the Google suite, which meant some students at the other IHE would possibly have to create a Gmail account to be able to access the Google drive used for posting materials and uploading work. Additionally, we could not assume that all learners knew how to use the collaborative features of the Google suite.

Stage	Week	Learning Outcomes	Task/Activity
1: Ice Breaker	1.	Students will get to know each other and break the ice in order to develop rapport and confidence working with each other.	Name chain game. Think of an adjective that begins with the same letter as the first letter of your name. Split the students into groups of 8 students. What's in a name? Students in groups of 5. They speak and answer the following questions: ● who gave you the name? ● a nickname? ● what does it mean? ● Why were you given it? ● do you have any other names? **Homework** Learning log (template)
	2.	Students will get to know each other through cultural exchange. The activities will help to raise awareness of similarities and differences.	Cultural Norms 1. Animal Noises. What is the noise attributed to different animals in different cultures: cat, dog, frog, wolf, pigs 2. Home drawing. Students draw a plan of their home to share with each other. **Homework** ● Find a childhood fairy tale or fable to share in the next meeting. ● Learning log (template)
2: Comparison & Analysis	3.	Students will reflect on the similarities and differences between their cultural backgrounds through the medium of fairy tales	Parallel Documents 1. In their group, the students tell their chosen story to each other. Discuss similarities & differences. As an entire group summarise similarities & differences. **Homework** Learning log (template)
	4.	Students will analyse the components of a fairy tale and work collaboratively to create or adapt a fairy tale.	1. Group discussion. What elements make a fairy tale? 2. Ways of telling a story. 3. Groupwork: Brainstorm ideas for their own fairy tale: adapt or invent. **Homework** ● Create a storyboard using e.g. Google slides, jam board… ● Learning log (template)
3: Collaboration	5.	Students will communicate ideas using a variety of visual mediums	1. Present storyboards Students continue to work on their projects. Teachers are available for advice. **Homework** Learning log (template)
	6.	Students will reflect on the process of working across cultures and the challenges of group work using virtual mediums. Students will develop tolerance, empathy and cultural awareness.	Fairy Tale Presentations 1. Describe the process 2. Story presentations. This could be a video, comic book etc. **Homework** Learning log (template)

Table 2: The syllabus developed during the preparation stage

To encourage student engagement, learners also completed a learning log each week, where they reflected on their experiences by answering the following questions: What did you do

during the session? What did you learn? How would you use this learning when you meet again? The learning log provided the peer educators insights into the successes and frustrations of working on the intercultural collaborative project.

In addition, at the end of the project students were sent a survey using Google forms to reflect on their experiences. Three questions were designed using a Likert scale to ask how much they enjoyed working with students from another country, how much they felt they practised using English and how challenging it was to work with students from another country. The following two questions asked learners to choose three benefits and three challenges of taking part in the COIL project from a list of suggestions which were generated based on comments written by students in their weekly learning logs. The final two questions were open-ended, asking students what they thought the educators could do to help them more and what they would do differently if they were involved in a similar project in the future.

Findings and Reflections

From the educators' perspective, although there were a number of challenges, the experience was positive. It was fun to do something different which helps maintain motivation for teaching. Providing a genuine multicultural experience, where not only the use of L2 was needed but also a better understanding of different approaches towards work and collaboration was satisfying. The experience stretched our technological abilities as educators as we learned to use and manage the software more confidently. Rarely having the opportunity to co-teach, the experience also provided opportunities to learn from each other as co-collaborators, providing food for thought about approaches and teaching methods.

Survey Feedback

Survey results were collected from 18 of the 35 participating students. Most of the responses were from students based in Singapore, in part due to mistakenly restricting access to students outside the College at first. Thirteen students enjoyed the experience, four selected the middle option, whilst one student did not like the experience at all. All the respondents felt they had practised using their English to differing degrees. Responses to the question about how challenging it was to work with students from another country were very mixed.

Responding to the benefits and challenges of involvement in the project, students could choose three out of six possibilities for each category. In figure 1, the top three benefits of taking part in the project were using English to communicate (15 responses), having a different experience (13 responses) and finding out about different cultures (12 responses). In figure 2, the top three challenges of being involved in the project were the time difference between Mexico and Singapore (13 responses), using English to communicate (11 responses), problems with technology (9 responses), closely followed by teammates not completing their tasks (8 responses).

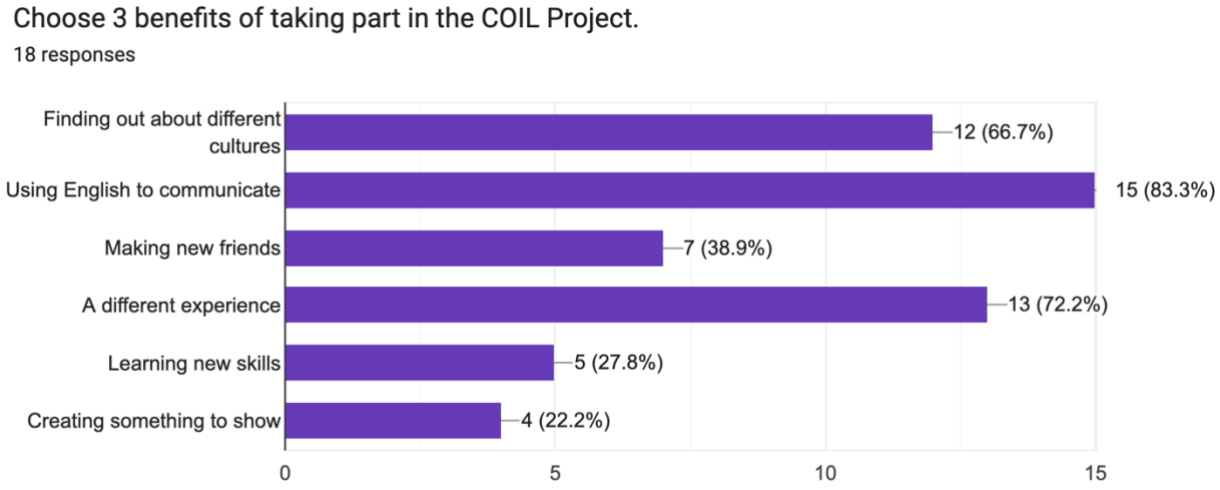


Figure 1: The perceived benefits of participation in the COIL project

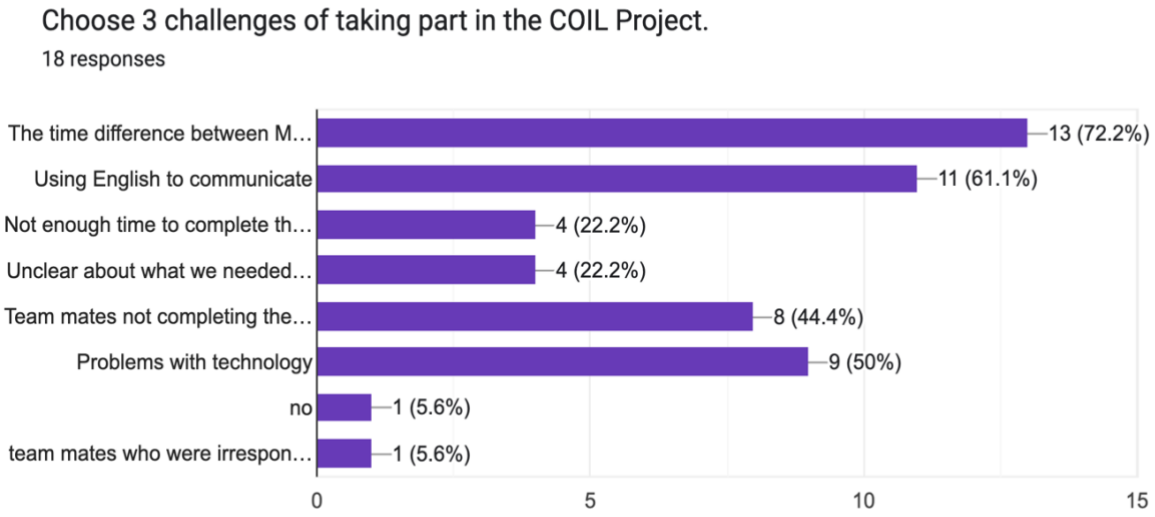


Figure 2: The perceived challenges of participation in the COIL project

Verbatim feedback regarding what the teachers could have done to help students more encompassed the desire to have clearer instructions, provide more support to help students participate and check that the groups were collaborating with each other. Student self-reflection included the realisation that they needed to communicate more, do more research to complete the project and manage their time better; all vital study skills habits at IHE.

Successes

On reflection, the students saw the experience as positive even if it was somewhat uncomfortable at times. All but one group managed to create a presentation of their adapted fairy tale for the last session where we met synchronously. Adaptations included a sci-fi version of Sleeping Beauty, Rapunzel who rescues herself without the help of a man, and the three pigs who collaborate to outwit the wolf in the story of the Three Little Pigs. The software used to create presentations was varied and included the use of Microsoft PowerPoint, Google slides, PowToon and Zoom to create videos. The exposure to different cultural contexts helped some to practise and build their confidence using the English language.

Challenges

Flexibility is a necessity (SUNY COIL Center, 2013). For example, time differences were one of the biggest hurdles with a 14-hour difference between Singapore and Mexico. For synchronous sessions, we agreed to meet for one hour at 7 pm on Thursdays, Mexico time and at 9 am on Fridays, Singapore time. In addition, we had to extend the duration of the project due to unforeseen commitments at one or the other IHE. Since times for synchronous meetings were outside the usual college timetable, they may have impacted attendance which was sporadic for some students. Other learners may have lacked commitment to the project as an unassessed component, whilst a few students were working to support their studies and did not have the time for extra activities outside of college obligations and assessments. Connectivity was a further issue for some if they did not have access to stable Wi-Fi connections off-campus.

On a cultural level, differences in background and expectations led to some challenges with group dynamics. The Asian students were linguistically weaker, which may have impacted their confidence in communicating with their North American peers. During synchronous sessions, shyness was exhibited by not turning on video cameras and remaining muted during group activities in the breakout rooms. Peer academics needed to enter each breakout room to coax some students to make themselves visible and speak to each other as well as facilitate the initiation of conversations and responses. In some instances, frustrations led to a culture of blame; in one group members reprimanded each other for not completing tasks instead of looking for solutions to resolve such issues.

Recommendations

There are a number of considerations that may improve the experience for students. Peer academics who may not have the technical skills needed to work collaboratively using virtual mediums or who have little experience in acting as a facilitator to groups using project-based learning need to be given time to develop these skills. Tapping into existing technology used by institutions may help educators to become more familiar and confident in the use of software providing a reason to explore and extend technical skills. At the planning stage avoid being over-ambitious and attempt to use existing curricula as much as possible to avoid increased workload for educators.

From the student viewpoint, it is important to ensure everyone is aware of how to use the technology and its capabilities, a conclusion reached in a study by Marcillo-Gomez and Desilus (2016). Sourcing or creating instructional videos that can be viewed before or during

the early stages of the project might be of help. It is often assumed that Generation Z is intrinsically tech-savvy. Even though they may be confident in using technology, that does not necessarily mean students are prepared for online learning experiences (Akcil & Bastas, 2021) and know how to maximise the use of the tools used for a COIL project. One student lost work due to a computer crash so, for example, reminding students to back up their work or ensuring it is stored remotely on a cloud is vital.

It may be prudent to identify a common understanding of teamwork and establish guidelines for student interaction (SUNY COIL Center, 2013); what it is and useful strategies to work effectively in groups. This may address student feedback that instructions were not always clear and the desire for greater support. Team members could be assigned roles, such as scribe, coordinator, or presenter. Assigning group roles has been attributed to encouraging accountability and holding each other to account for incomplete work or tasks. In their study, Hirshfield and Chachra (2015) concluded that assigning group roles helped to disrupt stereotypical and gendered biases by asking students to rotate roles throughout the semester. This may help students who are less confident to strengthen their communication skills as well as overcome preconceptions about cultural traits.

Conclusion

COIL projects provide opportunities for students to work across cultures and gain intercultural awareness. Students can gain study abroad experiences from their own homes, opening prospects to learners who may otherwise be excluded. Peer educators should take the time to get to know each other so they can collaborate with mutual respect. To promote meaningful experiences, learning outcomes need to be considered before developing the curriculum to ensure activities set out to achieve objectives. Spend time with the student groups, firstly to provide training in the technologies that will be used and secondly, to help them develop rapport and a mutual understanding of the aims and expectations of group work and the project. Defining roles may help learners to be accountable and understand their responsibilities to the group so that when they encounter issues, they can work to resolve them rather than adopt a culture of blame. Ultimately, students should come away having an enriched intercultural and, hopefully, fun experience.

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The Elements of a Conducive Online Distance Learning Environment for Deaf Students

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
A Conducive Online Distance Learning Environment poses a significant element in the education structure of Deaf students during this health emergency. It comprises several components that fulfill its role in creating an environment that enriches the learning of Deaf students. This study aims to identify the elements that promote learning in an online distance learning environment for deaf students. This pursuit is also anchored in discovering the learning profiles, learning experiences and challenges of Deaf students in the Online Distance Learning Environment. The study took place in a Deaf school which shifted to an Online Distance Learning set-up during the health emergency. Deaf students and their teachers were interviewed. Class observations were conducted to mirror the insights from respondents. Interestingly, the process of selecting significant statements, coming up with data categories and identifying the meaning behind the statements, the gathered data of this inquiry raised the "Four Scaffolds of a Conducive Distance Learning Environment." This framework allows educators and other significant education stakeholders to create a Conducive Online Distance Learning Environment suitable for Deaf students, allowing them to consider its potentials and outcomes in the learning of Deaf students. The results of this displayed varied interesting elements shared by the Deaf students and teachers.

Keywords: Deaf Students, Learning Environment, Conducive Online Distance Learning Environment, Online Distance Learning

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Introduction

In a bigger perspective, Learning Environment is a right of the child. As mentioned in the Child Friendly Schools Manual, UNICEF, May 2009, the concept of Child friendly schools and safe and healthy environment is grounded from the Universal Convention on the Rights of the Child. An environment that provides safety and protection allows effective learning and better outcomes for the child's holistic well-being. This right is an obligation for the government to reduce the challenges related to physical, environmental, and even sexual threats happen to schools worldwide. Cheng in 2020 as cited by Alshammari & El Zaraigat in 2020 says that aside from schools continuing distance education during pandemic, providing learning resources and awareness of the pandemic and educating learners on public safety, this learning environment provides more important resources for learners such as *"mental health of students, and guiding students to practice activities and maintain a healthy life during the pandemic." (p.7).* Schools help learners to overcome the challenges of becoming isolated physically.

There were some challenges discovered on learning environment in the Philippines, Toquero in 2020 discovered that Philippines do not have any provisions with persons with disabilities. The Philippines laid the provisions of "Bayanihan Act 2020" to allocate funds to help marginalized Filipinos during the pandemic. At the same time, the shift of distance learning was pushed through to support the general population of the students. This menial response for the continuity of education amidst the pandemic in the Philippines, gave rise to concerns and challenges on distance and online learning education, especially to deaf and hard-of-hearing students. Various studies shared the struggles throughout the distance or online learning set-up Hamilton et. al, in 2020 as cited by Smith in 2020 shares, "Teachers reported that almost 86% of their students had difficulties with internet access while 64% of students did not have appropriate technology devices needed for an online learning environment." (p.168). Krishnan in 2020 finds that one of the challenges faced by hearing impairment students, was being emotionally affected – how a disabled student would cope in an online set-up and financial challenge with regards to the devices needed. Alsadoon and Turkestani in 2020 discovered that to adjust teaching approaches, teachers had difficulty with students' social presence because deaf students would tend to turn off their cameras. This would leave teachers clueless towards how to approach or adjust themselves in teaching. Students turning their videos off may be rooted to possible reasons such as poor internet bandwidth.

Findings

Varied responses revealed a variety of concepts in the aspect of a Conducive Online Distance Learning Environment through a framework called *Four Scaffolds of a Conducive Online Distance Learning Environment*.

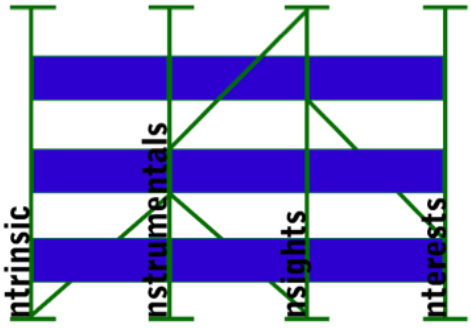


Figure 1: Four Scaffolds of a Conducive Online Distance Learning Environment

Intrinsic Domain: Learning Profiles of Students

The first research question unravels the different learning profiles, characteristics, behaviors and attitudes of Deaf students in an Online Distance Learning Environment. Several occasions were revealed in the study saying how students were able to deal with the demands. These may either be predictable instances where most of the student – teacher engagement occurs or can be unpredictable when certain changes in the Online Distance Learning Environment transpires. These events brought the idea of a Deaf Student as **Self – Regulated and Involve in microexpressions**. Zhao and Chen in 2016 mention *"In e-learning environment, students are responsible for their own studies and have to actively take part in the management of learning process. They have to set learning objectives, monitor and introspect their own learning processes, and evaluate learning outcomes" (p.1).* Sulisworo et. al., in 2020 suggests SRL positively supports students in Online distance learning. They suggest, *"In online or virtual learning, students who have a fabulous SRL will be able to bargain with the advancement of a learning environment that is diverse from their natural world. With a high SRL, the students can discover, select, utilize any data from the internet"* (p.205).

Being motivated is one of the dominant attitudes of students in online distance learning. Ergul in 2004 cited by Baturay and Yukselturk in 2015 says, *"high motivation, maturity and self-discipline are general characteristics of successful learners in distance education programs and self-efficacy of distance education was found significantly correlated to students' academic achievement"* (p.4). A study by Wettergren in 2012 revealed that Motivation could translate to deadlines and goals for students he mentions*, "The feeling of moving forward, accomplishing goals along the way is central and has great impact on motivation"* (p.6). Wettergren in 2012 also states, "*The need for timely and qualitative feedback for teachers is also important in order to have motivated students"* (p.6).

Independence and Dependence Independence was highly described when Deaf students are situated in learning and accomplishing tasks. Students shared personal ways of handling tasks to be done including the use resources like the internet and other materials to make things possible for them. Dependence enters when things are out of control such as interconnectivity problems or any problem with platforms or learning materials use. Parents would come in to troubleshoot challenges or educate their children in navigation; buying materials in school wherein students were not allowed to go out because of health restrictions and others such as waking up. Teachers were also mentioned when students seek other people for their tasks. Queries would involve lessons or even technology-related sometimes. Gibbons in 2002 as cited by Sumbawati et. al. in 2020, mentioned the following characteristics for independence, *"1) independent in learning, namely being able to take full responsibility in analyzing, planning, implementing, and evaluating their own learning activities independently, 2) self-management, namely being able to identify what they need during the learning process , set individual learning goals, control their own time and efforts to learn, and organize feedback for their work, 3) have a desire to learn for the purpose of acquiring knowledge, motivation of independent learners to learn is very strong, and 4) problem solving to achieve learning outcomes best independent learners make use of existing learning resources and appropriate learning strategies to overcome difficulties that occur in the learning process"* (p.196).

Garbe, et. al. in 2020 defines the experiences of parents with children during the pandemic. Parents mention in terms of this experience like dealing with learner special needs. Parents know that special support is needed for them. Another significant result was the decrease of

parental involvement from primary to middle and more in secondary schools. Lepp et. al. in 2021 explains the presence of teachers during Online Distance Learning, revealing that some teachers upon the start of online distance learning tried to be at their best to be always there for the students, including giving them individual feedback and communicating with them from morning until late at night. Belgica et. al. in 2020 revealed, *"Almost all of the respondents sought the help from their parents, grandparents, siblings, or other family members during online classes, especially in manipulating their gadgets and in answering their activities. If a family member is not available to help, the activity is postponed or set aside until someone is available to help. This is a real and authentic scenario in accomplishing given homework and activities"* (p.107).

Perseverance and Flexible students found ways to overcome their challenges in interconnectivity problems, distractions from the environment and learning their lessons on their own. Based on Burkle and Innes in 2013, one respondent mentioned how technology helped in making possible for work and studying to happen. It was also mentioned that through materials given online it has driven one respondent to develop new strategies to be efficient with time. That an online learner experiences dynamic adjustment to fulfill its role in online distance learning. Students persevered in the online learning set – up. Cahapay and Rotay in 2021, these authors mentioned, *"Since a stable internet connection is highly needed but a challenge in remote learning, the students, especially those from marginalized families, cope by looking for good space and time"* (p.32). Emmanuel in 2011 as cited by Matswetu et. al. in 2020 implies, *"open distance learning success requires being a self-directed learner and the ability to study independently with a focus on specific learning goals"* (p. 3). In this study, participants were students from the marginalized areas of Zimbabwe expose to financial challenges and faces poor provisions in electricity, sanitation, food, and internet connections.

Students **become inquisitive**. Gilbert in 2015, *"Communication in terms of supportive comments, constructive criticism, and prompt feedback from instructors to students is a key component of online courses"* (p.27). Feedback was mentioned in several studies and shared how it exactly happens. Mupinga et. al. in 2006 discovered that Instructor feedback was one of the highest expectations of students in online learning wherein students felt the need of putting students at ease without missing anything and not feeling alone online. Smith et. al. in 2016, coined the term "learning coach" for parents, parents are much more involved to manage several responsibilities assigned to teachers. Parents have increased involvement with instructions for students with disabilities. Cahapay in 2020 mentioned the word "hands-on" for parents in online distance learning. Dettermers et. al. in 2019 as cited by Ribeiro et. al. in 2021 detailed parental involvement such as, "*can be seen as a form of quantitative help (e.g., doing homework, helping with questions) or qualitative help (e.g., organizing the tasks, helping with the creation of a no-distraction environment, supporting the search for answers)*" (p.17).

Mindful of Time and Being Organized revealed how learners made use of time to manage their engagements. Ahmad et. al., in 2019 mentions, *"Student's academics are influenced by time managing skills. Both variables are strongly interrelated positively. If a student manage time effectively then his/her educational achievements are improved successfully"* (p.199). Alyami et. al. in 2021 revealed that nursing students who claimed to manage time and meet deadlines had high academic grades. In their study, students with high GPA would agree on making a to do list or having a calendar for their tasks at hand. In this study, some students discussed schedules they follow in handling their online distance learning. Teachers

mentioned how platforms such as Edmodo made students organized in such a way students visualize the tasks needs to be done.

Visually Reliant and Multifocal recounts how the Deaf students would entertain learning, or the resources use to learn in an Online Distance Learning Environment. Elevera et. al. in 2021, described the different circumstances under visual learning method such as, *"using images, pictures, colors, computers, and any other visual media to help them learn, …Examples of visual learning methods are watching videos, a study by looking over things, using diagrams and charts to understand ideas and concepts, and many more"* (p.125). This study confirms how Deaf students learn in an Online Distance Learning Environment. Mention in the same study it is the highest learning method used by students. However, multifocal or paying attention to more than one visual resource poses risks. Alshawabkeh et. al., in 2021 discussed, *"When courses moved to the online distance learning format, students felt overwhelmed. The content that was on the screen was the same. The interpreter was on the screen but in a small box. The difference for the deaf students was that without being able to see the instructor the course content quickly appeared overwhelming and disjointed. They saw only the interpreter."* (p.6). Thakur, et. al. in 2021 discussed the possible underlying reason for this reaction towards these materials. Based on their study using Symbol Digit Modality Test, hearing impaired children were much slower than normal schoolgoing children in terms of processing, slower in response time and prone to making errors in this test.

Deaf students **were identified distracted**. The experience of distraction has occurred in several instances. Some are direct distractions where students are directly involved in the situation or can be indirect distraction wherein students witness certain changes happening around as online distance learning continuous. Belgica, et. al. in 2020 in their findings discovered about Physical or digital distractions, and challenges in privacy wherein most families are crammed in a small house leaving no room intended for online class. Amadora in 2020 as cited by Belgica, et. al., in 2020 mentioned that devices get the attention of students than the ongoing online class. Cahapay and Rotas in 2020, showed that the home is one of the sources of distraction in Online Distance Learning. Baticulon, et. al. in 2020 adds, "home is not conducive for studying because of small space and noise background" it has been considered as domestic barrier.

Impulsivity

Hallowell in 2005 as cited by Garg in 2021 mentions that deviations from use of mobile phones and social media allowing students to switch interests and do activities concurrently may impact students focus and lead to increased impulsiveness. Maity and Mandal in 2017 shares regarding the Deaf and Dumb wherein, *"creativity and impulsivity are inversely correlated. If creativity increases, impulsivity decreases and vice versa"* (p.17). Fernandez and Chess in 1980 found that between multi-handicapped deaf and sole handicapped deaf, Impulsivity was one of the typical personalities of Deaf Children however it was strongly evident to multi-handicapped deaf children.

Limited body movements

The pandemic has already created a huge blow in the physical activity of Deaf students which can contribute to sedentary behavior. Petersen, et. al. in 2021 discussed that schools were largely affected by the health restrictions of COVID-19. One of their findings was the

Changes in Physical Activity, sedentary behavior increased due to lack of activities like going to school or meeting classes. This was then replaced with more sedentary activities like watching TV. Added to this, risk in social interaction was also mentioned as part of increasing sedentary behavior.

Instrumental Scaffolds: Supports that impacts the Deaf Students

Media Used

Participants narrated how Learning Materials, Learning Space, Parents and Teachers have been part of their Online Distance Learning Environment and provided benefits or challenges. Learning materials were the primary resource mentioned in the Online Distance Learning, the different responses from participants built the idea of media multitasking, defined by Wallis in 2010 as, *"engaging in more than one media activity at a time."* Participants narrated on how this incidence would occur during online learning such as using two devices at a time, attending class using laptop and using phone to communicate; as classes transpire, they are often engaging to two materials simultaneously: teachers would often sign in class and open their videos and present PowerPoints at the same time. It also occurs when students are doing tasks, they use their phones to research while answering tasks on the laptop. Soldatova et. al., in 2020 proves the media multitasking among 14–17-year-old. They found that students were mostly engaged in medial multitasking in average of 5.43 hours an average time online on weekdays and weekends which was suggesting great consumption of media for adolescence. They added that high media multitasking is genuinely evident in youth. *"On the one hand, adolescents choosing media multitasking as a strategy in digital environment appeared to be more productive, including in the context of random task performance, though not faster than less media multitaskers. On the other hand, greater impulsivity, and lower indices of executive functions, working memory, information processing is typical for media multitaskers."* (p.368). This proves that media multitasking reflects a natural occurrence to adolescents although it poses risks in engaging to such. Martín-Perpiñá et. al., in 2019 enumerated the media multitasking done when adolescents do their homework, it is usually accompanied with the use of mobile phones which was observed having the highest means. This was a common behavior during Online Distance Learning wherein majority of the students' mentioned phones as a secondary device when learning.

Participants raised thoughts on the different kinds of instances they engage in media such as communicating, learning, answering homework, copying notes, and attending class. These insights were similar results from the study by Kumalawati et. al., in 2021 which they discussed, *"During the Covid-19 pandemic, all lecturers and students used E-Learning to support the existing teaching and learning process. E-learning is a learning model that utilizes information technology facilities in distance learning / online. Online learning is done using information technology using electronic devices, namely laptops, computers, and gadgets with internet media. Distance learning or online is an alternative to modern learning methods"* (p.5). Similarly, a case study of teenagers enumerated the various activities that teenagers are involved as they utilize technology. Yan in 2020 shares, *"classroom learning, group projects, dance tutorials, environmental club, affinity group, home-work assignments, online test preparation, virtual workouts, listening to music, pick-ing up hobbies, and interacting with peers."*

Learning Space

Participants gave a picture on how their learning space is in the absence of the physical classroom. Personal spaces were described as spaces situated on personal rooms or study rooms allotted at home while shared spaces describe that online distance learning were situated in spaces that the student was not alone. Rotas and Cahapay in 2020 mention that most students were challenged in learning at home, students were having difficulty with their learning spaces because they failed to recognize home as a conducive place to study. Belgica in 2020 categorized home as source of physical distraction. Primary students admit distractions and cannot focus on their learning spaces because of things happening around them and things they see from other classmate's learning space. Barrot et. al. in 2021 shared, *"More specifically, the greatest challenge that students experienced was related to the learning environment, particularly on distractions at home, limitations in completing the requirements for certain subjects, and difficulties in selecting the learning areas and study schedule"* (p.9). Day in 2021 notes, *".... On the other hand, many students did not have a quiet home space. They did not have a desk, their environment was noisy, there were domestic chores and childcare responsibilities, and there were distractions on the Internet when students were online all day"* (p.6). In personal spaces, Aristovnik et. al. in 2020 discussed, "*When studying isolated at home, students may face a lack of self-discipline or inappropriate learning environments which evoke a feeling of work overload and consequently a higher level of stress "* (p.9). To conclude this, Fabito in 2020 said, *"Unlike in a school setting, where learning is more conducive, students were not adequately prepared to go online learning at home. The abrupt decision to go online due to the ECQ brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic has become an eye-opener in terms of the lack of preparedness of students and faculty members to go online"* (p. 453).

Roles of Parents and Teachers

Aside from performing traditional responsibilities, they extended way beyond especially in the advent of accepting that technology will be a huge part of their learning journey. Ribeiro et. al. in 2021 defined the forms parental involvement and the time parents spent. Involvement would take into forms like Monitoring child attention in the classes and school tasks realization, supporting task realization and ensuring that deadlines are accomplished. Aside from school – related responsibility, Cahapay's finding in 2021 adds Connecting with the child physically and emotionally was one emerging experience of parents with their children during COVID-19 crisis. Tus in 2021 also mentioned about the responsibilities of parents such as *"supporting and reinforcing the school's discipline plan, supporting child's learning by providing nutritious meals and adequate time for sleep, discussing the importance of a good education in their child, and identifying a regular time and place in their home for child's homework, monitoring their child's television viewing habits, monitoring child's homework, and ensuring their child's excellent attendance at school, monitoring and encouraging children to read, attending special programs in schools and parent supports group."* He adds parent involvement had a significant relationship with academic performance.

There were more roles discovered and played during this shift in learning by teachers. Mayasari and Kemal in 2020 defined *"teachers are also required to be able to design as they should teach students even with distance learning," "role of the teacher as a demonstrator here is that the teacher still uses strategies or methods to deliver distance learning even in the Covid-19 outbreak. Learning media is a tool for teachers in implementing learning. With*

the media, it makes it easier for teachers to deliver material to students so that it is easier to understand the material, especially in subjects," "teacher motivates students," "teachers manage learning when teacher classifies students and group students" and "teachers evaluate level of success that has been achieved." These points were similarly mentioned by the Deaf students. These roles were also present even with face-to-face class and were put in higher rate in online learning especially in technology.

Communication between teachers and parents was highly vital during the pandemic. Stelitano et. al., in 2020 mentioned, *"strategies as regular text messages to parents or students with reminders about things to do, daily emails, or weekly phone calls with individual students would likely be more helpful than sending weekly packets without reminders*." Hodgman et. al. in 2021 adds, *"teachers were expected to "meet with their students," "be available at scheduled times to respond to student questions," and "communicate with families about expectations for students or distance learning resources"* (p.2). It reflects that teachers are far more than part of academics, they also provided support to families especially parents in continuing Online Distance Learning at home.

Insights Scaffold: Experiences of Deaf students

Experiences may either positive or negative experiences of Deaf students during Online Distance Learning. **Social Advantages** explains how Deaf students find this environment as a source of support, enjoyment and where they can meet companions. Most responses center on talking with friends, classmates and teachers and the experience of meeting and seeing them. These interactions were similarly mentioned by Su et. al., in 2005 enumerating interactions such as, *"Content-related instructional activities (such as summarizing key points, asking/responding to questions, giving feedback, and instructor participation in class discussions) were widely used in most of the courses"* (p.8). Minocha in 2009 emphasized, *"use of social media in distance education is important as they ease student-student interaction and increases motivation of the learners"* (p.2740). This would also represent the responses in the study wherein aside from zoom, messenger was frequently used in asking questions between student-teacher and even talking with their classmates. The idea of "social" in the study was also the experiences of students as they ask questions or clarifying lessons to their teachers.

In a study by Alodwan in 2021 for higher education students the researcher coined **e-learning's advantage as a prime mover of "education for all"** making it possible to continue education. Gherges in 2021 defined advantages of e-learning compared to face-to-face learning. He mentioned three advantages such as convenience, time efficient and accessibility. Kurniawati and Priyanto in 2017 stresses the idea that mobile learning allowed stimulate students to complete task together, motivation and high interest in learning is tantamount to increase in learning outcomes and it allowed students who are afraid and silent to be bold in the learning process using technology. Paudel in 2021 added that online education gauged towards independence, flexibility and has been a source of knowledge and authentic information at their home. Neuhauser in 2002 as cited by Slower and Mandernach in 2018 implies, *"online and traditional classroom settings are equally effective."*

Several challenging experiences dawned. Learning space challenges, interconnectivity challenges, **personal challenges, learning material challenges, learning challenges**. Belgica et. al. in 2020 mentioned the similar challenges. Fabito et. al in 2020 discovered challenges mostly on technology, internet reliability and accessibility. It is a concerning

barrier of students in the online learning that aside from students, teachers also experience a challenging course. Dianito et. al. in 2020 defined adversity in communication where students found difficulty in communicating with instructors and classmates, students also felt they could not participate to some activities in their online distance learning leading to social exclusion, and adjustment wherein students failed to anticipate changes in this kind of set – up.

Interest Scaffolds: Elements promoting learning in an Online Distance Learning Environment

Interests' domain pertains to ideas of desirable and undesirable preferences. The elements mentioned build a Conducive Online Distance Learning Environment. Pertaining to things that encourage, engage, and motivate learning. Responses were classified as **Academic and Emotional/Social support**; Things that make learning better. Responses were grouped according to **Learning Access/Supports, Learning Spaces, Classroom Routines/Schedules, learning topics, breather/breaks**; Activities they like during Online Distance Learning, these were classified as either **Subject-Related or Task-Related**; Needs in Online Distance Learning were grouped according to **Social Needs, Material Needs and Learning Needs**. As Deaf students and Teachers identified these things comprising the Conducive Online Distance Learning Environment, Respondents were driven through a perception of people having strong inclinations is based on the principles of William Glasser's Choice Theory (1998). Choice Theory was defined as, "*I believe we are genetically programmed to try to satisfy four psychological needs: love and belonging, power, freedom, and fun. All our behavior is always our best choice, at the time we make the choice, to satisfy one or more of these needs."* Choices were rooted from how we behave towards things we encounter around us. Glasser adds that certain behaviors are anchored through our memories. Our memories perform in a very complicated way which Glasser describes, *"We struggle to feel as good as we can and as much as we are able, try to avoid feeling bad".*

Applying Choice theory in education centered on classroom management. Praveen and Alex in 2018 adapted the Choice Theory wherein varied concepts were taken into consideration such as Teachers are believed to understand that the feeling of survival can be satisfied only when a safe and sound environment is arranged to be conducive to online learning. Glasser in 2001 as cited by Manoj and Anoop in 2018 believes, *"For managing the class better, a teacher must arrange lighting, seats, air circulation, etc. which in turn will be conducive to classroom learning"* (p.8095).

Chan – Anteza in 2020 made a Quadratic Element of a Conducive Classroom Environment that comprises of Structured Course Curriculum or the organized instructional content, Empowered students – students who are motivated, engaged, increased responsibility and can identify own interests, passion, and strengths, Flexible Classroom Setting or the idea that learners have the choice to find a "learning space" and Enabled Teachers who are competent in areas needed for students. The vision of Chan – Anteza was not far from the elements identified in the study.

Conclusion

This important information allows us to recognize our learners and to have an intensive eye to evaluate these things and build an environment that nurtures the learning profiles and supports that were mentioned as beneficial to build a Conducive Online Distance Learning

Environment. Teachers can be provided with an opportunity to create activities and events in the Online Distance Learning Environment that will make students Independent, Self-Regulated, Persevering, and Inquisitive and consciously eradicate things that can make Deaf students Dependent, Distracted, Impulsive and restricted in body movements.

The experiences in the study are representations of the lived experiences of Deaf students. The study unraveled that a Deaf student is not only affected "during class." Deaf students and teachers shared that home, personal feelings, and encounters towards learning now, learning profiles, and family dynamics influences student's learning. Experiences allowed the students to be changed through these and changes yield positive or negative outcomes. In these times, let us strive to acknowledge these experiences and let us also help Deaf children to embrace and understand the idea that positive and negative learning experiences do not dictate success or failure in learning. People around these children must continue to empower them to do their best. The institution, government, and education sector must resolve challenges and respond to the growing needs of this novelty in education.

The preferences are expressions of active participation of Deaf students. Deaf students are capable of identifying, distinguishing and expressing their preferences. The study opens opportunities to directly respond on how to improve the current Online Distance Learning Environment. It represents Deaf learners are fully aware of learning, and recognize things bound to success. Preferences reflect materials, activities, or events. Significantly, in-person learning is primarily conducive for them. Participants mentioned that Online Distance Learning has been a solution to this health emergency restriction. This study calls education advocates and stakeholders to set this as a reminder to honor learning environment. Advocates and stakeholders must listen to these responses to be true to their responsibility in guaranteeing the Deaf learners of quality education.

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Effects of Reflection-Oriented Inquiry Instruction on Grade 9 Students' Understanding on the Nature of Science

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study aimed to investigate the effects of reflection-oriented inquiry instruction on Grade 9 students' understanding on the Nature of Science (NOS) specifically on the aspects of observation and inference, and imagination and creativity. The study employed quasi-experimental research design with pretest-posttest control group design. The participants of the study involved two intact sections of Grade 9 junior high school students of Balindong National High School. An adopted instrument-Students' Understanding on Science and Scientific Inquiry Questionnaire (SUSSI-Q) was used. The findings of the study revealed that the control group of students demonstrated transitionary and informed levels and none in the naive level with more than half of the students demonstrated informed level while all the students in the experimental group demonstrated informed level in the two Nature of Science (NOS) aspects. Another is that, there is a significant difference between the control and experimental group at .05 level of significance in favor of the experimental group in the two Nature of Science (NOS) aspects. Apparently, on the average, the Reflection-Oriented Inquiry Approach was found to be beneficial in promoting students' understanding on the Nature of Science (NOS).

Keywords: Reflection-Oriented Instruction Approach, Inquiry Approach, Nature of Science (NOS), Observation and Inference, Imagination and Creativity

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Introduction

In the context of scientific literacy, it has been a long standing goal in science education to promote a deeper understanding on the Nature of Science. The Trends International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS report, 2019), Philippines ranked last lowest among the 58 participating countries and ranked second lowest in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA report, 2018).

Most of the Filipino students had a very poor performance in the national and international science and mathematics assessment studies because their factual knowledge, NOS understanding, conceptual understanding and their skills in reasoning and analysis are very poor. According to the National Educational Testing and Research Center (NETRC) Reports 2015-2017, there is a poor quality of education in the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) which was ranked 3rd from the bottom. There was also a poor performance in the National Achievement Test (NAT) in science in the schools division of Lanao del Sur I with a mean percentage score of below 75%.

The poor performance of the Philippines in national and international examinations may have been brought about by a host of factors such as: large class size, inadequate laboratory facilities, mismatch between intended or desired curriculum and implemented is actual curriculum carried out by schools (Ivowi, 2001). In addition, adherence of many science teachers to ask questions that require low order thinking skills rather than questioning that require high order thinking skills in classroom interactions and assessments may contribute to this dismal performance. Moreover, the teachers' resistance to adapt to more innovative and constructivist teaching approaches may also add to such result.

Scientific literacy has become one of the critical issues in our country. To increase the condition of lifelong literacy, reading and writing skills are no longer enough. Helping students to develop into scientifically literate citizens who are constructivist and reflective thinkers and have analytical and problem solving skills is a long-term objective and great challenges in science education. Hence, teaching the nature of science, through inquiry in tandem with scientific knowledge promotes students to develop scientific habits of mind that will enable them to be effective decision-makers beyond the classroom.

Thus, the teachers need to learn ways of guiding and supporting children in considering alternative views, innovative teaching methods, and constructing meanings of Nature of Science. They need to practice reflective teaching strategy in their classrooms. Reflective teaching can evaluate the level of intellectual processing and interaction in the classroom, and can make learning more relevant and meaningful to students' lives. This promotes inductive, critical thinking and problem solving. Because of this reason, the purpose of this study was to help students to develop understanding in the Nature of Science through the reflection-oriented inquiry instruction, in the hope that the solutions may be suggested to the school administrators and science teachers of Balindong National High School to improve students' understanding on Nature of Science.

Generally, this study investigated the effects of reflection-oriented inquiry instruction on the students' understanding of the nature of science among the grade 9 junior high school students of Balindong National High School on the school year 2017-2018. Specifically, this study sought answers to the following questions:

1. What are the control and experimental groups of Grade 9 students' understanding levels on the nature of science before and after intervention?
2. Is there a significant difference in the nature of science understanding test mean score between the control and experimental group of students before and after the intervention?

Conceptual Framework

This study was conceptualized that the reflection-oriented inquiry instruction has an effect on students' understanding on the nature of science. To guide in the implementation of the study, the research paradigm is shown in the Figure 1. The left box represented the independent variable–the method of instruction in the form of reflection–oriented inquiry instruction compared with the conventional lecture–discussion instruction. The dependent variable in the right box was the Nature of Science (NOS) understanding. The arrow coming from independent variable box represented the idea that the independent variable was hypothesized to affect or influence the dependent variable. This means that the grade 9 junior high school students' understanding on NOS was affected by instructional approaches used by the researcher.

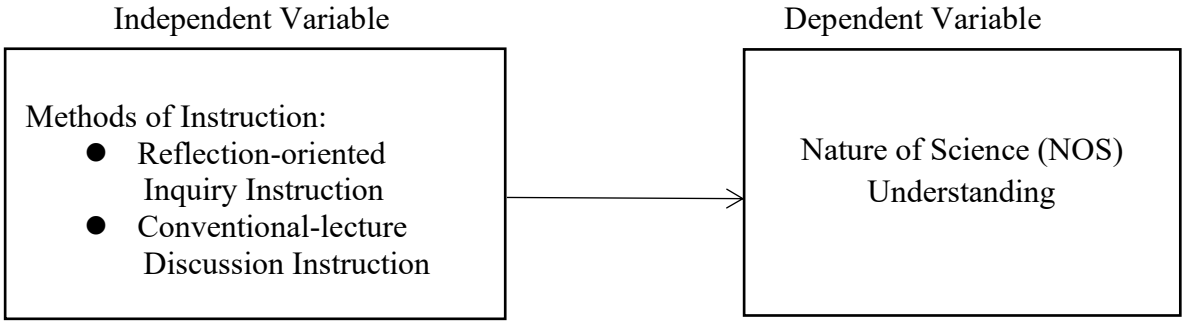


Figure 1. Research Paradigm

Scope and Delimitation of the Study

This study was limited to the investigation of the effects of reflection-oriented inquiry instruction on grade 9 junior high school students' understanding on the nature of science at Balindong National High School for the school year 2017-2018. The investigations of the students' NOS understanding were limited only on observation and inference aspect, and imagination and creativity aspect. Other variables which may affected the experimental group and control group which were beyond the control of the researcher were acknowledged as limitations of the study.

Research Design

This study used both quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate the effects of reflection-oriented inquiry instruction on the students' understanding on the nature of science. The quantitative aspect utilized quasi-experimental design using two intact groups. Specifically, the matching-only pretest-posttest control group design was used.

Experimental Group	**M**	**O_1**	**X**	**O_2**
Control Group	**M**	**O_1**	**C**	**O_2**

The symbol M refers to the match samples in terms of their average grades in Grade 8 in the experimental and control groups. The symbol O_1 represents the first administration of the research instruments including pretest to the experimental and control groups before the intervention. X stands for the instructional intervention (treatment) which was the reflection-oriented inquiry instruction given to the experimental group. C refers to the control group being exposed to the conventional lecture-discussion instruction. O_2 represents the second administration of the research instruments including posttest to the control group and experimental group after the intervention.

The quantitative aspect focused on the determining the number of students falling in each NOS understanding category and their scores in the NOS understanding test in both the control and experimental groups. In addition, statistical analysis was used in the numerical data to compare the NOS understanding levels. The qualitative aspect focused on the categorization of students' NOS understandings. Students' written responses in the questionnaire was categorized as naïve, transitionary, and informed using the adopted rubric guide of Liang et al (2008). Students' written responses were probed through semi–structured interviews.

To assess further the students' NOS understanding under the experimental group, the student participants were required to write a journal about what they have learned, the insights and reflection they have gained as they performed activities on the NOS aspects. Reflective questions were given after the activities underlining the NOS aspects. Moreover, observations (field notes) and uninformed interviews were done during the intervention.

Locale of the Study

This study was conducted in Balindong National High School, Balindong, Lanao del Sur, Philippines during the school year 2017–2018. The school is located specifically in Barangay Salipongan at the Municipality of Balindong, Lanao del Sur, Philippines. It is a public school under the Schools Division of Lanao del Sur-I and one of the top performing public schools in the province.

Subject Participants of the Study

The study involved two sections of intact classes namely, Section Masayahin with 64 students and Section Makadiyos with 69 students of grade 9 junior high school students in Balindong National High School. The 20 paired match students in the two sections of intact classes were assigned to the control and experimental groups by tossing a coin. Matching was unannounced to the subject participants. The experimental group was exposed to reflection-oriented inquiry instruction and the control group was taught under the conventional lecture-discussion method of teaching. Those students who were not matched were still part of the class discussions and activities but they were excluded in the data analysis.

Results and Discussions

The order of the data presentation, the data analyses and interpretations follows the sequence order of the presentation of the statement of the problem.

Control and Experimental Groups of Students' Levels of Understanding on the Nature of Science before and after Intervention

Table 1. Numbers and percentage distributions of control and experimental groups of students in the three levels of NOS understanding before and after intervention

NOS Aspects	Levels of Understanding	Before		After	
		Control Group (n=20)	Experimental Group (n=20)	Control Group (n=20)	Experimental Group (n=20)
1. Observation and Inference	Informed	3 (15.0%)	4 (20.0%)	12(60.0%)	20(100.0%)
	Transitionary	14(70.0%)	16 (80.0%)	8 (40.0%)	0(0.0%)
	Naïve	3 (15.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0(0.0%)
2. Imagination and Creativity	Informed	0 (0.0%)	1 (5.0%)	17(85.0%)	20 (100%)
	Transitionary	10(50.0%)	10 (50.0%)	3 (15.0%)	0 (0.0%)
	Naïve	10(50.0%)	9 (45.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)

Note: Legend: Raw score: 4–5–Informed; 3–Transitionary; 1–2–Naïve

To categorize the control and experimental groups of students' responses in the Likert–prompt items in the questionnaire (SUSSI–Q), the following rubric for level of understandings was used: raw score of 4–5 is informed, 3 is transitionary and 1–2 is naïve, and the students' written responses in the open–ended questions of the instrument (SUSSI–Q), a rubric developed by Liang, et al. (2008) was adopted.

Observation and inference. As shown in Table 1, before the intervention, more than half of the students in the experimental (80.0 %) and control (70.0 %) demonstrated transitionary level of NOS understanding. Very few (control group = 15.0%, experimental group = 20.0%) demonstrated informed level of understanding. For naïve level, there were few (15.0%) students on the control group demonstrated such level while none (0.0 %) in the experimental group.

The findings were supported by the study of Küçük and Cepný (2015) where the results gathered indicated that most students' nature of science understanding were weak or varying (78%) and only 22% of the students had adequate understanding.

This variation of numbers of students in each understanding level can be explained by the study of Abd–El–Khalick (2002) which that naïve or inadequate understandings of NOS are evident in participants who reflect an "absolutist view of scientific knowledge" meaning that scientific knowledge is certain and true, and does not change. Those ideas stem from the understanding that you have to see it to be true. Students with naïve understandings also believe that theories can be proven and eventually become scientific laws, and that scientific knowledge can only be obtained through precise experiments (Lederman et al., 2002).

On the other hand, students with informed or adequate understandings of NOS believe that scientific knowledge can change with new evidence and that scientists use inferences to determine things, such as atomic structure and knowledge about dinosaurs because neither can be directly observed by students in a classroom (Khishfe & Abd-El-Khalick, 2002).

After the intervention, below half of the control group (40.0%) demonstrated transitionary level of understanding while none (0.0%) in the experimental group. All the students in the experimental group (100.0%) demonstrated informed level of understanding while more than

half in the control group (60.0%). None among the two groups demonstrated naïve level of understanding.

The results were supported by the contention of Küçük and Cepný (2015) that the direct-reflective methods should be used instead of indirect ones for students to understand the real nature of science. Furthermore, Abd-El-Khalick (2004) and Lederman, et. al (2012) declared that student gathered informed view on NOS aspect when exposed to reflective teaching method.

Imagination and creativity. As shown in Table 1, before the intervention, half of the students in both experimental (50.0%) and control (50.0%) group have transitionary level of NOS understanding. Very few demonstrated an informed level in the experimental group (5.0%) and none (0.0%) in the control group. For the naïve level, below half of the students (45.0%) in the experimental group demonstrated such level while half (50.0%) of the students in the control group.

This result was consistent with what Sangsa-ard, et. al.(2013) found out in their study investigating the role of creativity and imagination in the conduct of experiments which showed that majority of students held transitionary views to informed views in which they explain scientists used imaginative in some of step when they developed scientific knowledge and did experiments. Accordingly, these results indicated that grade 9 students' understanding of imagination and creativity NOS aspect is adequate in some ways and inadequate in the other ways.

After the intervention, all the students (100.0%) in the experimental group demonstrated informed level while more than half (85.0%) in the control group had a such level of understanding. None (0.0%) demonstrated a transitionary level in the experimental group while very few (15.0%) in the control group have such level. For the naïve level, none (0.0%) in both groups have such level.

Clearly, the results suggested that the activities and the lectures had a big impact on the students' levels of understanding on their imagination and creativity NOS aspect especially with the use of the reflection–oriented inquiry instruction. This was related to the study of Abd–El–Khalick, et. al. (2002) which had shown evidence that implicit NOS instruction was ineffective. From this study, the authors recommended that the teacher use explicit and reflective NOS instruction to improve students' understanding of NOS. Furthermore, teachers have to know their students' ideas about NOS because they can plan instruction to improve their students' understanding of NOS.

Comparison of Control and Experimental Groups of Students' NOS Understanding Test Mean Score before and after Intervention

To determine if there is a significant difference in the nature of science understanding test mean score between the control and experimental groups of students before and after the intervention, the t-test for independent samples was used. However, ANCOVA was used in explaining the posttest mean score on Observation and Inference aspect NOS understanding posttest mean score by using the pretest as covariate.

Observation and Inference. As shown in Table 3, before the intervention, the experimental group posted a higher mean score (3.12 vs 2.85) than the control group with a t–test value of

2.03 and p–value of .50 which is significant at .05 level. This implied that the two groups differed significantly in their NOS understanding test mean score at .05 level in favor of the experimental group. This further suggested that on the average, the students in the experimental group have better understandings than the control group as revealed in their test mean score.

To justify the initial incomparability of the two groups in their observation and inference NOS aspect mean score, Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was additionally used using pretest as covariate in the posttest mean score comparison. It is utilized to see if the lead of the experimental group over the control group pretest mean score has an effect or influence on the posttest mean score result with the pretest mean score as a covariate. Table 2 showed the ANCOVA test results of observation and inference NOS aspect posttest mean score using the pretest mean score as covariate.

Table 2. ANCOVA test results of NOS understanding posttest on the Observation and Inference aspect for both experimental and control groups

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p-value	Partial eta Squared
Corrected	5.420[a]	2	2.710	12.409	0.000	0.401
Model	8.971	1	8.971	41.079	0.000	0.526
Intercept	0.163	1	0.163	0.749	0.393	0.020
OI_pre	**4.209**	**1**	**4.209**	**19.271**	**0.000**	**0.342**
Group	8.080	37	0.281			
Error	614.125	40				
Total	13.500	39				
Corrected Total						

Note: R Squared = 0.401 (Adjusted R squared = 0.369)

As shown in Table 2, the F–test has a value of 19.271 and a p–value equivalent to 0.000 which is less than .05 level of significance ($p < .05$). This implied that the lead of experimental group over the control group pretest mean score has no effect or influence on the lead of the experimental group over the control group posttest mean score. This means that the posttest results were statistically significant after controlling the effect of pretest as covariate.

This further suggested that the lead of the experimental group over the control group mean score before the intervention can be due to chances which are caused by some influential factors such as that most of the students in the experimental group were influenced by their readings in science textbooks and information they got form social media, an influence of easy–access to the internet through their electronic gadgets such as laptops, smart phones and tablets, and also, most of their parents have a strong parental support system in their educational process.

Table 3. T-test values and p–values on the comparison of the control and experimental groups of students' NOS understanding mean score before and after intervention

NOS Aspect	Period	Group	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	t-test value	p-value
1.Observation and Inference	Before Intervention	Control (n=20)	2.85	0.476	2.03	.050(s)
		Experimental (n=20)	3.12	0.376		
	After Intervention	Control (n=20)	3.51	0.489	4.90	.000 (s)
		Experimental (n=20)	4.24	0.440		
2.Imagination and Creativity	Before Intervention	Control (n=20)	3.43	0.398	-0.83	.411(ns)
		Experimental (n=20)	3.30	0.541		
	After Intervention	Control (n=20)	3.97	0.512	2.80	.008(s)
		Experimental (n=20)	4.36	0.348		

Note: s = significant at .05 level; ns = not significant at .05 level

However, after the intervention as shown in the Table 3, the observation and inference NOS understanding mean score of the two groups had a p–value of 0.000. This implied that the two groups were significantly different at .05 level of significance ($p < .05$). This further suggested that the exposure of the students in the experimental group to the reflection–oriented inquiry approach was found to be favorable in helping the improvement of their NOS understanding in observation and inference aspect. The students understood the concepts much deeper and the similarities and differences in the observation and inference aspect of NOS in which they may apply them not only in science classrooms but also in their daily lives.

Moreover, the reflection–oriented inquiry instruction given to the experimental group was found to be helpful in increasing the level of students' NOS understanding in observation and inference aspect. The students understood the concepts and the similarities and differences in the observation and inference aspect of NOS in which they may apply them not only in science classrooms but also in their daily lives. The students comprehended the meanings of their observations and distinguished on how they would give implications as they inferred.

Imagination and Creativity. As shown in Table 3, before intervention, the experimental group posted a lower mean score (3.30 vs. 3.43) than the control group with a t–test value of –0.83 and p–value of 0.411 which is not significant at .50 level ($p > .05$). This implied that the two groups of students were initially comparable in their NOS understanding in imagination and creativity aspect prior to the intervention. This suggested that the students from the two groups had the same level of understanding on the imagination and creativity NOS aspect. Generally, it is natural to expect this result because these two groups of students were handled by the same teacher, and were exposed to the same learning environment.

After intervention, the experimental group posted a higher mean score (4.36 vs. 3.97) than the control group with a t–test value of 2.80 and p–value of 0.008 which is significant at .05 level ($p < .05$). This implies that the two groups were significantly different in their NOS

understanding test mean score at .05 level in favor of the experimental group. This suggested that the experimental group of students' exposure to the reflection–oriented inquiry instruction was found to be beneficial in facilitating the improvement of their NOS understanding in imagination and creativity aspect. As supported by experimental group of students' reflection written in their journal writing, their confusions and difficulties regarding the terminology usage on the said aspect were corrected, reconciled, clarified and well understood.

Conclusion

Based from the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn such as (1) students who were not exposed to reflection-oriented inquiry instruction of the Nature of Science (NOS) were capable of understanding the aspects of NOS at their own expense. Their understanding existed in naïve–transitionary–informed levels. However, most of the students were in the transitionary level of their NOS understanding. After exposure to reflection-oriented inquiry instruction, students' NOS understanding level was raised to informed level higher in the number of students exposed to reflection-oriented inquiry instruction than those exposed to conventional–lecture instruction. (2) In the Observation and Inference NOS aspect, there was a significant difference ($t=4.90$, $p=0.00<.05$) in favor of the experimental group. While, in the Imagination and Creativity NOS aspect, there was also a significant difference ($t=2.80$, $p=0.008<.05$) in favor of the experimental group. Therefore, the reflection–oriented inquiry instruction was found to be beneficial in promoting students' understanding on the nature of science (NOS).

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank the good people of Department of Science and Technology-Science Education Institute (DOST-SEI), Philippines for funding this research, especially to the DOST-SEI Director Dr. Josette T. Biyo and to the panel members namely, Dr. Salamah. B. Indad, Prof. Inoray G. Latip and Prof. Sonny M. Magno.

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Gains and Losses: A Phenomenographic Study on Adolescents' Understanding of Isolation Due to COVID-19

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The global health emergency posed by the COVID-19 outbreak has affected millions of people. In the Philippines, among the establishments closed were schools which resulted in children and adolescents staying at home for more than two years under quarantine. Many studies were conducted focusing on the impact of isolation due to quarantine on people's physical and emotional well-being, most notably the children and adolescents who are considered vulnerable individuals. However, limited studies investigated how these young people understand their experiences while in quarantine. Hence, this phenomenographic study aims to explore the different ways Filipino adolescents understand their isolation experiences. Seventeen adolescents in quarantine were interviewed, and qualitative analysis revealed an outcome space where isolation is seen in the light of gains and losses as described through a hierarchy of expanding awareness of the different dimensions of isolation. The descriptions reveal understandings that isolation is (1) a restraint, (2) a necessity, and (3) an opportunity that has an impact on the physical, emotional, and social dimensions of adolescents' lives. Implications and recommendations presented may serve as a basis for designing programs and interventions to help adolescents deal with possible negative feelings while in isolation and post-quarantine.

Keywords: Isolation, Adolescents, Phenomenography, COVID-19, Pandemic

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Introduction

The worldwide health crisis due to the outbreak of COVID-19 has disrupted the lives of millions of people. Without the available cure and before the development of a vaccine, most countries see lockdowns, quarantines, and extreme forms of physical distancing as means of containing the transmission of the contagion (Leung, 2020). In the Philippines, among the establishments closed are schools which resulted in children and adolescents staying at home for more than two years (De Guzman, 2021; Lopez, 2022). The government mandated that Filipinos whose ages are below 21 years were not allowed to leave their residences being considered part of the at-risk group and have continued their education through distance learning (UNICEF, 2021; Dela Cruz et al., 2021; Republic of the Philippines Inter-Agency Task Force, 2020). The pandemic-induced lockdowns which are also referred to as quarantine in this paper have resulted in the social isolation of Filipino adolescents.

Isolation poses an enormous challenge to people's physical and emotional well-being, most notably children and adolescents who are considered vulnerable individuals ("Adolescent mental health", 2022; Singh et al., 2020; UNICEF, 2021). The inability to stay active and feeling anxious about the uncertainties brought about by the infectious disease outbreak are among the identified adverse results of the confinement. Mental health conditions such as anxiety and depressive symptoms are expected to be elevated due to prolonged social isolation. Even isolation that may even be less than ten days may result in long-term effects on mental health (Brooks, et al, 2020, as cited in Pietrabissa & Simpson, 2020). These mental health issues are commonly associated with exhibited emotional patterns and coping ability with problematic situations.

On the other end, lockdowns due to COVID-19 have presented opportunities in different systems such as the positive environmental impact due to limited fuel consumption due to travel restrictions and reinventing education by prioritizing authentic learning (Arora et al., 2022; "Education and COVID-19: challenges and opportunities", 2022). On a personal level, being in quarantine has allowed individuals to reflect and rethink the practices of doing things in areas of personality development and schooling.

Hence, this study aimed to explore the different ways in which Filipino adolescents understand their isolation experience. As the quarantine measures were ongoing, it was crucial to probe their understandings of their situation to know how to help them deal with possible negative feelings while in isolation and after being quarantined. Although this study's findings could not be generalized, they may serve as a basis for designing programs and interventions promoting adolescents' mental health concerns. More so, this will give an insight into the general mindset and attitude of Filipino adolescents towards social isolation.

Methods

This study investigated the various understandings of adolescents about isolation due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Hence, a phenomenographic study was adopted as an approach that aims to describe the different ways in which people understand, view, perceive, or experience a phenomenon. Its focus is not just on the understanding of the meaning of the phenomenon but on the variation of the understanding of the phenomenon (Larsson & Holmstrom, 2007). It focuses on the collective experiences, and not on the individual experiences of the participants. It is interpretivist which adheres to the notion that there are several acceptable interpretations of realities (Akerlind et al., 2005).

This phenomenographic study utilized purposive sampling to investigate the understandings of a specific group of people, specifically, Filipino adolescents who were under quarantine due to the COVID-19 pandemic. There were seventeen adolescents enrolled in an online class in a private senior high school in the Philippines who participated in the study. They were selected as participants based on the following selection criteria: (1) age range is between 16 to 19 years old; (2) bonafide students at the selected school locale; and (3) whose parents provided consent for their participation in the study. The participants have an 11:6 female-to-male ratio. The participants' demographic profiles maintain sufficient diversity as required by phenomenographic studies (Trigwell, 2000, as cited in Khan et.al, 2019). The goal of diversity in the sample is to increase the chances of finding variation in the meaning or understanding of the participants.

The data collection approach used in this study involved the conduct of written and oral semi-structured interviews. The open-ended questions asked were intended to draw out views and descriptions of the experiences of the adolescents while in quarantine. The data were collected from March to December 2021 when the participants were still restricted from going to public places and only allowed to attend school in an online environment. Participants' responses were collected through an online survey form with open-ended questions and virtual interviews which lasted for more or less 30 minutes per participant via Zoom, an online videoconferencing platform. The oral interviews were recorded with due consent.

The phenomenographic analysis of this study centers on the "what" and "how" of the participant's isolation experience. However, it is important to note that the analysis consists of searching the transcripts for similarities and differences in the participants' responses (Akerlind et al., 2005). The data is analyzed collectively and not the individual transcripts to extract the pool of meanings, the related expressions of the youth about their understanding of isolation which are distinct from other expressions, that were the bases for identifying categories and outcome space (Holmqvist & Selin, 2019; Stolz, 2020).

The analysis of the obtained data followed the protocol of Sjöström and Dahlgren (2002, as cited in Khan, 2014) which began with the iterative dialogue between the text and the researchers through the structured reading and rereading of transcripts for familiarization. The next step involves the compilation of responses based on their similarities and differences. Relevant and meaningful statements are then extracted from the compilation which is called the condensation stage. This is followed by the initial grouping of meanings from responses into categories of qualitatively different ways of understanding the phenomenon. These categories are compared to each other to refine their boundaries before naming them based on their key characteristics. Lastly, an outcome space is drawn out based on the internal relationships between the categories in the form of a hierarchy. In this study, the hierarchy of expanding awareness of the different dimensions of isolation is presented.

Ethical Considerations

Prior to the onset of the study, the researchers sent an electronic Parents' Consent Form to explain to parents the purpose, nature, and potential risk of the study and sought their permission to allow their children's participation in the research. As soon as parental consent was secured, target participants were sent the electronic form of Child Assent, e-survey forms, and the Zoom login credentials and interview schedule. In both electronic instruments and interviews, the following were emphasized: the aim of the study, voluntary participation

in the study, privacy considerations, and the right to withdraw from the research at any time. Confidentiality, anonymity, and careful handling of data were given utmost priority in carrying out this study from data collection, processing, storage, and publication.

Results

The analysis of the transcript identified three different ways in which adolescents understand isolation. These ways of understanding reveal that adolescents view isolation as (1) a restraint, (2) a necessity, and (3) an opportunity.

Isolation as a restraint

Some Filipino adolescents perceive isolation as a restraint. This sense of restraint is observed to impact the physical, emotional, and social dimensions of the adolescents' lives in different forms such as limitation of physical movement, social disconnection, regression in well-being, and deprivation of opportunities. These cited descriptions are all ways in which restraint is experienced.

For example, with the face-to-face classes being suspended because of the lockdowns and adolescents were not allowed to leave their residences as part of the measures of the government-imposed community quarantine, some participants expressed how isolation has restricted their physical mobility and development. When asked to describe their experiences, some pointed out that:

> *"ara lang kami sa limited space na makahulag… Daw ara ka sa dome… di ka pwede mag gwa…ang amon condition sa lawas like nadula na… kay wala gid kami gahampang… just pungko, tubang sa laptop sa online class."*
> (There is limited space for movement… It is as if you are inside a dome and you can't get out…Our physical condition has regressed because of inactivity… I just sit around and face the laptop to attend online class.)

> *"Since student athlete po ako, bigla din po nagstop and training ko. Nagbag-o gid sya tanan, ma'am."*
> (I used to train as a student athlete, but my training suddenly ceased [because of isolation]. It changed everything, ma'am.)

> *"It was very uncomfortable… di kami maka kuha sang food… indi kami makagrocery… To be honest ma'am, I feel caged because I feel like I am limited to the house only. I cannot go back to the way things were na free ka to go outside and want to do the things na pwedeng gawin outside your house."*
> (It was very uncomfortable… we cannot get food nor go to the grocery. I cannot go back to the way things were. I cannot do the things that I want to do outside the house.)

In addition, isolation is seen to have a limiting impact on the social and emotional well-being of adolescents. The disappointment over this form of restriction is articulated as:

> "I think this pandemic affected my mental and emotional health because of isolation and less physical interaction with my friends."

> *"Basically, since the start of the isolation, I have felt na it affected my social life, mostly. I am a very outgoing person na I prefer going out with people… and communicating with them. Since nagka-pandemic, I was not able to meet new people, interact with other people… [it's] suffocating."*
> (Basically, since the start of the isolation, I have felt na it affected my social life, mostly. I am a very outgoing person and I prefer going out with people… and communicating with them. When pandemic happened, I was not able to meet new people, interact with them and it is suffocating.)

> *"Medyo restricted na ang pag meet sang friends so daw maka ano sya ma'am, maka-sad kay technically diri lang gid sa balay… sa mga meet ups, sa mga gatherings with family and friends, may impact man sya kay di ka maka meet up sa family and friends as often as you'd like."*
> (There are restrictions when it comes to meeting friends which saddens me. I just stayed home. It has affected how frequent I meet family and friends since gatherings are not allowed as you'd like.)

Restraint is also experienced by some adolescents through deprivation of opportunities. Some adolescents vented that:

> *"Super disappointing po since that time po maglalast year na po kami sa high school. Then all the experience na dapat maexperience namin as a high school student di po nangyari such as yong mga balls po indi namin naranasan… at yong graduation namin indi din po namin naranasan since bigla lang po talagang naglockdown. It all happened sa age na when I am supposed to live as a youth outside the world, but it all happened inside my house for almost three years… three years pa lang damu-damo na nadula."*
> ([It was] super disappointing because [COVID-19 isolation] happened on the last year of our high school. We missed all the things that we should have experienced as a high school student such as the balls... and we also missed the graduation because of the abrupt lockdown. It happened when I am supposed to be living my youth with the world, but it seemed to pass while staying at home for three years… for the past three years, a lot of things were lost.)

> *"Sa part ko na di natuloy ang ball at moving up ceremony, parang nakaka devastate po… Tapos knowing na hindi na kami makabalik ng school, parang di po natapos ng maayos yong experience ng high school life. Parang ganyan ang feeling. During that time po ako ang alumni president so ako ang nag spearhead ng preparation, knowing na hindi na matuloy yong events, na shock din ako na hindi sya fulfilling sa part ko po."*
> (Missing the moving-up ceremony is devastating for me… and being unable to go back to school makes my high school experience incomplete. I was the alumni president then and we were preparing for the event [graduation ball]. I was shocked that it was cancelled, and it was not fulfilling on my end.)

Evident from the statements is the general feeling of loss that resulted from the sense of restraint from being isolated. The constraints due to physical mobility, social connections, and prospects have resulted in an adverse feeling of loss that needs to be addressed for it may harm the adolescents' mental health and well-being.

Isolation as a necessity

Some Filipino adolescents view isolation as a necessity. Despite perceiving isolation as a restriction that affects their mobility, socialization, and chances of experiencing things, some Filipino adolescents also understand isolation as essential in ensuring one's safety and a crucial means of curbing the spread of the infection.

> "I do find it hard to assess my emotions. I sometimes want to think about the situation as a rational individual and not as someone who is openly feeling this way or that way because I do find myself having a deep connection with those thoughts that I have. And sometimes I will not get into a good decision or a good point if I let it get into me. So as much as it's not really good to block out your feelings, I do try to be more rational when it comes to thinking. Picking an alternative that would be how I describe my isolation experience… I do understand it now. For me, isolation is more of like the definition given by COVID - separating yourself from people for safety…"

> "I have anxiety while on quarantine. When I feel the need to encourage myself, I often say that, "It's okay" or "Everything's gonna be alright". I remind myself that staying at home is for my own good. These thoughts are enough to lift my mood and help me get through the day."

Despite the experienced restraint, some adolescents acknowledge that being isolated is a necessity. This understanding emerges as adolescents attach meaning to their experience – that is putting into perspective that the isolation experience is a necessary step to ensure one's safety.

Isolation as an opportunity

Some Filipino adolescents perceive isolation as an opportunity which is an awareness that stems from the understanding that while isolation leads to restraints, it is necessary. For example,

> "[Being on quarantine] did not go that well from the start. So yes it was really hard for me to adjust. I was able to adjust po in the sense that it was really necessary for me to understand that this is how things are going to be starting from this point… I had really modified my ways and eventually, I did cope with it… I am really proud of myself because I really had that emotional understanding of myself… I tell myself I am really proud of you because you made the most out of the situation… And understanding yourself and some things that are lacking around you for you to grow."

Being isolated paved the way for self-reflection and self-discovery, personal development, and improving family relations. When isolation is seen through the lens of its meaning, restraints are viewed vis-à-vis the opportunities that arise from it. Implicitly expressed, the consciousness of the adolescents that isolation is the logical course of action for safety leads to the recognition of the opportunities emerging from the situation. For example,

> "This pandemic has affected me in a way that I was able to make some realizations out of it, out of me and out of the people around me. With the time I spent at home, I was able to self-reflect with the actions I have committed in the past or to simply put, my life as a whole really. I was also able to make up for the lost time I never got to

spend with my family. Even though we're just at home, we try to look at the positive side of things or just being optimistic. All in all, in a time of darkness and despair still being overshadowed by the gleaming light of faith and hope, we should believe that out of all this, we certainly have more to gain than to lose."

"I think that isolation as a COVID-19 response is an effective move. Aside from it helped us minimize the spread of the virus, it also opened us to a new things which I believe are useful in today's time. I would like to stress out the fact that isolation brought us an in-depth knowledge with the different online tools and gadgets-something that we might not have learned about if isolation never happened. It also taught us to build resiliency. Being under the influence of a global disaster, it can't be helped that we worry or grieve upon the losses, but with isolation, we learned to seek comfort within ourselves; thus, a strong solitude is also built during these days."

"If I were to think back on my experience during the quarantine brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic, I would find it to be advantageous in some way. I characterize that worthwhile experience as miserable but rewarding. I have accomplished a lot at home throughout the pandemic, particularly in terms of developing my creativity abilities through the creation of digital artworks, paintings, and drawings. I used to work on portrait commissions back then, which increased my productivity. By employing my skills in developing digital publication materials, it further expanded my opportunities to be a leader and a campus journalist at school. In addition, I have even learned some fundamental exercise techniques, and I follow workout routines. Nevertheless, even with all that productivity. I can't help but admit that it was a dreadful experience as well. There have been days when I have had severe insomnia and cannot fall asleep, staying up for over 24 hours. Interacting to friends were not the same as before. I made some new friends and lost some others. Additionally, it was difficult to go entire days or even weeks without speaking to anyone. With both good and bad times interspersed with those experiences, I get the conclusion that it was both rewarding and miserable."

"I think this experience has brought new changes po especially tulad before may mga bagay po ako na hindi magawa pero nung nagquarantine na ganito na po ang set up parang mas nahanap ko po ang time na gawin yong mga hobbies na hindi ko nagagawa usually… hindi po ibig sabihin na natigil yong usual na ginagawa natin, natigil din yong progress natin. Kung baga new opportunity lang po sya for growth po."
(This experience has brought new changes which gave me a break to do my hobbies. It does not mean that because some of the things we do are halted, our progress has been discontinued as well. This has been an opportunity for growth.)

Viewed as an opportunity to rest, reflect, learn about oneself, and rebuild relationships, isolation is being seen on a positive note. This understanding arises from the awareness that despite the constraints, isolation is needed for safety.

The Outcome Space

This study aims to explore the different understandings of Filipino adolescents regarding their experience of being isolated during the COVID-19 pandemic. The result of this research

reveals the internal relations of the three emerging categories – isolation as a restraint, a necessity, and an opportunity.

Isolation as a restraint is the basic understanding Filipino adolescents attach to the phenomenon of isolation. The experienced various forms of restraint are the immediate observable consequences of prolonged social isolation.

However, the awareness that isolation poses restrictions can lead to an understanding that it is also a necessity. It is through the consciousness of the negative consequences of restraint that some Filipino adolescents can also see it as necessary as they make sense of the phenomenon. Isolation is seen as an important course of action to ensure safety. This view about isolation emerges as one copes with the challenges of being isolated.

Recognizing that isolation is restricting but is key to safety, a new level of awareness of isolation comes to light – as an opportunity. The ability to see the realities of being in isolation provides clarity in thinking and mindset which allows one to be optimistic about it regardless of the circumstance.

These three ways of understanding can be organized in a hierarchy of expanding awareness of different dimensions of isolation as shown in the figure below.

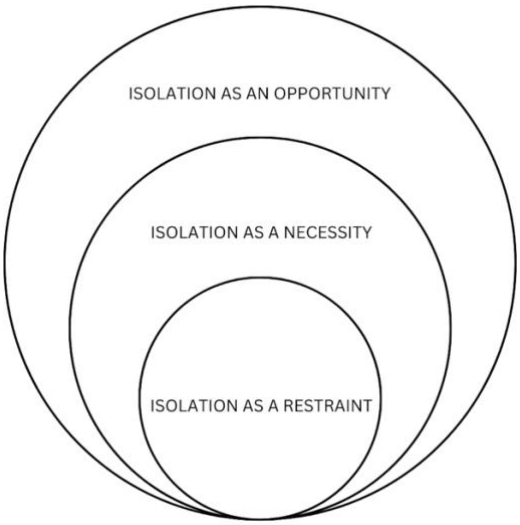


Figure 1. The outcome space for the research

Implications

The hierarchy of expanding awareness of different dimensions of isolation as seen through the lens of Filipino adolescents presents a crucial point of reflection. For some Filipino adolescents, the isolation experience may simply be viewed as a restraint that leads to a sense of loss. This feeling of loss may lead to worsened mental health unless interventions were given to help them undergo the coping process (O'Keefe, 2021). These interventions are suggested to be meaning-centered or focusing on meaning-making for they were cited as helpful in coping and adjustment for someone who is dealing with loss (Lichtenthal et al., 2010). According to Nadeau (2008, as cited in Walsh, 2020), the meaning-making process or putting in perspective the sense of loss makes it endurable.

Thus, Filipino adolescents whose view of isolation is simply a restraint must undergo a process of meaning-making as an intervention to allow them to expand their view from restraint to opportunity by acknowledging that their isolation experience is a necessity. It is when adolescents attach their isolation experience to a meaning – isolation is necessary – that they can accept their loss, make it bearable, and allows them to deal with the difficult changes in life (Rimiru & Mokua, 2020). It when adolescents see their isolation experience as a necessity that they are also able to expand their awareness that isolation may also lead to opportunities.

On the other hand, the findings of this research also revealed that Filipino adolescents' perception of isolation is seen in terms of its consequences on the life of young people. Isolation as a restraint is seen as a loss while isolation as an opportunity is seen as a gain. But noteworthy is the view that isolation is a necessity that allows adolescents to see positive impacts not just the negative effects of isolation on their lives. The understanding that isolation does not only result in losses but leads to gains exposes how Filipino adolescents respond to difficult situations such as quarantines. This study's findings provide insight into Filipino adolescents' mindset and attitude when confronted with challenging situations such as isolation during a pandemic. Filipino adolescents, while acknowledging the problematic situation, can remain optimistic about being in isolation when they attach meaning to their experience. The view that isolation is seen as an opportunity, or a gain is a manifestation of adaptability and resilience among Filipino adolescents. The observed optimistic thinking of Filipino adolescents may be attributed to their ability to reflect on their experiences and attach meaning to them. From the studies of Trivate, Dennis, Sholl and Wilkinson (2019) and Falon, Hoare, Kangas and Crane (2022), the ability to self-reflect is seen as an effective mechanism for an individual to cope with difficult and stressful situations like dealing with losses.

Nonetheless, it is important to identify measures and strategies on how to process the feeling of loss that these young people harbor to avoid long-term adverse impacts on their overall well-being. Thus, professional support must be given in schools to address the said concern.

Acknowledgment

The researchers wish to extend their most sincere gratitude to Dr. Gerlese Åkerlind, for providing feedback on this paper. The generosity of her time and expertise is much appreciated.

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Quarterlife Crisis Among Emerging Adults: A Phenomenological Study

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study focused on the experience of Quarterlife Crisis among Filipino emerging adults. It aims to examine the quarterlife experiences of emerging adults as they transition from adolescence into adulthood. Several factors were taken into consideration in this investigation such as attainment of bachelor's degree, pursuing a higher degree of education, age, and single as a civil status. Qualitative method was used to capture the experiences of the participants. To analyze the life stories, Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) was used. An interview via Zoom meeting platform was utilized. To start each interview, consent was asked from the participants via Google forms. A semi-structured interview guide helped in drawing out stories, later clustered into superordinate themes. The participants were purposively selected, consisting of 5 voluntary respondents. The interview guide was set to focus on the respondent's experience during the transition to adulthood. The findings of the study were obtained from creating superordinate themes, analyzing through the hours of interview. Themes are as follows: (1) Unpleasant experiences during first year at work, (2) financial difficulties, (3) pressure from internal and expectations, (4) lack of clear career direction, and (5) not being ready for work. From the sample population interviewed, it is concluded that these emerging adults were indeed under distress as they enter a new world of adulthood. They voluntarily shared their experience to have more open talks about the existence of Quarterlife Crisis. It is highly encouraged to have more open talks about major life transition inside homes, schools, and community.

Keywords: Quarterlife Crisis, Emerging Adults, Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis, Filipino Quarterlife, Young Adulthood

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Introduction

In the Philippine setting, there are limited resources regarding the study of life crises and mental health issues in general. This can be attributed to the Filipino behavior in which they are not comfortable seeking professional help from government or private mental health institutions. There are several barriers attributed to this limitation, such as financial constraints, self-stigma associated with fear of negative judgment, and social stigma which puts the family reputation at stake. It is known that Filipino culture is family-oriented like most of its Asian neighbors.

Among the total population of Filipinos with depressive symptoms, young adults were reported to have high prevalence of depression and its consequences. A study published by Puyat et al. in 2021 found that these young adults belonged to the age group of 15-24. The most frequently reported depressive symptoms were related to loneliness and somatic problems. This is consistent with studies by Patel et al. which indicated that persons with depression in low resource countries like the Philippines experience somatic symptoms. Among the factors which can contribute to extreme mental health issue is the occurrence of a life crisis.

Despite the many issues faced by today's emerging adults, they still made a mark with their distinct working attitude. Cited by Pramod et al., emerging adults of today are known for being independent in the presence of clearly defined goals. They are ready to be mentored and seek managers who can enhance their professional careers. Emerging adults are confident while being highly ambitious – due to their trust and optimism in their own capabilities. They are on the lookout for a meaningful and purposeful life, which is why work-life balance is of top importance for them. Instead of "live-to-work" attitude, they are known to have the "work-to-live" perspective in life. As a result, they are looking for work with more flexible schedules to find equilibrium with their hobbies. The emerging adults of today are innovative and creative; a working environment that is traditionally too bureaucratic will not be attractive to them.

Young adults inside Filipino families are therefore likely to prioritize their education in school - leaving little room for exploration of other interests outside the academe. Filipinos acknowledge that education is the best tool to secure a better future for their families and themselves. A study by Puyat et al. stressed that given the importance of educational achievement in the Philippine culture, it is very likely that the socioeconomic gradient usually associated with moderate to severe depressive symptoms can more strongly be observed across different levels of educational achievement.

Among ASEAN countries, the Philippines was the last to adopt additional two years of education in the system. Most Filipino young adults in the workforce today lacked the two-year mastery offered by the K-12 education model. Their basic competencies had to be congested into a 10-year basic education curriculum. In the old curriculum, graduates of basic education are younger than 18 years old and are not legally ready to start a job or business. In 2013, the Enhanced Basic Education Act was slowly introduced through the K-12 curriculum. The additional two years in basic education was the implementation of Senior High School–in which students will have to choose among four tracks.

Before the reform in the basic education, a typical Filipino student will graduate from college by the age of 21. In the old curriculum, a young adult Filipino who graduated from college is

expected to quickly join the workforce. Not yet a full adult but certainly not a child anymore, they are yet to emerge as an adult. Emerging adulthood as proposed by Arnett designates ages 18-25 as neither adolescence nor young adulthood. These years are more typically a period of frequent change and exploration. Unfortunately, due to his roles and duties to the family, a Filipino emerging adult struggle to achieve spontaneity and examination of his life at this level. A child transitioning into an adult must be ready to drop his weakness and smallness to be adapt himself to become strong, large, all-powerful, omniscient, and godlike (Maslow, 1968). This is a cause of distress which could affect his mental and emotional health.

In relation to this, many Filipino emerging adults tend to marry later in life. As reported by Philippine Statistics Authority, there was a decrease in marriages in a span of 10 years from 14.4 percent for 2007 to 2016 to 10.6 percent for 2008 to 2017. Unlike their parents, younger generations of Filipinos purposely put aside the need for starting a family early to focus on careers and pursue higher education (Lobregat, 2015). Still, the root for this rationale is to give financial support to their parents and siblings. In the absence of a partner, Filipino emerging adults lack the experience of intimacy which can lead to feelings of isolation based on Erikson's psychosocial stages (Feist, et. al. 2018).

The process of antagonization and self-doubt in the emerging adulthood stage defines quarterlife crisis. This is experienced upon graduation from college where the once clear-cut path becomes blurred and many twentysomethings begin to feel lost in a sea of a million possibilities (Thorspecken, 2005). Robbins & Wilner (2001) added that quarterlife crisis is, in effect, a response to overwhelming instability, constant change, countless choices, and a panicked sense of vulnerability. Those experiencing quarterlife crisis begin to question themselves incessantly, lose their sense of identity, or question their career choice. Some may respond to these issues by quitting jobs or stalling career decisions, or encounter distress in daily life and anxiety-related problems.

The aim of this study is to examine the phenomenon of quarterlife crisis among Filipinos belonging to the emerging adulthood.

Specifically, it sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the quarterlife experiences of emerging adults?
2. What can be understood from the quarterlife experiences of these emerging adults?

Experimental Method/s

In terms of research design, phenomenological research design was utilized to better discuss quarterlife crisis. Through phenomenology, this research focused on the individual respondent's meaning-making as the quintessential element of the human experience (Patton, 2002). Moustakas (1994) transcendental or psychological phenomenology – in which "everything is perceived freshly, as if for the first time" – focus less on the interpretations of the researcher and highlights the description of the experiences of participants.

Tradition of Inquiry and Data Generation Method

The data gathering procedure was conducted via interview method. The researcher prepared forms of consent which were read and accepted by the participants. Interviews were conducted via online call/video meetings. The interviews lasted for sixty to ninety minutes

and recorded with consent from the participant. A follow-up interview was not necessary. Usually, a qualitative interview makes use of few unstructured and generally open-ended questions with the intention of eliciting views and opinions from the research participants (Creswell, 2003). In this study, the interview used a protocol or guide which aided the smooth flow of conversation.

Sources of Data

This research was conducted via purposive sampling. Purposive sampling refers to a type of non-probability sampling where participants are selected or judged by the researcher to best fit in the study (Sharma, 2017). Creswell (2013) elaborated that a purposeful sample intentionally samples a group of people that can best inform the researcher about the research problem under examination.

In this study, respondents were purposefully selected according to their age, employment status and civil status. The targeted sample of this study are Filipinos in the age of 22-26 years old and currently employed with no spouses and children yet. Participants who are pursuing a master's degree were selected to participate in this study.

Instrumentation

Data analysis was done using Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) specifically. IPA is an approach that interprets and amplifies the 'lived experience' stories of research participants; however, for those stories to make-sense interpretively, the researcher of the stories must have a true and deeper understanding of the participants' 'lived experiences.' This approach puts emphasis for the researcher to put themselves in the shoes of the participants (Alase, 2017).

In using IPA, one must set aside one's belief, feelings, and perceptions to be more open or faithful to the phenomenon (also called bracketing) as cited in a sample study by Creswell (Colaizzi, 1978). In starting an IPA interview, the researcher uses funneling as a technique wherein it attempts to elicit both the respondents' general views and their response to more specific concerns (Smith, 2009). Funneling allows the researcher to narrow questions down into more specific data.

Interview Protocol. The participants were asked with general open-ended questions. This helped lay down the foundation for the research topic. Follow-up questions examined how participants viewed themselves as a Filipino adult. Some follow-up questions differed from their responses to further probe out their concept of a quarterlife crisis among Filipinos. A semi-structured interview guide was prepared to assist in the interview flow. At the end of the questionnaire, respondents were given the chance to share how they felt about the study.

These are presented as follows:

Getting to know the respondents. The respondents were asked information about age, current occupation – whether this is the same occupation since college graduation and highest educational attainment. This helped establish rapport and provide demographic information about the respondents.

Life after college. These are open-ended questions to establish background of the participants. Questions were asked such as *"Maari mo bang isalarawan ang iyong karanasan matapos ang kolehiyo? Ano ang iyong saloobin at isipan noong panahong ito?"* Respondents shared their experiences after college graduation and their personal struggles during this big life transition.

Reflections about life after college. Respondents were asked about the positive and negative experiences they had after graduation from college. In relation, the researcher probed out if there were people or persons who helped influence them either in a positive or negative way.

Reflections about quarterlife crisis. Questions were asked relative to the respondents' reflection about their experiences as emerging adults. Sample question *was "Kung bibigyan ka ng pagkakataong baguhin ang nakaraan, sa paanong paraan mo ito babaguhin?"*

Goals in the future. Lastly, the respondents were asked about their hopes and dreams in the future *"Ano ang iyong mga pangarap at mithiin para sa iyong sarili limang taon mula sa ngayon?"* This question aimed to gauge each participant's hopefulness for the future.

Ethical Considerations

This study complies with the ethical guidelines set out by the Polytechnic University of the Philippines. As cited by Creswell, a researcher gains the participants' trust by conveying to the participants that they are participating in a study, explaining the purpose of the study and does not engage in deception about the nature of the study. By securing the ethical considerations, both participant and researcher are protected with each information shared during the interview. Thus, this research is subject to the approval of University Research Ethics Board to ensure date collected will be handled with confidentiality.

At the beginning of the interview, participants were given an online consent form with option to receive a copy via their personal e-mail. The consent form shall contain information such as: introduction to briefly introduce the research proponent, purpose of the research, confidentiality, sharing of results, and right to refuse or withdraw. Through the consent form, respondents had knowledge of what they were "letting themselves in for before they make the decision to cooperate" (Gomm, 2004). Participants were given a chance to ask questions and to discuss proper handling of personal information for data privacy. Data collected throughout the interview will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Personal information will not be used outside of research purposes. Names of person, institution were altered and hidden upon request of interviewee for additional data protection. Information shared during interview can be withdrawn upon request after the interview has been completed. Participation to this study was voluntary. Researcher consulted with the interviewees after themes of the results were obtained as part of the validation process.

Data Validation

Upon completion of the data analysis, the results were compiled and sent to the participants via email. They are asked to review the results for accuracy, data privacy and completeness. The participants were requested to provide feedback or suggestions based on the results.

Results and Discussion

Participant demographics

All participants obtained their bachelor's degree from different universities in Metro Manila. They belong to the age group of 22 to 26 years old (M=21), working for at least 2 years. The participants are pursuing a master's degree while working full time jobs.

Participant	Age	Gender	Education I	Year of graduation	Education II	Year of graduation	Age started working	Years working
Chi	25	Female	Bachelor in Business Teacher Education	2016	Masters in Business Education	On going	20	5
Julia	25	Female	Bachelor of Secondary Education Major in English	2016	Master of Arts in Reading Education	On going	20	5
Ana	22	Female	AB Behavioral Science	2019	Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology	On going	21	2
Macoy	26	Male	BS Medical Technology	2015	Master in Science in Medical Technology	Stopped	20	5
Tin	26	Female	BS Clinical Psychology	2016	Master in Psychology	Stopped	21	5

Table 1: Participant demographics.

Themes

The participants were interviewed about their experience upon their graduation form college and how they faced the Quarterlife Crisis. The respondents' accounts were clustered around the following themes: pressure brought by internal and external factors, financial difficulties, lack of clear career direction, not being work ready, and unpleasant experiences during first year at work.

Master theme	C	J	A	M	T
Unpleasant experiences during first year at work	X	X	X	X	
Financial difficulties			X	X	X
Pressure by internal expectations	X	X		X	X
Lack of clear career direction	X		X	X	
Not being ready for work	X	X			X

Table 2: Summary of Themes per respondent.

From the interviews gathered, statements were examined carefully to identify themes. A summary table is used to visualize the emerging master theme along with the subordinating themes.

Master theme	Subordinate theme
1) Pressure from internal and external expectations	1.1 High expectations due to past achievements 1.2 Societal pressures
2) Financial difficulties	2.1 Supporting the family financially 2.2 Struggle to financially support own self 2.3 Development of unhealthy spending habits
3) Lack of clear career direction	3.1 Overwhelming career paths 3.2 Change in career goals 3.3 Lack of career plan
4) Not being ready for work	4.1 Lack of confidence 4.2 Insufficient training in college
5) Unpleasant experiences during first year at work	5.1 Conflict with colleagues 5.2 Difficulty in transition from being a student to employee 5.3 Moral conflicts at the workplace 5.4 Lacking sense of purpose

Table 3: Summary of Master and Subordinate Themes

Discussion

The study focused on the lived experiences of emerging adults as they experience Quarterlife Crisis during their transition from school to workplace.

The participants' responses were clustered into themes. Interview method was the main tradition of inquiry used in the study. This encapsulates both the respondents' lived experiences and the factors which contributed to Quarterlife Crisis among the emerging adults. The following are the main themes found from data gathered:

1. Unpleasant experiences during first year at work. The results showed that the participants had a rough start on the onset of their career. For the first time in their lives, the participants felt unfair treatment form superiors and colleagues. They expected support from these people as they have received in the past, but that was not the case. The respondents also felt that there were moral conflicts in their workplace. This led them to lose interest in the job they were currently at.

2. Financial difficulties. Most of the participants had financial difficulties when they started out in their careers. Given that they were newbies in the field, majority received low salary. Since majority are supporting their families aside from their own needs, this caused a friction on their financial priorities. Some of the participants reported that they had to postpone a passion or goal to deliver their financial duty towards their families. Meanwhile, other participants shared that they had difficulties in establishing financial discipline. This resulted to unhealthy spending habits that had negative impact to the way they handled money during the start of their career.

3. Pressure from internal and external expectations. From the responses received, it was observed that the respondents brought pressure to themselves by setting high expectations for self as an achiever in the past. Unfortunately, they felt disappointed when they did not meet a certain achievement at a given age. They were disappointed when they were not able to perform exceedingly at work as compared to when they were still students.

4. Lack of clear career direction. Consequently, they felt loss amidst the vast career opportunities in relation to their degree they obtained in college. The lack of a guaranteed path led some of the respondents to pursue alternative careers. At the same

time, there were limited job opportunities presented which restricted the chances to land their dream job. This should have helped them avoid quitting jobs in multiple occasions before realizing the right work environment for them.

5. Not being ready for work. This theme explained that the emerging adults were not immediately ready when they started out in the workplace. The respondents reported that they do not have the confidence needed for their job which made it difficult to perform certain tasks at first. Results also revealed that they hoped for more hands-on training and immersion activities during college. Respondents were also mostly working on industries which were different from the usual career path that they were expecting upon graduation.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings of the study agreed with the previous literature on the emergence of Quarterlife Crisis. The respondents were truly under a sense of overwhelming instability, constant change, countless choices, and a panicked sense of vulnerability as they transitioned from school to workplace. Prior studies were consistent with the results of this research that the crisis can be a product of current issues entailing financial and societal pressures. The results also reflect that most of the Filipino emerging adults are still on the trend of delayed marriage and family building consistent with the studies among Asian countries.

It is cited from Erikson that a crisis forms when the "wholeness" of a person is compromised. Therefore, this study hopes to stress the importance of attending to early life crisis to help mitigate serious mental health problems. Although it is considered that research about the Quarterlife Crisis had roots on western concepts, the data shows it exists among participants belonging to the emerging adulthood. It has also shown that participants are open to conversations concerning this issue. They are happy to contribute to the improvement of this area of life.

Form the data gathering process, it is commendable as to how the participants were able to survive their transition from adolescence to young adults. They were able to muster the strength to face various challenges in the different areas of their life. Quoting Maslow's description of adulthood *"A child must be ready to drop his weakness and smallness to be able to adapt himself to the strong, large, all-powerful, omniscient and godlike adult"* Indeed, the participants handled the challenges headstrong.

On the other hand, this research is limited by the small number of respondents. It does not generalize the experience of Quarterlife Crisis in the Philippines. However, the small population can prove the existence of the crisis. Also, the study is limited by the demographic factors such as having a bachelor's degree, age group of 20-30 years old, single as a civil status and pursuing a higher degree after college. It should also be noted that the life experiences will be unique to every individual.

Recommendations

The study hopes that through data gathered, talks about major life transition will open among families, school, and communities. Unfortunately, seeking help for such issues are still creating stigma. Thus, it is unappealing for young professionals and emerging adults to reach out and talk about similar problems.

It would be beneficial for the emerging adults to have access to counselling services with guaranteed anonymity, so they can have the freedom to unpack their emotional burdens. This study can help open doors for clinicians to develop psychotherapeutic intervention tailored to Filipino emerging adults.

Counselling for career guidance in school settings may also use the data presented in this study to create programs for students to help decide their future vocations. With the implementation of K-12, students are given ample time to decide on the career path they would take. Extensive immersion, additional technical skills and exposure to technology can help equip students in choosing the right career path.

This study provides an opportunity to private companies and local government to provide affordable coaching/mentoring sessions to young adults. These can help them identify the early signs of life crisis and take necessary steps to process and improve their well-being.

Last is the recommendation for encouraging the formation of support groups among emerging adults to provide emotional support to those with similar struggles.

This study also opens prospects to investigate the future of data gathering via online platforms. Due to the pandemic, data gathering procedure using Zoom and other meeting applications became convenient for researchers. Future researchers may take advantage of this method, however, be wary of losing human connection. Interviews via the web may not feel personal and sincere for the participants. It would be helpful if researchers will develop emphatic listening and attentive interview structure to draw out quality in results.

Acknowledgments

The researcher would like to acknowledge the persons who are instrumental to the paper's completion. She is grateful to the participants for their willingness to contribute their experience and knowledge to the study. This study would not be possible without the guidance of her adviser, members of the panel, and the institution itself.

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Grit and Hope as Sequential Mediators in the Association Between Mindfulness and Flourishing

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Flourishing was defined as living within an optimal range for positive psychological and social functioning (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005). Recently, it is believed that fostering flourishing can effectively prevent mental disorders. Empirical studies have also confirmed that individual mindfulness is related to flourishing. However, the internal mechanism of this link is relatively underexplored. This pilot study examined the association between mindfulness and flourishing using a serial mediation model that tested grit and hope as hypothesized mediators. A Chinese university student sample (N = 163, 68.10% female, Mean age = 20.52) responded to an online survey package containing Chinese-validated scales measuring mindfulness, grit, hope, flourishing, and demographic items. Hayes' (2013) SPSS macro PROCESS (Model 6) with 5,000 bias-corrected bootstraps with 95% confidence intervals was used to confirm the serial mediating effect. After controlling for demographic covariates, the results revealed that: (a) mindfulness, grit, hope, and flourishing were significantly and positively associated with each other; (b) grit and hope mediated the mindfulness-flourishing link in a sequential fashion; and (c) the indirect effect of serial manner (β = .12) was significantly greater than the indirect effect through grit (β = .06), and hope (β = -.02). The current findings may provide some guidance for the intervention to promote flourishing among Chinese university students. In order to maximize the effect of mindfulness on flourishing, researchers and educators can integrate grit- and hope-related teaching plans into mindfulness intervention and further test this model with longitudinal designs.

Keywords: Mindfulness, Grit, Hope, Flourishing, Mediation

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Introduction

One intense interest in the positive psychology field is to understand and promote human flourishing (Seligman & Czikszentmihalyi, 2000). VanderWeele (2017) defined flourishing in terms of complete human well-being, capturing an individual living within an optimal range of generativity, growth, and positive psychological and social functioning (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005). Several empirical studies have supported that flourishing individuals tended to have excellent mental and physical health, better resilience in the face of adversity, and more chances of having a successful career in the future than non-flourishers (Kobau et al., 2011; Seligman, 2011). Despite the desirable effect of flourishing on various psychological, social, and developmental outcomes at the individual level, recently, more and more studies have attempted to examine some personal factors that contribute to it, such as personality traits (i.e., Schotanus-Dijkstra et al., 2016). One of the distinct indicators of flourishing development is mindfulness (Galovan et al., 2022). However, the underlying mechanism explaining through what pathways mindfulness is related to flourishing is relatively underexplored. This study aims to fill in this gap.

Mindfulness and Flourishing

The concept of mindfulness is first originated by Kabat-Zinn (1994), which refers to individual awareness that emerges through conscious attention to the present moment, and non-judgmental attention to the unfolding of experience. Mindfulness has been found to improve a variety of desirable psychological outcomes in students, such as better subjective well-being and executive functioning, and a reduction of psychological distress and maladaptive behavior (Dunning et al., 2018). Further, several empirical studies have supported that mindfulness could lead to higher flourishing (i.e., Akin & Akin, 2015). For example, people with better mindfulness tended to have better gratitude, which further promoted their sense of flourishing (Rahe et al., 2022). In line with previous findings, I, therefore, proposed that mindfulness is positively associated with flourishing (*Hypothesis 1*).

Grit as a Mediator

The concept of grit is first originated by Duckworth and her colleagues (2007) and operationalized into two distinct facets: *Consistency of interest* refers to individual maintenance of commitment towards long-term goals without getting distracted by new goals, while *perseverance of effort* refers to individuals consistently work hard towards long-term goals over a period of time despite obstacles and failure (Duckworth et al., 2007). A longitudinal study by Raphiphatthana and others (2018) showed that university students' mindfulness (non-judging and acting with awareness) predicted an increase in grit, 4.5 months later. Additionally, Padhy and others (2021) found that grit was a significant predictor of flourishing. Therefore, I reasoned that individuals' mindfulness can foster more grit and further facilitate more flourishing (*Hypothesis 2*).

Hope as a Mediator

According to hope theory (Snyder et al., 1991), the concept of hope is defined as "*a cognitive set that is based on a reciprocally-derived sense of successful agency (goal-directed determination) and pathways (planning to meet goals)*" (p. 571). Accordingly, hope captured two distinct facets: *Agency thinking* refers to individuals' determination to initiate and sustain the goal-directed movement, while *pathway thinking* refers to an individual's perceived

ability to identify barriers and develop alternative pathways in order to circumvent obstacles. Recently, researchers identified that individuals' cognitive factors (i.e., awareness and belief) can be a significant mediator in the relationship between mindfulness and psychological well-being (i.e., Yousefi Afrashteh & Hasani, 2022). For example, Arslan and Asıcı (2022) found that university students' mindfulness influenced their psychological well-being indirectly through their beliefs in solving problems when they faced difficulties. Regarding the empirical support of the intercorrelations between mindfulness, hope, and flourishing, a longitudinal study by Satici and Satici (2022) showed that the predictive role of mindfulness on dispositional hope 3 months later in university students has been determined, while Belen and others (2020) found that students' dispositional hope significantly predicted their flourishing experience. Here, I proposed that hope can mediate the association between mindfulness and flourishing (*Hypothesis 3*).

The Serial Mediating Roles of Grit and Hope

Recent studies have confirmed the predictive role of grit on hope (i.e., Yang & Wu, 2021). For example, in a university student sample, participants with greater grit tended to report higher hope (Ekinci & Koç, 2022). Thus, I proposed that individuals' grit level is positively connected to hope, and these two mediators serially mediate the association between mindfulness and flourishing (*Hypothesis 4*).

The Present Study

To my knowledge, no research has investigated the proposed relationships. This study can contribute to the literature by elucidating the mechanism of the association between mindfulness and flourishing.

Method

Participants and Procedure

Qualtrics was used to collect survey responses from students of a public university in Macau. All participants were informed explicitly of the research purpose, nature, and procedure. A total of 163 university students (Mean age = 20.52, SD = 2.92, 68.10% female) completed the online survey.

Materials

The Chinese version of all the measurements was adopted and all of them have been applied in the Chinese context with good reliability and validity.

Mindfulness was assessed with the Mindful Attention Awareness Scale (MAAS; Brown & Ryan, 2003), covering 15 items to assess individual differences in the frequency of mindful states over time. A sample item was "*I could be experiencing some emotion and not be conscious of it until sometime later*". Each item was rated on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = almost never and 6 = almost always); higher average scores indicated higher levels of dispositional mindfulness. In the current sample, this scale showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .89).

Grit was assessed with the Short Grit Scale (Grit-S; Duckworth & Quinn, 2009), covering 8 items to assess individuals' passion and sustaining effort toward long-term goals. Four negatively worded statements described one's consistency of interest (e.g., "*I often set a goal but later choose to pursue a different one*"), and four positively worded statements described one's perseverance of effort (e.g., "*I am a hard worker*"). Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = not like me at all and 5 = very much like me); higher average scores indicated higher levels of grit. This scale showed acceptable reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .71).

Hope was assessed with the Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1991), covering 8 items to assess the respondent's level of hope. Four statements described agency thinking (e.g., "*My past experiences have prepared me well for my future*") and four statements described one's pathway thinking (e.g., "*I can think of many ways to get out of a jam*"). Each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree); higher average scores indicated more hope. This scale showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .85).

Flourishing was assessed with the Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2009), covering 8 items to assess individuals' self-perceived success in important areas such as relationships, self-esteem, purpose, and optimism. A sample item was "*I actively contribute to the happiness and well-being of others*". Each item was rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree); higher average scores indicated a person with many psychological resources and strengths. In the current sample, this scale showed good reliability (Cronbach's alpha = .89).

Statistical Analyses

IBM SPSS Statistics 24 was used to calculate the descriptive statistics and correlations of tested variables. Amos 24.0.0 was used to analyze the hypothesized path model. Further, we used Hayes' (2013) SPSS macro PROCESS (Model 6) with 5,000 bias-corrected bootstraps to examine the indirect effect of life satisfaction and perceived distress individually and sequentially.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

As shown in Table 1, the main variables were significantly and positively correlated with one another. Age was significantly associated with mindfulness and hope, while gender was non-significantly associated with the main variables.

	1	2	3	4	Gender	Age
1. Mindfulness	-				.06	.20*
2. Grit	.36***	-			-.03	.10
3. Hope	.20*	.54***	-		-.03	.20*
4. Flourishing	.23**	.50***	.69***	-	.04	.08
Mean	3.78	3.01	3.34	4.89	.68	20.52
Standard Deviation	.82	.52	.57	1.01	.47	2.92

Table 1: Mean, Standard Deviations, and Bivariate Correlations among Variables (N = 163)
Note: *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Test of the Mediation Model

As shown in Figure 2, mindfulness had a significantly positive effect on grit, grit had a significantly positive effect on hope, and both grit and hope had significant effects on flourishing. Mindfulness had a significant total effect on flourishing ($\beta = .36$, $p < .05$). When controlling for the effect of grit and hope, the direct effect of mindfulness on flourishing remained non-significant ($\beta = .06$, p = n.s.). The association between mindfulness and flourishing is fully mediated by higher levels of grit and hope.

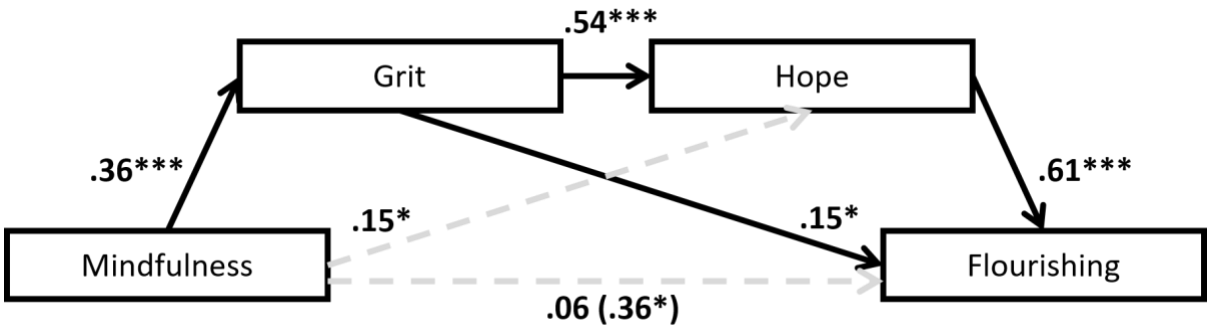


Figure 1: The Hypothesized Mediation Model
Note. The effects were reported in standardized values. Controlling for age and gender. Solid lines indicated significant paths. The total effect of mindfulness on flourishing was shown in parenthesis. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

Based on the results of bootstrapping (see Table 2), grit significantly mediated the association between mindfulness and flourishing ($\beta = .06$, 95% CI [-.104, .088]), while hope showed a non-significant mediating effect ($\beta = -.02$, 95% CI [.104, .257]). The results also supported the serial mediating effect ($\beta = .12$, 95% CI [.061, .177]). We then conducted comparisons among the indirect effects to test whether they exerted equal impacts on the association between mindfulness and flourishing. The results indicated that the indirect effect of serial manner was significantly greater than the indirect effect through grit or hope ($z = 1.29$, $p < .10$; a 90% confidence interval was used in small sample size).

	Standardized Beta β	Standard Error *SE*	Bootstrapping Confidence Intervals	
			Lower	Upper
Total Effect	.27	.10	.074	.456
Total Indirect Effect	.16	.06	.035	.273
1				
Mindfulness ➔ Grit ➔ Flourishing	.06	.03	.003	.124
Mindfulness ➔ Hope ➔ Flourishing	-.02	.05	-.104	.088
Mindfulness ➔ Grit ➔ Hope ➔ Flourishing	.12	.03	.061	.177

Table 2: Results of the Mediating Effects
(5,000 bias-corrected bootstraps 95% confidence intervals)
Note: Controlling for age and gender.

Discussion

Empirical studies have consistently shown significant associations between mindfulness and flourishing; however, little is known about the mechanism. Taking a convenience Chinese student sample, the current study extended the literature by demonstrating the role of grit and hope in mediating the mindfulness-flourishing link both, respectively, and through a sequential mediating pathway.

Unexpectedly, we found that mindfulness was non-significantly associated with flourishing (not support of H_1). Although previous studies have suggested that mindfulness acts as an important predictor of flourishing (i.e., Rahe et al., 2022), we found that the association between mindfulness and flourishing is not always straightforward and can even be linked indirectly through grit and hope.

In support of H_2, we found that grit significantly mediated the mindfulness-flourishing link. This aligned with previous findings that grit was a significant mediator between dispositional factors (i.e., gratitude) and subjective well-being (Oriol et al., 2020).

Unexpectedly, we found a non-significant specific indirect effect of mindfulness on flourishing only through hope (not support of H_3). This finding implied that increased mindfulness does not necessarily create better hope, unless it is achieved through increased grit.

In support of H_4, we found evidence in favor of hypothesized indirect effect: mindfulness → grit → hope → flourishing. This indirect effect of serial manner (grit→hope) was significantly greater than the indirect effect through grit or hope. However, more studies are warranted to replicate this finding and to further investigate how and why grit and hope influence the mindfulness-flourishing link in a serial manner.

Limitations and Future Work

This study has three limitations. First, this pilot study used a cross-sectional design with a small sample size, and the findings failed to suggest causality among the tested variables. Further experimental research is recommended to examine possible causal relationships. Second, the data were self-reported, which may include social desirability bias. Future studies may need to include multiple data sources (i.e., parental reports) in order to control the above-mentioned bias. Third, the current findings were drawn from a Chinese university student sample, which cannot be generalized to other non-Chinese populations or religions. More cross-cultural research on this topic in large non-Chinese populations is recommended.

Conclusion

This study identified the association between mindfulness and flourishing was fully mediated by grit and hope in a serial manner. That is, mindfulness influenced flourishing through first grit, and then hope. Importantly, a growing body of evidence suggests that both grit and hope are learnable and malleable and they can be developed through practice (Alan et al., 2019). In order to maximize the effect of mindfulness on students' flourishing, researchers and educators can integrate grit- and hope-related teaching plans into mindfulness intervention. For example, educators can implement the Mindfulness-Based Flourishing Program (MBFP) in schools by teaching students to set and achieve their long-term goals, and strengthening positive goal-directed thoughts and personal capacities for attaining long-term goals. Further experimental and longitudinal research on this trend is also recommended.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Science and Technology Development Fund [Grant number: 0023/APD/2021]. I hereby express my gratitude.

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Picture Perfect: Competencies of Educational Leaders From Fifteen Selected Colleges and Universities in the Philippines: Towards a Proposed Leadership Model

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This descriptive study used frequency distribution to rank the data from highest to lowest to determine the level of importance of the competency skills seen on the Leadership Inventory Tool. This Leadership Inventory Tool is a 360-degree assessment tool by Rom Parlakian and Barry Nilbert Seibel (2001). Based on The Practices of Exemplary Leadership Model, the 360-degree assessment illuminates leaders' effectiveness and the level of dedication, engagement, and fulfillment based on its 3 clusters. Data collected from the Leadership Inventory Tool (LIT) was verified through interviews with the selected respondents. It was observed that the competencies with a considerable level of importance are evident in the skills of Having a Great Sense of Urgency and Creating and Leading a Culture of Innovation. Likewise, school leaders shape the culture of their institution to drive innovation. The respondents shared that culture, values, norms, unconscious messages, and subtle behaviors of school leaders and employees often limit performance. The respondents put much importance on the competency skill, Meeting the Staff Regularly. It brings the staff or faculty together. It reminds employees that there is more going on than their issues and deadlines and may see possibilities for mutual support and collaboration. Delegating Tasks becomes the second skill needed in the organization. It saves time for work, develops staff, grooms a successor, and motivates. Celebrating as a Team was emphasized for it builds momentum and boosts the morale of the staff. Thus, a diamond leadership model will be proposed based on the result of the study.

Keywords: Competency Skills, Leading the Organization, Leading the Self, Leading Others

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Introduction

Men make history and not the other way around. In periods where there is no leadership, society stands still. Progress occurs when courageous, skillful leaders seize the opportunity to change things for the better (Truman, 2016).

A leader motivates a group of people toward the achievement of their goal. People say "leadership is a position of office or authority and the ability" in the sense that leaders know how to lead. Everybody may know or hear of people who are in a position of leadership but do not provide leadership at all. A position of office is not an assurance of leadership, but it helps leaders somehow in the sense that a management post usually requires a listening ear from its people and that is a right offset point for one who aspires to become a leader.

A leader by this meaning goes first and leads by example so that others are motivated to follow him. That is a fundamental necessity. To be a leader, somebody must have a deep-rooted dedication to the goal that he will aim to achieve even if nobody follows him. Excellent leaders are those who have probity beyond compare. Vulnerability and modesty are symbols of the right leader and create positive, attractive energy. Customers, employees, and the media all want to help a worthy person succeed. There used to be a boundary between one's public self and private self, but social media has fainted that line. Tomorrow's leaders are honest about who they are online, consolidating their personal and professional lives together (YukI, 2006).

The best leaders are sensitive to their clients, workers, investors, and prospects. Every stakeholder today is a possible viral spark plug, for better or for worse, and the successful leader understands this and insists upon a culture of responsiveness. Whether the communication is email, voice mail, a note, or a tweet, responding shows you care and give customers and colleagues a say, allowing them to make a positive impact on the organization. It is important to understand that just because someone is in a leadership position, doesn't necessarily mean they should be. Place another way; not all leaders are created equal. The problem many organizations are suffering from is a recognition problem – they can't seem to recognize good leaders from bad ones Zacarro (2010).

The bottom line is leaders need, to be fair, have an established track record of success, be great communicators, place importance on serving those they lead, be fluid in approach, and have laser focus, and a bias toward action. If these traits do not possess by the current leaders or the future leaders, then the organization will be in for a rocky road ahead. Because of these premises, the researcher would like to seek the real image of a leader in an educational setting. The researcher needs to search for leaders who can think, act, and model like genuine leaders. Alongside these gifts, the researcher searches for strategic thinkers, go organizers, and action planners who are very necessary for the delivery of a leader's vision, strategy, and management.

This study focused on the assessment of leadership competency skills of the deans, department heads, and coordinators of the selected Universities and Colleges in Negros Occidental leading to the true image of an educational leader and the development of the proposed leadership development plan.

Competency Skills

Competency-based-assessment is a process where an assessor works with a novice to collect evidence of competence, using the benchmarks provided by the unit standards that comprise the national qualifications (Biggs, J 1996).

It is not about passing or failing a candidate and evidence collection. It is more than just setting a test. It is the sum of all these assessments that deem a trainee to be competent (or not). The unit of progression in a competency-based training system is mastery of knowledge and skills and its focus. The process should be considered to be part of the learning process identifying gaps as learning opportunities to develop skills, not failures. It is a collaborative process to be negotiated with the trainee and not a one-off event that is imposed.

The researcher used this theory to identify the competencies of a leader and through these competencies; the researcher will gather the strong and weak competencies that would give a true picture of an educational leader and to design the best leadership enhancement program.

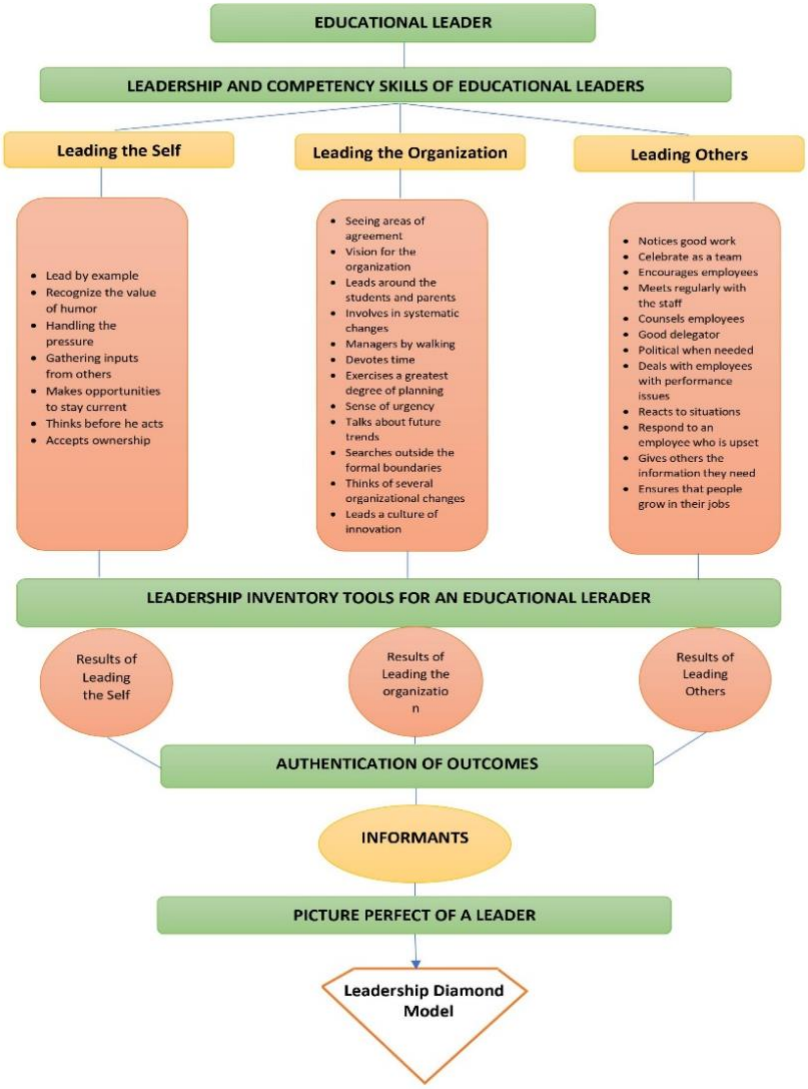


Figure 1: Research Paradigm

The figure showed that in order to determine the true image of educational leaders, one must posses competencies and skills of a true leader in terms of leading the self, leading the organization, and leading others. Leaders can only be considered real leaders once these skills have been authenticated through the use Leadership inventory Tools and through the other leaders who describe the true image of an educational leaders.

Leading the Self

Leading by Example	*4.68*	*Extremely Important*	2
Valuing Humor in Workplace	*4.63*	*Extremely Important*	3
Seeking for Answers	*4.46*	*Important*	8
Handling Pressures on the Position	*4.49*	*Important*	5
Gathering Input from others & Decision making	*4.56*	*Extremely Important*	4
Staying Current on Issues	*4.47*	*Important*	7
Thinking before he acts	*4.70*	*Extremely Important*	1
Soliciting Feedback	*4.09*	*Important*	10
Accepting Ownership from Team Decisions	*4.28*	*Important*	9

Table 1: Thinking before Acting

The table showed that Thinking before Acting has dominated. It only illustrates that the respondents gave much importance to this competence, think before you act since leaders do not want to go through life regretting every decision they make. When leaders make spontaneous decisions, they often look back at the consequences and regret the decisions. Secondly, Leading by Example has a noticeable response among other competency skills for the respondents emphasized the need to communicate and act by modeling that they have the smarts to handle the job.

Leading the Organization

Bowling, A., (2011) further said “being able to motivate and direct others, a true leader should take responsibility for the direction & actions of a team through setting objectives, organizing and motivating others. Taking the initiative to decide what is best for the team and having a deep understanding of their needs. He has to consider and reconsider options through critical thinking before implementing and showing off the best possible traits that may affect the team members.

Lastly, Humor in the Workplace is placed third on the table for humor can be an ideal way to relieve stress, improve morale, and build stronger relationships and team camaraderie between co-workers. It also proves a leader’s ability to maintain professionalism in schools no matter what the situation.

Seeing Areas of Agreement	*4.57*	*Extremely Important*	10
Envisioning for the Organization	*4.68*	*Extremely Important*	4.5
Focusing on Work	*4.67*	*Extremely Important*	6
Involving in Strategic Planning	*4.68*	*Extremely Important*	4.5
Managing by Walking Around	*4.60*	*Extremely Important*	7
Maintaining the Organization	*4.59*	*Extremely Important*	8
Exercising a great Degree in Planning	*4.74*	*Extremely Important*	3
Having Great Sense of Urgency	*4.75*	*Extremely Important*	1.5
Talking about Future Trends	*4.52*	*Extremely Important*	12
Searching Outside the Formal Boundaries	*4.58*	*Extremely Important*	9
Thinking on Several Changes	*4.53*	*Extremely Important*	11
Creating and Leading a Culture of Innovation	*4.75*	*Extremely Important*	1.5

Table 2: Creating and Leading a Culture of Innovation

The table showed that competencies with prodigious levels of importance were evident on the skills in Having a Great Sense of Urgency and Creating and Leading a Culture of Innovation. It only proved that urgency can help breed success. Likewise, school leaders shaped the culture of their company to drive innovation. The respondents shared that it is the culture the values, the norms, the unconscious messages, and the subtle behaviors of school leaders and employees that often limit performance.

Leading Others

Burns, N., & Grove, S. K (2007) supported these findings by stating that motivation and the abilities of leaders to lead with urgency will affect the decisions in a given situation. They also found that these kinds of leaders simply want something to be done which made the followers act with an immediate response; however, people will experience negative effects to this in terms of time constraints.

Finally, the best leadership concept was somewhat leading in creating situations and methods of leader identification were so diverse as to overwhelm the followers in leading them to create innovations that would best describe the organization's directions. This leadership style creates an impact in developing creativity on the part of the followers by simply embracing innovations brought by leaders. Harry S. Truman, (2016) supported these findings by stating that motivation and the abilities of leaders to lead with urgency will affect the decisions in a given situation. They also found that these kinds of leaders simply want something to.

In addition, competencies that were given ample importance are Envisioning for the Organization and Involving Strategic Planning for foreseeing the future showing a desire to do something that would challenge a school leader to attain a sense of excellence for his organization. Likewise, the respondents stressed that effective strategic planning articulates where an organization is going and the actions need to make progress (Torki, Parisa et. al. 2014).

Some relationships between an individual’s personality and his leadership status in groups appeared to be well established. The positive relationships of intelligence, adjustment, and extroversion to leadership were highly significant. In addition, visioning and planning were dominant in all leaders which contributed a lot to the success of the organization. Good

Leaders foresee the future of the organization so they prepare ahead of time. Masculinity and interpersonal sensitivity follow and are found to be positively related to the ultimate function's leaders (Anatasi, 2010).

Giving Staff Positive Feedback	*4.70*	*Extremely Important*	5
Developing Approaches for his Staff	*4.75*	*Extremely Important*	4
Celebrating as a Team	*4.77*	*Extremely Important*	3
Creating a Safe Opinionated Environment	*4.67*	*Extremely Important*	6
Encouraging Staff to express their Need	*4.60*	*Extremely Important*	9
Meeting Staff Regularly	*4.81*	*Extremely Important*	1
Counseling Employees	*4.53*	*Extremely Important*	10
Delegating Tasks	*4.79*	*Extremely Important*	2
Political only when needed	*3.86*	*Important*	14
Dealing on Performance	*4.63*	*Extremely Important*	7.5
Responding to Grievances	*4.00*	*Important*	13
Giving needed information about the job	*4.28*	*Important*	12
Ensuring Professional Growth	*4.63*	*Extremely Important*	7.5

Table 3: Importance to the Competency Skill

The table showed that the respondents gave much importance to the competency skill, Meeting the Staff Regularly, for it brings the staff or faculty together. It can serve to remind employees that there is more going on than their issues and deadlines and may see opportunities for mutual support and collaboration. Delegating Tasks becomes the second skill needed in the organization for it saves time for work, develops staff, grooms a successor, and motivates. Thirdly, celebrating as a Team was emphasized by the respondents for it builds momentum and boosts the morale of the staff.

According to https://mce.eu/about-mce/our-philosophy/leading-others/(2022), In today's world, in addition to being a great manager and leader, you need to be able to lead other people. In addition to possessing the necessary abilities, this necessitates knowing how to manage, engage, and inspire others. Knowing how to be a good leader is necessary. You must also be able to articulate a vision, devise a strategy, and motivate others to work toward the same business and organizational goals.

Conclusion

The question of the true image of a leader was one of the oldest questions in psychology, yet it remained a source of disagreement and controversy in the leadership domain. A consensus remains elusive regarding the magnitude of leader trait effects on leadership, and, if a large magnitude is conceded, what specific and critical attributes contribute to such effects.

In this study, the researchers provided a new model of leadership that gave organizations and individuals access to new power. The model revealed a new leadership context that was shaped by leaders' sense of purpose through the Leadership Inventory Tool (LIT), which can be described in three ways: leading oneself - the emotional capacity of leaders (values, courage, self-awareness, authenticity); leading the organization - their intellectual and cognitive development in maneuvering the organization and leading others - the extent and depth of their social relationships and networks. In this model, the perfect leader consists of

eleven competency skills which are essential for him to be considered as having a perfect picture of a true leader. These are: Valuing Humor, leading by example, Envisioning, Strategic Plan, Giving Feedback, thinking before Acting, Sense of Urgency, Culture of Innovation, Positive Feedback, celebrating as a Team, delegating tasks, and Meeting Staff regularly.

It is recommended that educational leaders may develop and strengthen the competencies in having great sense of urgency and creating and leading a culture of innovation further for the organization to realize its objectives. Educational leaders may give high regards to thinking before he acts, leading by example, valuing humor in work place, and gathering inputs from others and decision making for him to able to balance himself being a leader and a follower as well as for him to make a sound decision in leading the organization. They may give focus and develop the competencies such as Soliciting Feedback, Accepting Ownership from team Decisions, and Seeking for Answers in leading the self by making himself aware of the most significant characteristics of a true leader through attending leadership seminars, trainings and symposia.

It is likewise best for educational leaders to further strengthen the competencies in Meeting Staff Regularly, delegating task, celebrating as a Team, and developing approaches for his staff in leading others for him to guide others in realizing the goals of the organization. With these competency skills, the researchers would like to propose a leadership program that will strengthen the skills of educational leaders as one of the objectives of this study.

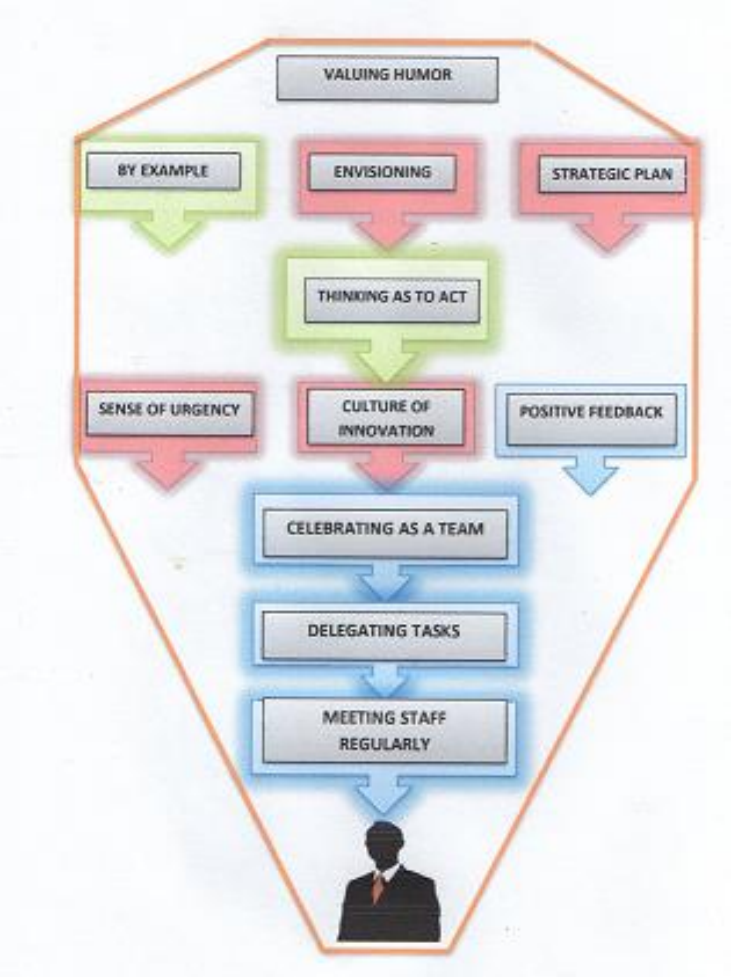


Figure 2: Picture Perfect Leadership Diamond Model

Varinthorn Boonying, (2012) mentioned that leaders are just like diamond. Diamond requires three characteristics for its disposition: carbon, heat, and pressure. Successful leaders require the interaction of three properties: character, knowledge, and application. Like carbon to the diamond, quality is the primary foundation of a leader. But as carbon alone does not produce a diamond, neither can character alone create a leader. The diamond requires heat. Man requires education, knowledge, and preparation. The third property, force acting in conjunction with carbon and heat forms the diamond. Similarly, one's character attended by knowledge blooms through application to build a leader.

There's no one fixed view of what is the true image of an educational leader. The researcher has learned a great deal about leadership. Some common determinants stand out: the approach (task versus people) you select; your followers' ability, capability, and willingness; the situational claims; and your skills, abilities, and values. Still, no one has discovered a secret formula for creating a true image of a leader. To be an effective leader, you will need to work hard on all aspects of leadership not just one. You should commit to modeling high values, creating trust, focusing on results, and stimulating and influencing others as learns how to be a true leader.

This recommended Leader Diamond Model may be used in the development of a Leadership Development Plan. It contains Eleven (11) most important leadership skills which were given importance by the respondents. These skills may help enhance the leadership skills of deans, department heads, and coordinators allowing them to perform their duties and responsibilities as recommended by the informants.

Acknowledgement

After an intensive period of searching and researching, the final chapter of this paper has come to reality. It has been years of great learning for me as I venture into this paper. I would like to reflect on people who have supported and helped me so much throughout this period. Special thanks to my family for being there all the time and for their undying financial support to make this paper possible.

To the panel of evaluators for guiding me in the improvement and enrichment of this study.

To the Deans, program chairs and program coordinators from the selected Colleges and Universities in Negros Occidental for your tremendous help and cooperation. Your precious and valuable time was a real help for the accomplishment of this study.

Finally, I would like to convey my special thanks to our creator for giving me the strength, wisdom, and for making everything possible.

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A Conceptual Framework to Elicit Student Engagement via Development of Extended Reality (XR) Applications Using Project-Based Experiential Learning

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Student Engagement is recognized as a covariate of learner outcomes within both online and face to face learning environments. Withal, due to extensive implementation of passive teaching approaches, there is finite guidance about utilization of proactive student-centered teaching strategies to ameliorate engagement among learners like employing Project Based Experiential Learning (PBEL). This paper describes ongoing research to improve multifaceted Student Engagement (Cognitive, Behavior & Emotional Engagement) of learners enrolled in Creative Multimedia Bachelor's degree course, working on their final year projects to develop Extended Reality (XR) applications. To explore how project based experiential learning strategy can be used effectively to engage learners and acknowledging the immanent role emerging XR technologies can play in higher education with a potential to engage learners, this conceptual paper provides a framework for eliciting student engagement via PBEL including XR Technology as an influential factor. As a contribution to teaching practices the framework illustrates student focused approach of experiential learning via project-based learning which can be effectively integrated as a pedagogy in higher education classrooms to increase student engagement, empower learners with 21st Century Skill Set and influence both short and long term academic and social outcomes.

Keywords: Project Based Learning, Experiential Learning, XR Technology, Conceptual Framework

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Introduction

Emerging Cross Reality Technology, also known as Extended Reality (XR) immersive Technology is being integrated across different academic fields. XR is a hypernym used for Mixed Reality (MR) technology, Virtual Reality (VR) technology and Augmented Reality (AR) technology (Alnagrat et al., 2022). As the growth, demand and development of the XR is escalating so is the demand for competent immersive technologies designers increasing (Chemerys, Vynogradova, Briantseva & Sharov 2021). Universities across different continents are incorporating interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary courses to empower students with the vital skills to develop and design immersive experiences to attain job opportunities in this growing industry (Chemerys et al., 2021).

To train professional designers the pedagogical component plays an instrumental part as the prime requirement for immersive technologies designers is to garner extensive 21st Century Skill Set. Due to passive teaching approaches and debilitating arduous process of designing and development of immersive technology applications, learners tend to have a low level of engagement (Chemerys et al., 2021). Student Engagement is an indispensable component in academic success for undergraduate students to fulfill the required learning goals and achieve multifarious 21st Century Skill set to be successful in their professional life (Lei, Cui & Zhou, 2018). As a pedagogical solution to the problem of student engagement, this study's conceptual framework proposes the solution of integrating Project Based Experiential learning (PBEL) an amalgam of Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle (Kolb & Kolb, 2018) and its method of Project Based Learning. Experiential Learning's main goal is to enrich the learning experience and with incorporating the elements of project-based learning (Larmer, Mergendoller & Boss, 2015) students are able to attain the required 21st Century Skill Set mandatory for immersive technology designers to acquire for professional careers in the field of immersive technology.

This paper presents a conceptual framework on how XR technology interacts with constructivist pedagogy of Project Based Experiential Learning (PBEL) and effects student engagement in a higher education context of learners who are involved in exclusive designing of XR experiences as part of their final year project.

Literature Review

Project Based Experiential Learning

Experiential learning theory stems from constructivist learning theory which instigates that the learners develop their own knowledge and skills through active learning processes (Kolb & Kolb, 2018). It commemorates the notion that learning is based upon experience and that the grasping and transformation of that experience lead to knowledge construction and assimilation of new information (Kolb & Kolb, 2018). Related studies show that Experiential Learning provides more opportunities in and out of class participation as well as an increase in interaction among learners which impacts their emotional, cognitive and behavioral engagement (Yusof et al., 2020). To rejuvenate curriculum and enable learners to face challenges, utilization and adoption of Experiential Education by Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) is an ongoing process (Sharma & Naidu, 2020).

Project based learning is one of the many approaches of experiential learning. A typical project management lifecycle is also divided into four main stages, much like an experiential

learning cycle. The four phase Project Management lifecycle is applicable and adaptable in project-based learning assignments, projects and environments (Pérez et al., 2020; Spikol et al., 2018). The main elements of the Project Based Learning method namely the challenging problem/question, sustained inquiry, authenticity, student voice and choice, reflection, critique and revision and public product have usually shown to impact SE in a positive way (Larmer, Mergendoller & Boss, 2015). When aligned together, Experiential Learning and Project-Based Learning combine to form Project Based Experiential Learning. Project Based Learning enables learners to become problem solvers, creative thinkers, risk takers and empathetic by cognitively and emotionally engaging them in the learning process (Boss & Krauss, 2022). According to Li, Öchsner & Hall (2019), Project based learning particularly provides educational benefits to improve learning outcomes by allowing design students to effectively design solutions related to real world problems, provides them a meaningful learning experience, motivates them and enables them to attain learner agency as well interpersonal and intrapersonal skill set.

In the context of developing XR immersive technology projects, students go through the Experiential Learning process. In the initial phase of the project students' learning cycle begins with a concrete experience in the form of a theme or a question, which allows them to reflect upon their past experiences and connect their past knowledge with the current problem to solve. During the planning phase of the project which reflects the similar process of the Kolb's learning cycle's phases of reflective observation and abstract conceptualization students get cognitively engaged in curating solutions (Li, Öchsner, & Hall, 2019). Amid the phases of abstract conceptualization and active experimentation, students sort out and start bringing their ideas to life by developing prototypes to test in the active experimentation phase (Li, Öchsner, & Hall, 2019). This is reflected in project-based learning as part of the execution phase during which students develop and manage their project. This elicits their behavioral engagement as well as cognitive and affective engagement as they interact with each other and tools to create content (Li, Öchsner, & Hall, 2019). During the final stage of active experimentation, students test out their developed solutions and through PBL elements of feedback and critique and revision they make final changes before publicly presenting and showcasing their innovation or solution. This marks the closing phase of project development (Li, Öchsner, & Hall, 2019).

XR Technology

XR Technology is revolutionizing higher education by providing learners with interactive learning experiences through virtual interactive simulations and engaging them to be active knowledge seekers. XR Technology implementation in higher education has shown potential transformation in the educational sector (Alam, 2021) particularly in the domains of STEM education (Wang, Ryoo & Winkelmann, 2020), health related faculties, engineering (Ziker, Truman & Dodds, 2021), Bioscience (Harris & Franceschini, 2022) and Design Education (Lee & Hu-Au, 2021). Many universities are leveraging XR Technology availability and getting involved in research allowing design students who are involved in the designing process to create and develop XR Technology experiences (Lee & Hu-Au, 2021). Yet, there is a debate around the effectiveness of XR educational applications as designing immersive technologies for educational context is still an emerging field (Idrees, Morton & Dabrowski, 2022). While XR technology focuses on providing an individual experience, it is now evolving to provide a more social collaborative experience to allow interaction of multiple users in a virtual environment (Marques, Silva, Dias & Santos, 2022).

Human centered design philosophy is the fundamental requirement for designing with XR since it focuses on developing experiences which fulfill human needs, enhance capabilities and allows interactivity and exploration within the virtual environment (Wang et al., 2022). Students who are involved in developing XR experiences readily test their applications during the execution phase of the project which allows them to experience the user experience (UX) factors of XR such as spatial presence and embodiment to get a better sense of what requires to be changed or altered during the development of XR experiences (Shin, 2022). The UX factors of XR engage learners affectively, cognitively and physically as they enable the designers to experience, feel, think and interact with the 3D or virtual environment that they have created providing them comprehensive experience (Crompton, Bernacki & Greene, 2020).

According to Saredakis et al., (2020), Virtual Reality via head mounted display headsets (HMDs) enables users to experience an immersive feeling in a virtual world through interaction with objects designed and displayed in the 3D virtual environments (Wiederhold, 2020). This makes VR Technology to be suitable for teaching and learning purposes as it allows learners to visualize abstract concepts and carry out experiments such as molecular biology or electromagnetics, practice high risk activities or access tasks or experiences which are logistically expensive (Wiederhold, 2020). Research also shows that VR improves design process and spatial perception and allows within the design process, the integration of human experience. Another study conducted by (Kharvari & Höhl, 2019) showed that with VR, architecture students were able to remember the spatial configuration of the building better than studying it through 2D images and drawings. Similarly, study by Özgen, Afacan & Sürer (2021), showed that integrating VR enhanced problem-solving activities among architecture students and enhances learners' engagement levels. AR meanwhile integrates digital information in real time with the user's environment. It enables users to experience over-laid generated information in a real-world environment (Sungkur et al., 2016). Whereas MR amalgamates elements of both VR and AR creating a blended connection between the real world and virtual digital objects (Plecher, Wandinger & Klinker, 2019). Both AR & MR have also shown a positive impact on enhancing student engagement of the learners (Plecher et al., 2019).

Student Engagement

The three-dimensional multifarious model of student engagement shows overlapping across domains of behavioral, cognitive and emotional engagement (Schindler et al., 2017). Each of these three engagements has its own indicators. Positive inclination in those indicators ensues a higher level of engagement among learners. The three main indicators of cognitive engagement include persistence, motivation and deep processing of information (Schindler et al., 2017). Whereas the two main indicators of emotional engagement include a sense of belonging and attitudes, interests and values. While behavioral engagement indicators include interaction and participation in classroom activities and discussions. Cognitive engagement impacts behavioral and emotional engagement, while behavioral and emotional engagement impact each other and cognitive engagement as well (Schindler et al., 2017).

A well-motivated learner feels a sense of belonging, interacts and participates more in the classroom which shows that cognitive engagement impacts both emotional and behavioral engagement (Schindler et al., 2017). Similarly, students who are emotionally engaged in the learning process tend to show higher levels of motivation, persistence and opts for deep processing of information as well as interact and participate more in and out of the classroom

(Gillen-O'Neel, 2021). This shows that emotional engagement has an impact on both cognitive and behavioral engagement. Likewise, the high level of behavioral engagement through active participation in classroom activities and interaction allows students to achieve higher levels of motivation and allows them to share their values, attitudes, and ideas by enabling them to feel a sense of belonging. According to Lerdpornkulrat et al., (2018), motivation and persistence help learners to move forward in the learning process and enables them to face and overcome challenges and obstacles they might come across during learning. Cognitively engaged learners opt for deep learning practices instead of surface learning techniques which help them to acquire new knowledge, explore and broaden their perspectives.

Student engagement is attained when student centered pedagogy interacts with technology, which in this case is XR Technology. Student Engagement is considered a very necessary component in academic achievement as well as enabling immersive technology designer students to develop skills for future professional projects.

Conceptual Framework

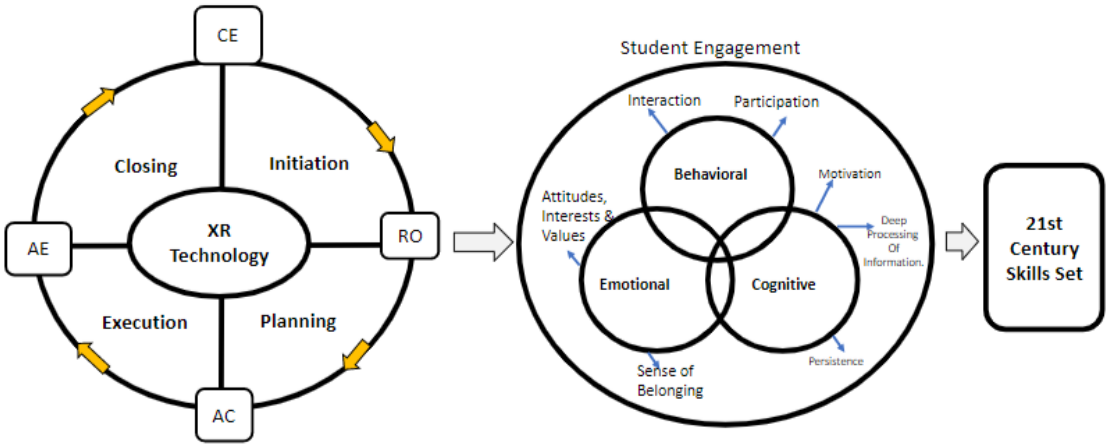


Figure 1: A conceptual Framework to Elicit Student Engagement via Development of Extended Reality XR Applications Using Project-Based Experiential Learning.

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) presented in this paper shows the consolidation of the Experiential Learning Cycle and Project Management Life Cycle with integration of XR technology within its core to elicit student engagement. The four stages of the Kolbs Experiential Learning cycle show the experience learners go through each of the four stages of the project development cycle to develop XR experiences for end users to solve a real-world problem. Student engagement is divided into three domains of emotional, cognitive and behavioral engagement with specific indicators for each engagement (Schindler et al., 2017).

During the initial phase of the project, learners encounter the main problem and begin connecting their prior knowledge to understand and reflect upon the real-world problem. This cognitively engages them to connect their prior knowledge and think about the new problem. During this phase objectives and goals are set for the project (Beneroso & Robinson, 2022). Next, during the planning phase learners establish sustained inquiry practices to find viable solutions to the given problem. They search, gather and classify information, develop a plan,

distribute tasks among themselves, engage in open discussion and create initial design blueprints and 3D assets (Beneroso & Robinson, 2022). This phase impacts all three domains of students' engagement. During the implementation phase, learners start developing and testing XR prototypes and make changes through feedback and revision. Throughout the project lifecycle learners actively engage in open discussion with their peers, facilitators, and subject matter experts and stakeholders to work on developing their prototypes (Cha & Maytorena-Sanchez, 2019). Positive feedback and persistence to complete the task motivates learners hence this phase also has a strong potential to increase student engagement and keep learners engaged in the learning and designing process. During the execution phase, final testing and evaluation of the product is completed before presenting the product to the public (Cha & Maytorena-Sanchez, 2019). Learners feel a sense of accomplishment and pride in completing their projects.

Each of the phases of Project Based Experiential Learning Cycle enable learners to develop the required 21st Century Skills Set for the professional immersive technology designer jobs in the future. These skills include technical skills such as 3D Modelling, Animation and Programming Skills. They also develop interpersonal and intrapersonal skills through feedback and revision, communication skills, leadership skills, teamwork skills, language skills, project management and time management skills and research skills (Hennessey & Mueller, 2020).

Conclusion

The conceptual framework presented in this paper is part of an ongoing PhD research which is meant to extrapolate positive impact on student engagement of design students developing XR Technology applications via Project Based Experiential Learning approach. There is a critical need of this research as XR Technology is an emerging technology and new simulations and applications are required for its growth, hence it is important that students who are being trained in their universities attain the required skill sets necessary for professional immersive technology designers to develop innovate and creative experiences for different fields.

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Acceptance Study of Power Plant Main Control Simulator as an Operator Learning Media in Indonesia

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The power plant control room simulator is a learning device that resembles the control system in a real power plant. There are not many power plant simulator training providers in Indonesia due to high investment, where complexity and efficacy are exchanged for cost. This research aims to determine the acceptance of the power plant main control simulator as an operator learning media in Indonesia using the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). This research is explanatory research with perceived ease of use variable, perceptions of usefulness, attitude toward using, and actual usage. The research was performed by conducting a survey to 113 respondents (operators) from 17 power plants in Indonesia who have been trained using power plant main control simulators. The obtained data from the questionnaires are analyzed through the smartPLS. The results of this quantitative study indicate that the perceived usefulness variable has positive and strong effect on the attitude toward simulator usage, besides that it also has a moderate effect on actual usage variable. While the perceived ease of use has a positive and moderate influence on the attitude toward simulator usage. Thus, the intended use of the power plant main control simulator is influenced by the usefulness of the simulator itself.

Keywords: Simulator, Operator, Power Plant, Learning Media, Technology Acceptance Model

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Introduction

Companies must prepare their human resources through skills development to remain competitive (Namada, 2018). Possible new knowledge the only remaining and one of the most critical sources of competitive advantage available to a firm organization. Companies improve their employee's skills through training, and many companies formulate strategies and set up training development center to manage employee's knowledge. However, training is a very expensive investment. As a result, research and development of training to optimize its effectiveness and efficiency becomes very important (Sheeba & Christopher, 2020). Methods practices in companies in terms of developing employees are vary, but PJB Services owns Training Development Centre (TDC), which will have full dedication in developing employees. To each of training participants, TDC will adjust in according to business needs, one of many ways is to introduce training through simulation. Simulations are well suited for training that would be very dangerous or expensive to do in a real-life environment. This method provides training opportunities that are safe, structured, interesting, and sufficient (Raynolds, 2023). The power plant control room simulator is a learning device that resembles the control system in a real power plant. There are not many power plant simulator training providers in Indonesia due to high investment, where complexity and efficacy are exchanged for cost. The effect of simulation to increase training participants will be interesting to explore. The presence of simulator is expected to bring benefits to employee training which is facilitated by Training Development Centre.

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) is a model of acceptance of information technology used by users of system or technology (Jogiyanto, 2007). This model is an approach used to see the ease of a technology that is used by users. The purpose of developing a Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) is to explain the factors that determine public acceptance of a technology in general and to explain why a particular system of technology can affect public acceptance (Davis, 1993). TAM offers a powerful and simple explanation for the acceptance of technology and the behavior of its users (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). Technology that is easy to use and useful for users will create a feeling of comfort. Users want to use the technology rather than use other technologies. User-friendliness and benefits are the main concepts as measured by the TAM model (Susanto et al., 2021). TAM was developed by Davis (1989) by using variables perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, attitude toward using, behavioral intention, and actual usage. Previous research conducted by Gunawan (2014) and Hendra & Iskandar (2016) resulted that perceived usefulness does not have a direct positive effect on behavioral intention. So, this study only used variables perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, attitude toward using, and actual usage. The behavioral intention variable was not used.

This study aims to determine the acceptability of the power plant main control simulator as an operator learning media in Indonesia using the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). The results of this study can be used by management to evaluate the use of the power plant main control simulator. Subsequent changes and developments can, of course, be evaluated from the results of this study.

Materials and Methods

The study was performed by conducting a survey among 17 power plants in Indonesia. Questionnaires were submitted to 113 respondents (operators) who have been trained using power plant main control simulators. The variables for the study were measured by

quantifying the responses of the respondents to the survey questions using Likert scale. The questionnaire data were analyzed using the smartPLS application and the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) method. SEM is a powerful statistical technique that combines a measurement model or confirmatory factor analysis with a structural model into a simultaneous statistical test (Hoe, 2008).

The outer model testing was used to see the validity and reliability of the research data. Validity is an indicator to measure what indicators should be measured. Reliability is used to measure whether a dataset will show the same results from retesting the same object (Abdillah & Jogiyanto, 2009). Inner model testing was used to predict causal relationships between latent variables or variables that cannot be measured directly. To test the relationship between variables, it is done by testing the value of R^2 and the predictive value of relevance (Q^2) (Chin, 1998).

After getting valid and reliable data from the outer model test and knowing the quality of the relationship between variables from the inner model test, the next step is to determine the hypothesis. Thus, the following Maximo acceptance hypothesis conceptual model is proposed or according to Figure 1.

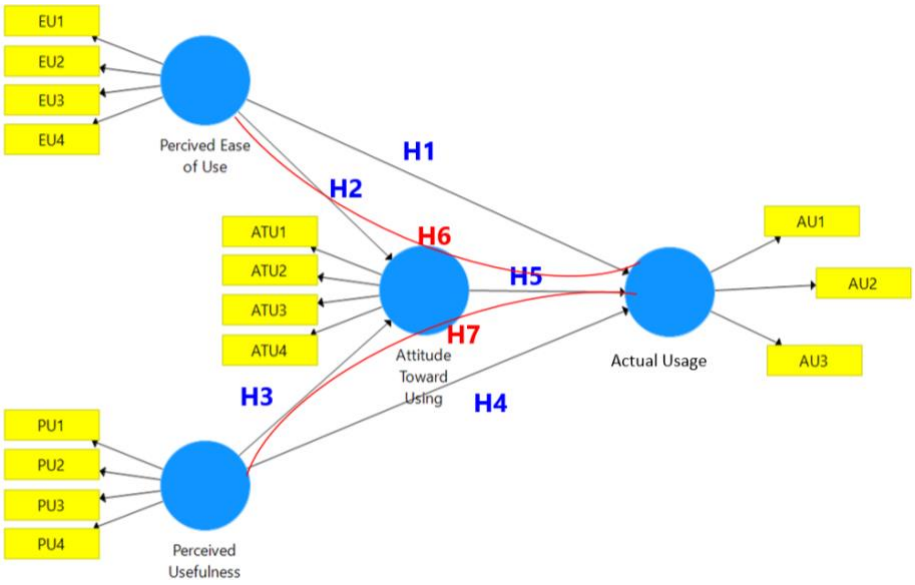


Figure 1: The Proposed of Structural Model

Simulator acceptance hypothesis are:

Hypothesis 1: Perceived Ease of Used (EU) has a significant positive effect on Actual Usage (AU)
Hypothesis 2: Perceived Ease of Used (EU) has a significant positive effect on Attitude Toward Using (AT)
Hypothesis 3: Perceived Usefulness (PU) has a significant positive effect on Attitude Toward Using (AT)
Hypothesis 4: Perceived Usefulness (PU) has a significant positive effect on Actual Usage (AU)
Hypothesis 5: Attitude Toward Using (AT) has a significant positive effect on Actual Usage (AU)
Hypothesis 6: Attitude Toward Using (AT) will mediate Ease of Used (EU) on Actual Usage (AU)

Hypothesis 7: Attitude Toward Using (AT) will mediate Perceived Usefulness (PU) on Actual Usage (AU)

Results and Discussion

1. Outer Model Testing

The first step that must be done in testing the outer model is the factor loading test. Minimum factor loading value that each indicator must have is ≥ 0.7. The expected Composite Reliability value and Cronbach's Alpha is > 0.7 and value 0.6 is still accepted (Hair et al., 2014). Average Variances Extracted (AVE) is a more conservative assessment of reliability. For adequate reliability, a given construct must reach at least a value of 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results of the factor loading test from this study data are as Figure 2.

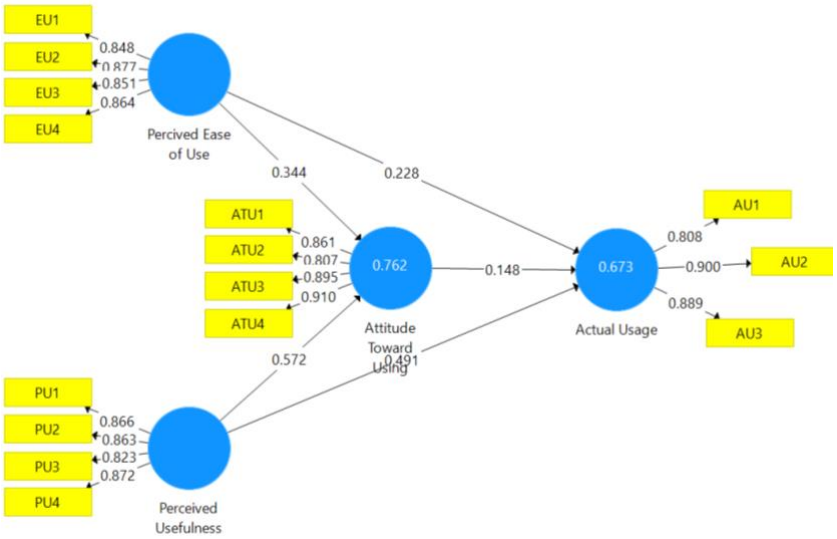


Figure 2. Convergent Validity Test Result

The results of the factor loading analysis on Figure 2 or Table 1 that all values (EU1, EU2, EU3, EU4, AT1, AT2, AT3, AT4, PU1, PU2, PU3, PU4, AU1, AU2, AU3) are greater than 0.7, then the indicator is valid to measure the construct.

Outer loading test results can be seen in the following table.

Table 1. Outer Loading Test Result

Variable	Indicator	Factor Loading	Composite Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Average Variances Extracted
Perceived Ease of Use (EU)	EU1	0.848	0.919	0.883	0.740
	EU2	0.877			
	EU3	0.851			
	EU4	0.864			
Perceptions of Usefulness (PU)	PU1	0.866	0.917	0.879	0.733
	PU2	0.863			
	PU3	0.823			
	PU4	0.872			
Attitude Toward Using (AT)	AT1	0.861	0.925	0.892	0.756
	AT2	0.807			
	AT3	0.895			
	AT4	0.910			
Actual Usage (AU)	AU1	0.808	0.900	0.833	0.751
	AU2	0.900			
	AU3	0.889			

The table above shows that all Composite reliability values exceeds 0.7, Cronbach's alpha exceeds 0.7 and AVE values exceed 0.5, so the results of the outer model test show that all data are valid and reliable.

2. Inner Model Testing

The value of R^2 is the coefficient of determination on the endogenous construct. R^2 values are 0.67 (strong), 0.33 (moderate) and 0.19 (weak) (Chin, 1998). Predictive relevance is useful for validating models. The values obtained are 0.02 (small), 0.15 (medium) and 0.35 (large) (Ghozali, 2016). The test results of this study can be seen in the following table:

Table 2. R^2 and Q^2 Test Result

Variable	R^2	Q^2
Attitude Toward Using (AT)	0.758	0.554
Actual Usage (AU)	0.663	0.487

The results of the R^2 test in the table above show a value of 0.758 for Attitude Toward Using (AT) and 0.663 for Actual Usage (AU). These data indicate that the model for each exogenous variable in this study is strong for explaining the intended endogenous variable. The value of 0.758 for Attitude Toward Using (AT) variable also shows that 75.8 % of Attitude Toward Using (AT) have been explained by the independent variables of Perceived Ease of Use and Perceived Usefulness, and 24.2% is influenced by other factors not explained in the research. The results of R^2 for Actual Usage (AU) of 0.663 show that the factors that influence user intentions have been explained by the factors studied by 66%.

A good predictive relevance model can be seen from the Q^2 value exceeding 0. The results of the Q^2 calculation in this study were 0.554 for Attitude Toward Using (AT) and 0.487 for Actual Usage (AU), this indicates that the variables in this study have a very good predictive relevance.

3. Hypothesis Testing

Table 3. Results of the Path Coefficient and P-Value on the Direct Effect

Hypo	Direct Influences	Coefficient	P-Value	Information
H1	Ease of Use (EU) → Actual Usage (AU)	0.228	0.055	Positive Not Significant
H2	Ease of Use (EU) → Attitude Toward Using (AT)	0.344	0.001	Positive Significant
H3	Usefulness (PU) → Attitude Toward Using (AT)	0.572	0.000	Positive Significant
H4	Usefulness (PU) → Actual Usage (AU)	0.491	0.000	Positive Significant
H5	Attitude Toward Using (AT) → Actual Usage (AU)	0.148	0.335	Positive Not Significant

The direct effect can be known by the path coefficient value and P-value. The value of path coefficients is the value of the coefficient to see the significance and strength of the relationship to test the hypothesis. The value of path coefficients is between -1 to +1. If the value is close to +1, the relationship between the two constructs is getting stronger. A relationship that is closer to -1 indicates that the relationship is negative (Sarstedt et al, 2017). The variable is declared to have a significant effect if the P-value is less than 0.05 or the 95% confidence interval (based on the percentile method) does not include zero (Hair et al, 2019).

The effect of Perceived Ease of Use (EU) on Actual Usage (AU) and Attitude Toward Using (AT) on Actual Usage (AU), from Tabel 3 above, have a coefficient value close to +1 (H1 = 0.228 and H5 = 0.148) which indicates a positive relation. The P-value of both hypotheses is greater than 0.05 (H1 = 0.055 and H5 = 0.335) that shows not significant result. The results of H1 are not in line with research conducted by Bugembe (2010), Santoso (2010), and Sudaryati et al (2017) which found that perceived ease of use and actual usage have a positive and significant relationship. However, this result (H1) confirmed and extended the research conducted by (Amin et al, 2022) stated that the perceived ease of use had no direct effect on the actual usage. The results of the fifth hypothesis (H5) are not in line with research conducted by Amin et al (2022), Davis (1993), Gunawan (2014), and Hendra & Iskandar (2016), that attitude has a positive effect on the actual usage of a technology. However, this research (H1) confirmed and extended the research conducted by Davis (1989), Karahanna & Straub (1999), and Chairina (2021) stated that the perceived ease of use had no direct effect on the actual usage.

The results of the coefficients and P-values for H2, H3, and H4 according to Table 3 are positive and significant. They have a coefficient value close to +1 (H2 = 0.344, H3 = 0.572, and H4 = 0.491) which indicates a positive relation, and the P-value is smaller than 0.05 (H2 = 0.001, H3 = 0.000, and H4 = 0.000) that shows significant result. However, H1 confirmed that a person's intention to use a technology is formed from a person's perception of a technology that is easy (Nguyen, et al., 2019). If someone feels that the information system is easy to use then he will use it (Jogiyanto, 2007). The perception of ease of use have an influence on behavioral attitudes (Umamah & Pribadi, 2017). These results indicate that a person's attitude to continue using simulator is highly dependent on the ease of using the application, so users feel that the simulator application makes it easier for them to carry out their daily activities. The results of H3 is in accordance with research conducted by Hartono (2008), Umamah & Pribadi (2017), and Latief & Nur (2019) that the perception of usefulness

have an influence on behavioral attitudes. This condition indicates that respondents (simulator users) believe that using the simulator application can provide benefits or advantages in supporting their daily activities at work. The results of H4 are in line with research conducted by Rigopoulos & Askounis (2007), Priyono (2017), and Chairina (2021) which found that perceived usefulness had a positive effect on actual usage.

Table 4. Results of the Path Coefficient and P-Value on the Indirect Effect

Hypo	Indirect Influences	Coefficient	P-Value	Information
H6	Perceived Ease of Use (EU) → Attitude Toward using (AT) → Actual Usage (AU)	0.085	0.336	Positive Not Significant
H7	Perceived Usefulness (PU) → Attitude Toward Using (AT) → Actual Usage (AU)	0.051	0.381	Positive Not Significant

The test results of H6 and H7 according to table 4 above find that there is not an indirect effect of perceived ease of use on actual usage through attitude and there is not an indirect effect of perceived usefulness on actual usage through attitude. This information is obtained from the path coefficient value of H6 (0.085) and H7 (0.051) which indicates a positive relationship. While the P-value of H6 (0.336) and H7 (0.381) > 0.05 indicates not a significant result. This is different from the results of previous research conducted by Amin et al (2022), Bugembe (2010), Santoso (2010), and Sudaryati et al (2017), that perceived ease of use and actual usage have a positive relationship and attitude also has a positive correlation with actual usage.

Conclusion

The results of hypothesis testing indicate that perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use have a positive influence on attitude, while the results of the test for the effect of perceived usefulness on simulator's actual usage directly show positive and significant effect. Thus, the actual usage of the power plant main control simulator is influenced by the usefulness of the simulator itself. Simulator as one of the tools in the competency development program for operators. Agile and Adaptation are the main keys in this research where operators besides having qualified capabilities, are also able to adapt to new systems or technologies to help develop their competencies.

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Developing a Framework for Using Online Feedback on Teaching Effectiveness to Improve Student Learning

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Student feedback on teaching is typically received from formal end-of-course evaluations with the purpose of giving insights into the effectiveness of a lecturer's teaching. However, such evaluations are usually summative, and the timing of their administration restricts any teaching adjustments that could have been done earlier in the course. This study investigated the development of an effective framework to obtain student feedback on lecturers' teaching effectiveness for formative purposes at suggested intervals over the duration of the course. The participating lecturers set up and conducted online student surveys via the institution's learning management system and performed data analysis to gain formative insights. The lecturers were from different subject specialisations and a mixed-method study was employed, with a quantitative and qualitative survey and semi-structured group interviews to get their perceptions. A focus group discussion was also held with a random sample of students to obtain their views on giving student feedback to their lecturers with this approach. From the descriptive analysis and content analysis of the data, we were able to propose a framework for obtaining student feedback that may inform lecturers on the efficacy of their teaching practices and enable them to enhance student learning. The findings also revealed several challenges to scaling-up the use of the framework, such as time-consuming data analysis and students doing too many surveys.

Keywords: Student Feedback, Formative Feedback, Teaching Evaluation, Teaching Practices, Learning Management System

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Introduction

Higher education institutions have traditionally and typically obtained student feedback through end-of-course evaluations at the end of teaching semesters. These are typically summative in nature and Cashin (1995) notes six common elements of the evaluations: course content, instructor communication skills, student-teacher interaction, course difficulty and workload, assessment practices and student self-assessment. Scholars have also argued a case for qualitative measures in such evaluations. Harper and Kuh (2007) surmise that doing so can often reveal issues that cannot emerge through conventional quantitative means.

The main limitation for a single end-of-course evaluation is the timing of the implementation and the receiving of analysed results, which can be weeks or months after the conclusion of the teaching semester. The timing automatically excludes any opportunity for faculty to make any teaching or curriculum adjustments during the teaching semester. Lewis (2001) makes a case for mid-course evaluations similar in character to end-of-course evaluations as this will afford faculty the time to modify any course material, introduce new pedagogies or provide additional scaffolding should the need arise from the evaluation.

In order to improve the timing and quality of obtaining student feedback (SFB) to measure teaching effectiveness, Singapore Polytechnic (SP) started to review the practice and recommend enhancements to the end-of-course, or using the institution's terminology, end-of-module evaluations in 2018. However, this review was interrupted due to the COVID-19 pandemic, and it was coincidentally during this time that the institution made the transition to a new online Brightspace Learning Management System (LMS) by D2L. As the institution started to exit the pandemic, the SFB review resumed as an exploratory study which investigated how lecturers could gather student formative feedback on their teaching effectiveness through online means by using the new Brightspace LMS. The study adopted a mixed method approach and was carried out over one teaching semester with lecturer surveys, lecturer interviews and student interviews.

Student Feedback as Formative Assessment for Teachers

A widely accepted definition of formative assessment is that by the State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards, USA which state it to be "a process used by teachers and students during instruction that provides feedback to adjust ongoing teaching and learning to improve students' achievement of intended instructional outcomes" (Popham, 2008). The feedback can report student performance, identify gaps in understanding, and help tailor instruction to meet individual students' needs. Formative assessment is also a key component of many instructional models, such as the Assessment for Learning (AfL) model developed by the Assessment Reform Group in the UK (Black et al., 2003). The AfL model emphasises the importance of ongoing formative assessment and provides teachers with strategies for incorporating formative assessment into their instructional practices. There has been much research done over the years which suggest that formative assessment positively impacts student learning outcomes. For example, a meta-analysis of over 250 studies by Black and Wiliam (1998) found that formative assessment improved student achievement across various subjects and grade levels.

However, most formative assessment studies focus on formative assessment on learning for students and there is comparatively much less on formative assessment on teaching for teachers. Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) make the case that good feedback practice is not

only about providing useful information to students about their own learning, but it is also about providing valuable information to teachers on where to focus their teaching. Formative assessment of teachers is an approach that involves providing teachers with feedback and support on their instructional practices to improve their teaching effectiveness.

Research has shown that formative assessment of teachers can be an effective tool for improving teaching quality and student learning outcomes. This improvement was evident in a meta-analysis of over 70 studies which found that teacher formative assessment was associated with improved student learning outcomes (Kraft et al., 2018). In a study on the effects of formative assessment feedback given to teachers (Scherer et al., 2016), it was found that formative assessment of teachers can help to increase teacher self-efficacy and motivation to improve their instructional practices.

A multiple case study approach (n=10) with interviews and document investigation was carried out to gather faculty's perceptions of student feedback on teaching for formative purposes (Yao and Grady, 2005). Findings indicated that faculty are likely to improve their teaching practice based on the feedback from student evaluations, since they have the motivation for improving their teaching. However, faculty also experienced anxiety and tensions from the mandated summative end-of-course assessment. The findings from this study highlighted the potential of student feedback for improving teaching but conversely, a summative assessment might have negative implications.

A shift away from summative assessment of teaching and towards formative assessment for teaching requires investigating into how this shift can be done in an evidence-backed manner that can also be viewed positively by faculty. In their qualitative study involving focus group interviews with students, Chan et al. (2017) uncovered some important findings on how student feedback can be improved. Students reported that the timing of collecting feedback should be during the middle of the subject and they would like to know that their opinions matter, especially when a teacher has made changes in the ongoing subject based on their feedback. This finding is in line with the recommendation from Black and Wiliam (2009) who emphasised the importance of providing feedback that is specific, timely, and actionable. Another interesting finding from the study was that electronic respondents tended to give about 50% more and longer comments than their counterparts responding on paper, showing that students might potentially give more qualitative feedback through online means.

Research Questions

Due to the comparative lack of studies in the area, this exploratory study sought to investigate lecturers' and students' perceptions on formative assessment of teaching through flexible online means.

The two research questions in the study are as follows:

Research Question 1
What are lecturers' perceptions of flexible online student feedback on their teaching effectiveness for formative purposes?

Research Question 2
What are students' perceptions of providing feedback to lecturers on their teaching effectiveness via a flexible online approach?

The Flexible Student Feedback (SFB) Model

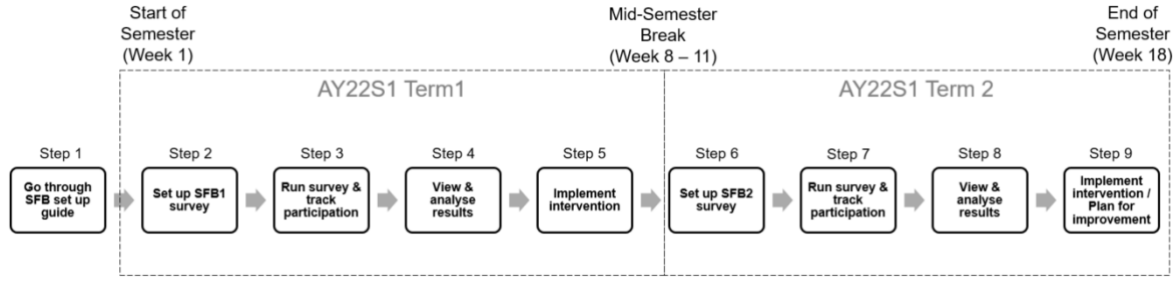


Figure 1: Flexible SFB Model

The flexible SFB model adopted in the study is shown in Figure 1. The study was conducted in Academic Year 2022 Semester 1 (AY22S1), spanning eighteen weeks over two terms. Before the start of semester, the institution's Department of Educational Development (EDU) developed an SFB guide which listed instructions on how to set up and execute the SFB survey in the Brightspace LMS for lecturer participants to go through before the semester began. To ensure standardised SFB questions were used by all lecturers during the study, EDU prepared a set of three questions for the survey. Two of the questions were quantitative, addressing facilitation skill and concern for student learning, while the third was a qualitative question on how the lecturer can help improve student learning. Each lecturer was to set up the SFB for their own module and class by the start of the semester.

During Term 1, SFB1 could be carried out at any time at the lecturers' discretion. While the survey window was open, the Brightspace LMS had a feature for lecturers to view their students' responses live and track students' participation. At the end of the survey period, the Brightspace LMS generated a basic report for lecturers to analyse the results. Lecturers could then use the formative feedback received from students to modify their teaching approaches to address any issues raised. In Term 2, lecturers were asked to repeat this process as a second survey, SFB2. Depending on the time it was carried out, SFB2 results could either similarly encourage modified teaching during the remainder of the semester or be used to make improvements planning for the next run of the module in the subsequent semester.

EDU approached all 10 academic schools in SP for lecturer volunteers to participate in the study. In total, there were 27 lecturers who conducted the study in 30 modules across 90 classes, with an average of 20 students per class.

Methodology

The study was conducted using an exploratory sequential approach (Fetters et al., 2013) with the lecturers. Qualitative data was collected through semi-structured focused group interviews and analysed followed by a phase which developed quantitative items based on the qualitative data. The rationale for choosing this mixed-methods design is to explore a phenomenon before deciding which variables are needed to measure or test quantitatively (De Vos et al., 2005). The lecturers were split into two focus groups and a set of semi-structured questions developed from literature scans were prepared for each interviewer. The decision to employ focused group interviews was based on Morgan's (1997) rationale that observations can be made on a large number of interactions between participants on a topic within a given period. After the focus group interviews, the interviewers converged to perform thematic coding with the help of notes taken during the interviews.

The themes identified from the qualitative interviews would then be used to form the variables of the quantitative survey which was used to capture ratings of the lecturers' perceptions of receiving online student feedback in a timely manner through the Brightspace LMS. The survey also included open-ended questions to gather qualitative responses. This survey was then followed up with another round of lecturer focus group interviews to triangulate with the survey's quantitative and qualitative results. Concurrently, a semi-structured interview with a student focus group was carried out to provide further triangulation of results. The benefit of applying triangulation is that it enhances the quantitative research strategy through more than one way of measuring a concept (Bryman, 2016) which in this study are lecturer and student semi-structured interviews.

Results and Findings

Four themes were identified during the first lecturers' interview after SFB1 was successfully conducted and analysed.

Theme one: Flexible SFB is timely and actionable
Theme two: Lecturers have ownership of the process
Theme three: Flexible SFB is an improvement over current student feedback process,
Theme four: Implementation in Brightspace LMS.

The themes were then used to develop statements for lecturers to rate quantitatively in a survey. Figure 2 below shows the statements and results of the quantitative items of the survey and Table 1 summarises the findings from the data analysis.

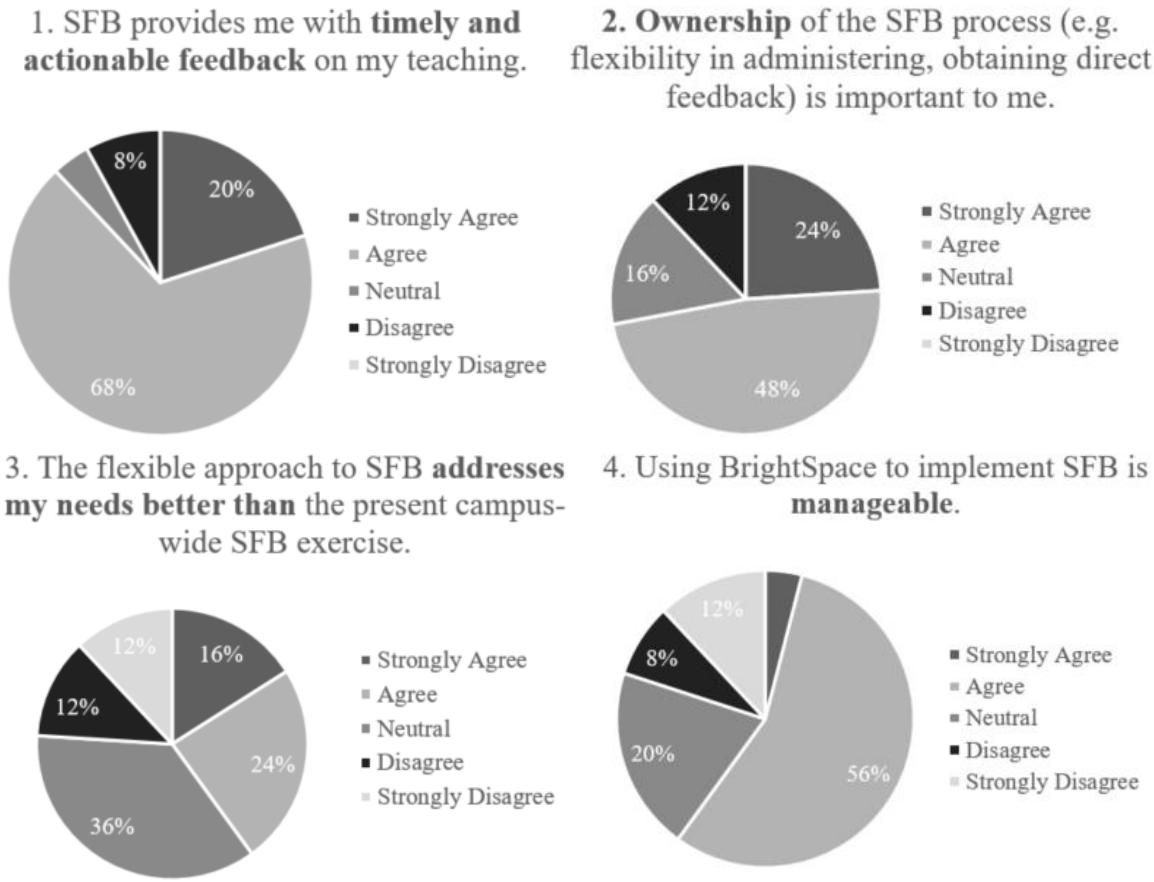


Figure 2: Results of Lecturers' Survey

Theme	Finding
1. Timely and Actionable	Most lecturers (88%) found that both SFBs provided timely and actionable feedback to make changes to address students' learning needs.
2. Ownership	Most lecturers (72%) preferred to own the SFB process vis-à-vis the flexibility of timing and questions (i.e., to set their own questions, decide when to conduct, and whether to conduct at module or class level).
3. Improvement Over Current SFB Process	Lecturers and students found value in both the new approach to SFB and the existing campus-wide SFB for distinct reasons (e.g., formative vs summative feedback, shorter vs longer survey, customisable vs standardised questions).
4. Implementation	Most lecturers (60%) found implementing SFB in the Brightspace Learning Management System manageable.

Table 1: Themes and Findings

Selected quotations from lecturers from the qualitative section of the survey and the next stage of the lecturer focus group interview were triangulated with themes one to three.

Theme one - On the flexible SFB being timely and actionable:

> *"We can quickly make adjustment to our teaching practices from the student feedback and come out with the most appropriate intervention to address learner's need."*

> *"It allows me to quickly fill in the learning gaps faced by my students."*

Theme two - On the value of lecturers having ownership over the process:

> *"The value is firstly the tailoring the questions. You want to ask something else you can do it yourself and craft the question yourself... The tailoring also comes in the timing..."*

Theme three - On the flexible SFB being an improvement over the current process:

> *"Perhaps there may need to be two separate exercises… to ensure that one avenue provides direct feedback to the staff so that it can be seen as a formative assessment to make improvements and the other a more objective campus wide SFB to get a summative evaluation at the end of the semester…"*

Triangulation of the qualitative responses in the survey and the focus group interviews identified lecturers' concerns over potential issues when looking to scale up the implementation of the flexible SFB, such as the effort in having to set up numerous surveys for a module with many classes and survey fatigue in students when expected to participate in the SFB for every module they are enrolled in that semester. It was also highlighted that a more detailed data analysis of student responses may take some time given the basic format of the report generated in the Brightspace LMS, especially if lecturers want to conduct more detailed trend analyses or make comparisons across classes. It was suggested that the time and effort to do this data analysis might not be worthwhile and may be better utilised elsewhere.

Students interviewed in the focus group emphasised that flexible formative student feedback has value only if students can see actions taken by their lecturers after feedback is given. In the event they do not see any lecturer outcomes, they would be less keen to participate in the

SFB nor take it seriously. A relevant student comment from the focus group interview is extracted:

> *"But the issue is if they don't see a… change. Then they might not feel like it's very useful…"*
>
> *"...it's only useful when the lecturers or the tutors actually address the issues."*

The findings from this exploratory research study are similar to the ones put forward by Scherer et al. (2016) as the results show that lecturers do recognise the value and advantages of introducing flexible student formative feedback into their teaching practice. Lecturers appreciate that such an approach affords them the opportunity to provide timely and actionable feedback to improve student learning, empowers them with the ability to decide when and in what format to collect online feedback, as well as set up and execute a feedback survey in the Brightspace LMS without much difficulty.

However, some concerns were raised regarding the implications of implementing flexible student feedback in the Brightspace LMS on a larger scale for both lecturers and students, which we believe may benefit from further exploration. It is interesting to note that lecturers appreciated having both a flexible and end-of-semester online student feedback system for varied reasons and applications, and students reported that their attitude and commitment towards giving feedback is influenced by whether they see their feedback being actively addressed. This perception identified from the student focus group interview is consistent with the students interviewed in the study on feedback from students to teachers by Chan et al. (2017).

Recommendations

In light of the study's results and findings, the researchers recommend continuing encouraging lecturers to include more student feedback for formative purposes in their curriculum to provide insights into their teaching effectiveness, and for them to use the feedback gathered to make teaching improvements to enhance student learning. An important value proposition in doing so is that it provides more freedom and flexibility for lecturers to gather timely feedback without significantly affecting their current teaching and learning practices. This type of feedback can also provide lecturers with information about their teaching beyond just subject content, such as their student-teacher interactions, classroom management strategies and pedagogical approaches.

The researchers also recommend that the existing student feedback exercise conducted at the end of the semester be retained, as an institutionalised and centralised SFB exercise still contains several benefits. Course designers, school administrators and lecturers can receive valuable overall feedback on teaching, use the data received to expand their analyses across cohorts and levels, as well as retain longitudinal data to identify and address performance trends.

Conclusion

This study is significant for several reasons. Firstly, many studies have reported the importance and practices of formative feedback that teachers give to their students but there is much less research on feedback from students to teachers. This study adds to the limited

body of research on student feedback to teachers for formative teaching purposes. Secondly, this study explores the feasibility and efficacy of collecting flexible online feedback apart from the traditional end-of-semester feedback exercises. The timing of gathering student feedback was decided by lecturers, giving them ownership and responsibility to effectively modify their teaching practices as follow-up actions. Finally, the results show the overall positive perception that lecturers have towards conducting and receiving student feedback during the teaching semester for formative teaching purposes. This study did reveal some scaling-up concerns such as student survey fatigue and data analysis efforts, but there is potential in undertaking further research on how online student feedback on teaching effectiveness can be carried out on a larger scale, and its impact on teaching and learning approaches.

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Replacing Video Cameras With Mobile Phones Using the Multi-Phone Livestreaming (MultPLS) Method

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Livestreaming has become the new normal for universities. It is common nowadays for academic events such as webinars and conferences to be streamed live to a global audience. A conventional livestreaming session typically utilises multicamera production (MCP) to achieve varied and dynamic video angles. This kind of footage is crucial for the audience to fully appreciate the event; however, it requires video production cameras, which presents constraints due to the cameras' lack of flexibility, high costs, and necessary usage training. Our study aims to overcome these challenges by 1) emulating the MCP livestream quality using a simple, flexible, and sustainable approach; and 2) optimising the use of existing equipment to minimise financial needs. We devised the Multi-Phone Livestreaming (MultPLS) method, an innovation that uses mobile phones in place of video production cameras, with its own plug-and-play Wi-Fi access point to produce an isolated network for the mobile phones. MultPLS was repeatedly tested and evaluated in various academic events over 21 months. We discovered that MultPLS held advantages over the conventional method. In terms of footage quality, MultPLS is equal to or better than the conventional MCP. MultPLS is more flexible when it comes to physical and location movements. It is also more economically sustainable. Finally, this method can be utilised for livestreams from any locations with internet connection, thus cancelling the need for outdoor broadcasting vehicles. We are therefore confident that MultPLS possesses great potential for applications in the academic domain and beyond.

Keywords: Multi-Camera Production, Mobile Phones, Livestreaming, Internet

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Background

The COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 triggered an avalanche of impacts that resonates around the world. In the tertiary education domain, this culminates in a forced leverage of existing technology to continue academic activities. One approach is to go hybrid, that is, to combine both virtual and face-to-face settings in one event. To allow participation from a bigger pool of audience, hybrid events are also livestreamed.

Livestreaming is the simultaneous real-time recording and broadcasting of media to online viewers (*Netnography unlimited*, n.d.), typically including a two-way instantaneous communication between the broadcaster and the audience or amongst the audience themselves through the engagement mechanisms of the platform. Catalysed by the pandemic, livestreaming has grown in popularity and has been used for a variety of purposes, including branding (Haushalter et al., 2022), teaching and learning (Jin, 2020; Mill et al., 2021), and conferences (Overbay, Bigand, & Springer, 2021).

The use of livestreaming as part of a branding exercise has been shown to increase positive viewer engagement, with a persisting effect even after the campaign has been completed (Haushalter et al., 2022). In terms of teaching and learning activities, livestreaming is viewed as an alternative and viable approach (Chen, Chen, Wang, & Huang, 2022; Nurain Adila Abdul Samat et al., 2019). It has been proposed as a more interactive method compared to pre-recorded videos (Faiz, Marar, Kamel, & Vance, 2021). In medical education, livestreamed remote ward rounds received favourable responses from the students, instructors, and patients (Mill et al., 2021). Even if conventional teaching and learning approach may return, livestream provides a promising alternative in contexts such as global education and teaching in remote areas or as an add-on method for educational purposes (Faiz et al., 2021).

In academic conferences, livestreaming is also viewed positively. Feedback from a medical research conference showed that the participants perceived livestreaming favourably due to three main benefits: cost saving, self-care and safety, and user-friendliness (Overbay, Bigand, & Springer, 2021). Despite the lack of face-to-face interactions, conferences that utilise livestreaming from multiple locations around the world possess striking advantages, i.e., increased inclusivity and equity (participants from all around the world have the opportunity to join) and reduction of climate-damaging emissions (due to travels) (Parncutt, Meyer-Kahlen, & Sattmann, 2019).

The challenges of event livestreaming

Livestream broadcasters share one primary goal: audience engagement. To get and maintain audience engagement, livestreams need to be done in a way that keeps audience entertained (Fraser, Kim, Thornsberry, Klemmer, & Dontcheva, 2019). A livestream that can show how an event unfolds in real-time may be able to capture audience attention better. Real-time interactions such as chats and comments between the broadcaster and the viewers also heightens the sense of virtual community of the livestreaming audience (He, Yao, Tang, & Ma, 2022).

To achieve these, especially for event or programme livestreaming that involves a lot of movements or different locations, a single camera would not be sufficient to capture different moments. This is where livestreams are conventionally conducted using a few video

production cameras. More than one video production camera is typically required for events such as a graduation ceremony, launching of a programme, or even an interactive seminar. The footage from each video production camera will be fed into a video switcher, usually via cables. The video switcher will allow the person in charge to select which videos to be streamed online. Some video switchers can stream video directly, whilst some would need to be connected to a computer. Shown in Figure 1 is the configuration for a conventional multicamera production (MCP).

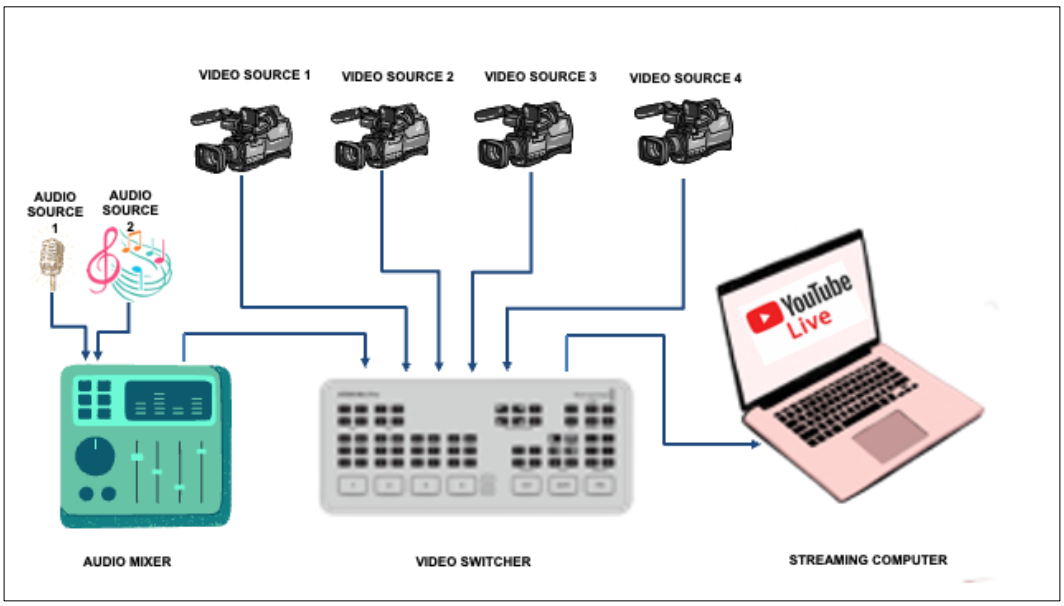


Figure 1: A conventional MCP livestreaming setup with video production cameras

To achieve this, however, some challenges have to be addressed.

First is the limited quantity of video production cameras owned by the institution. Video production cameras are expensive. To form an MCP setup, more than one video production cameras are needed, which means that multiple purchases are required.

Second is the limited expertise regarding the use and maintenance of video production cameras. Training is needed to optimise the usage of the cameras. This requires time and manpower. In addition to this, we would also need the appropriate technical skillset for the proper maintenance of the cameras. Failure to do so would be a waste of purchase in that the usage is not optimised.

Third, even if the first two obstacles have been overcome, there is still the challenge of limited flexibility. Video production cameras are connected to cables unless a wireless HDMI device is readily available. In addition, this type of camera is quite heavy to be lugged around, especially when covering dynamic events. One possible solution is to use motorised conference cameras, but motorised conference cameras also need to be connected to a USB and power cables. Moreover, despite having a motor to rotate the camera view, the speed of a motorised camera is slow, thus restricting it to a limited number of event activities. Overusing the camera rotation would result in a low-quality video footage.

Finally, events or programmes in remote areas (e.g., community service in rural villages, research expeditions) cannot be livestreamed without the technical equipment to support the

video feeds from the video production camera. This necessitates extra luggage, or for major events, the rent of an outdoor broadcasting vehicle (OBV).

We therefore faced the options of purchasing new video production cameras and then to get experts to train our team to use and maintain these, or to let university events be livestreamed using the current limited setup, i.e., using a single video production camera or paired with a motorised conference camera, or paying external teams to livestream events, with the hopes that things will return to normal. But we chose a third option – innovate so that there is no need for acquisition of expensive equipment and at the same time, achieve high-quality livestreaming. This paper will compare the viability of mobile (smart) phones as part of MCP against video production cameras only as MCP in terms of video quality, video angles, multiple filming locations, and financial sustainability.

Methodology

The investigation for this study took place in the form of an action research. The study started with research on the existing issue and challenges, illustrated in Figure 2.

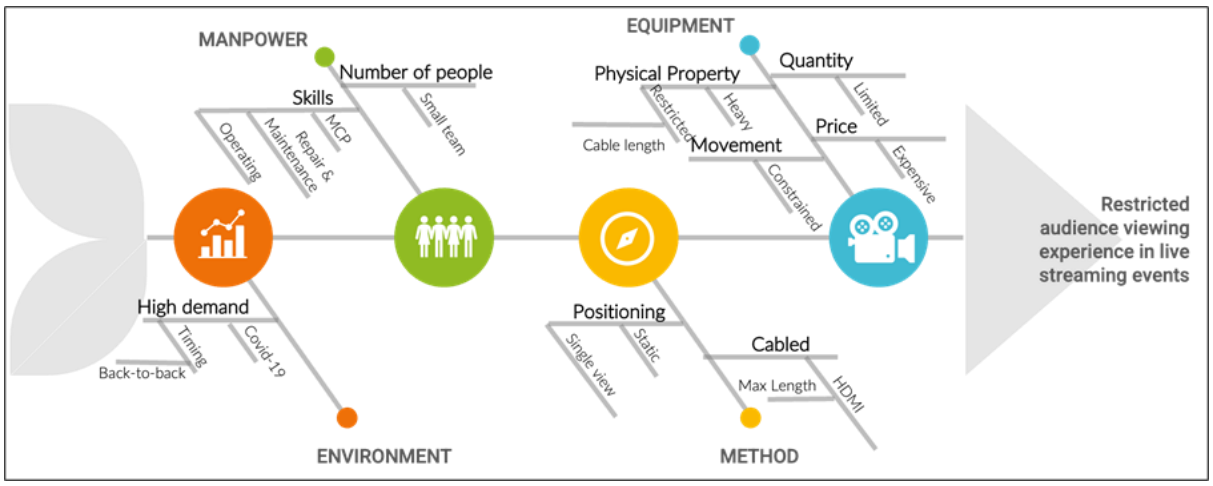


Figure 2: The Ishikawa Method used to encapsulate issues and challenges

We conducted action research throughout 2021-2022. We repeated the action, evaluation, and critical analysis of practices based on the data that we collected during the exercise. Each of our "tests" took place during specific events in the university. Following Byrne (2005), the position of researcher and practitioner should be a contextual rather than a fixed concept, which means that in this study, we played both the parts of the researcher and the practitioner.

We started with one mobile phone to complement one video production camera. In the following setups, we increased the number of mobile phones and added components such as gimbal to stabilise the recording.

The configuration of MultPLS is as follows:

1. Events are filmed by mobile phones (therefore taking over the video production camera's role).
2. Videos from mobile phones are transmitted to a host computer or laptop that acts as a video switcher. This is done via a specially set up local area network (LAN).
3. As mobile phones and computers can be equipped with open-source software for livestreaming and video recording (i.e., OBS), the video feeds can be sent directly

from the mobile phones to the computer/laptop without the need for a video switcher as an added equipment.

4. The person in charge (Stream Director) views all videos before selecting and tailoring them for the live broadcast to selected platform(s) (e.g., Facebook, YouTube, Zoom, etc.)

To ensure smooth and uninterrupted data transfer over the LAN, the team created an exclusive plug-and-play wi-fi access point (AP) for all devices involved. This exclusive access means that the bandwidth will not be affected by other users in the same compound and has the added value of security.

MultPLS was first used in January 2021. As of December 2022, we have utilised MultPLS in 88 university events. Table 1 shows selected events, dates, and the progression of MultPLS over approximately two years.

Date	Event	Items	Notes
12 Jan 2021	Borneo Leadership Talk Series 1/2021	1 mobile phone 1 production camera	One camera angle for speaker, one for audience. Video from mobile phone was shaky at times
18 Feb 2021	*Amanat Naib Canselor*	1 mobile phone 1 production camera 1 gimbal	Gimbal adds to mobile phone stability in dynamic shots
17 Mar 2021	*Majlis Anugerah Gemilang UNIMAS*	2 mobile phones 1 production video camera 1 gimbal	3 angles, with 1 phone roaming around
22 Jan 2022	*Majlis Lafaz Pengisytiharan Pentauliahan dan Pemakaian Pangkat* PALAPES	3 mobile phones 1 production video camera 1 gimbal Cross live broadcast – VVIPs arrival, 1km from the main event	4 angles with one from a satellite location, capturing the arrival of guests
20 Aug 2022	*Jelajah Puisi Keluarga Malaysia 2022*	3 mobile phones, 1 production video camera, Gigabit router	Smoother video, due to faster transmission of videos over the local network
4 Nov 2022	*UNIMAS Business School Graduation Ceremony*	3 mobile phones, 1 production video camera, Gigabit router	Offers variation from the usual graduation ceremony because one roaming mobile phone was used to film the VIP procession

Table 1: The progression of MultPLS over two years

Findings

In this paper, we present our findings from the comparison on the use of MultPLS as opposed to conventional MCP for livestreaming university events.

Comparable quality of video

Based on our comparison, we found that videos from mobile phones versus videos from video production cameras were comparable in terms of their sharpness, colour composition, and lighting. These were true for both indoor and outdoor events. As most mobile phones nowadays can capture videos of at least 720p, the pixel quality from mobile phones is also similar to the pixel quality from video production cameras. More expensive range of mobile phones that encompass the latest technological advances also offer wide angle and optical zoom options, which means potentially better video quality.

The following images show snapshots taken from a video production camera and a mobile phone. Figure 3 is a comparison for an indoor event and Figure 4 is a comparison for an outdoor event.



Still from a VPC (Panasonic AJ-PX270EJ, 720p @30fps)



Still from a mobile phone (iPhone X, 720p @30fps)

Figure 3: Comparison of stills from a VPC and a mobile phone (indoor event)



Still from a VPC (Panasonic AJ-PX270EJ, 720p @30fps)



Still from a mobile phone (iPhone X, 720p @30fps)

Figure 4. Comparison of stills from a VPC and a mobile phone (outdoor event)

Easy addition of video angles and add-on livestreaming features

Due to the lighter weight of mobile phones compared to video production cameras, it is more convenient to bring more mobile phones to any particular event's setting. The team can pack

extra “video cameras” to prepare for the eventuality that an event needs extra viewing angles. The absence of cables also reduces the possibility of risks involving people tripping, tangled wires, or unattached cables.

Similar to the conventional MCP, MultPLS can add livestreaming features such as live chats, scrolling credits/title, and picture-in-picture format. The use of OBS in MultPLS makes this process more straightforward as all the sources (e.g., images, text, audio-video input) are grouped in one location. For instance, for a talk show that we livestreamed to Facebook in 2022, questions to the speakers were not only read out loud but shown on screen for the audience to see (Figure 5).



Figure 5: Add-on livestreaming feature that can be done using MultPLS

MultPLS in multiple locations

The weight and size of mobile phones also play an important part in multiple location or remote location streaming, as it is more practical to transport several mobile phones than several video production cameras, especially with limited luggage space. In addition, using mobile phones means that events in satellite locations can be livestreamed without additional technical equipment. This is feasible because mobile phones are telecommunication devices that do not require extra features to be connected to the internet.

In the period of time when MultPLS was utilised, only one event with a satellite location was organised. Figure 6 shows Location 1 on the left, shot here with a roaming mobile phone, and Location 2 on the right, shot with a mobile phone on a stand.



Still from a mobile phone (iPhone 12 Pro Max, 720p @30fps)



Still from a mobile phone (Vivo Y17, 720p @30fps)

Figure 6: Location 1 (main gate of the University) and Location 2 (University hall)

To check whether a farther satellite location can be livestreamed, we performed a livestream test from Betong, a district in Sri Aman, which is about 280 km away from Kuching, the capital of Sarawak. The result showed that this is viable, as long as the satellite venue has adequate internet connection, that is, a minimum of 10Mbps for upload speed. No additional equipment was used for this livestream test.



Figure 7. A snapshot of the livestream from Betong

Financially viable solution

As there is no need to purchase new video production cameras, the costs of acquiring MCP-like results are drastically reduced. Given is the calculation for financial impact for an event that requires two different camera angles (one wireless for roaming and one static), with the assumption that the organiser has to make new purchases:

Setup	Item	Quantity	Estimated cost per item (USD)	Total (USD)
Conventional MCP	Video production camera	2	2,785	**6,080**
	Wireless HDMI	1	480	
MultPLS	Mobile phone	2	112	**224**

Table 2: Cost comparison between MCP and MultPLS for an event

We can calculate the financial savings that can be achieved from Table 1, which is approximately 96%. Costs can also be reduced should there be a need to livestream from a location that needs OBV as mobile phones are telecommunication devices, as opposed to video production cameras that would require network cabling.

Discussion

Whilst event livestreaming typically uses conventional MCP, there are limitations related to the usage of video production cameras in the MCP setup. Our team proposed a solution – augmenting video production camera with mobile (smart) phones – and experimented with the setup for roughly two years. The results have been highly promising in terms of operational and financial sustainability.

The following are the main advantages of MultPLS when compared to the conventional MCP:

1. The video quality from mobile phones is similar to video production cameras' video quality. Video quality is one of the important elements to retain audience interest (Fraser et al., 2019). As mobile phones continue to adopt cutting edge technology, their video capabilities would rise steadily, making them even more viable for video shooting purposes.
2. Mobile phones allow flexibility of movements due to their size and weight. It is easier to operate and more feasible to be carried around and set up, especially if an event has multiple locations. Consequently, this allows for more variety of angles when needed.
3. Considering the current need for digital content, this approach can be utilised for livestreams from locations with no wi-fi as the team can connect the bespoke AP to any available internet line. In addition, the AP secures the connection between the video feeds and the host computer, addressing security issues that may arise.
4. Very minimal costs are needed for MultPLS to operate as there are no need to purchase production video cameras or other equipment needed in the conventional MCP setup. The possibility of getting used mobile phones that are still in excellent condition for video shooting and streaming is very high. For this study, we have been using existing mobile phones, which meant that we did not spend on purchase of new mobile phones.

We posit that the use of mobile phones to support video production cameras is therefore a sustainable method for livestreaming university events. Experts in the field of MCP agreed that when it comes to audience engagement, it is not the quality of the camera per se, but the number of camera angles, which is far more important for an effective livestream (FilmmakerIQ, 2021). Expensive cameras also do not necessarily translate into a bigger audience. In many cases, using many smaller, cheaper video cameras will go a lot further in raising the production quality rather than using one or two high-end cameras as the various angles would be more effective in showing how the event unfolds. This is exactly what MultPLS offers.

Conclusion

Our project contributes to the blooming literature on livestreaming in the educational context and offers a practical and sustainable solution for quality livestreaming. We highlight the potential of our innovation, MultPLS, as a livestreaming technique that is achieved by innovating existing technology and does not require expensive equipment in turning every livestream into a story. MultPLS can especially benefit organisations and communities that would like to livestream their events or programmes but neither possess expensive video camera equipment nor the expertise of handling conventional MCP configurations. We foresee the potential of MultPLS to be utilised in other contexts, such as concerts and sports events.

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Transformation Management at a University-Based Business School

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

This study focuses on the process of institutionalisation of a new management and educational system (MTBS) in a Malaysian top university-based business school, disguised as AGSB. Specifically, the study looks at the changes brought by MTBS transformation programme introduced by government. An explanatory case study method is used whereby data are collected through semi-structured interviews, document reviews, informal conversation and observations. Using Neo Institutional Theory and Institutional Theory of Educational Organizations, the data from this study reveal that MTBS created a legitimacy dilemma for AGSB and subsequently led to mere incremental changes in the management and educational practices. The main reason is that the MBTS holds a complex set of conflicting value propositions to be provided by AGSB. Regarding management, the MTBS proposes profit maximisation as the main value proposition for the management. As for education, the MTBS proposes multiple value propositions, including career-enhancement-salary-increasing, practice-based education, and scholarly- based education for developing intellectuals. This is from the normative policy making perspective. In real life situation, however, MTBS proved that it is not more than wishful thinking. Compared to the drastic nature of the change required, the apparent incremental changes made in the management and educational practices in AGSB are more or less negligible or even negative. This study has shown that the intention to institutionalise new management and educational practices may not materialise if there is no normative match between the assumptions, norms, and beliefs brought by the new system and the identity of educational organisations.

Keywords: MTBS, Value Proposition, Incremental Change

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1. Introduction

In Malaysia, the development of business and management education is very much related to the socio-economic development. Considering the importance of university-based business schools in spearheading the efforts to instil commercialisation culture in public universities, a transformation programme, which was launched in 2008, was seen as necessary. The programme was named the Malaysian Top Business Schools (hereafter MTBS) and specifically written up to intensify the commercial orientation culture among the university-based business schools. The focus of the programme was to level the performance of business schools in public universities at par of their regional and global counterparts and thereby be global centres of excellence in business and management education. The programme was only targeted at business schools in public universities. At the initial stage of the transformation programme, the government conferred two business schools, disguised as AGSB and AGSM, the status of MTBS as starting point of the transformation programme. The then MOHE announced that the selection of the MTBS was based on the criteria of the World Top Business Schools and Asian Top Business School with eight domains namely, quantity and quality of academic staff, quantity and quality of research and teaching, quantity of postgraduate students, quality of postgraduate students, innovation, professional services and gifts, networking and linkages and support facilities. Furthermore, the government recognized that the new direction of business and management education requires different management and leadership style from the mainstream university administration. Therefore, the government promised to revamp the administration of business schools to ensure complete autonomy, transparency and accountability of the top business schools (www.bernama.com).

However, after granting the two schools the status of MTBS in 2008 concerns have been raised regarding how to evaluate the performance of the TBSs. The eight domains announced by the government when the TBSs were selected were merely guidelines for the transformation of the TBSs into world-class institutions. Therefore, the specific benchmarks for the transformation programme to be used in evaluating the performance of the TBSs were then considered by the government. In some way, the government is using the TBS instrument as a tool for transformation and expecting the business schools to become global centres of excellence in business and management education given the successful implementation of the programme. In this paper, TBSC, TBS instrument, and MTBS transformation programme are used interchangeably. In the literature of organisational change in higher education, the process of actually transforming AGSB into global centre of excellence means changing not only its structure and management practices, but also the thinking and the quality of interaction among the academic staff (Clanon, 2013). Thus, the focus of this study is to understand how the TBSC is used as a tool for organisational transformation and also how this transformation, if any, took place.

2. Explanatory case study method

An explanatory case study was used in this research as there were no prescribed answers to the research questions because the meanings attached to the TBSC are expected to vary between various actors within and outside AGSB and, therefore, multiple realities are expected to emerge from the research. Consequently, understanding the process of business school's transformation, such the routinisation of TBSC is much deeper than the one obtained through the use of other research methods such survey or experiment. Furthermore, because there is no single reality in interpretive research, case study is the best method to unravel the

complexity associated with remarkable change, such the one related to the institutionalisation of TBSC. This type of study will also provide a rich and comprehensive description of the current situation as well as historical aspects such as the administrative and organisational context.

Semi-structured interviews were used in this research. The main contribution of semi-structured interview lies in the "richness of the data they provide, a strength that is sacrificed when data are reduced to numerical values" (Sankar & Jones, 2007). Therefore, as the objective of this research was to provide a holistic and in-depth understanding of the transformation process in the case business school, a complete set of data from prescription to implementation of TBSC was required. Hence, interviews were conducted at two levels of responsibility, specifically the ministry level and the School level. At the ministry level, the former Chairman of the TBS was interviewed twice. At the School level, 9 people from the management team, 6 academic staff, and 9 MBA students were interviewed. Collectively 25 people were interviewed some of them for more than one time and each interview took between 1 to 2 hours except for MBA students it took between 30 to 45 minutes.

The evidence from the interviews was further enhanced by other sources of data included documents review, informal conversations, personal observations, news about the School, and not to forget the personal experience the researcher was able to gain from being part of the School's community throughout the data collection period.

3. Analysing the dynamics of MTBS transformation programme

In order to explore the reasons for the dynamics of the transformation process, it is necessary to reconstruct the accounts given and the sense making by the alternative actors involved in the MTBS programme. This will be achieved following the tradition in the sociology of knowledge followed in previous organisational research in general (Slack & Hinings, 1994) and in educational organisations in particular (for example, Georg Krucken 2007). In the spirit of the neo-institutional theory articulated by DiMaggio and Powel is the process of institutional isomorphism through which organisations in an organisational field tend to become more similar over time.

The concept of institutional isomorphism refers both to the direct, power-based influence which may leave an organisation in a few-choices or even no-choice situation, and the softer, non-power-based influence which in informal ways transfers the characteristics of one organisation to the other, or operate from within the organisation itself (Bager, 1994). Towards this end, DiMaggio and Powel further suggested that there are three basic forms of institutional isomorphism. Firstly coercive isomorphism resulting from both formal and informal pressures exerted on organisation by other organisations upon which they are dependent and by cultural expectations in the society within which organisations function. Such pressure may felt as force, as persuasion, or as invitation to join in collusion. Secondly, mimetic isomorphism resulting from standard responses to uncertainty in such situation as organisational technology is poorly understood, goals are ambiguous or when the environment creates symbolic uncertainty. In such case, organisations may model themselves on other organisation being indirectly through employee transfer or explicitly through consulting firms or industry trade association. Thirdly, normative isomorphism associated with professionalization as reflected by the collective struggle of members of occupations to define the conditions and methods of their work, to control "the production of producers" (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983).

When applying this general conceptual scheme to the specific case of TBS transformation programme in Malaysia, a restriction and an extension to the various types of isomorphism seemed to be justified. The restriction is twofold: the first relates to way in which the concept of institutional isomorphism is used. Isomorphic tendencies presented here are strictly limited to the question whether and why AGSB formally institutionalised the TBSC in its management and educational practices. No claims are made with regard to isomorphic tendencies as regard to the contents of the syllabus for example. In other words, whether the TBSC had led to changes in courses description or not is outside the scope of this study. The second restriction relates to the differential characteristics of the identity of university departments, such as AGSB, when adopting new programmes as the one presented by the TBSC. The latter is analysed from the lens of institutional theory of educational organisation and the premise of loose coupling (Meyer, 1980; Weick, 1976). The extension is also twofold. The first relates to the level at which mimetic and normative pressures has been felt. In this study, while coercive pressure is felt at the organisational level, i.e. the School, both mimetic and normative pressures are felt at the state level. The second extension relates to the carriers of the normative pressure. In this study, accreditation and industry are the main carriers of the normative pressure both of which are neither part of the state, and therefore exercise coercive pressure, nor led by AGSB, and therefore exercise mimetic pressure. This is unlike DiMaggio and Powel theory where the focus is on profession and professional organisations as the main sources of normative pressure.

The three types of institutional isomorphism, i.e. coercive, mimetic, and normative, intermingle in empirical setting, even though they tend to drive from different conditions and may lead to different outcomes (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). From the analytical point of view, this is by no means what happened in the case of MTBS. Previous research in organisational transformation in higher education documented that organisational transformation will only be considered when the three sources of isomorphism are presented (W. Bealing Jr, Riordan, & Riordan, 2011; Krücken, 2007; Papadimitriou & Westerheijden, 2010).

To discuss the coercive isomorphism, two important facts were seen as prerequisite in this research. The first is that the coercive pressure is particularly for AGSB and the adoption of the MTBS programme is voluntary for other business schools, as explained by the then Chairman of the TBS committee:

> *If you want to be a TBS, it is unclear what kind of incentives the government is giving; but actually if you asked me, even without the financial incentives, the branding value is very high. For this reason, the TBS is not mandatory for other business schools*

The second fact is that even though the penalty was not clear if AGSB violates the TBSC, AGSB has been selected to set the example for other business schools and therefore found itself in a position that it has to conform to the criteria that have been set by the regulator, as explained by the Marketing Executive at AGSB:

> *The government wants us to be an example on how to continue, we have given a minimum fund by the Government and we have to serve our own funds and they want us as a TBS to show that we can survive without government funding.*

Furthermore, having the profile of world-class institution is defined according to how the MOHE views world-class business schools. For these reasons AGSB concentrates so much

on building its reputation through various industrial linkages and being part of the regional and global networks of business schools. On yearly basis, AGSB is required to report to the ministry showing the scores it made in each area of the TBSC. Moreover, TBSC was felt as, according to the responses of interviewees, "something that imposed by the government" and "the whole programme of MTBS was, in fact, a top down process". Thus, in some way or another AGSB is being coerced to focus on new set of educational and non-educational measures rather than purely academic measures, while, on the other hand, it is also supposed to generate sufficient income to run the School independently. In short, the coercive pressures have shaped the management and educational practices in AGSB subsequent to its selection as MTBS.

Interestingly, the role of the leadership of the parent university is also of particular importance in the case being analysed. However, the pressure on AGSB by the parent university is a function of economic and academic factors. Economic-wise, because the parent university is also under pressure of being autonomous, cash flow and capital investment became an economic necessity for university administrators. In this sense AGSB, with its managerial expertise and marketable programmes, is very important for contributing to the financial bottom line of the whole university. Furthermore, AGSB was expected to set the example for other faculties within the university as well as to how to generate revenues out of their academic programmes. For this reason the Vice Chancellor of the parent university, who also used to be the ex-dean for the School, and his deputies fully support AGSB. As indicated by the Dean of AGSB:

> *Even our VC is also interested in what happening in AGSB because to the University, AGSB should be an example for other faculties, because ultimately other faculties also have to be autonomous as part of the corporatization policy of public universities at the Ministry level. As such, other faculties are also supportive because they want to see and learn from the experience of AGSB to be an independent unit*.

Academic-wise, the parent university is also concern about the quality of education and research by academic measures. For this purpose, AGSB must conform to the university requirements in terms of teaching and research. This scenario of economic-academic dichotomy makes it difficult for AGSB to choose between the economic and academic objectives. Ultimately, this scenario also explains why the TBSC led to an institutional identity crisis for AGSB, as explained by the Deputy Dean of AGSB:

> *The top business schools programme is conflicting because this is a research university, so we have publication criteria and so on, but you see these TBSC is more industry driven and it is not really pure academic KPI, so actually it is quite conflicting, so we are in the process in order to say ok: who want to follow the KPI of the TBS and who want to follow the research university KPI. So we have not decided yet on which part we are going.*

Thus, the coercive pressure by the government was also reinforced by the Vice Chancellor of the parent university which, in turn, have also shaped the management and educational practices in AGSB.

Regarding the mimetic and normative pressures, both of them took place at the ministry level. As for the mimetic pressure, the government objective of making business schools in public universities as centres of excellence by the year 2020 is ambiguous and as such it tried to

adopt the model of other regional and global top business schools. Therefore, in its essence, the MTBS instrument is nothing but an attempt to copy the best practices in business and management education at the regional and global levels. As indicated by the then Chairman of TBS "*the discussion of the TBS was mostly based on brainstorming but guided by what happen in the global scenario*". In this sense, the mimetic processes here took place in a highly institutionalised setting. This is unlike the proposition made by DiMaggio and Powel that observation and imitation took place between organisations without communication with other similar organisations in the field.

As for the normative pressure, accreditation agencies seem to be the central carrier. Getting accreditation by MTBS is supposed to be the vehicle for internationalisation of business programmes and networking development. This scenario explains why AGSB embarks in the accreditation from the AACSB and hires one senior consultant especially for this exercise. The manifestation of the pressure exercised by accreditation agencies, basically from the AACSB, on AGSB's behaviour is, according to the Senior Consultant for Branding and Marketing, justified by:

> *Mainly increasing the visibility of the AGSB o the various stakeholder and thereby be able to commercialise its academic programmes and research outputs to the relevant users.*

*3.1 Breaking the rule of the game at case AGSB***:** According to the institutional theory, there could be some coercive, mimetic, and normative isomorphism, which could lead to the institutionalisation of new educational and management techniques in AGSB. In its essence, the MTBS programme proposes an alternative model of business education that focuses on internationalisation and industry collaboration. On one hand, this model may make the business schools more akin to medical schools, where teaching, research, and practice are closely interrelated. On the other hand, the MTBS model may make the business schools 'businesses' in their own right whose purpose include generate revenue-for shareholders, for graduates, and for staff. Thus, this new model requires fundamental change in the educational and management techniques which, in turn, require a change in the way academic staff do and view things because it holds a different paradigm. How can an educational organisation such as AGSB, which has been so long adopting academic orientation, change to professional and economic orientations? How is the change done? In what ways do the culture and institutions enable or constrain the processes of organisational transformation?

According to Gornitzka and Maassen (2001), answers to such questions depend on whether there is congruence between the underlying norms and beliefs of the MTBS and the identity and traditions of AGSB as educational organisation. Therefore, the following two sections explore how the assumptions of the MTBS as policy instrument depart radically from the way things are done at AGSB and how this discrepancy shaped the management and educational practices at AGSB and eventually led to merely incremental changes in the management and educational practices.

3.2 The institutional identity of AGSB: AGSB could be described as academic unit operates within a leading research university with approximately 32 academic staff who constitute its major distinctive feature. In educational organisations such as AGSB, the focus of the deanery is on the educational processes rather than outputs or outcomes and as such there is a lack of feedback linkage from outcome back to inputs. The work processes are structured around various disciplines with relative or lack of coordination between them. Decisions

making authority is delegated to professors who possess the relevant expertise in specific areas. Lectures took place in unregulated environment where instructional activities are left for the individual lecturer. Research activities are made in silo with main focus on theoretical contribution to business and management knowledge. For academic staff, publications in peer reviewed journals are almost the main criteria of promotion. Weik (1976), John Meyer, Richard Scott, and Terrence Deal (1980) also found almost similar characteristics of educational organisations in their studies. These characteristics are by no means mostly governed by the conventional university and university departments with academic orientation and AGSB is no exception. The rules and regulations that exist in AGSB are the result of academic traditions, which basically focused heavily on the process conformity rather than output delivery or outcomes' respectability by different stakeholders. From the institutional theory of educational organisation perspective, these characteristics arise from structural strength rather than weakness. This is basically because the structures of educational organisations such as AGSB reflect environmentally created institutional rules concerning education and that these structures are decoupled from the technical work of education. In other words, the dean and the management team of AGSB has minimal control over instructional activities, design of instructional material, research practices by individual faculty members, evaluation of students' performance, and assessing the performance of individual faculty members all of which are the core functions of AGSB. Thus, the implication of the loose coupling on the management and educational practices in AGSB is that adopting new patterns of work, such as MTBS, the management team do not control the responses of the academic staff.

3.3 The underlying norms and beliefs of MTBS programme: According to Gornitzka and Maassen (1999), the analysis of organisational change in the context of government policies and programmes, such as MTBS, should delineate the background and nature of policies. This could be achieved by considering the national modes of policy making as part of the national state model and its influence on the policy formation process (Gornitzka, 1999). Thus, the analysis of the MTBS could be better carried out by relating the MTBS programme to the wider policy framework in higher education in Malaysia.

In responding to the growing demand for territory education coupled with the tight budgetary regulations since early 1990, academic orientation and its bureaucratic way of doing things in public universities had been criticised for being inefficient and ineffective. As response to this criticism, managerialism was promoted as new paradigm in higher education (Ka Ho Mok, 2007). The concept promotes the idea that public universities should adopt private sector management techniques in order to improve performance. In its essence, managerialism is a tool for shifting from a bureaucratic preoccupation with processes to a focus on results. This is exactly what is being promoted by the MTBS programme where business schools are judged based on the outcomes to the various stakeholders. Furthermore, among the three central values of managerialism, i.e. rationality, merit, and excellence, the concept of "excellence" is the most popular dimension (Santiago & Carvalho, 2012), and as such used as the edge of the MTBS. Therefore, coming from this macro analysis of public policy, MTBS programme could be seen as simply a "managerialism formula" for university department. Thus, MTBS carries new set of assumptions, beliefs, and norms about the management and educational practices in AGSB, and ultimately about the legitimacy of AGSB.

3.3.1 Norms, values, and assumptions about the management practices: From management point of view, MTBS promotes AGSB as for-profit organisation where the focus is on

efficient and effective allocation of available resources. Developing AGSB as autonomous entity has been defined based on the cash-generating capacity of AGSB. For this reason, it is understandable to find that one of the reasons behind the selection of the School as TBS is the expectation by government, and also by the parent university, that AGSB could set the 'example' for how to become autonomous entity, the major question in higher education in Malaysia (Sirat, 2010b). For the government, with the initial fund given to AGSB when selected as a top business school, AGSB is expected to set the example for other business schools on how they can be financially autonomous using self-generating income. This expectation was clearly explained by the Marketing and Communications Manager for the whole university and also The Marketing Executive and lecturer at AGSB:

> *The government want us to be an example on how to continue, we have given a minimum fund by the government and we have to serve our own funds and they want us as a TBS to show that we can survive without government funding.*

However, the government set the conditions for AGSB to become autonomous entity as being able to cover all its costs. As indicated by then Chairman of the TBS:

> *The best scenario will be the whole AGSB become a private body and if it is completely sustainable. In other words, it will be able to pay all the costs of facilities and operations. So the parent university will spin-off a private graduate business school.*

From the perspective of ITEO, the definition of AGSB as profit making organisation is based on erroneous assumptions about how AGSB is managed. Such assumptions are related to the overall focus of the management of AGSB, the governance structure, and the distribution of decision making authorities. As for the overall focus of the top management, MTBS require changing the focus of the deanery from educational processes to educational outcomes. This is a drastic change since it requires major change in the way the management team at AGSB view things. Central to this change is the focus on inspection of outputs, that is, the impacts of educational practices. From ITEO perspective, however, efforts to actually coordinate educational processes or inspect educational outputs would increase conflict with students, cause dissatisfaction among lecturers, and greatly increase the burden to administrators (Meyer, 1980). This scenario explains why AGSB lack any formal policy or binding instructions for academic staff to follow exactly the TBSC.

In terms of governance, the government promise to revamp the administration of the TBS was not made as yet. Only limited attempts were made by AGSB such as organising 'talks' sessions by industry peoples and having 20 peoples from the industry as advisory committee. The contribution of the industry advisory committee is confined to soliciting inputs for MBA curriculum without contributing to the performance of AGSB. This scenario may explain why the meanings attached to the TBSC by AGSB's academic staff are shaped by its 'academic' dimension as university department.

Regarding the distribution of decision making authority, the assumptions of MBTS relate to task differentiation and the efficacy of command-and-control mechanisms. The government expect that AGSB could be able to strategise for implementing the TBSC through allocation of tasks to academic staff based on their area of expertise. This expectation by no means requires replacing the former 'high trust' relations characterizing previous collegial forms of governance with 'low trust' relations. From the perspective of ITEO, however, this

assumption is misplaced due to the fact that the command-and-control management style of AGSB can only decrease the autonomy of academic staff, the most prominent feature of AGSB as educational institution.

All these assumptions and scenarios explain why AGSB struggles so much to develop new income-generating programmes such as executive development programmes and consultancy. Eventually, these scenarios may also explain why and how AGSB define its new strategic direction as business in its own right focusing mainly on profit. As indicated by the Dean of the School:

> *It looks like a business now: generate revenue, pay the staff, our balance is profit as simple as that.*

The danger was that, AGSB identified its own academic staff as the biggest single threat to its new strategic direction, as explained by the Dean of AGSB:

> *Our strength lies in our academic staff, but the way I look at it that is also our weakness because we are experienced, we are already research professors working within comfortable zone, now you want to shift into a new paradigm of doing business, now our weakness is to change the mindset and this is not easy.*

This is by no means explains the negative consequences of MBTS because what has been so long seen as the most valuable resource of AGSB as university department is now being downgraded.

3.3.2 Norms, values, and assumptions about the educational practices: From an educational point of view, the MTBS proposes practice-based learning where all instructional materials, instructional methods, research, and practice are intertwined. Relevant, respected, and referred business programmes have been defined from industry perspective. The mandate for AGSB has been set as, according to the then Chairman of the TBS "to solve industry problems". For this reason, collaboration between AGSB and the industry was seen as the catalyst for developing and implementing the alternative business and management programmes. Towards this end, MTBS expect AGSB to bring in industry people to participate in teaching, research as well as the management of the School. The assumption is that business schools "must" not only change their mindset about what business and management education is all about, but to convince the top management in their parent universities that the MTBS is the "right" direction for them. This assumption is counterintuitive because the selection of AGSB as a TBS was made based on, according to the Dean, "its strong academic profile in terms of staff and academic programme", a feature that is widely celebrated by academic staff in AGSB. This scenario may explain why AGSB has not decided as yet as to which strategic direction to choose between MTBS and the research university.

In terms of curriculum, the government expected AGSB to ensure that business programmes are tailored to industry. This requires knowledge about industry needs which, in turn, requires staff with sufficient industry background to design the curriculum. The real practices of curriculum design in AGSB proved that industry knowledge was confined to soliciting inputs from the discussions with the industry advisory committee. Curriculum design committee includes mainly senior professors in AGSB who are renowned for their rich academic expertise. For this reason, it is understandable to find that the progress towards developing

industry-related programmes was confined to introducing only loosely defined components in the MBA. Other than that the programme menu at AGSB includes academic programmes designed for what so called scholarly education for developing business intellectuals. This scholarly-based education is what actually being embraced and practiced by AGSB as *the* main value proposition. This scenario explains how the research university traditions shaped the curriculum development and constrain the progress towards industry-related programmes.

Regarding the pedagogical approach, the government expected the use of case study method as a platform where teaching, research, and practice are connected. From instructional point of view, the use of case method is supposed to inculcate not only the relevant business knowledge to the students, but also to inculcate other job-related skills such as communication, decision making, team work, and leadership. Furthermore, because the government also concern about the respectability of graduates by industry, the use of case study also expected to enhance the employability of business graduates, being in the form of career enhancement or salary increasing aspect of employability. This last expectation focuses on the value proposition that emphasis the career-enhancing-salary-increasing aspects of business education.

Concerning the research practices, academic staffs are encouraged to actively engage in case study research that focuses on solving real industry problems. The real research practices in AGSB showed that research practices are still focus on academic research where the focus is on theoretical contribution rather than practical contributions to real industrial problems.

According to the ITEO, the discrepancy between what was expected and what is actually being practiced, as far as curriculum design, instructional methods, and research activities are concerned, is due to erroneous assumptions about how teaching and research are done at AGSB. In educational organisation such as AGSB, any attempt to standardise instructional methods or research activities is beyond the control of the top management of AGSB. Ultimately, this scenario may explain why only incremental changes were made in the educational practices in AGSB.

4. Conclusion

The data from the case business school showed that the new transformation formula set by the MOHE was very much practically oriented to which business schools, as academic units, were not prepared for. This created uncertainty of the implementation of the new benchmark and in consequences academic staffs at AGSB try to resist the introduction of the new formula. At the end, the case university-based business school initiated some actions in response to this external pressure but the changes were merely incremental which was not helpful for the improvement of the quality of business and management education at the university level.

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Common Pronunciation Mistakes in English for Students From South-East Asia Influenced by Their First Foreign Language

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The opportunity to study English language in the country of its origin is a privilege not available to everyone. Thus many students choose to learn English in a non-native environment alongside another foreign language. This article is a part of a big research dedicated to the process of adaptation of the students from the countries of South-East Asia to a new educational environment and different cultures. The article represents the preliminary results of the study on major difficulties in mastering the pronunciation of English sounds due to the process of interference from mother's tongue and the first foreign language, in our case – Russian. By conducting our research for more than 3 years and being able to interview 356 students from theSouth-Eastern countries, we have come to several conclusions, which are represented in our article. According to our observation we suggest some practical advice that can help overcoming interference in teaching English as a second language to these kinds of students.

Keywords: TESOL, Pronunciation, Interference, Foreign Students, Teaching Methods

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1. Introduction

Intelligible pronunciation plays a huge role in successful communication. As a global language, English has evolved into a few native varieties and many other nonnative ones, across the globe. The nonnative English speaking people use English as a Lingua Franca, for international business, education and communication, so the English language has very many cross-cultural varieties where the non-native speaker varieties penetrate in all aspects of the language. However, nonnative English pronunciations are more widespread and mostly considered as incorrect in comparison to Standard English or pronunciations of native English speakers. Nonnative English pronunciation errors can be found in all of the major elements of English phonology, i.e. phonemes, syllables, word stress, rhythm and intonation.

The purpose of the paper is to represent the major difficulties in mastering the pronunciation of English sounds due to the processes of positive transference and interference from mother's tongue (L1) combining with the same processes of the first foreign language (L2) and their joint influence on the second foreign language (L3). The paper illustrates segmental (consonants and vowels) errors in English pronunciation of Chinese, Vietnamese, and Russian students at the time of studying English language, and the pronunciational errors of Chinese, Vietnamese students in the process of acquiring Russian language, in order to compare and contrast the results and find the pattern of the influence of the combination L1 + L2 on L3.

The research demonstrates that the prevailing influential element of the pronunciational errors is hidden in the combination of L1+L2 interaction, and not just L2: which leads us to the different methods of teaching.

2. Review Literature

«English pronunciation has various components such as sounds, stress, and variation in pitch, and the learner needs to understand the function of these as well as their form. Once learners are aware that English words have a stress pattern, that words can be pronounced in slightly different ways, that the pitch of the voice can be used to convey meaning, then they will know what to pay attention to and can build upon this basic awareness. Learners also need to develop a concern for pronunciation. They must recognize that poor, unintelligible speech will make their attempts at conversing frustrating and unpleasant both for themselves and for their listeners.» by Joanne Kenworthy.

The theoretical basis of the research was made up the works by: G. Kelly, P. Roach, M. Hewings, D.D. Crystal, J. Goodwin, P. Ashby, T. Jones, J.D. O'Conner and M. Celce-Murcia.

In the work "English Phonetics and Phonology," P. Roach argues that the improvement of the phonetic side of speech is not possible only through a mechanical work, in case to achieve the perfect sound of the vowels and consonants but it is also an understandable to the others pronunciation is needed. At the same side M. Hewings gives a number of the most common mistakes that should be paid attention to. Our research took into account the errors in the components of the phonetic system listed blow that can lead to misunderstanding and disruption of the act of oral communication, as listed below:

1. The pronunciation of consonants, as they are significant in the semantic definition of the word.

2. The pronunciation of the consonant clusters, as the students of different mother tongues tend either to add an additional sound or miss existing one.

3. The right pronunciation of vowels longitude, as long vowel is meaningful for the phonetic system of the English language, and therefore requires special attention.

4. The verbal stress, as according to M. Hewings is often wrongly chosen stressed syllable that causes difficulties in understanding the meaning of the statement.

5. The phrasal stress, as it is also can lead to misunderstanding between communication.

All the authors, mentioned above, are concerned about the role of pronunciation in educational process. Furthermore, they consider it necessary to pay as much attention to the phonetic aspect of language learning as possible, using communicative approach as a good basis for working out and an effective way to deal with the correction of pronunciational mistakes.

The researchers agree that some of the main difficulties in learning English as s foreign language are the discrepancy between the written and sound design of the words, the variety of sound variations that one letter can convey. In addition, the authors note the need to take into account the influence of the native language, the ability of students to adapt and the ability of the teacher to be flexible.

It should also be noted that among Russian scientists and researchers, the most popular point of view is that L3 is totally influenced by L2, and the role of L1 in this process is completely denied (Bagramova N.V., Lapidus B.A.). They insist that positive transfer learning skills of the first foreign language (L2) effectively impacts building on skills and capabilities when teaching L3. Point of reference of theoretical and practical researches of intensification of bilingual teaching is a relatively comparative method. With a deep analysis and adequate comprehension of bilingual teaching process one can speak of solving a complex of tasks connected with learning two foreign languages and of forming speech pattern and lingua-cultural content.

In this article, we do not want to argue with any of the foregoing ideas, we just feel the need to introduce the possibility of the combinational influence of L1 and L2 on the second foreign language.

3. The context and settings of the study

The uniqueness of the research lies in its background. The research was conducted in one of the leading pedagogical universities of St. Petersburg (Russia), on two different departments: Department of Russian as a Foreign Language and Department of Foreign Languages. This led to the peculiar composition of the educational groups our research was carried on. During a three-year period, every year, 13 groups of the students were examined, where 11 groups were from RFL faculty and consisted only of the students from the South-East Asia and 2 groups from FL faculty where all the students were Russian. All in all, it allowed us to study 356 people, which gave a plausible representative sample.

It is important to mention that the educational process's language at the University is Russian and for the students from RFL department, Russian is L2. All lectures, seminars, and

conferences are conducted in Russian. English language is L2 for the students of Foreign Language Department, while for the students from RFL department it is L3. The percentage of English language in the whole process of education reaches a maximum of 40%.

It is not less important to mention that there are no Russian students among the students of RFL department. The students in that department come from different countries of South-East and South Asia. The biggest group is Chinese.

Sample - table No.1 «The national component of the groups»

nationalities	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5
Chinese	45%	60%	75%	50%	80%
Vietnamese	25%	40%	10%	25%	-
Thais	15%	-	7%	25%	-
Korean	15%	-	13%	-	20%

As seen from the table above, the classroom situation was aggravated by cultural heterogeneity. It is also worth mentioning that the education system in Russia is different for all the students who have come to study. We are not talking about the advantages or disadvantages of one system of education over another; we are simply trying to state the conditions we had to deal with to get better results. From our side, we had theoretical and practical knowledge of the cultural differences of our students and their different learning styles.

In reference to this above context, we have formulated the research question as follows:

How significant is the influence of L1 and L2 combination in the area of pronunciation on L3 in a non-linguistic environment?

The design of this study was descriptive-qualitative. Also, a comparative-and-contrast data analysis was used. The research population was 356 students from thirteen groups during three subsequent years who were studying in the third year of the Bachelor's program at the Russian as a Foreign Language department and department of Foreign Languages of St. Petersburg State Pedagogical University, Russia. The data was collected through observation, individual questionnaires, video essays, and audio recordings. The video and audio recordings were carried out as students practiced in-classroom English speaking exercises and as homework. This data collection was taken over three years from September 2019 to December 2022. The researcher observed, noted, and recorded precisely the common pronunciational errors of the students and analyzed the changes depending on their L1 and L2. The final results after comparison and contract allowed us to come to the conclusion on the main question of the research.

All the data is represented in the several tables further in the "Discussion & Results" section of this article.

4. Discussion & Results

Table 1: influences on L2 (where L2 is English)

Main "difficult" sounds	**Russian**	**Chinese**	**Vietnamese**
vowels			
[æ]	doesn't exist in Russian - replaced with [e]	doesn't exist in Chinese - replaced with [a]/[ei]	doesn't exist in Vietnamese - replaced with [e]
[əʊ] – [ʊ]	pronounce as a single Russian [o]	-	Replaced with [u]
[i]/[iː] [uː]/[u]	Length of the vowel isn't important in Russian [i]	no distinction between short and long vowels [i]	mispronounce long vowel sounds as short vowel [i]
[ɒ]	Replaced with [ʌ]	doesn't occur in Chinese, use an open but Unrounded sound	Replaced with [ɔː]
[ou]	-	turn the short [ɔ] into a long [ɔː]	-
Consonants/ consonant clusters			
[l]	raise their tongue at the back of the mouth	difficult to produce the difference between [l] and [r], omit or replaced with the consonant nearby	does not have the equivalent sounds for [l] and [r], commonly mistaken for [n]
[r]	often trill the tongue	doesn't exist in Chinese, replaced with [n] or [l]	does not have the equivalent sounds for [l] and [r], commonly mistaken for [z]
[w]	doesn't contain the clear distinction between [w] –[v] – replaced with [v]/[f]	replaced with [v]/[f]	replaced with [v]/[f]
[θ]	replaced with [s]	replaced with [s]	consonants probably do not exist in Vietnamese, therefore people are not familiar with pronouncing these sounds like [θ], [ð], [z], [f]; [θ] – replaced with [t]
[ð]	replaced with [z]	replaced with [z]/[d]	consonants probably do not exist in Vietnamese, therefore people are not familiar with pronouncing these sounds like [θ], [ð], [z], [f]; [ð]- replaced with [d]
[h]	produce this sound in the mouth as [x]	-	-
-ng	Very hard [g] at the end of the word	-	[g] is heard at the end of the words and in the middle of the words
on/un (in the middle of the word)	-	tend to add an extra ***g*** at the end. So Monday becomes "Mongday"	-
Weak syllables: schwa [ə]	pronounce the vowel as it's written, making it too strong	-	-

As it is seen from the table above, there are several common mistakes in pronunciation among all three types of learners. Moreover, it is necessary to admit that within the table, we did not present all possible options, since the main goal was to show the most difficult sounds to pronounce among the speakers of these languages. Although, we would like to specify a few more errors:

1. Muting voiced consonants at word ending. In Russian, consonants at the end of words are typically voiceless and non-sonorous. In English, however, consonants at the end of words are voiced. This small difference can completely change the meaning of a word. For example, “bad” (adjective) becomes “bat” (noun), “cab” - “cap”, “dog” - “dock”, and so on. Muting voiced consonants does not change the meaning of the word in all cases, however, it is most common error for Russian native-speaking students.

2. Also Russian language can be relatively flat in tone with sudden inflections in pitch. It can be easy for speakers to misplace the primary stress in words on the wrong syllable. This can make spoken language harder to understand.

3. Chinese students tend to stress the last sound of a word and produce an extra syllable. For example, “and” becomes “an-duh”.

4. Keeping in mind that in Chinese language there are a lot of different dialects, which are typically classified into several groups (Mandarin, Wu, Min, Xiang, Gan, Hakka, and Yue) there are a lot of sounds that do not exist in them. For example: “b” as in “bag”; “d” as in “dog”; “g” as in “go”; “v” as in “very”; “z” as in “bees”; “sh” as in “show”; “j” as in “badge”; soft “j” as in “usually”; “r” as in “row”; “ch” as in “chew”; “sh” as in “shine”; voiced “th” as in “there”; voiceless “th” as in “both”.

5. Many Vietnamese students tend to speak English without stress at all, because many Vietnamese words have 2 syllables and each syllable is written separately, though both are needed to convey word meaning and each syllable is given the same stress for an equal length of time.

The next step of our research included the studying of the common errors in pronunciation of Russian as a foreign language.

Table 2: influences on L2 (where L2 is Russian)

Main “difficult” sounds vowels	**Chinese**	**Vietnamese**
[a]	doesn’t exist in Chinese - replaced with [ə]	Put it always under the stress
[ы] ([-])	The sound doesn’t exist in Chinese and often replaced with [e] or [ə]	The sound doesn’t exist in Vietnamese and often replaced with [i] or [i:]
[и] ([i])	-	Add the quantity of the sound makes it [i:]
ё ([jo])	doesn’t exist in Chinese - replaced with [o] or [e]	doesn’t exist in Vietnamese - replaced with [o:]

Consonants		
[с], [с'], [з], [з'] (close to [s] &[z])	Omit soft sounds and use only hard versions [с] & [з]	Do not understand the difference between soft and hard consonants, and use only [с'], [з'] – due to the melodiousness of the language
[ж] ([zh])	Replace with Chinese sound from the word 人 [ren]([man])	doesn't exist in Vietnamese replaced with [dz]
[ц] ([ts])	Replaced with [dz]	doesn't exist in Vietnamese replaced with [ts]
[щ] ([sh'a])	Replace with Chinese sound from the word 师 [shi] master	doesn't exist in Vietnamese replaced with [sh'a]
[р] ([r])	Replaced with [l], if [l] doesn't exist in the regional dialect it is replaced with [n]	Add vowel in front of the sound and get [or]
[л]([l])	If [l] doesn't exist in the regional dialect then it is omitted, or replaced with [n]	doesn't exist in Vietnamese replaced with [n]
[в]([v])	Very often is omitted in the middle of the word	-
[б], [п] ([b], [p])	Often replaces one another (at the beginning of the words [б]([b]) replaces with [п] ([p])	-

After analyzing the influence of students' mother tongues on their pronunciation of Russian as L2. We have to admit that it is already some existing tendency in replacing Russian sounds with English-like ones and led us to the third step of our research.

Table 3: influences on L3 (where L3 is English)
by the combination of L1 & L2 (where L2 is Russian)

Main "difficult" sounds	Chinese	Vietnamese	Influence
vowels			
[æ]	[e]/[a]	[e]/[a]	L1+ L2
[əʊ] – [ʊ]	[ɔ:]	[ɔ:]	L1+ L2
[i]/[i:] [u:]/[u]	[i]/[u]	[i]/[u]	L1
[ɒ]	[a:]	[a:]	L1+ L2
[ou]	[ou:]	[ou:]	L1 +L2
Consonants/consonant clusters			
[l]	[l']	[l']	L1 +L2
[r]	[p] (Russian version)	[p] (Russian version)	L2
[w]	[v]	[v]	L1
[θ]	[z]	[z]	L2
[ð]	[s]	[s]	L2
[h]	[h]	[h]	L1+ L2
-ing	[ɪŋ]	[ɪŋ]	L1 + L2
on/un (in the middle of the word)	[ʌ]	[ʌ]	L1 + L2
Weak syllables: schwa [ə]	[ə]	[ə]	L1 + L2

Considering the results presented in the table above, we can see that despite the influence of L2 (Russian), there are significant changes to the pronunciation of L3 (English) owing the combination L1+L2.

The result of the investigation into non-native English speakers' pronunciation indicates that speakers are confused about the qualitative difference between short vowels and long vowels and the influence of L2 (Russian) interferes with it. In many languages, the diphthong [əʊ] is generally pronounced as [o], and Russian as L2 only strengthens this erroneous option. This is a significant error in non-native English pronunciation. Many English consonants that do not exist in L1 language lead to replacement or avoidance in their pronunciation; as a result, English pronunciation is negatively influenced. The combination of L1 and L2 gives false hope to the students that they can rely on the sounds of L2 language to avoid the so-called "peculiar" English accent. (example-Chinglish). Also, it has been found that in most cases, L2 negatively interferes or transfers its main problems in the acquisition of English sounds.

As a result, the influence of the Russian language as L2 changes common errors for L3 (English), especially when the skills are not yet developed. Moreover, all non-existed sounds in the native language (L1) transform into an absolutely new version of phonetic errors due to the combination of L1 and L2 and lead to an absolutely incomprehensible accent.

5. Recommendations

"Each language should be considered as something completely self-sufficient, and only then, for methodological purpose, to facilitate mutual learning, it is possible to compare two language systems"[Sherba L.V.] According to many scientist: Arakin V.D., Ahmanova O.S., Gak V.G., Yartceva V.N., Barsuk R.Y., Barhudarov L.S., and others, the inclusion of comparative analysis in the process of teaching two or more foreign languages helps to accelerate and deepen the process of understanding, memorizing and automating the language and speech skills and abilities of the students.

The usage of comparative analysis for lingua-didactic purposes requires, first of all, identifying methodologically relevant similarities and differences between the compared languages. Although it is necessary to determine the type of interlingua interference, and what difficulties may arise as a result of interlingua differences. At the final stage, it becomes necessary to create a system of exercises based on interlingua comparison as a method of teaching a non-native language.

The comparison of the studied languages for didactic purposes allows the teacher to identify the difficulties associated with the peculiarities of languages of different systems, and to find ways to overcome the difficulties. Moreover, a teaching aid is required that would be based on the results of a comparative analysis, and take into account the differences and similarities of the languages being studied, which should be reflected in the system of exercises and the presentation of the material.

At the beginning of the language educational course, it is necessary to include a separate phonetic block for both L2 and L3. Also, it is essential to use a comparative method for teaching L3, in order to anticipate interference and use positive transfer to the maximum. Not superfluous, in our opinion, is the use of authentic socio-marked materials, with a percentage increase in video and audio content.

6. Conclusion

The purpose of this article is to explore the process of teaching the phonetics of two foreign languages, English and Russian, which, should be based, according to our opinion, on the comparative analysis of the languages being studied. The results of this analysis help teachers to coordinate their work and achieve positive results. The similarities and differences in the phonetic systems of the languages studied in parallel not only help students to better understand and assimilate the studied linguistic phenomena and processes but also contribute to the development of linguistic conjecture, broadening their horizons and increasing motivation.

The comparative study of two foreign languages is also useful for a deeper understanding of linguistic phenomena and processes that take place in Russian (L2), English (L3) and the native languages of students. Studying several foreign languages is not an isolated process, but an interdependent and interconnected simultaneous process, based on the results of the comparative analysis of languages and on the linguistic experience of students.

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EFL Teachers' Experiences and Attitudes to Emergency Remote Teaching at Japanese Universities

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
In 2020 teachers worldwide faced an unprecedented situation in the form of the COVID-19 pandemic. In Japan, this forced educators to quickly adapt face-to-face programs to online ones as the new academic year started in April 2020. Although Japan is a technology rich society, the use of technology in education had been limited up until then. A small-scale pilot study (*N=31*) was conducted to explore the experiences of Japanese university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers from spring 2020 until summer 2022 under emergency remote teaching (ERT) conditions. The overall results of the study showed positive attitudes towards continued use of digital tools once ERT ceases, but that training and support were lacking during this period. The focus of this paper will be on the themes that emerged through the qualitative coding of the optional comments added by respondents (*n=13*) to this pilot study. Four important themes were identified: previous fears of technology, technical problems, student related problems and achievements, and skills learned. Comments under these themes indicate that instructors developed or enhanced their skills with technology whilst teaching during ERT, but that many faced difficulties using institutional learning management systems (LMSs), particularly those in part-time positions who had to manage teaching across multiple platforms, and those whose LMSs were unable to cope with the increased traffic and usage. This indicates that if these new skills and enthusiasm for technologically-aided teaching are to be harnessed, improved resources and support will be required moving forward.

Keywords: Emergency Remote Teaching (ERT), Digital Tools, Online Teaching

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Introduction

In spring 2020, like many educators worldwide, the COVID-19 pandemic forced teachers in Japan to reconfigure lessons planned for face-to-face classes to online ones. Effective online programs usually require significant time to develop and plan. However, the pandemic did not allow for this and also mandated that teachers, some of whom were inexperienced with online teaching or computer assisted learning, had to suddenly teach utilizing technology. In some cases, this may even have included using an institution's learning management system (LMS) for the first time (Lavolette, 2022; Provenzano, 2022). Indeed, OECD data from 2019 indicates that teachers throughout Japan felt unprepared for information and communication technology (ICT) based teaching prior to the pandemic (OECD, 2019), exacerbated by the low level of online learning programs offered by institutions or the utilization of digital tools in classrooms (Apple & Mills, 2022; Aoki, 2010; Funamori, 2017). This despite a plethora of research indicating the benefits that digital learning can provide for students, most importantly, the opportunity to create a more student-centered learning environment (Aoki, 2010; Caldwell, 2018; Stevens, Bienz, Wali, Condie & Schismenos, 2021).

With this as a backdrop, it is important to understand what teachers experienced with the abrupt shift to online teaching during emergency remote teaching (ERT) and how that can help inform new policies, support, and training moving forward. Though this area is still under-researched, some limited evidence of new or heightened enthusiasm for the use of digital tools in teaching beyond ERT has been found (Donnellan, Shiobara, & Jolley, 2022; Provenzano, 2022), and anecdotally institutions around Japan are looking to harness the potential that new online class formats and digital tools can offer. With this in mind, free optional responses (*n=13)* to a small-scale pilot study *(N=31)* (Donnellan et al., 2022) were coded for themes. Four important themes emerged: previous fears of technology, technical problems, student related problems and achievements, and skills learned. These themes, salient comments from respondents under these themes, and their implications are discussed in this paper.

Background

Online learning landscape in Japan prior to 2020

Prior to ERT commencing in April 2020, there had been official efforts to promote and expand e-learning and ICT use in classrooms in Japan through governmental strategies and recommendations. Aoki (2010) outlines the various policies that the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has implemented since 2001, starting with its e-Japan Initiative, to try and promote e-learning at tertiary institutions. However, she posits that despite one of the goals of these initiatives being to increase interactiveness in classes, where ICT has been implemented it has not brought about any real pedagogical innovation, and merely replaced standard methods of classroom instruction, in the case of Japan, often lectures containing information the students need to memorize, with recorded versions (pp. 858). This mirrors what Magana (2017) identified as "translational technology use" in his model for innovation in learning, where technology is used purely for a purpose that could also be achieved without technology. Magana (2017) further states that the next stage is "transformational technology use" which is when technology is used in ways that engage the students in tasks that could not be done without technology, thus allowing students to create new content and share digital representations of their knowledge. In fact, in this current paper there is evidence that a number of teachers seemed to have moved to this

stage with their students during ERT by using tools such as Google Docs and other online platforms.

Funamori (2017) further discusses how Japanese institutions have been slow to adapt to the digital age, and cites a lack of appropriate technological support and tools at institutions, compared with other countries leading the field, as hurdles to effective implementation of wider e-learning and ICT use. In particular, they quote 2015 findings from a MEXT survey investigating ICT usage that 95% of institutions responded they don't have adequate staff or funding to create and maintain new ICT content and resources (pp. 42). In regards to EFL teachers, who are the focus of this current paper, Ferreira's (2021) qualitative look into the barriers faced by EFL teachers when trying to implement ICT in their classes found three main obstacles: 1. lack of basic equipment such as projectors, computers, and Internet access, 2. difficult to use software, 3. decisions about whether it was appropriate for class goals and objectives.

With this as a backdrop, tertiary teachers across Japan were forced into ERT, most commonly asynchronously or synchronously (Donnellan et al., 2022), in April 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic. For some this may even have meant accessing an institutional LMS for the first time (Lavolette, 2022; Provenzano, 2022). Indeed, prior to ERT, Funamori (2017) outlined how LMSs were overwhelmingly underutilized at institutions where they had been implemented. However, initial findings have been positive in regards to instructors' desires to continue using the digital tools they utilized during their ERT, regardless of whether they had previous experience with them or not (Donnellan et al., 2022). To harness this enthusiasm and the skills learned during the ERT enforced uptake of online learning and utilization of digital tools, just as MEXT has been advocating for, it is necessary to understand how we can most effectively transition to the "new normal". For this reason, the voluntarily added additional comments (*n=13)* to a pilot study (*N=31)* (Donnellan et al., 2022) have been qualitatively coded for themes in regards to the experiences of non-Japanese EFL university teachers in Japan. It is hoped that their experiences will help to inform policy and training in the future.

Methodology

Thirteen respondents added optional comments in response to Donnellen et al.'s (2022) pilot study *(N=31*) investigating ERT conditions experienced by EFL teachers in Japan. All respondents were non-Japanese university EFL teachers who had taught at the university level prior to the pandemic and throughout ERT. Of the initial 31 respondents, 10 were full-time tenured faculty members, 13 were in full-time contracted positions, and 8 were part-time teachers. However, of the 13 to add optional comments, seven were part-time teachers, five were in full-time contracted positions, and only one was a full-time tenured faculty member. Therefore, though a majority of the respondents for the initial survey were tenured or full-time contracted faculty members, a majority that added optional comments were part-time teachers. In fact, only one part-time respondent chose not to add a response to this section.

The 13 optional comments were qualitatively coded and explored for themes, initially by one coder and then checked for inter-coder agreement with the other research team members. Four important themes emerged: previous fears of technology, technical problems, student related problems and achievements, and skills learned. Some of the responses contained comments applicable to more than one theme. These themes, examples of pertinent comments from respondents under these themes, and their implications are discussed below.

All responses or partial use of responses are replicated authentically and have not been corrected for any perceived mistakes or unusual wording.

Results and Discussion

Theme 1: Previous Fears of Technology

Although MEXT has been encouraging the use of technology in the classroom for years, five responses under this theme identified teachers who had been resisting that change. Reluctance to change and change aversion are very common in the workplace, especially without adequate support (Snyder, 2017). In fact, two teachers commented that they were "forced" to teach online at the start of the pandemic. This type of strong wording indicates a clear reluctance to do so. However, these responses often overlap with another identified theme, "skills learned", and both of them commented that by the end of the period of ERT they were grateful that they had learned new skills (see Comments 1 and 2).

Comment 1: *ERT forced me to face my fears about online educational tools and provided me the impetus and time to learn how to implement various online tools in my teaching. The only good to come see out of the COVID crisis was bringing my teaching skills into 21st century, if only to a limited degree.*

Comment 2: *I believe the "force" to go online these past couple of years has made me appreciate even more how beneficial it is for students to have technical/digital skills and confidence. As a teacher I also need to improve my knowledge and skills to set a good example.*

Another teacher used similarly strong wording, stating that they were "terrified" at the start, but also had a positive experience in the end (see Comment 3).

Comment 3: *I was terrified about it but found it quite fun in the end.*

Theme 2: Technical Problems

Six responses under this theme identified various technical problems teachers faced during ERT. In particular, the different LMSs in different universities was identified as a serious problem for a number of teachers. This is particularly pertinent when we consider that the majority of these optional comments across all themes were made by part-time teachers. Many university EFL teachers work part-time at various institutions and departments, often at a different site daily. They have to navigate differing policies not only at the institutional level, but even between departments, as well as manage disparate levels of support, training and understanding from their direct supervisors and universities. Therefore, faced with these struggles it is unsurprising that they most often felt compelled to add qualitative responses. It is possible that this survey was the only place that these part-time teachers had a voice to express their attitudes to the period of ERT.

Comments further identified that the lack of an adequate LMS means that institutions are missing opportunities to circumvent common non-ERT related problems, such as when typhoons occur or there are troubles with public transport (see Comment 4). However, another comment posits that institutions may not understand how poorly their LMS performs as they don't have experience using any other LMS (see Comment 5). In this way part-time

teachers' experiences can be a valuable asset as they have insight into various platforms. Unfortunately, part-time teachers' input is rarely sought for such things.

Finally, the lack of training or the varying levels of it that were offered was also highlighted in comments under this theme (see Comments 4 and 6). At the start of the period of ERT a number of universities LMSs and WiFi systems crashed due to the sudden increase in usage (Franks, 2021). In response to these problems there have been reports that many universities worked very hard to rectify this and now have much more stable systems. MEXT also recognised the need for further support in this area and allocated $95 million (US$) in the supplementary budget in 2020 to help higher education institutions build better IT infrastructure for online classes and use of digital tools (MEXT, 2020). However, based on the comments under this theme it seems that part-time instructors felt that the university administration did not understand how difficult it was for teachers to suddenly master an LMS or when an institution's LMS did not perform satisfactorily.

Comment 4: *I feel that institutions need to adopt an LMS/CMS that will not crash under use in ERT (Typhoons,Earthquakes, Train strikes, etc) and offer proper training to all instructors.*

Comment 5: *LMSs vary greatly in quality between institutions. I am using three different LMSs (Manaba, Blackboard, and a proprietary system) at four different schools. It seems as if administrators are not aware of the limitations (ie poor quality) of the LMS their institution uses because they have not had to use other LMSs. FWIW, Manaba is by far and away the worst of the LMSs I use* (Note: FWIW = For what it's worth).

Comment 6: *Also, as a part-timer, spring 2020 meant having to master each institution's differing LMS system and differing methods of instruction tools. Training or "just get on with it" differed from place to place.*

Theme 3: Student Related Problems and Achievements

Four comments under this theme were related to problems the teachers faced with students online, as well as some of the advantages and disadvantages of students learning in online classes. Unlike non-ERT online courses, students had not enrolled in their courses with the expectation of learning online. Therefore, considerations about their privacy and anxiety about being on camera often meant that instructors had to be mindful of student boundaries in online synchronous classes (see Comment 7). However, this can also hinder the class and affect teacher motivation, which can potentially affect class quality and levels of engagement with the class (Apple & Mills, 2022). It is important to note that all of the teachers who responded to this survey were living in a foreign country, unable to visit family and friends in their home countries and possibly feeling very isolated. The period of ERT may have added to their loneliness when they had little communication with colleagues, and students did not engage actively in the class.

Comment 7: *Unengaged students were also hugely demotivating. Felt very lonely teaching. No feedback or interaction.*

Furthermore, though some teachers reported they had come to enjoy the flexibility of online teaching, they still felt that in order for students to improve their English, face-to-face classes were more beneficial than online classes (see Comment 8).

Comment 8: *The first year of synchronous teaching was very difficult since I needed to adapt and change all of my lessons for an online medium. Although it is now easier and more convenient for me to teach online, I think my students have more opportunities to improve their English with in-person classes.*

Though these are important insights into the ERT teacher experience it should be remembered that these problems occurred under ERT conditions, something that was unprecedented, and for which neither teachers nor students were prepared. However, moving forward, issues such as these can potentially be mitigated with clear and effective policies and training. This will be important if institutions implement new class formats that are already being discussed and utilised, such as hybrid classes, which allow certain students to join a face-to-face class online synchronously when they cannot attend campus. This training and support should not be the sole responsibility of capable individuals who show initiative in sharing their expertise. As ERT highlighted, despite MEXT advocating for more e-learning and utilisation of ICT in classrooms for years, it was a sudden, abrupt, and difficult transition to online classes. Therefore, greater top-down support to assist in online based pedagogical innovation will be needed. This is important when we consider that one of the commenters also noted how positively their students received online lessons and ICT usage in class (see Comment 9).

Comment 9: *The students seem very receptive to online and other digital teaching methods such as editing docs via Google Docs rather than a paper version, which they seem to often lose or mishandle. Many students embraced having a laptop or using smartphones when I offered online components and seem to prefer this to paper handouts. The online tools such as Kahoot. Socrative, and others were received favorably according to surveys.*

Theme 4: Skills Learned

As seen above, teachers expressed the problems they encountered during ERT, but four responses also indicated that it had been a time of professional development. Comments under this theme often corresponded with an initial fear of using technology in teaching. However, COVID-19 became the catalyst to force change, which they seemed grateful for in the end. One commenter even mentioned that they had become a “complete convert” and plans to continue using the digital tools utilized during ERT for regular classes (see Comment 10). This is particularly pertinent as Comment 10 came from the same teacher who described themself as “terrified” at the start of the period of ERT in Comment 3.

Comment 10: *I became a complete convert to Zoom, Google Classroom and Slack. Now I feel at a disadvantage if I work somewhere where I can't use Google Classroom. I plan to use it as much as possible in the future!*

In one case, ERT enforced an acceleration of a planned move away from paper and towards the greater use of online platforms and tools. The respondent explained that this was a useful time for learning and that their department plans to continue using the tools they needed during ERT (see Comment 11).

Comment 11: *Just before the pandemic we had put in a proposal to become a BYOD department. Our intention had been to move slowly toward less paper and more digital content. The pandemic forced our hand and we had to accelerate that process.We were online in some way for 4 semesters and we learned a lot during that time. We have been*

using and will continue to use the university's LMS to deliver materials, conduct tests, post discussion boards, etc. We also often use Kahoots, and other ed tech. We were limited in our use of this before the pandemic, but this has been a good addition to the program.

As these comments display, there have been benefits to the enforced ERT. Individuals have found new effective methods to conduct their classes and one department that we know of through this study had the chance to implement an already planned move away from paper and increase their digital usage. However, one concern regarding this new enthusiasm towards digital tools and online learning opportunities is how well-equipped regular classrooms and teachers are for this desired utilisation of digital tools. As Ferreira (2021) discovered, simple access to a projector or the Internet were hurdles teachers had to overcome in order to implement ICT in their classes. Part-time teachers are particularly vulnerable to this as they lack the same level of financial support that full-time contracted and tenured instructors have access to. Furthermore, it is likely that the expectations of what is possible for classes has not only shifted for teachers, but for students alike. They are the so-called "digital natives" (Prensky, 2001) and ERT enforced greater use of digital tools in Japanese classes, something which had been lacking prior to ERT. Therefore, as findings have shown a positive correlation between the use of digital tools and creating a student-centered learning environment, improving learning outcomes, and increasing student engagement (Aoki, 2010; Caldwell, 2018; Moeller & Reitzes, 2011; Stevens et al., 2021), it would be prudent for institutions to review how well equipped they are for greater use of digital and online tools for learning and teaching in the future.

Conclusion

Thirteen out of 31 respondents chose to add optional comments on a survey into ERT in Japan. Interestingly, whilst a majority of the respondents to the study were either tenured or full-time contracted faculty members, the majority of the comments added were from part-time teachers. We propose that this is because they had the most difficult time during ERT, lacking any full-time or centralized support and also having to navigate various platforms, policies, and levels of training and support at different universities. As many programs and departments rely heavily on part-time teachers to conduct their classes, their comments are an important insight into where improvements can be made, not only at the supervisory level, but also institutionally and higher.

However, all the comments offer meaningful observations regarding the experiences of EFL teachers during ERT and how that will potentially influence the academic landscape moving forward. The qualitative coding of the optional comments in our study shows that teachers gained skills that they hope to continue harnessing moving forward, but often found training and support hit or miss. Therefore, effective training and resources in how to effectively develop programs using digital tools and how to use said tools, as well as how to manage students online, will be needed as things continue to evolve. Furthermore, others noted how already available basic resources, such as institutional LMSs, were often found lacking. Therefore, if the MEXT goals of increased online engagement and usage are to be met, ERT has highlighted one basic area, that of the need for more reliable and robust LMSs, that can significantly help or hinder the online learning and teaching experience. Early anecdotal reports show that some institutions have already taken steps to rectify this situation, but as our survey was conducted in summer 2022, and respondents were still expressing difficulties with such things, it illustrates that work is still needed more broadly. Importantly, policies based around sound pedagogy will also be required if institutions continue to allow some

forms of asynchronous or synchronous learning for certain students or classes. For this to happen, continued research will be important to help inform the currently developing and differing circumstances.

Finally, this study has important limitations to consider, namely the number of respondents and the comment pool are small, and that it only looks at the experiences of non-Japanese EFL teachers in Japan. Moving forward it will be important to gain insight to student and non-EFL teacher experiences during ERT in Japan and how they may also inform the new learning environment in higher education in Japan as ERT slowly draws to a close.

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Island of Individuation: Teaching With a New, Dynamic Approach to the Development of the Human Psyche in the Singapore Context

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The fostering of not just better mental health outcomes, but a more creative, knowledgeable and versatile workforce (Watermeyer, Chen & Ang 2021) has been at the forefront of Singapore's development of her people since the seminal events of the late 2010s: the passing of Mr Lee Kuan Yew, the Singapore Bicentennial, the COVID-19 pandemic, and the 4G leadership transition. Occurring in tandem with this have been the arrival of two of the most diverse and metacognitively-aware generations the planet has likely ever seen, Generation Z and Generation Alpha, the possibilities, anxieties and dangers of a more technologically-advanced population and society, and the normalisation and sensitization of both to issues of trauma, resilience and inequality (e.g. Ang Qing 2022, Neo et al. 2022). In relation to all of these, this presentation introduces a new theory of the human psyche known as Individuation Theory, developed and applied during the COVID-19 pandemic in a H1 General Paper classroom in a government junior college in Singapore by the author. This presentation will consider how Individuation Theory offers a new and dynamic means of working with diverse, intelligent and trauma- and abuse-aware young Singaporeans who are not simply looking for the traditional 5Cs (Elangovan 2021), but for four new intangible qualities Singaporeans have always struggled to appreciate: value, identity, vulnerability and authenticity (VIVA). Alongside a consideration of the well-documented VUCA context of Singapore, therefore, the presentation will outline these four new VIVA factors emerging within the collective Singapore psyche, and how Individuation Theory supports both their development in younger Singaporeans as well as larger outcomes related to community- and nation-building.

Keywords: Osura Pesuasang/Individuation Theory, Trauma, Teaching, COVID-19, Singapore

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Introduction: A creole/indigenous sexual abuse and suicide survivor in Singapore

The silent pandemic of sexual abuse and trauma is nothing new, but both Singaporeans and people in general have become more comfortable talking about it and trying to break free of it. Worldwide, the two major events that appear to have catalysed this change are the #MeToo movement, starting from 2017, and of course the COVID-19 pandemic, starting from late 2019. All students in K-12 classrooms worldwide born from 2000 onwards will thus have been affected by the first, and 2002 by the second; in other words, Generations Z and Alpha are two of the most trauma-conscious generations to ever have existed on the planet.

I am a gay, non-binary Kristang creole/indigenous millennial Singaporean (born 1 October 1992); my status as a millennial and meant that I was hence arguably not as 'naturally' exposed to such new concepts when #MeToo first became prominent in the collective psyche, having just completed my Bachelor's degree in Linguistics from the National University of Singapore at the time in October 2017. However, I was forced into a much greater appreciation of trauma and abuse when I was sexually and psychoemotionally abused by a fellow Kodrah Kristang Core Team member from August 2018 to July 2019, prompting me to enter therapy between August 2019 and April 2020 (33 sessions total) while I was working fulltime in a government junior college (JC), with the full knowledge (and support) of the college leadership at the time. It was during therapy that I also only first understood that I had been previously sexually and psycho-emotionally abused by another friend from 2008 to 2013, prompting me to nearly commit suicide on 1 February 2013, as well as by family as a child in 1996 or 1997. I desperately wanted to understand not only why I was so susceptible to abuse, especially psychoemotional abuse, despite being someone who had otherwise served in multiple major leadership positions (and therefore had believed that I had been able to manage my own psychoemotional boundaries and needs) in secondary school, junior college, university and in the public sphere, but why people I had loved and trusted would even think of doing something like this to me.

Cognitive function theory

My therapist introduced me to a number of extant systems for organising people's psyches and inner worlds, including the Enneagram and Spiral Dynamics Theory, but the only one that really stuck was Jung (1921)'s theory of how every single person's inner world can be understood as a combination of at first four and later eight separate cognitive functions (Beebe 2017), also known as function-attitudes and by other names and/or in other forms (e.g. Nardi 2005, Berens 2006). Cognitive function theory was the only theory that not only allowed me to consistently recognise and account for my own behaviour and the behaviours of my abusers in the past, but to predict and anticipate the thoughts and feelings of my students to the extent that one student jokingly accused me of being a practitioner of some form of new Kristang magic, and another walked around college shouting, to anyone who would listen, "Mr Wong fixed my brain!"

However, there is a great deal of fair criticism of cognitive function theory in Western psychological approaches to the psyche (e.g. Bonds 2002 and as discussed in Roesler 2013), especially for the following reasons:

- It is incomplete, only attempting to organise and structure a very preliminary part

- It is framed almost entirely within Jung's Western and Christian paradigm, rarely even attempting to include indigenous traditions and approaches to the psyche
- It is overwhelmingly patriarchal and completely fails quite often to account for the inner experiences of women, to say nothing of LGBTQ+ people and others

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), which is the most visible use of Jung's original theory, is also therefore fairly criticized for similar reasons:

- It is also incomplete by derivation, since the starting theory that it is based on is also incomplete. In particular, it presents hyper-reductive stereotypes of each of the sixteen ego-patterns that, when taken to their extremes, lock people into thinking that that is all they will ever be (which for some ego-patterns includes suggesting that they are robots or machines, or hypersexual or primitive)
- All MBTI tests determining someone's ego-pattern via impersonal means cannot account for the test taker's intent and objectives in taking the test, which are two of the eight functions (introverted Intuition and extroverted Thinking). Any praxis as a teacher will have usually helped one recognise that students' results are often affected by their motives in succeeding at or failing the test.

Osura Pesuasang

The Osura Pesuasang / Individuation Theory is a radical new grassroots creole/indigenous LGBTQ+ friendly and neurodiverse theory of the human psyche that was developed by the author starting in September 2020 to completely overhaul cognitive function theory while still recognising the observable phenomena Jung and subsequent Jungian analysts were able to uncover: the first eight cognitive functions and sixteen ego-patterns (Wong, 2022a). The four most major principles undergirding the Osura are:

- The psyche is recognized to have both infinite potential and a certain way of evolving that potential, and therefore there is no actual end state to human individuation (i.e. it is impossible to ever say 'I have integrated the 8th function and therefore my psyche is complete'). Where Jungian thought and MBTI seek mostly to describe and categorise, the Osura seeks to transform and encourage diversity and agency by highlighting that the psyche is instead an infinitely ever-expanding structure that is both fractal and consistent to a degree, and mutable and particular to a degree.
- Ego-pattern hypotheses are thus exclusively formed and refined through the building of authentic, real human relationships that invite dialogue, debate and co-construction between teacher and student, or analyst and client. This is a far better way of understanding the full breadth and depth of the structure of someone's inner world with reasoned and humanizing accuracy, and to account for both conscious and unconscious daily life.
- Individuation Theory is designed with every single human being in mind as far as possible, meaning that it is ground-up, creole / indigenous, postcolonial, LGBTQ+ friendly and neurodiverse, and places as a primary focus making mental health and well-being fully accessible to the layperson. As the Theory itself predicts, an analyst is occasionally useful, especially at the earlier stages of individuation, but the ultimate goal of Individuation Theory is to develop individuals who can independently work with and comprehend their own psyche, and thereby have as full ability as possible to exercise agency over their mind and soul, as we do with body and heart.

- Individuation Theory always aspires to full internal structural coherence. Where Jungian thought is still comfortable with leaving many major constructs unattached to the 8-function structure (e.g. the Self, the Spirit of the Depths, the Unus Mundus), the Osura strives to avoid this practice.

Methodology: Teaching with individuation

The Osura was first used implicitly with the author's classes in a government junior college cohort from September 2020 during consultations, and then explicitly also embedded into H1 General Paper tutorials with the author's classes in a second cohort destined to graduate in November 2022 from the latter half of JC1 in August 2021 (Wong, 2022b). Both cohorts showed stunning and very unexpected progress both quantitatively and qualitatively, with all three of the author's classes in the second cohort in particular staying in the top 10 out of 30 classes in the college at all subsequent summative examinations, despite very different starting average L1R5 and English grades at point of college entry, and thereafter performing near the top of the junior college's cohort at the actual 2022 Singapore Cambridge General Certificate of Education Advanced Level (A-Levels), with many students achieving perfect scores. The main reason for this seems be that the Osura provides very clear scaffolding for developing one's own creative ability and metacognition, which are two of the most critical skills in the otherwise relatively unstructured H1 General Paper. The general process by which this was achieved is captured in reductive fashion below. In practice, each stage was an ongoing effort with each student or within the author himself, rather than a strictly linear sequence.

1. Teacher recognises and accepts own hypothesized ego-pattern and any trauma affecting teacher's own ability to teach effectively; the ego-pattern hypothesis is further constantly subjected to query and deconstruction to ensure that the hypothesis is accurate.
2. Co-construction of hypotheses for student ego-patterns by teacher and students, either in student-requested formal life coaching consultations or based on data from GP consultations.
3. Dissemination of metacognitive reflection handouts and hypothesised articulated structure of each individual student's ego-pattern. Each student receives a personalised individuation hypothesis chart for the particular hypothesised component of the psyche as relevant to GP and that particular lesson. To maintain the principle of full internal coherence and to provide a point of comparison for critique and self-analysis, the teacher's own hypothesis for the structure of their own psyche as it stands at the time is also provided.
4. Bite-sized 5-15 min classroom-level frontal teaching of Individuation Theory only as directly relevant to creative writing in GP in tutorials; deliberate avoidance of 'creating a second subject.'

Results and Conclusion

Students in the cohort were asked to write a "Letter to a Younger Person Entering JC who may share your Ego-Pattern" in August of JC2 as part of the lead-up to graduation. These letters, collected across two cohorts of students from all 16 hypothesised ego-patterns from 2020-2022, were consistently focused on four central goals that were very different from the traditional 5Cs of previously understood Singaporean aspiration:

- Value: Living and developing a life of (unique) worth

- Identity: Accepting and cherishing all of oneself and one's life
- Vulnerability: Negotiating trauma and abuse
- Authenticity: Moving beyond image and face

The VIVA aspirations also seem to connect to two cognitive functions not well understood in Singapore, introverted Feeling (Fi) and introverted Intuition (Ni); these aspirations and the success of the Osura in the classroom, together with the wider emerging interest across generations in negotiating trauma and abuse, and breaking free from cycles of toxic and unhealthy behaviour toward greater empathy and collective empowerment, all suggest that future generations seek a more sustainable, healthy, balanced and nuanced relationship with not just the world around them, but with themselves.

We often treat our inner world, our psyche, and our emotions and desires as terrifying, uncontrollable and irrational dragons or monsters that cannot be tamed, negotiated with or understood. But it is also up to us to see that that, too, is an image and a story that we tell ourselves, both individually and as a society. It is also our choice, both individually and as a society, to tell a better one going forward for the benefit of us all.

Acknowledgements

I wish to thank my husband, Fuad Johari, my colleagues Lionel Lye, Renuka Satianathan, Ng Huiqi, Kajal Kaur Khaira and Darren Chong, and my amazing students from the classes of 19-A2, 19-A5, 19-I5, 21-I4, 21-O2, 21-O4, ODAC, Press, Futures & Foresight Methodologies and life coaching, whose support, strength, courage and respect provided so much of the foundation of this research into the frontiers of who we all could be as individuated, authentic, vulnerable and empathetic human beings.

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Application of Project Based Learning Methods in Distance Learning During the Pandemic

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
To prevent the spread of Covid-19 in the university world, one of the methods is online learning, which is carried out using a smartphone or laptop. However, in online learning, lecturers must be innovative so that learning objectives are achieved, obstacles in online learning include internet signal disturbances, sleepiness, boredom, and health problems such as the senses of sight and hearing. To reduce these effects, researchers apply project-based learning models to learning models. on line. In its application, researchers use syntax, namely a) Determining issues, b) Communicating, c) Mentoring and discussion d) Dissemination. The purpose of this study is to analyze the application of the Project Based Learning model to online learning in the Mechanical Engineering Department. The results showed that 22 (69%) students were very competent in measuring workpieces using calipers and micrometers, 10 (31%) students were competent in measuring workpieces using measuring instruments and calipers, and of the 32 students all had criteria according to learning objectives. In addition, the positive impact of this learning model a) Makes students study independently, b) Eliminates boredom, c) Reduces sleepiness, d) Reduces eye and ear pain due to too long listening to smartphones and laptops e) Reducing the cost of consuming the internet, to carry out learning online using Project-based learning must be supported by learning facilities and student learning motivation.

Keywords: Project Based Learning, Online, Pandemic, Learning Outcomes, Motivation

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Introduction

In 2019 the Covid 19 pandemic spread throughout the world and changed patterns of socializing, studying, and working (Velavan & Meyer, 2020). Almost all life support sectors were affected, such as socio-cultural, economic, and education (Orfan & Elmyar, 2020). Covid 19 first spread in the city of Wuhan, China, this virus infects the human respiratory system, the characteristics of infected people start from fever, dizziness, vomiting, and pain all over the body, dry cough, and after a few days usually shortness of breath resulting in reduced oxygen stupor and can eventually lead to death (Li et al., 2020). The Covid-19 virus is very contagious, this virus can be transmitted through liquids, physical contact, and air if you are in a closed room.

As a result of the COVID-19 Pandemic, it is recommended that a health protocol be issued by WHO to limit people gathering in large numbers so that learning activities are carried out using distance education or in Indonesia, it is called Distance Learning (PJJ)/online method. PJJ learning is learning where students and lecturers cannot meet face-to-face in one actual room. The pandemic in 2019 resulted in global education switching to online education (Al Lily et al., 2020), in a pandemic condition it is necessary to have a different approach to learning activities (Sujarwo et al., 2022), a sudden transition from offline learning on campus or school to online learning has brought a significantly increased workload for lecturers, students, and education stakeholders because they work not only to stream content and teaching materials into online areas but also have to be proficient enough to run the required software programs (Allen et al., 2020). In this activity, lecturers and students meet face to face in a virtual space using internet devices and social media, such as WhatsApp groups (WAG), media meetings such as zoom, meet, google class, etc. This activity is also called online learning (Herliandry et al., 2020).

Compliance problems in online implementation can be seen in human resources, infrastructure availability, and implementation techniques to gain knowledge. According to Sanjaya, learning facilities are everything that supports an easy learning system. Meanwhile, according to Daryanto, infrastructure can be interpreted as something that is not directly used to achieve goals in education, for example, areas or places, college buildings, sports fields, cash, and so on (Daryanto, 2011). Online learning is inseparable from the use of technology. Technological facilities that assist the implementation of online learning are the use of educational control information systems.

Changes in the implementation of learning from real face-to-face learning to virtual face-to-face learning or online learning certainly have an impact on learning outcomes. students, lecturer, and student psychology, learning approach methods (Handarini, 2020; Renfrew et al., 2021). In online learning, learning facilities such as specifications for smartphones, laptops, and internet networks greatly affect the learning process, because some smartphones and laptops do not support the software used in learning. The ability of lecturers and students to use IT (Information) devices also plays an important role in online learning activities, because almost all learning activities are carried out using IT devices including delivering material by lecturers and assignments and exams that must be carried out by students.

Considering that facilities and infrastructure are the elements that influence the success of a teaching and learning system, the need for and use of learning facilities must be in accordance with the learning objectives. Online learning is inseparable from elements that support the learning process. Every element of higher education, including lecturers,

technicians, and students, experiences unexpected adjustments that must adapt to the latest conditions, so the readiness of the facilities and infrastructure used needs to be considered with the aim of supporting the learning process.

The condition of the learning environment also greatly influences online learning, online learning allows lecturers and students to carry out activities anywhere and anytime as long as there is support for learning facilities, and as long as these lecturers and students are in their respective homes. Besides that, motivational learning activities greatly affect learning objectives, many researchers have conducted research on the influence of motivation in the world of educational psychology by conducting lecturers and students, motivation is part of the psychology of lecturers and students, and many factors influence the psychology of lecturers and students in online learning One of them is the boredom experienced by students while participating in learning.

Learning motivation is any effort from within that recognizes learning activities and establishes certain continuity and offers a way for learning activities to achieve the desired goals. Success motivation is a person's effort and belief to identify learning goals with certain success requirements and have the ability to overcome all obstacles that limit goal marketing. In addition, the definition of success motivation can also be expressed as motivation intended to pursue achievement, namely to expand or reveal potential (Purwanto, 2014).

In fact, students feel bored when they have to listen to the teacher explaining material during online learning, sometimes students turn off the video and do other activities besides listening to the lecturer's explanation, such as washing, sleeping, traveling, helping parents, doing other course assignments, and other activities. other. So that students don't get bored, lecturers need to innovate learning approaches, innovative learning media.

One of the innovations carried out is to develop a Project Based Learning learning model, a Project Based Learning learning model is a mastery method that gives freedom to students to plan learning activities, carry out tasks privately or collaboratively, and ultimately produce work products that can be known by others (Mahendra, 2017). Currently, the government recommends universities through IKU (university performance indicators) to implement Project-Based Learning and Problem-Based Learning (Nizam, 2021). Problem Based Learning or Problem Based Learning can grow students' thinking to be more active, inspiring, and innovative (Barak & Yuan, 2021). The Project Based Learning model is an approach that provides benefits for increasing student achievement in tertiary institutions (Guo et al., 2020), besides that Project Based Learning can foster a collaborative nature, develop individual knowledge among students and improve higher-order thinking skills, and abilities for collaboration (Abu Hussain et al., 2014), (Pan et al., 2021), apart from that Project Based Learning also trains students to hone students' collaboration (collaboration) skills in project work, (Chounta et al., 2017) Project Based Learning as learning that uses the Project as a medium in the learning process to achieve attitude, knowledge and skill competencies. The emphasis on learning lies in student activities that produce products with the skills to learn, analyze, create, to present learning products based on real experiences. The product in question is the result of a project in the form of goods or services in the form of designs, schemes, writings, works of art, works of technology/crafts, and others. Through the implementation of Project-Based Learning, students will practice planning, carrying out activities according to plan, and displaying or reporting the results of activities (Logan et al., 2021).

Project-based learning (PjBL) is a form of active student-focused teaching characterized by student autonomy, constructive inquiry, goal setting, collaboration, verbal exchange, and reflection on real-world practice. it has been explored in different contexts and unique stages of higher education, from elementary school to higher education (Kokotsaki et al., 2016) PjBL has learning features that emphasize how students are able to develop critical thinking skills. This allows them to be creative individuals and able to work collaboratively.

Syntax Project-Based Learning (Mulyasa, 2014), 1). Prepare project questions or assignments, 2), Devise a project plan, 3). produce a schedule as a concrete step of a project, 4). Monitoring project activities and progress, meanwhile (Soleh, 2021) Project-Based Learning Syntax, namely 1) Fundamental questions, 2) Design a product plan, 3) Arrange production schedule, 4) Monitor project activities and progress, 5) Test the results, and 6) Evaluation of learning experiences.

While the syntax that we developed for the project-based learning model is 1) Defining issues, 2) Communicating 3) Mentoring and discussion, and 4) dissemination. In Class measuring tools are carried out online with the Project Based Learning model. Before carrying out Project Based Learning the lecturer gives pretest questions to students, with the aim of knowing the initial competence of students before attending lectures, at the end of learning the lecturer gives posttest questions. Project Based Learning is applied to measuring tools for knowledge courses on the topic of measuring workpieces using calipers and micrometers, material tracking was carried out 6 times face to face.

Products from Project Based Learning are videos on the use of calipers and micrometers which are collected on Google Drive. From the description above, researchers will conduct research on the effectiveness of bold learning using the Project Based Learning model using a 4-step syntax. The purpose of this study was to obtain information about the effectiveness of applying the Project Based Learning model with the dare learning method in the measuring instrument knowledge course in the Mechanical Engineering Department.

Methods

Research Design

The design of this research is a type of descriptive qualitative research, qualitative research is a type of research that explores and realizes the meaning of several individuals or groups of them originating from social problems (Creswell, 2016). Qualitative description or (descriptive study) is research that seeks to explore or clarify a symptom, phenomenon, or social reality that is currently happening, this research seeks to explain a number of variables associated with the problem and unit studied, this research additionally aims to find expertise in broad to the object of research in a certain period (Samsu, 2017). In this study the use of project-based learning methods was applied to the knowledge measuring instrument course, distance learning was used in this activity due to the Covid-19 pandemic. In distance learning, Google Meet was used to carry out learning, between lecturers and students in their own homes.

Sample and Population

Qualitative research no longer uses the term population but uses the term social situation, especially social situation, social situation has 3 components, namely: location, people, and

activities of three factors that interact synergistically. In this study, the object of research is online learning activities using the Project Based Learning model in the 2021 A measuring instrument knowledge class which is held every Tuesday from 10.20 WIB to 11.40 WIB.

In this type of qualitative research, purposive sampling and snowball sampling are often used. Purposive sampling is a technique for selecting a sample of data sources using certain considerations, purposive sampling will make it easier for researchers to explore the social object/situation being studied, while snowball sampling is a sampling technique that starts with a small number of samples. becomes more because the data obtained is deemed unsatisfactory (Sugiyono, 2010). In this study, the sample chosen was class A 2021 who took lectures on measuring instrument knowledge. Data collection techniques in Project Based Learning research use tests (pretest and posttest), observation, and interviews. The research instruments used were test sheets, observations, interview scripts, laptops, and internet networks.

Analysys Data Techinques

The method approach of knowing the validity of the data requires technical checking. The implementation of inspection techniques is based on certain standards. The process technique builds the validity of the data required by the inspection technique. Implementation of inspection techniques on a number of certain criteria. There are four criteria used, namely the degree of trust (credibility), dependability, certainty (confirmability), and transferability (Prof. DR. Lexy J. Moleong, 2018).

This research is a qualitative research, data analysis techniques are applied using qualitative data analysis which includes process and meaning. In addition, this study also uses descriptive analysis techniques that function to describe research data. the process of data analysis was carried out during and after data collection. The data analysis process adopted and developed an interactive pattern developed by Milles and Hiberman (Sugiyono, 2009), namely: data reduction, data presentation, conclusion drawing.

Result and Discussion

Phase	Lecturer's activity	Students' Activity
Determine Issue	1. The lecturer determines the issues that will be made into topics for students to work on. The lecturer determines the project to be worked on by students, the determination of the project is referred to from the learning objectives 2. The lecturer determines the purpose of selecting issues. Here the lecturer determines the purpose of selecting projects to be worked on by students, the project to be worked on by students is to make a video recording of workpiece measurements using calipers and micrometers, videos made by students must be clear and good and able to display process activity measurement that is easily understood by the reviewer	

Communication	1. The lecturer socializes the issues and objectives of selecting these issues to students. After the lecturer determines the issue, the lecturer socializes the project that students will work on through a meeting using the Google Meet application. 2. The lecturer explains the project targets to be achieved. The lecturer explains the target that will be achieved if students do this assignment well according to the soup set by the lecturer. 3. Together with the teacher students discuss the project schedule. When the lecturer meets with students in the meeting room the lecturer discusses how long it will take students to complete the project that has been determined by the lecturer. 4. The lecturer explains the project implementation rules (report rules, etc.) The lecturer explains the procedure for implementing reports and assessments of the projects that will be carried out by students.	1. Students ask questions about issues that have been determined by the lecturer. 2. Students ask about the schedule and targets to be achieved 3. Students ask about reporting mechanisms and report formats
Mentoring and Discussion	1. Lecturers provide guidance to students, and groups and conduct small and brief discussions regarding the findings of difficulties experienced by students, monitoring and discussion activities are carried out in WhatsApp groups and in online rooms using Google Meet.	1. Students carry out project work 2. Students Compile reports 3. Students consult the lecturer
Determination	1. The lecturer assesses the products that have been done. 2. The lecturer assesses the student's denomination.	1. Students report the final project results that have been carried out by uploading the project results on the link provided 2. Students report project work activities through presentations

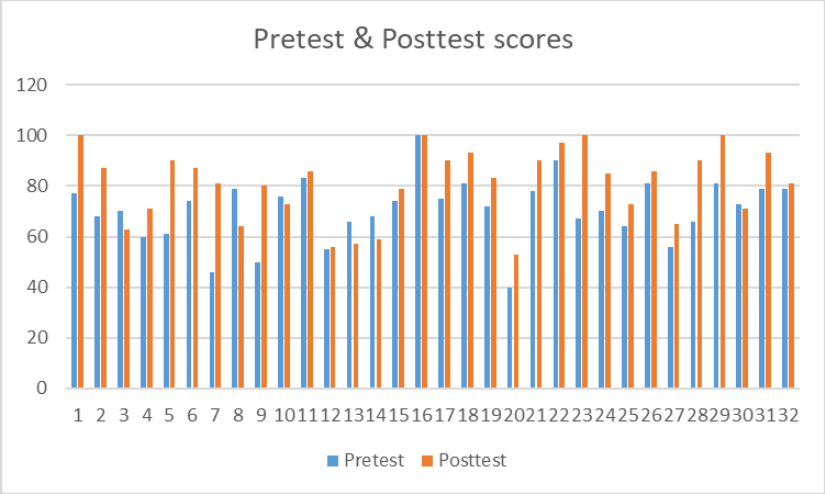


Figure 1: Pre-Test and Post-Test Graph

The graph above shows the number of students who took the pre-test and post-test exams, namely 32 students. From the table above, we can see that students with codes 3, 8, 10, 13, 14, and 30 experienced a decrease in the value of the post-test results, a decrease in value for code 3 from 70 to 63, code 8 from 79 to 64, code 10 from 76 to 73, code 13 from 66 to 57, code 14 from 68 to 59, code 30 from 73 to 71 if the percentage of the average post-test score is 6 students is 11%, while apart from the 6 students, 26 other students experienced an increase in grades after completing the post-test scores, the average increase in grades in percentage terms was 17 percent. After conducting in-depth interviews with 6 students who experienced a decrease in grades, they experienced problems while carrying out the post-test, the obstacles they experienced were internet signal disturbances and a less conducive environment. From these two disorders, students are less focused and less concentrated.

Since the pandemic started, many human activities have been shifted online (Donthu & Gustafsson, 2020). Some research shows that students may perform differently in various modalities, and some may even perform better in an online learning environment (Cole et al., 2017), students value active learning strategies more in an online learning environment, students generally have a good perception of online learning even though they have reservations around technology proficiency (Koohang et al., 2016), the challenges identified widely with e-learning are accessibility, affordability, flexibility, learning pedagogy and Education policy (Pokhrel & Chhetri, 2021) online learning at basically is the use of technology for information dissemination (Tajik, Farnaz; Vahedi, 2021), online exams can reduce the potential for cheating (Moralista & F. Oducado, 2020). Despite the fact that many studies find students have positive attitudes towards online learning (Muflih et al., 2021), students feel comfortable taking good exams online and face-to-face mode, that online exams are stress-free and feel comfortable at home (Alghamdi & Ali, 2021).

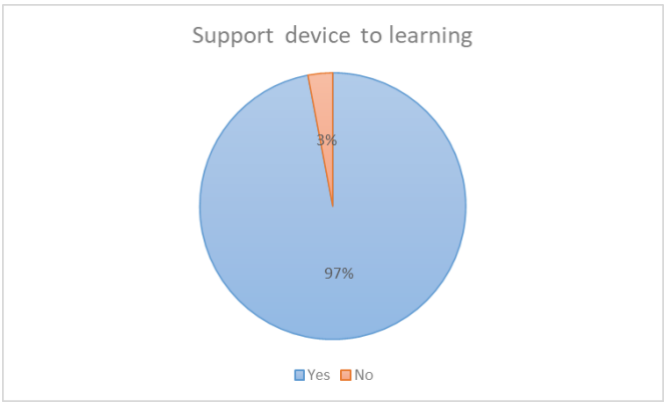


Figure 2: Number of Students Who Have Device to Support Learning

The pie chart above shows that out of 32 students 97% of students have support devices that support online lectures while 3% of students do not have support devices that support them. The definition of having support devices in this study is that students have smartphones and laptops that have specifications: 1) can support online meetings, 2) support for downloading office data quickly, 3) support for making videos quickly, 4) support for editing videos quickly, 5) support for opening, uploading Google Drive data quickly, 6) being able to access Google form and work on google form questions quickly. From the data 3% of students who filled out the observation sheet did not support after in-depth interviews, on average they defined their device doesn't support as their device could not operate quickly for the 6 categories as above, but we can confirm that out of 32 students have smart devices phones, laptops, and internet networks.

Technology in online learning will benefit all parties and support learning objectives and improve the learning process pembelajaran (Haryana et al., 2022; Kustyarini et al., 2020). One of the main challenges faced by tertiary institutions is to ensure the holistic development of students both in terms of achieving generic attributes and developing competencies, namely, creativity, thinking, teamwork, communication and collaboration, and independence. To address this challenge, new technological transformations in education have led to the use of additional instructional tools, such as project-based learning (Alt & Raichel, 2022), With the development of modern technology, it is beneficial to create a smart learning environment so that students can become smart learners by smart space tools and smart pedagogy (Budhrani et al., 2018), mobile devices and technologies help learners expand their learning space and time, objects, and opportunities to enhance their cognition, engagement, and interaction (Hwang & Fu, 2020).

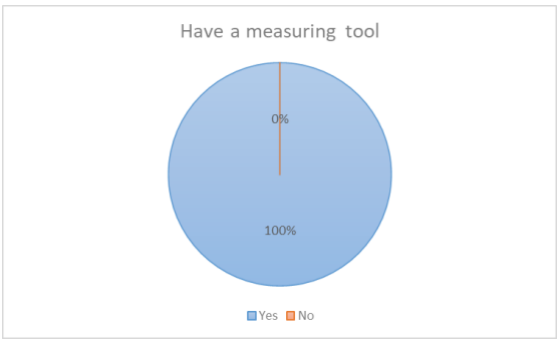


Figure 3: Number of Students Have Measuring Tool

The pie chart above shows that out of 32 students 100% have a caliper and micrometer measuring instruments. A good learning process requires complete tools as media in the process (Fayez et al., 2021). The existence of media as a learning tool for students makes it easier for them to explore so they can understand the material being taught (Kustyarini et al., 2020).



Figure 4: Students Motivation Chart

The pie chart above shows that 97% of the 32 students have the motivation to study, while 3% do not have the motivation to learn slides and micrometers, these students do not have motivation because they don't really want to enter the Mechanical Engineering department, these students go to school only because they are forced by parents.

Mental health problems can significantly interfere with students' academic success and social interactions (Wyatt et al., 2017), thereby affecting their future careers and personal lives. Students who have good mental health can face learning barriers due to environmental factors (Cheng et al., 2023) (Katzman & Stanton, 2020). When students feel they can control their emotions, positive results can encourage increased interest in further learning (Moors et al., 2013). The socially driven intention is a major factor to be considered in an online learning environment (Chaker et al., 2022). Students with good mental health show significantly greater perceived learning outcomes than their peers (Wei et al., 2023). Various researchers warn of the negative impact of COVID-19 on mental health around the world, such as stress; worry; depression, or post-traumatic stress disorder, which may result from long periods of confinement; uncertainty; fear of infection; moral pressure; solitude; grief; and economic crises (Kim & Park, 2021).

Interview Result Data (Depth Interview)

The Depth interview was conducted on Friday, October 15th 2021, at 13:30 WIB using Google Meet media, the number of respondents was 32 respondents with 4 categories, before conducting the Depth interview the researcher asked students for permission to conduct the Depth interview, and convey the purpose of conducting the Depth interview. In this activity, the respondents were 2021 A students in the measuring instrument knowledge course.

The implementation of the dept interview went smoothly, the respondents were asked questions according to the planned script left-hand grid. From the results of interviews with observers, several data findings were obtained, including:

a. Learning with the Project Based Learning Model is effective because it allows students to develop themselves.
b. The application of the Project Based Learning model in online learning is influenced by signals, internet quota, IT mastery skills, and devices owned by students.

c. The negative side of applying the Project Based Learning model is that students have to provide measuring instruments independenutly through purchasing or borrowing.
d. Students feel bored, bored, and hurt their eyes and ears if they stare at the screen of their smartphone or laptop for too long and listen to sounds through their hands-free.
e. The environment around students also determines learning activities.

The Influence of Project Based Learning Learning Model on Online Learning in Measuring Instrument Knowledge Course

Table 1: Studens Score

ID	Post-Test Score	Project Score	Detimination Score	Final Score
student 1	100	94	80	91.33
student 2	87	86	70	81.00
student 3	63	88	79	76.67
student 4	71	80	78	76.33
student 5	90	85	80	85.00
student 6	87	90	90	89.00
student 7	81	88	80	83.00
student 8	64	98	75	79.00
student 9	80	87	80	82.33
student 10	73	80	85	79.33
student 11	86	87	80	84.33
student 12	56	88	75	73.00
student 13	57	78	75	70.00
student 14	59	80	75	71.33
student 15	79	88	80	82.33
student 16	100	100	85	95.00
student 17	90	97	84	90.33
student 18	93	98	76	89.00
student 19	83	90	89	87.33
student 20	53	87	87	75.67
student 21	90	89	80	86.33
student 22	97	88	80	88.33
student 23	100	90	80	90.00
student 24	85	80	86	83.67
student 25	73	85	80	79.33
student 26	86	85	86	85.67
student 27	65	80	80	75.00
student 28	90	86	80	85.33
student 29	100	80	80	86.67
student 30	71	80	76	75.67
student 31	93	80	75	82.67
student 32	81	80	80	80.33
Average	80.72	86.63	80.19	82.51

In the knowledge course, the learning achievement measurement tool that has been determined is that students can measure work objects using calipers and micrometers, the lowest standard value determined is 60, and for students who get scores below 60 (D) the student said to be incompetent, the following are the value criteria for student A: 80-100 (very competent), B; 70-79 (competent), C 60-69 (quite competent), D 50-59 (not competent), from the data above 22 students enter at the very competent level, while 10 students enter at the competency level.

From observational data and in-depth interviews, it was obtained data that the facility factor is very supportive in online learning activities with a project-based learning model, the data obtained by students 97% who take part in this study are supported by devices, and 100% have smartphone and laptop devices, besides that students, 100% of those who attend lectures have vernier caliper and micrometer measuring media. The role of learning media is very important in this lecture. Measuring instrument courses are courses that have credits weighted, in this course even though they are theoretically written, to achieve the learning objectives, namely students can measure workpieces using calipers and micrometers, students apart from mastering theoretical competence students must be able to have practical competence measurement. Therefore, in the Project Based Learning model, the facility factor is very important because, if students have smartphones and laptops, students can attend lectures well, students can attend online meetings, take online exams, make videos, and learn the theory of using sliding calipers. Meanwhile, the facilities for measuring calipers and micrometers are very important because if every student can provide a measuring instrument for calipers and micrometers at their home, students can routinely learn and practice using calipers and micrometers at home until they are very competent in using these measuring instruments.

The use of the project-based learning model in online lectures has positive impacts such as:

- Making students study independently
- Eliminate boredom
- Reducing sleepiness
- Reducing eye pain caused by listening to smartphones and laptops for too long
- Reducing internet consumption costs

In addition to learning media factors, motivational factors are very important for achieving learning objectives in this course, learning motivation comes from within themselves (Mustadi et al., 2022), which seems to be an important factor in determining success. Material and personal needs (input dimension, out of 32 students 3% said they did not have motivation while 97% claimed they had motivation, 3% admitted they did not have motivation because the major they chose did not suit their wishes, they went to college because their parents forced them. However, although he was not motivated that the final score of the student was included in the very competent criteria, this was because before he took this course he had prior knowledge about the use of calipers and micrometers, so this learning did not contribute to his competence. The role of motivation in achieving goals is very important (Furnham et al., 1999) and Tang & Sampson (2017) said that motivation is very important in learning.

Conclusion

The application of the Project Based Learning learning model to online learning is very effective in achieving learning objectives, this is evidenced by 22 (69%) students who are

very competent in measuring workpieces using calipers and micrometers, 10 (31) students have the competence to measure workpieces using tools measuring and caliper, all of 32 students have criteria according to learning objectives. The syntax for the project-based learning model developed is a) Defining issues, b) Communicating, c) Mentoring and discussion d) Dissemination, which has positive impacts such as a) Making students study independently, b) Eliminating boredom, c) Reducing sleepiness, d) Reducing eye pain due to too long listening to smartphones and laptops e) Reducing the cost of consuming the internet, to carry out online learning using Project-based learning with this syntax must be supported by learning facilities and student learning motivation (Mathew et al., 2019).

Acknowledgement

Alhamdulillah, thanks to the presence of Allah SWT, because of the grace of Allah the researcher can finish this article. On this occasion, the researcher would like to thank those who have supported and assisted in the preparation of this research.

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The Influence of Communication Skills on the Work Readiness of Vocational School Students in Building Engineering Expertise

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Vocational high schools (SMK) have a goal to produce graduates who are ready to work. The problem that occurs is the high level of open unemployment (TPT) for vocational school graduates in Indonesia, especially in the city of Surabaya. An important aspect of producing graduates who can compete and succeed in work in the world of work is job readiness. SMK graduates are declared to have high work readiness if they already have the skills needed by the world of work. One of the skills that must be possessed is communication skills. The aims of this research are as follows. (1) To analyze the communication skills possessed by SMK students; (2) To analyze the effect of communication skills on the job readiness of SMK students. This is correlational research. The population of this research is all students of SMK in the field of Building Engineering in the city of Surabaya. The sampling technique used is purposive sampling, which is taken as a sample of class XII students of SMK Negeri 2 Surabaya, SMK Negeri 3 Surabaya, and SMK Negeri 7 Surabaya. Data collection techniques using questionnaires and data analysis using linear regression. The expected results of this study are as follows. (1) The communication skills that students have from the highest to the lowest consist of written communication skills, listening skills, visual communication skills, dan oral communication skills; (2) Communication skills have a positive influence on the job readiness of SMK students.

Keywords: Communication Skills, Work Readiness, Vocational Students, Building Engineering

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Introduction

Vocational high school (SMK) is a secondary-level education that provides knowledge and skills according to a particular field of work (Baitullah & Wagiran, 2019; Lawitta et al., 2017). Vocational High Schools must be able to produce graduates who are independent and have expertise or competence in certain fields of work (Estriyanto et al., 2017). Graduates are expected not only to find work but to create their jobs. The main goal of vocational education is to create graduates who are ready to work (Lawitta et al., 2017). Vocational education provides specific training that is produced with guidance from teachers to develop skills in certain industrial fields. Vocational education motivates students to improve their skills so that after graduation they can work and generate profits in the economic field (Pavlova, 2009). Vocational education aims to identify the type of work that is suitable for individuals and to help develop work capacity to make it more effective (Billet, 2011).

The challenge for Vocational Schools is the change in skills needed by industry, especially what is happening in the 21st century (Ayaz & Karacan Özdemir, 2021). The 21st century is a century of change which is also known as the century of information technology, globalization, industrial revolution 4.0, and so on. Changes in the 21st century occur very quickly and are difficult to predict and occur in all aspects of life. Changes that take place very quickly can provide opportunities if they can be utilized properly, but can also become serious threats if they are not properly anticipated (Oviawe et al., 2017; Wibawa & Moses, 2018).

This change triggers changes in the areas of skills needed in the world of work. Predicting the skills needed will be very difficult because it depends on the field and sub-occupation that is the focus of the skill (Kwon, 2019). The 21st century has created a need for new types of skills that did not exist before, as well as eliminating skills that are no longer relevant (Oviawe et al., 2017).

Problem-solving, team working and communication are the skills most needed today in the workplace. Communication and collaboration are critical to 21st-century skills because so many of the jobs of the future will require them. The survey results concluded that problem-solving (50%), teamwork (35%), and communication (32%) are the top three skills needed by companies (An Economist Intelegnce Unit, 2015). The Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) explains that the core of the P21 framework is called 4C namely communication, collaboration, critical thinking and problem solving, and creativity and innovation (An Economist Intelegnce Unit, 2015).

Employability skills are skills, knowledge, and competencies that can improve the ability of workers to get or keep jobs (Brewer, 2013). Employability skills are a set of skills needed to enter the world of work, to survive and develop a career at work, or for career development at a new workplace.

Employability skills for the 21st century consist of five major skills, namely team player, self-motivation, verbal communication, problem-solving, and being proactive (McGunagle & Zizka, 2020). The skills needed in the industrial revolution 4.0 are self-management, communication, team-working, interpersonal, working under pressure imagination, critical thinking, willingness to learn, attention to detail planning, responsibility, insight, professionalism maturity, and emotional intelligence (Teng et al., 2019).

Vocational high schools (SMK) have the goal of producing graduates who are ready to work (Lawitta et al., 2017). The problem that occurs is the high rate of open unemployment (TPT) for SMK graduates. Based on data from the national central statistics agency (BPS), vocational graduates rank second in TPT after high school, namely 2,111,338 in August 2021 (Central Bureau of Statistics of the Republic of Indonesia, 2022). Central Bureau of Statistics East Java Indonesia data TPT for vocational graduates in East Java Province occupies the top position, namely 11.89% in 2020 (Central Bureau of Statistics of the Republic of Indonesia, 2020). Judging from the district, the highest TPT in East Java is in Sidoarjo Regency with 10.97%, then Surabaya City at 9.79%, and Gresik Regency at 9.61% (Central Bureau of Statistics of the Republic of Indonesia, 2020). These problems are exacerbated by the Covid-19 Pandemic which is a challenge for graduates (Kamaruddin et al., 2021).

An important aspect in producing graduates who can compete and succeed in jobs in the world of work later is by building work readiness for vocational students, by building work readiness for students it is hoped that it will reduce unemployment among vocational high school graduates (Maryanti et al., 2020).

Vocational High School graduates are declared to have high job readiness if they have mastered everything needed by the job requirements that must be possessed. Several things need to be prepared to have high work readiness, namely work skills (Zainuddin, M., & Rijal, 2022).

Work Readiness

Readiness is the overall condition of a person that makes him ready to respond in a certain way to a situation. Adjustment to conditions at one time will affect the tendency to respond. So work readiness shows the condition of someone ready to do a job (Smith et al., 2014).

Readiness is a level or state that must be achieved in the process of individual development before it can perform properly at various levels of mental, physical, social, and emotional growth (Feriady, M., & Yanto, 2018). Job readiness is skills, knowledge, and attitudes that will enable new graduates to be able to contribute productively to achieve organizational goals in the place where the individual works (Makki et al., 2015).

Job readiness is defined as the extent to which graduates are deemed to have attitudes and attributes that make them ready to work or ready to succeed in the work environment (Caballero et al., 2011). Job readiness shows a person's ability to complete work by the provisions without experiencing difficulties and obstacles with maximum results and by the specified targets (D et al., 2014).

Work readiness is the ability that must be possessed by individuals to be able to work directly without requiring a time-consuming adjustment period in the framework of creating a product or adding value to a resource with maximum results by predetermined targets (Siddique et al., 2022).

Based on the description above, it can be concluded that work readiness is the condition of someone who can carry out a job with good results. Job readiness shows a mental attitude and skills that are ready to work.

Indicators of work readiness namely having responsibility, being able to adapt (flexibility), having skills, being able to communicate, having self-views, and paying attention to their health and safety (Brady, 2010),. Indicators of work readiness are personal resources, family support, industrial work experience, job expectations and information, learning environment, and career guidance (Suarta et al., 2021).

Job readiness is the extent to which graduates are considered to have the attitudes and attributes that make them ready to succeed in the work environment. There are four factors of work readiness, namely personal characteristics, organizational intelligence, work competence, and social intelligence (Caballero et al., 2011). Based on the description above, it can be concluded that indicators of job readiness include personal characteristics, organizational skills, work skills, and social skills.

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Communication Skills

One of the top job skills students need to have is communication skills. Communication comes from the Latin word communis which means making equal. Communication is the delivery of messages that aim to create the same perception or meaning between the communicator and the communicant (Kurniadi, W., & Mahaputra, 2021).

Communication is a process in which a person or several people, groups, organizations, and communities create and use the information to connect with the environment and other people (Brent D. et al., 2013). Communication that runs effectively in the organization will make it easier for everyone to carry out the tasks for which they are responsible. Good communication within an organization can make it easier to achieve organizational goals (Mahbob et al., 2019).

Communication is a process of transferring information, ideas, and understanding from one person to another in the hope that the other person can interpret it according to the intended purpose (Velentzas & Broni, 2014). Communication is the process of conveying information from one party, whether an individual, group or organization as a sender to another party as a receiver to understand and open up opportunities to respond to the sender (Prabavathi & Nagasubramani, 2014). Communication is the process of transferring understanding in the form of ideas or information from one person to another (Savolainen, 2017).

Based on the description above, it can be concluded that communication skills are the ability to convey information, ideas, or material to others. Good communication skills can support the achievement of organizational goals.

There are five aspects of communication, namely: (1) representation, (2) listening, (3) reading, (4) discussion, and (5) writing (Baroody, 1993). Communication consists of oral and written communication (Prabavathi & Nagasubramani, 2014). The first scale of communication skills is writing ability, the second is speaking ability, the third is nonverbal communication ability and fourth is the listening ability (Richard, 2009).

One of the components of work readiness is communication, in a work situation a teacher is required to be able to communicate well during the teaching process in class, where teachers who can deliver material well can be understood by their students (Brady, 2010). The communication scale consists of openness, empathy, support, positive attitude, similarity, confidence, and closeness (Schiau, 2016).

There is a positive and significant influence between communication on employee performance (Hee, O. C. et al., 2019). The first element of communication skill is writing ability, the second is speaking ability, the third is nonverbal communication ability and the fourth is the listening ability (Richard, 2009).

Communication skills consist of oral communication (presentations, discussions), written communication (reporting, compiling materials), listening (verbal reception and understanding), visual communication (non-verbal, pictures, icons), interdisciplinary communication, and intercultural communication. The comparison of each communication skill is 10% writing, 15% reading, 30% talking, and 45% listening (Marc J. Riemer, 2007).

Based on the description above, it can be concluded that the indicators of communication skills are oral communication, written communication, listening skills, and visual communication.

Based on the description above, it is necessary to conduct research on the effect of communication skills and teamwork skills on the work readiness of vocational students in the field of building information design and modeling expertise (DPIB) in the city of Surabaya.

The purpose of this research is as follows. (1) To analyze the communication skills possessed by SMK students in the field of building engineering; (2) To analyze the effect of communication skills on work readiness of SMK students in the field of building engineering.

Methodology

This research is a correlational study with an ex post facto research approach. The variables of this study are communication skills (X) as the independent variable, and job readiness (Y) as the dependent variable. Details of variables and indicators can be seen in Table.1.

Table 1. Research variables and indicators

No	Variables	Indicators
1	Communication Skills (X)	1. Oral communication skills 2. Written communication skills 3. Listening skills 4. Visual communication skills
2	Work Readiness (Y)	1. Personal characteristics 2. Oganisational acumen 3. Work competence 4. Social intelligence

The research location is in the city of Surabaya, Indonesia. The research subjects were class XII students of the State Vocational High School (SMKN) in the Field of Building Modeling and Information Design Expertise (DPIB). The Vocational Schools consist of SMKN 2 Surabaya, SMKN 3 Surabaya, and SMKN 7 Surabaya. The total population is 187 students. The sample size is calculated based on the solving formula so that a total sample of 128 students is obtained. Details of the total population can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. Details of the total research population

No	School	Number of students
1	SMKN 2 Surabaya	86
2	SMKN 3 Surabaya	67
3	SMKN 7 Surabaya	34
Total		187

The sample is part of the population that has the same characteristics. The sample size is searched using the Slovin formula, which is as follows.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + Ne^2} \; ; \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (1)$$

Information:
N = Total Population
n = Number of Samples
e = Percent leeway for inaccuracies = 5%

$$n = \frac{187}{1 + 187 \times 0{,}0025}$$
$$= \frac{187}{1{,}4925}$$
$$= 128$$

Data collection using a questionnaire. The procedure of this research is through the preparation stage, the implementation stage, and the research data analysis stage. The Preparatory Stage consists of initial observations and preparation of research proposals and arranging research permits. The Implementation Phase consists of (1) Conducting a literature study on work readiness, communication skills, and teamwork skills. (2) Developing instruments on work readiness, communication skills, and teamwork skills. (3) Collect data on work readiness, communication skills, and teamwork skills. (4) Tabulating data on work readiness, communication skills, and teamwork skills. The Research Results Data Analysis Phase was carried out by conducting a path analysis between work readiness, communication skills, and teamwork skills using SmartPLS.

Result and Discussion

Communication Skills

Communication skills are the ability to convey information, ideas, or material to others. Good communication skills can support the achievement of organizational goals. The ability to communicate in this study was measured by four indicators, namely oral communication skills, written communication skills, listening skills, and visual communication skills. The results of respondents' answers to the variable ability to communicate can be seen in Figure 1.

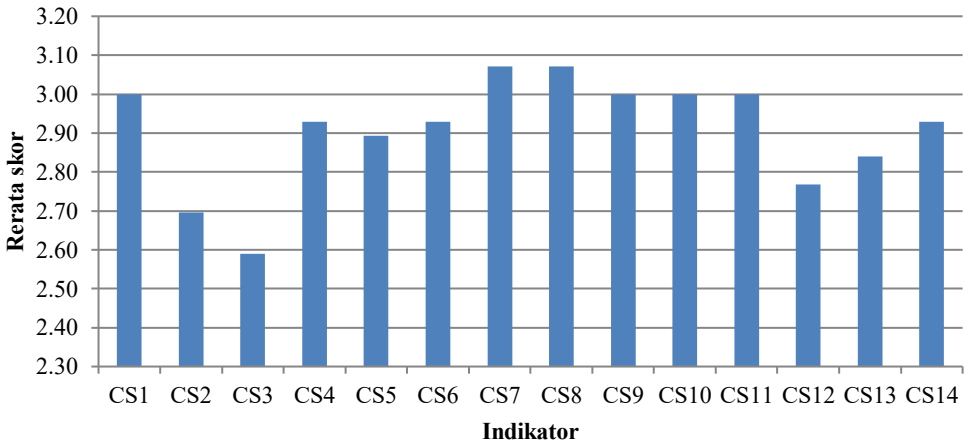


Figure 1. Average Indicator Score on Communication Skills Variable

Based on Figure 1, the average score data for each indicator on the communication variable is obtained. The highest average score is in CS 7 and CS 8, namely writing skills with good and

correct grammar, and skills in using applications/programs used for writing. The lowest average score is on CS2 and CS 3, namely skills in speaking well in public, and skills in making interesting presentations. Comparison of the scores of each communication skill can be seen in Figure 2.

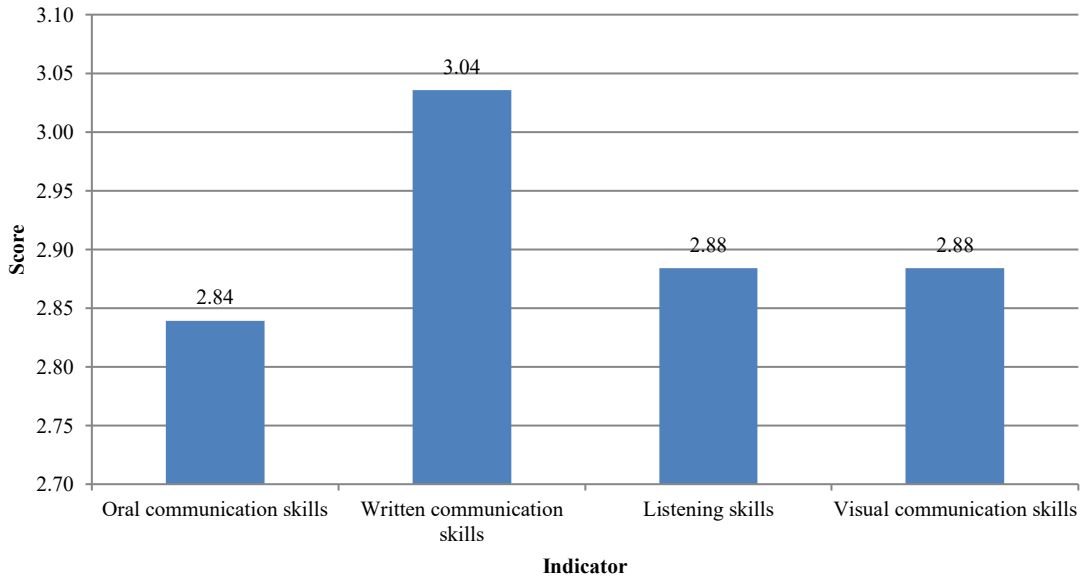


Figure 2. Comparison of the Average Scores of Communication Skills

Based on Figure 2 it is found that written communication gets the highest score. Communication skills that get the second highest score are listening skills and visual communication skills. The lowest score is on oral skills.

Work Readiness

Work readiness is the condition of someone who has the readiness to carry out a job with good results. Job readiness shows a mental attitude and skills that are ready to work. Readiness for work in this study was measured by four indicators, namely personal characteristics, organizational acumen, work competence, and social intelligence. The results of respondents' answers to the variable job readiness can be seen in Figure 3.

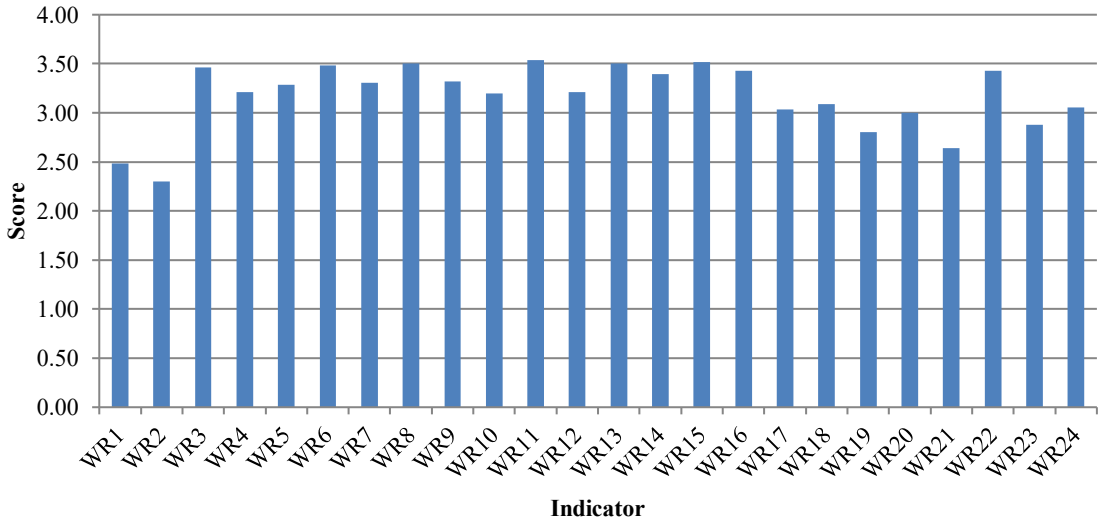


Figure 3. Average Score of Indicators on Work Readiness Variable

Based on Figure 3, the average score data for each indicator on the work readiness variable is obtained. The highest average score is WR 11 and WR 13, namely being able to work responsibly, and being able to accept differences of opinion from colleagues. The lowest average scores are WR 1 and WR 2, namely being able to work under pressure, and being able to work with short time limits. Comparison of the scores of each component of work readiness can be seen in Figure 4.

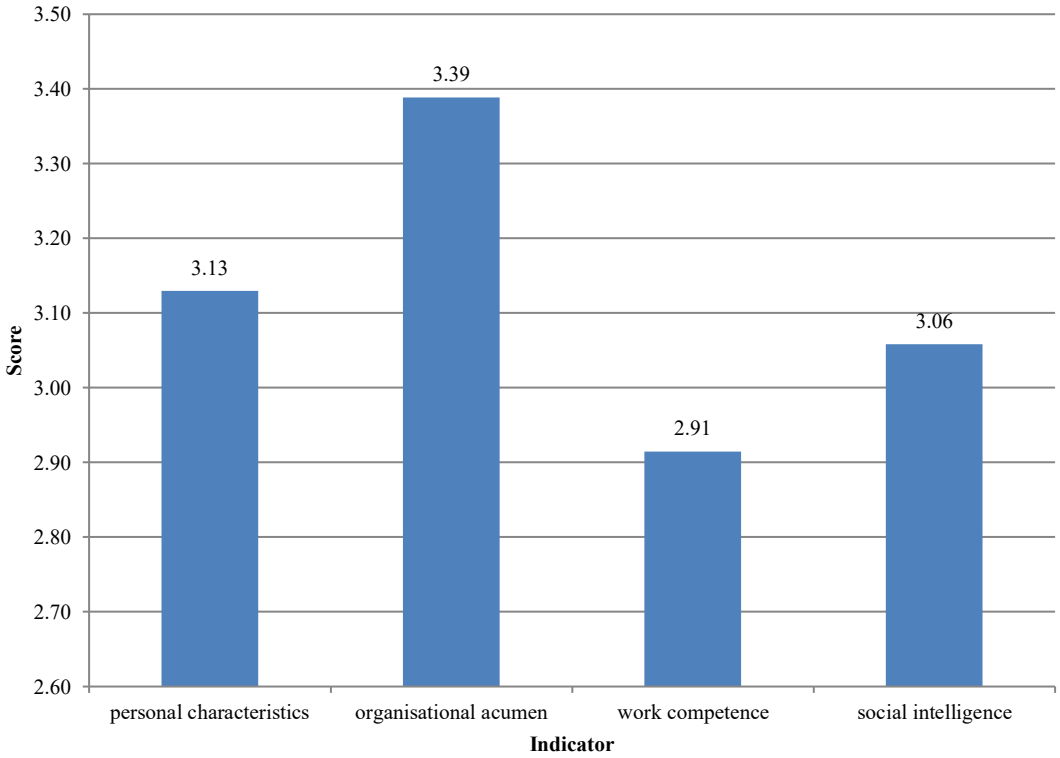


Figure 4. Comparison of the average score of the work readiness component

Based on Figure 4, it is found that the ability to organize gets the highest score. Then those who get the second highest score are personal characteristics, after that social skills. The lowest score is on work skills.

The influence of communication skills on the work readiness of vocational students

The results of data analysis showed that the influence of X on Y variables can be seen in Table 3 and the R square value in Table 4.

Table 3. The value of direct influence between variables

	Original Sample (O)	**Sample Mean (M)**	**Standard Deviation (STDEV)**	**T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)**	**P Values**
X -> Y	0.579	0.587	0.078	7.426	0.000

Table 4. R Square

	R Square	***R Square Adjusted***
Y	0.336	0.324

Based on Table 1, it is found that the ability to communicate (X) has a positive effect of 0.579 on work readiness (Y). P value of 0.000 <0.05 means significant. So it can be concluded that there is a positive and significant influence of the ability to communicate on the work readiness of vocational students in the field of Building Information Modeling and Design (DPIB) expertise. The path coefficient image of communication skills on work readiness can be seen in Figure 5.

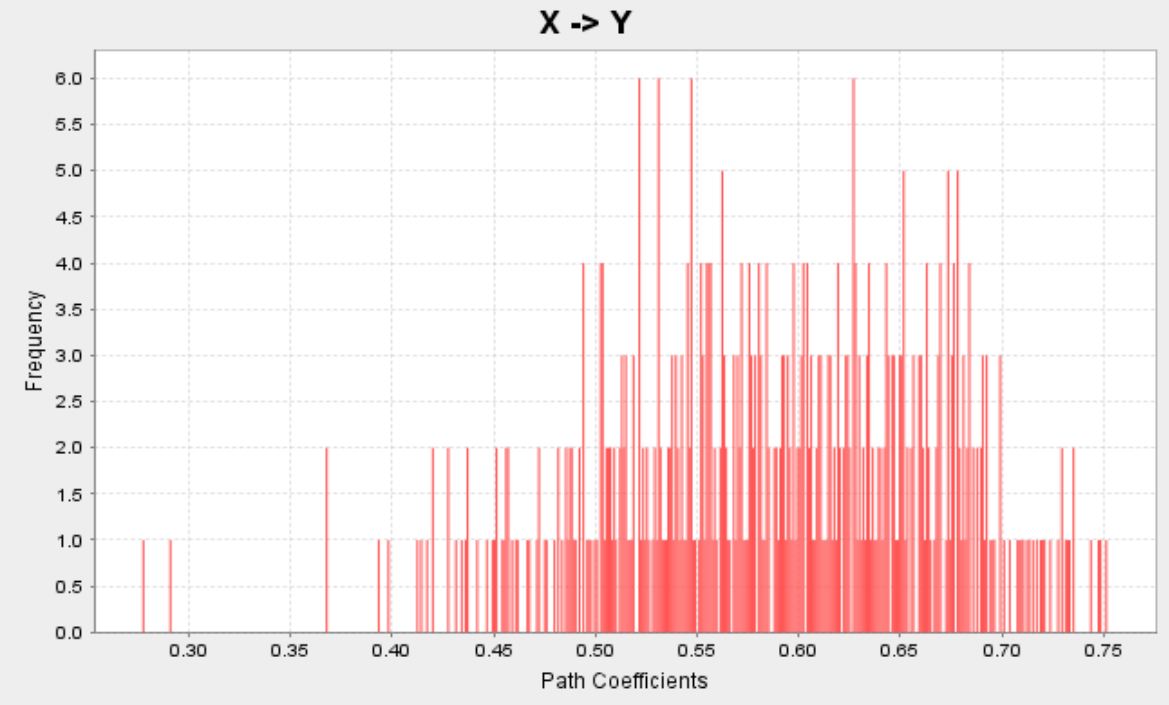


Figure 5. Path coefficient X to Y

Communication skills have a positive influence on the work readiness of vocational students. So, to increase the work readiness of vocational students, it is necessary to improve their communication skills.

Communication needs to get serious attention in job readiness in the present and the future. Communication that develops with information technology will be an important factor in work (Bowen & Pennaforte, 2017). Professional communication is a general skill needed by workers (Smith et al., 2014).

The communication skills of building engineering vocational school students with the highest scores are writing skills with good and correct grammar, and skills in using applications/programs used for writing, while the communication skills with the lowest scores are skills in speaking well in public, and skills make an interesting presentation. This shows that they have good skills in written communication, but are weak in oral communication. So that skills in communication, especially oral communication of SMK students in the field of building engineering need to be improved to be able to improve their work readiness.

Conclusion

Based on the results and discussion above, it can be concluded as follows. (1) The students' communication skills from the highest to the lowest consist of written communication skills,

listening skills, visual communication skills, and oral communication skills; (2) Communication skills have a positive influence on the work readiness of vocational students. So, to increase the work readiness of vocational students, it is necessary to improve their communication skills.

Acknowledgements

Thank you to Universitas Negeri Surabaya for supporting the implementation of this research.

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A Study on Students' Attitudes Towards Text Crowding on Multilingual Educational Slides

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The need for multilingual educational materials in higher education is growing rapidly. It is still largely unclear, however, whether students consider extra-textual information, i.e., the same information in two or more languages, as a distraction or an increase in cognitive load or not. Recent research on multilingual subtitles in videos has shown that viewers tend to allocate their visual attention towards subtitles in their native (L1) language, while subtitles in their second language (L2) did not add any cognitive load. So far, however, it is still unknown whether these findings also relate to multilingual educational slides. In the present research we investigated students' attitudes towards this issue, particularly focusing on how they evaluated slides with multiple languages. We asked 25 Japanese and 25 Indonesian students to provide their opinions about unilingual, bilingual, and trilingual educational slides, with the same content provided in Japanese, Bahasa Indonesia, and English. The amount of content and the layout of the slides were systematically varied, and rating scales were used to obtain students' evaluations. The main findings showed that students had significantly more trouble choosing important information, and were more distracted by the crowded layout and different text fonts on multilingual slides as compared to unilingual slides. However, when the layout of the multilingual slides was such that the information was separated according to language, no such trend occurred. The same results were obtained for both student groups, clearly implying that educators can use multilingual slides, provided they visually group information separately for each language.

Keywords: Educational Slides, Multilingual, Text Crowding, Information Distraction, Cognitive Load

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Introduction

There is an increasing demand to use more than one language on slide presentations (e.g., PowerPoint slides) for higher education. Despite its popularity, the advantage of the use of slides is not convincingly proven (Baker *et al.*, 2018). For example, information overload ("cognitive overload") can occur if the amount of information or text on a slide and the presentation time are not managed well (Adamov, Olic & Segedinac, 2012). Related to this is text crowding, which is naturally more likely to occur when educational material is presented in two or more languages. Hence, several variables need to be taken into account when designing a slide, in particular with multiple languages, such as the amount and the use of text (e.g., fonts, size) and the slide layout (e.g., the use of bullet points, spacing) (Marchack, 2002; Durso *et al.*, 2011).

Outside the field of education, several studies have been performed on the perception of materials in multiple languages. In research about cognitive load for video subtitles, unilingual and bilingual subtitle conditions were compared, comprising of the viewe's native (L1) language (Chinese) and non-native (L2) language (English) (Liao, Kruger & Doherty, 2020). First, compared with having no subtitles, bilingual subtitles were considered beneficial for content comprehension. More importantly, the bilingual subtitle condition did not add any cognitive load compared to the monolingual subtitle condition. One reason for this might be that the subtitles were supporting the spoken text and the visual (motion) information in the videos. It is thus unclear whether adding a language to an educational slide will give the same result, i.e., will not lead to increased cognitive load.

Bilingual or multilingual texts have also been used for other specific communication purposes, such as for road signs, advertisements, safety instructions, and even newspapers (Sebba, 2012). Comparative research has shown that the layout structure of bilingual materials is important. For example, bilingual newspaper articles can have a mixed layout for two languages, in which information is presented in alternating lines for each language. The organization of such a mixed text can make written information look more complex or crowded, which ideally should be avoided. It is likely that the same applies to educational slides.

So far, little is known about the perception of multilingual educational slides from the perspective of the most important recipients of the information on the slides: students. In the present research, we therefore used rating scales to investigate students' attitudes towards text crowding and information distraction (e.g., cognitive overload) on multilingual educational slides, consisting of the same information in Japanese, and/or Bahasa Indonesia, and/or English. The students consisted of a group of native speakers of Japanese and a group of native speakers of Bahasa Indonesia. Both groups had English as their second language.

Method

Participants: Fifty participants were employed, divided into 25 Indonesian students (L1: Bahasa Indonesia) and 25 Japanese students (L1: Japanese). All of them were enrolled at universities in Japan. They were 7 undergraduate and 43 post-graduate students (22 Master and 21 Doctoral students), 32 men and 18 women. Both groups had English as L2. All students provided informed, written consent as to their participation in the study. The procedures were pre-approved by the Ethics Committee of Kyushu University, Japan.

Materials: The materials consisted of education slides, with information about “How to do apartment searching in Japan”. The slides were varied according to a factorial design, dividing them into six sets. The first factor was language (3 levels): slides were unilingual, bilingual, or trilingual, providing the same information in Japanese, Bahasa Indonesia, and English. The second factor was layout (2 levels): mixed and separated layouts. In the mixed layout, information in multiple languages was given line-by-line, alternating for each language. In the separated layout, information in multiple languages was given in separate sections, divided according to language. The slides were presented to the students using a MacBook M1 Pro.

Procedure: The task of the participants was to read a set of the slides and answer a few statements after each set (for details see below) using a five-point Likert scale. They had to choose the answer from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree”, as scored from 1 to 5 (1= “Strongly disagree”, 2= “Disagree”, 3=“Neutral”, 4=“Agree”, 5=“Strongly agree”). A total of 40 slides were given to the participants within an unspecified time and the order of the six sets of slides was pseudo-randomized, in a counterbalanced way.

In more detail, this study was conducted with the following steps. First, the purpose and the procedure of the survey were explained, and the participant was asked to provide written informed consent. Following this, they were given instructions in English. The participants were required to complete a questionnaire regarding personal information (name, age, nationality, study program, university, and language skills) by using online Google forms, which could be accessed by scanning a QR-code on the instruction paper through their smartphone. To start the survey, they were then required to look at the laptop screen with a viewing distance of 60 cm. Then they pressed a button on the laptop keyboard and the first of the six sets of slides was presented. For each slide that had been read, they were required to continue to the next slide by pressing the "next" button on the laptop keyboard. After they had finished reading a set of slides, they evaluated the slides using statements. The statements were as follows:

1) There is so much information available that I have trouble choosing what is important and what is not.
2) I get distracted by the crowded layout of the text.
3) I get distracted by the (different) text fonts used in the slides.
4) I get distracted by information in more than one language.

In the bilingual and trilingual sections, we asked the participant to answer another question:

5) “Which language do you prefer to read first on the presentation slides?”. They had to choose the answer between “English”, “Bahasa Indonesia”, or “Japanese.”

When the participant was done with the task for the first set of slides, then they had to answer the statements for the second set of slides that appeared on the screen by scanning another QR-code. This continued until the sixth set was completed. Upon completion of the experiment, each participant was given a gift-card of 2000 Japanese yen as honorarium.

Results

The results are illustrated in Figures 1 to 4. The figure captions show the statements to which the participants responded. To begin with, we tested the normality and consistency of the

participants' evaluations for the six sets of slides. The results indicated a good internal consistency, in that the Cronbach α exceeded 0.8 (Cohen, 1988; Field, 2009), namely Cronbach' α = 0.870. We subjected the data to the normality test for answers to each statement for the six sets of slides. Shapiro-Wilk tests showed that for each statement the evaluations were not normally distributed (p<.001), which could be expected with a 5-point rating scale. Nevertheless, since data were obtained from a sufficient amount of participants (n=50), and in order to test the cause-and-effect relationship of students' evaluations when reading the slides based on the factors (language and layout), a repeated-measures two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed. The test was run over the participants' responses for the four statements (1-4, see above), using SPSS Statistics software (SPSS, version 23).

First, with regard to the first factor of language (3 levels; unilingual, bilingual, and trilingual), the students' evaluation scores for statements 1, 2, and 4 were significantly higher for multilingual slides (bi- and trilingual slides) than for unilingual slides [Figure 1: $F(2,96)=14.533$, $p<0.001$***, $\eta^2=0.232$; Figure 2: $F(2,96)=26.667$, $p<0.001$***, $\eta^2=0.357$; and Figure 4: $F(2,96)=32.803$, $p<0.001$***, $\eta^2=0.406$]. Meanwhile, for statement 3 the students' evaluation scores were significantly higher for trilingual than for unilingual slides [Figure 3: $F(2,96)=6.962$, $p<0.05$*, $\eta^2=0.127$]. Together, this main effect of language implies that the students had more difficulty processing the bilingual and trilingual slides than the unilingual slides.

Second, regarding the second factor of layout (2 levels; mixed and separated), significantly higher evaluations were given overall to mixed sections than to separate sections for all the statements, implying more difficulty processing mixed layouts [Figure 1: $F(1,48)=25.337$, $p<0.001$***, $\eta^2=0.345$; Figure 2: $F(1,48)=20.585$, $p<0.001$***, $\eta^2=0.300$; Figure 3: $F(1,48)=10.573$, $p<0.05$*, $\eta^2=0.181$; Figure 4: $F(1,48)=41.149$, $p<0.001$***, $\eta^2=0.462$].

With the significant main effects of language and layout, there was also a significant interaction effect. For *multilingual slides in a mixed layout*, as compared to unilingual slides, students had significantly more trouble choosing the important information [Figure 1; $F(2,96)=15.440$, $p<0.001$***, $\eta^2=0.243$], were more distracted by the crowded layout [Figure 2; $F(2,96)=16.382$, $p<0.001$***, $\eta^2=0.254$], were more distracted by having more than one text font [Figure 3; $F(2,96)=6.065$, $p<0.05$*, $\eta^2=0.112$], and were more distracted by information in more than one language [Figure 4; $F(2,96)=23.062$, $p<0.001$***, $\eta^2=0.325$]. However, when multilingual slides had a separated layout, this was not the case.

Finally, no significant difference was found between student groups for all four statements [Figure 1: $F(1,48)=2.739$, $p=.104$, $\eta^2=0.054$; Figure 2: $F(1,48)=0.303$, $p=0.584$, $\eta^2=0.006$; Figure 3: $F(1,48)=.037$, $p=0.849$, $\eta^2=0.001$; and Figure 4: $F(1,48)=1.820$, $p=0.184$, $\eta^2=0.037$]. Both student groups (Indonesian and Japanese students) thus shared similar opinions about the multilingual educational slides.

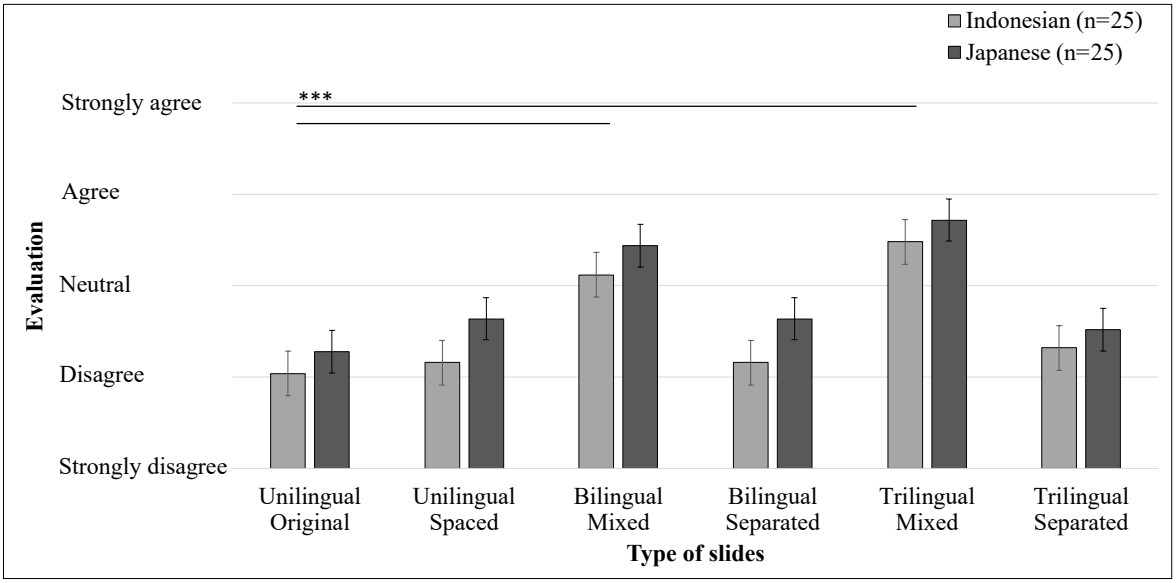


Figure 1: "On the educational presentation slides, there is so much information available that I have trouble choosing what is important and what is not" (n=50).

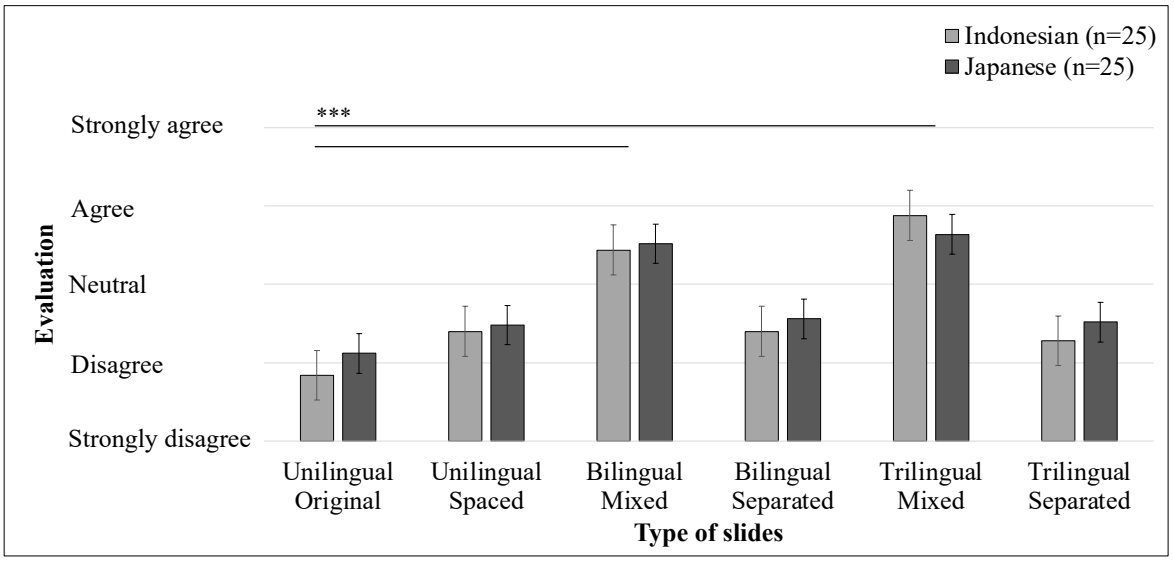


Figure 2: "On the educational presentation slides, I get distracted by the crowded layout of the text" (n=50).

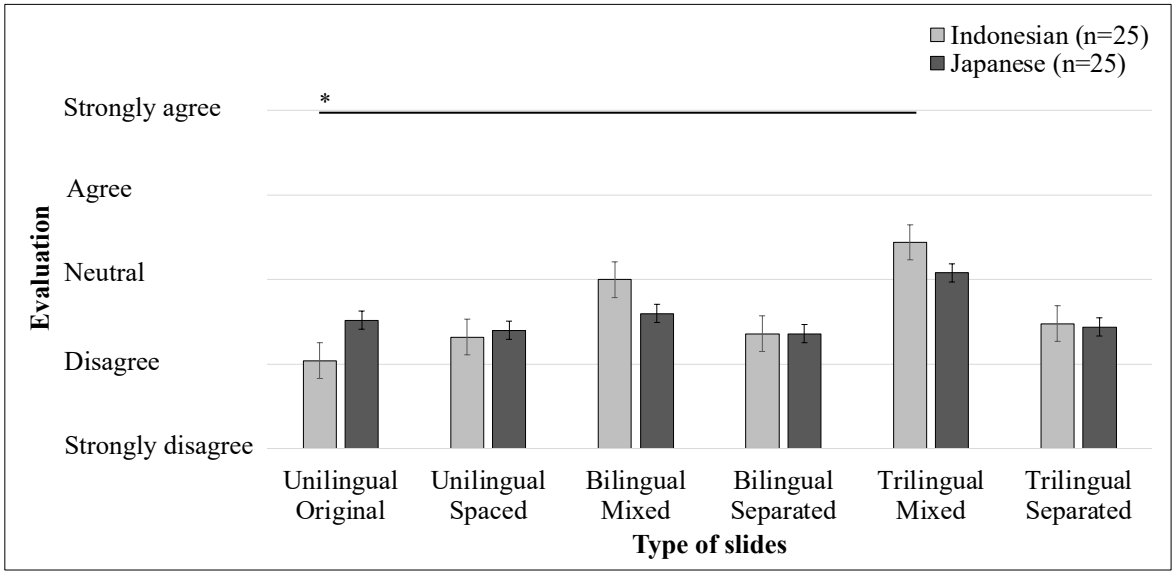


Figure 3: "On the educational presentation slides, I get distracted by the (different) text fonts used in the slides" (n=50).

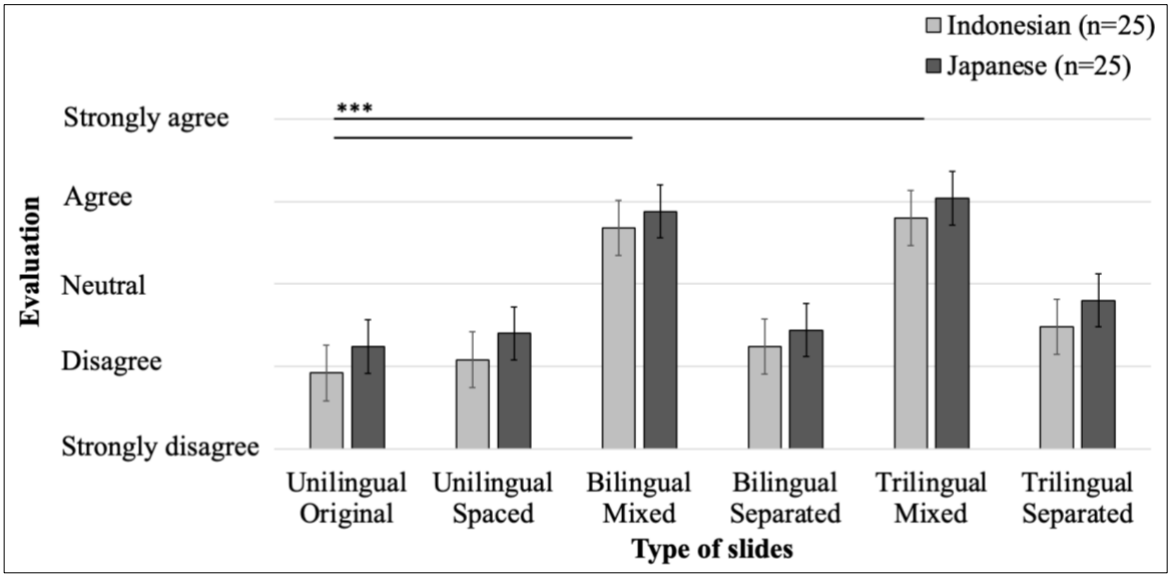


Figure 4: "On the educational presentation slides, I get distracted by the information in more than one language" (n=50).

Regarding the last question "Which language do you prefer to read first on the presentation slides?", for the bilingual and trilingual slides, we found that the preferences varied between both student groups. Quite a lot of Indonesian students (10-15 out of 25) read the information in English first, followed by their native language of Bahasa Indonesia. However, the vast majority of Japanese students (21-23 out of 25) would read the information first in their native language and read English as their second preference.

Conclusion

From this study, we can conclude that regardless of which language students preferred to read first, they "agree" that slides with multilingual mixed layouts caused difficulties in choosing the important information and caused more distractions due to text crowding, different fonts, and having multiple languages. Students do not have these difficulties with multilingual

educational slides with a separated layout. If no visual information is given other than text, educators thus can use multilingual slides, provided they visually group information separately for each language. The information on the slides used here was deliberately held very general (apartment searching), so as not to have educational background or level influence the results, but we suggest that future research needs to confirm whether the result of this study applies to all subjects taught via educational slides.

We had several limitations in our study. First, referring to the question of which language students tended to read first, we may assume that some read the language according to the familiarity and similarity of the characters (i.e., alphabetic). Japanese characters (including kanji characters, hiragana, and katakana) are physically very different from the alphabet, so they are easily distinguishable at first glance. Nevertheless, the participants preferred the separated layout in multilingual slides. Second, the survey was self-paced, and we do not know how much time they spent reading each slide, and where and how long they glanced at a particular line or word. Third, this study was not done in a well-controlled environment, in that lighting conditions were different for the two student groups. Therefore, as a next step, we would like to investigate student gaze behavior while reading the slides in an eye-tracking experiment, in a well-controlled environment.

Acknowledgements

The authors want to say thanks for the help from Sumarni Adi (Ms), Dwi Kurnia Basuki (Mr), and Taufik Sugian Sumardi (Mr) for finding participants at Tokyo Metropolitan University (TMU) Hino and Minami-Osawa Campus. The authors also would like to thank all Indonesian and Japanese students from TMU and Kyushu University who were willing to participate.

This research was supported by a grant from the Japan science and Technology Agency (JST) Next Generation Researcher Challenging Research Program JPJSP2136.

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The Effect of Spatial Intelligence and Learning Management on the Learning Outcomes of Mechanical Engineering Students in the Mechanical Drawing Course

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The workforce needed in the industrial revolution era 4.0 is not only skilled at operating machines (machine operators), more than that it is required to have a better understanding of AI (Artificial Intelligence) which includes the latest machines. backed by skills. design, the achievement of student design competence from the learning process must be supported by innate intelligence and good learning implementation. This innate intelligence is related to spatial intelligence while the implementation of learning must be supported by good learning management. So it is necessary to do research related to the factors that can support student design learning outcomes. This study aims to analyze the effect of spatial intelligence and learning management on the learning outcomes of students majoring in mechanical engineering who program a machine drawing course, which consists of 2 independent variables (Spatial Intelligence and Learning Management), and 1 dependent variable (Learning Outcomes). This study involved 61 students who programmed a machine drawing course for the 2022 school year. Data analysis used multiple linear regression using the SmartPLS application. The results showed that: 1) Student spatial intelligence has an influence on changes in student drawing learning outcomes, while the contribution of spatial intelligence to image learning outcomes is 59%. 20 Good learning management by educators has an influence on changes in student drawing learning outcomes, while the management contribution learning on image learning outcomes by 26.8%. 3) Spatial intelligence and learning management affect picture learning outcomes by 58.3% and 41.7% are influenced by other variables.

Keywords: Spatial Intelligence, Learning Management, Learning Outcomes

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INTRODUCTION

Vocational school students have the goal of producing graduates who are ready to work. The problem that occurs is the high rate of open unemployment (TPT) for vocational school (SMK) graduates. Based on data from the national statistical center (BPS) for vocational graduates, TPT ranks second after SMA, namely 2,111,338 in August 2021. TPT for SMK graduates in East Java Province occupies the top position, namely 11.89% in 2020. This is This can happen because of the gap between school and industry in the 21st century (Fildzah et al., 2021).

The 21st century is called the information century, the century of information technology, globalization, industrial revolution 4.0, etc. This century will see changes that are very fast and difficult to predict in all areas of life, including education (Lövdén et al., 2020). Changes that take place very quickly can provide opportunities if they can be put to good use, but they can also be disastrous if they are not anticipated in a systematic, structured and measurable manner.

This change triggers changes in the areas of skills needed by the world of work. To predict the skills needed will be very difficult because it depends on the field and sub-occupation that is the focus of the skill. The 21st century is the era of the industrial revolution 4.0 which raises the need for new types of skills that did not exist before, as well as eliminating skills that are no longer relevant (Wijaya et al., 2016).

The industrial revolution 4.0 no longer requires a workforce that is only skilled at operating machines (machine operators), more than that, of course, they are required to have a better understanding of AI (Artificial Intelligence) which includes the latest machines. In addition, (1) Production processes no longer use pure mechanisms (2) Manual production machines have been abandoned and are no longer produced, (3) All manufacturing technologies have begun to use numerical control (4) Numerical control has been adopted from the design. which is very closely related to this, especially the Mechanical Engineering (manufacturing) department, is students' design skills, this is because design is the initial stage of the manufacturing process before the production process. So that this design skill must be owned by everyone (labor) in the business world and the industrial world who concentrate in the field of production (manufacturing).

Each workforce (person) has its own intelligence according to passion, (Gardner, 1983) formulates eight types of intelligence, which humans possess, namely: (1) linguistic intelligence, (2) logical-mathematical intelligence, (3) spatial intelligence, (4) musical intelligence (5) kinesthetic intelligence (6) interpersonal intelligence (7) intrapersonal intelligence (8) natural intelligence (Rahma Elvira Tanjung, 2019).

Based on several theories and initial observations that have been carried out, the intelligence that most supports students in producing good drawing skills is: Spatial Intelligence. Spatial intelligence can be defined as the ability to recognize and describe objects or patterns perceived by the brain (Xie et al., 2020). Yanuarita (Yanuarita, 2014), explained that regarding the spatial visual ability test in general it aims to measure the power of visual logic, spatial imagination, accuracy and thoroughness of a person presented in the form or abstract symbols. There are three dimensional aspects in spatial intelligence, namely spatial relation, spatial orientation, and spatial visualization (Harle & Towns, 2011). In addition, Lohman also suggested the dimensions of spatial intelligence with three aspects, namely spatial

orientation, spatial relations, and spatial visualization (Lohman, 1993). An explanation of the dimensions of spatial intelligence, namely as follows. 1) Image Orientation (Spatial Orientation), 2) Image Relationship (Spatial Relation), 3) Image Visualization (Spatial Visualization).

In the learning process of drawing courses in certain situations students are required to be able to solve problems and complete assignments or projects, so that good learning management support is needed. The essence of learning management is the effective and efficient management and implementation of learning tasks through the process of planning, organizing, implementing, assessing and evaluating to achieve the desired learning objectives (Gemnafle & Batlolona, 2021), and this opinion is supported by opinion (Austin & Rust, 2015; Lohman, 1993).

The goal of learning is to induce changes in the behavior or competence of students after participating in learning activities, to achieve changes in the behavior or competence of students after participating in learning activities, these goals are formulated in the form of special statements. or descriptions. This means that every curriculum must be prepared in writing (written plan) so that everything can be carried out properly with regard to the planning, implementation and evaluation of learning which will result in student learning outcomes as expected.

Learning management is very important to improve teaching and learning. Therefore, there is a need for a teacher's role in leading or directing learning, starting with planning, organizing, implementing and evaluating (Saifulloh & Darwis, 2020). With good learning management and adapted to the character of students who will take part in the learning process will improve learning outcomes from students.

Learning outcomes are changes in people's behavior that can be observed and measured in the form of knowledge, attitudes and skills. These changes can be interpreted as better growth and development than before, and the subconscious becomes conscious (Lian et al., 2018). Understanding learning outcomes is the process of determining the value of student learning through assessment activities or measuring learning outcomes. Based on the above understanding, the learning outcomes can indicate that the main goal is to determine the success of students after participating in learning activities, where the level of success is indicated by letters or words according to a scale or symbols, (Mashuri & Hasanah, 2021). Learning outcomes in machine drawing courses are the level of students' changes obtained both cognitively, affectively, and psychomotorically, which are grouped into a single unit in drawing skills. The drawing skills possessed by students in the machine drawing class vary, this is due to the different potential and basic intelligence possessed by students.

Objects that need to be considered to support future development are Drawing Skills, so in this case the researcher will describe how the Influence of Spatial Intelligence, Learning Management, on the Drawing Skills of students of the Department of Mechanical Engineering Education, State University of Surabaya in machine drawing courses.

METHOD

Types of Research

In this study, an ex post facto quantitative approach was used survey method (Kunrath et al., 2020). Furthermore, data and facts collected from the constructs of spatial intelligence, learning management, and learning outcome will be tested according to the design below.

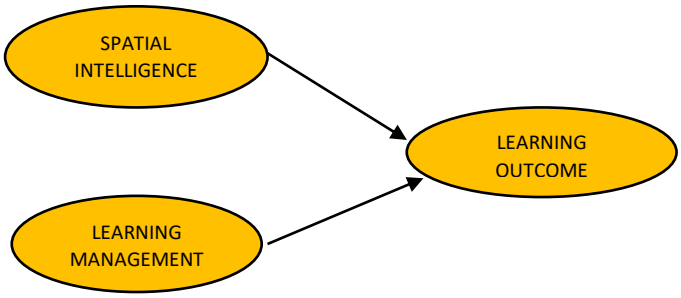


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

Participants

The population in this study were all mechanical engineering education students who programmed production machine drawing courses, totaling 61. Because the population is small, the sampling technique used in this study is a census type, so that the entire population is the sample of this study.

Research Instrument

To obtain data regarding the constructs to be tested, data collection instruments were prepared in the form of questionnaires and tests. For the efficiency of questionnaires and tests distributed with the help of applications such as Google Forms. The test was used to measure students' constructs of spatial intelligence and drawing skills while the questionnaire was used to measure students' constructs of creativity, design interest, and spatial intelligence.

The instruments to be used will be prepared in advance according to the rules of instrument preparation, namely: construct validity, content validity, face validity, and followed by item validity to see the validity and reliability of the instruments to be compiled. For more details regarding the description of the instrument in each construct, it can be seen in the following table:

Table 1. Instrument grid

No	Variable	Indicator	Data Collection
1	Spatial Intelligence	1. Image classification. 2. Object rotation 3. Relationship and logical consistency 4. Test arbitrary build 5. Symbolic reasoning	Test
2	Learning Management	1. Learning Planning 2. Implementation of Learning 3. Learning Evaluation	Questionnaire
3	Drawing learning outcomes	1. Psychomotor 2. Cognitive 3. Affective	Test

Data Analysis Techniques

This study is a quantitative study, the analysis is SEM (Structural Equation Modeling), which is suitable for multivariate statistical analysis. SEM data processing is built on measurement models and structural models. SEM has three functions at the same time, namely to check the validity and reliability of the instrument (confirmatory factor analysis), to test the model of the relationship between variables (path analysis) and to obtain an appropriate model for prediction (structural model analysis and regression analysis). A general model basically consists of a measurement model and a structural or causal model. A measurement model is used to construct an estimate of validity and discriminant validity, while a structural model is a model that describes hypothesized relationships.

This analysis is used to determine the effect of spatial intelligence, Learning Management, on student learning outcomes in the machining engineering expertise program. In testing the hypothesis of the construct above, it will be analyzed how the influence of each construct is directly or indirectly influenced by each construct. The analysis test tool used uses SmartPLS assistance.

RESULT

Measurement Model Analysis

The results of the descriptive data processing showed that all of the research respondents were 100% male who were vocational school students. The instruments used in this study were tested for validity first. Analysis of the test results was carried out using Aiken'(Aiken, 1980). The results of the analysis of each instrument are declared valid where the value of V is above 0.4. All respondents were asked to fill out instruments that had been prepared previously. The results show data like the table below.

Table 2. Discriminant Validity Results Average Variance Extracted

	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Spatial Intelligence	0,692
Learning Management	0,808
Learning Outcome	1,000

Based on the table above, the AVE of each construct/variable has a value above >0.5. These results explain that the contract is able to explain more than half of the indicator variance for each construct.

Table 3. Discriminant Validity Results Loading Factor

	Spatial Intelligence	Adversity Intelligence	Creativity
S1	0,866		
S2	0,715		
S3	0,869		
S4	0,798		
S5	0,898		
MP1		0,917	
MP2		0,925	
MP3		0,853	
HB			1

All indicators for each construct show a loading factor value above 0.7. These results state that these indicators can represent each construct. From the two determinant validity, both AVE and factor loading, it can be concluded that the data is valid.

After checking the validity, the next step is to check the data for reliability. The reliability test in this study used Cronbach Alpha reliability. The data is said to be reliable if the Cronbach Alpha value ≥ 0.5.

Table 4. Reliability Results Cronbach Alpha

	Cronbach's Alpha
Spatial Intelligence	0,889
Learning Management	0,882
Learning Outcome	1,000

The value of each construct has a Cronbach Alpha value above 0.5. Spatial intelligence has a value of 0.889, Learning Management of 0.882, and Learning Outcome of 1,000. This indicates that the instruments in all research constructs are reliable. After the data has been said to be valid and reliable, the data is analyzed to determine the effect of each research construct, namely: spatial intelligence, Learning Management, and Learning Outcome. The test results obtained data as shown in the following figure.

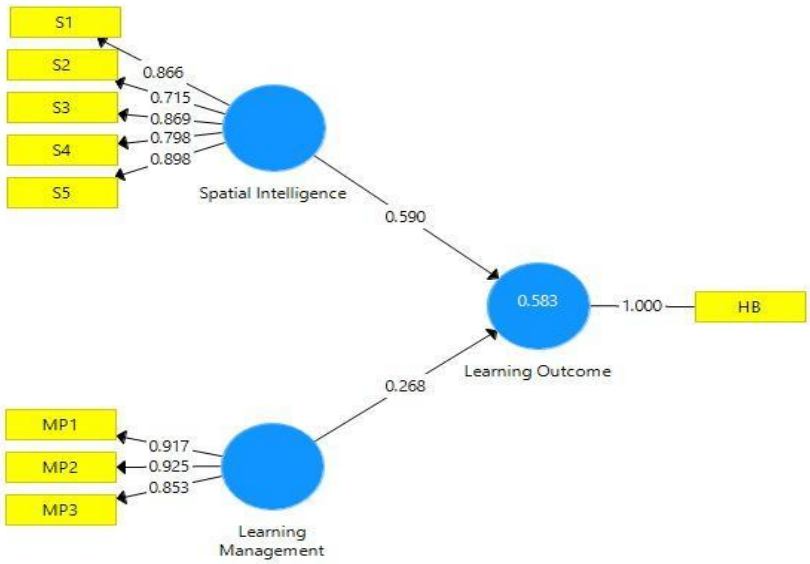


Figure 2. Model of the relationship between variables with each Loading Factor

The results of data analysis obtained the influence of the variables of spatial intelligence and learning management on learning outcome and the joint effect of the two independent variables on the dependent variable. The results of the path analysis can be seen in Table 5 and the R square value in Table 6.

Table 5. Influence values between variables

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (|O/STDEV|)	P Values
Spatial Intelligence -> Learning Outcome	0,590	0,588	0,096	6,130	0,000
Learning Management -> Learning Outcome	0,268	0,276	0,108	2,482	0,013

Table 6. R Square Values

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Learning Outcome	0,583	0,569

Based on the table, the P value shows less than 0.05, so the influence between the variables is significant. Each influence has a positive value. The following is an explanation of each variable.

Based on Table 6 it is found that spatial intelligence has a positive effect of 0.590 on learning outcomes. P value of 0.000 <0.05 means significant. So it can be concluded that there is a positive and significant influence of spatial intelligence on the learning outcomes of students majoring in mechanical engineering in machine drawing courses.

Based on Table 5 it is found that Learning Management has a positive influence of 0.268 on learning outcomes. P value of 0.013 <0.05 means significant. So it can be concluded that there is a positive and significant influence of learning management on the learning outcomes of students majoring in mechanical engineering in machine drawing courses.

Based on Table 6, the R Square value is 0.583 or 58.3%. So that Spatial Intelligence and Learning Management explain the learning outcomes of 58.3% and 41.7% are influenced by other variables. From these results indicate that the greatest influence is spatial intelligence. So it can be concluded that good student image learning outcomes are owned by students who have good spatial intelligence with the implementation of good learning management.

DISCUSSION

From the results of the research that has been carried out, the discussion will consist of 3 discussions, namely: 1) the relationship between spatial intelligence and learning outcomes, 2) the relationship between learning management and learning outcomes, 3) spatial intelligence and learning management and learning outcomes.

First, for the relationship between visual-spatial intelligence and student learning outcomes in machine drawing courses. Based on Table 6 it is found that spatial intelligence has a positive effect of 0.590 on learning outcomes. P value of 0.000 <0.05 means significant. So it can be concluded that there is a positive and significant influence of spatial intelligence on the learning outcomes of students majoring in mechanical engineering in machine drawing courses.

These results provide information that the higher the spatial intelligence possessed by students, the higher the student learning outcomes in machine drawing courses. So it is expected that students will have high spatial intelligence which will be marked by the increased ability of students in drawing which supports their learning outcomes, especially in machine drawing courses.

Research by (Wahyudi et al., 2018) shows that visual spatial intelligence can improve student learning outcomes. Every aspect of integrated assessment complements each other so that students can grow according to the skills they have. Activities undertaken to improve spatial intelligence can be selected according to the level of students. While analyzing the influence of an object, it can be noted from the personal characteristics of students, their perceptions come from individual differences and their tendencies (Yulfianti & Dewi, 2021). So it can be concluded that spatial intelligence can be said to be well developed if students have the capacity to manage images, shapes, and three-dimensional space with the main activity of recognizing shapes, colors, and spaces and creating images mentally and realistically so that with their spatial intelligence, students will exert ability and effort to achieve the maximum expected machine drawing results. The relationship between spatial intelligence and student learning outcomes in the machine drawing course has a positive and significant relationship, as well as in the high category, so that spatial intelligence can be used as a determinant of the high achievement of student learning outcomes in the machine drawing course.

Second, Learning Management has a positive influence of 0.268 on learning outcomes. P value of 0.013 <0.05 means significant. So it can be concluded that there is a positive and significant influence of learning management on the learning outcomes of students majoring in mechanical engineering in machine drawing courses. Education management experts argue that every activity in a formal educational organization, of course, requires management activities, including structuring, compiling and developing activities as well as implementation of curriculum and learning in a school (Hardy et al., 2021). Therefore in relation to learning management and learning programs, it includes activities that include planning, implementation, and evaluation and follow-up (Al-Mamary, 2022) and teachers as executors of learning management.

Different activities related to learning management that teachers do are planning learning materials, formulating learning objectives, organizing and developing learning materials, creating harmonious communication with school leaders, directing lessons, presenting learning materials, creating and maintaining constructive learning relationships and communicating with students, encourages and increases students' desire to learn and the evaluation and monitoring of students' learning outcomes. The aforementioned tasks and management tasks must be performed by professional and experienced trainers. The success of the teacher in the optimal development of the cognitive, affective and psychomotor development of students is also influenced by the quality and consistency of the performance of learning management activities. It also requires trainers who are professional and have a high and consistent commitment to service. The relationship between learning management

carried out by educators and student learning outcomes in the machine drawing course has a positive and significant relationship, as well as in the high category, so that learning management can be used as a determinant of high student learning outcomes in the machine drawing course.

Third, based on Table 7, the R Square value is 0.583. So that spatial intelligence and learning management affect learning outcomes by 58.3% and 41.7% are influenced by other variables. From these results indicate that the greatest influence is spatial intelligence. So it can be concluded that good student image learning outcomes are owned by students who have good spatial intelligence with the implementation of good learning management. This data provides information that the higher the visual-spatial intelligence and the implementation of learning with good management by educators, the higher the student learning outcomes in machine drawing courses. However, table 6 shows that the student's spatial intelligence variable has a higher contribution compared to the learning management variable.

CONCLUSION

From the results of the research that has been done regarding the hypotheses tested on each construct, it can be concluded as follows:

- Spatial Intelligence has a positive and significant direct effect on the learning outcomes of images. This shows that the level of students' spatial intelligence has an influence on changes in student drawing learning outcomes, while the contribution of spatial intelligence to drawing learning outcomes is 59%.
- Learning Management has a direct positive and significant influence on student learning outcomes. This shows that good learning management by educators has an influence on changes in student image learning outcomes, while the contribution of learning management to image learning outcomes is 26.8%.
- Spatial intelligence and learning management affect picture learning outcomes by 58.3% and 41.7% are influenced by other variables, these other variables can be internal or external influences.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Alhamdulillah, praise be to Allah SWT, because thanks to the grace of Allah the researcher was able to complete this article. On this occasion, the researcher would like to thank the parties who have supported and helped in the preparation of this research.

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Student Satisfaction With the Internship Experience in the Graphic Design Industry

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The Merdeka Belajar Kampus Merdeka (MBKM) curriculum provides opportunities for students to study off-campus for 2 semesters. One of them is the internship program. The Ministry of Education and Culture facilitates this internship program through an independent campus. In addition to certified internships, the study program also provides regular internship programs. The internship program was attended by students of the Class of 2019. In this case, institutions and industries need to prepare maximum management to implement industrial design internships. This research uses a quantitative descriptive method that aims to analyze the extent of student satisfaction with internship programs in the Design Industry. Data collection using questionnaires distributed online. The data were analyzed with the SPSS 25 statistical program for validity tests and Alpha Cronbach for reliability. After knowing, it is continued with the interpretation of the data. The respondents in this study were Design students who had taken internships totaling 106 students. The student satisfaction rate with the internship program is 17.9%. Students are satisfied with a percentage of 42.5%. The student is satisfied because he has gained valuable experience to improve his competence so that he is ready to enter the world of work. Meanwhile, students who were dissatisfied with the internship program got a score of 31.1% and those who were dissatisfied with the internship program got 8.5%. Students feel they are getting what the internship is aiming for. The experience gained as well as the increase in soft skills and hard skills to improve their competence are used as a benchmark for student readiness to work.

Keywords: Graphic Design, Internship Experience, Student Satisfaction

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Introduction

Merdeka Belajar Kampus Merdeka (MBKM) is one of the policies of the Ministry of Education and Culture (Kemendikbud) which aims to prepare students to face social, cultural, world of work changes and rapid technological developments, student competencies must be prepared to be more in line with the needs of the times (Kemdikbud, 2020) . The Ministry of Education and Culture issued a policy of Ministerial Regulation no. 3 of 2020, which gives students the right to study 3 semesters outside their study program. Through this program, there are opportunities for students to enrich and improve their insights and competencies in the real world according to their interests and ideals. Internships facilitate the transition from class-based learning to the professional world, as well as increase discipline and self-confidence (Shoenfelt et al., 2012) Internship itself is one of eight forms of learning, namely learning exchanges, internships / work practices, teaching assistance in educational units, research / research, humanitarian projects, entrepreneurial activities, independent project studies, village building (thematic real work lectures). Typically, successful internship programs depend on the efficiency and design of university internship programs, student commitment to internships, and the industry's level of commitment to apprenticeship programs (Hardie et al., 2018). The three must coordinate and cooperate and communicate with each other and commit.

MBKM aims to encourage the ability of students to master science in their field of expertise which is useful for readiness to enter the world of work (Deni, et al, 2022). Internship activities for 1-2 semesters are activities that are enough to provide experience for students to get direct learning in the world of work *(experiential learning)* for a certain period of time. Students will get competencies in the form of *hard* skills (*complex problem solving*, skills, *analytical* skills, etc.) and *soft skills* (communication, professional / work ethics, cooperation in groups, etc.) during the internship / work practice process. A successful internship from a student's perspective means they are passionate, gain real work experience, align with their career choices, enhance their knowledge and experience, improve their communication skills and build professional relationships (Hardie et al., 2018).

Abilities in the form of competencies, both soft skills and hard skills, must be possessed by students. The MBKM program has a paradigm similar to the link and match policy (Kodrat, 2021). Thus, the expected outcome of this program is the formation of student readiness (both soft skills and hard skills) that are relevant to the times, capable and skilled when entering the world of work and can also act as new job creators. In addition, Kwan also argues that by accepting students to do an internship program at his company, it can provide opportunities for his company to recruit new employees so that the company can save more on costs that should be incurred for recruiting (Kipreos & Dimitropoulos, 2016).

In the implementation of the internship, design students choose their own industry as the place for their internship. Information on the student industry can be obtained from the internet, independent campus platforms, recommendations from campuses, and networking that has been established previously. The selection is based on the student's area of expertise and portfolio, the distance between industry and residence, and work system information obtained from previous students. However, in the implementation there are some industries that do not understand the purpose of student internships. when students experience a greater level of mentoring and receive better feedback from their supervisors, then they claim internships are more successful (Hardie et al., 2018). Because this internship has a load of 20SKS, student involvement in the design industry is equivalent to the conversion of credits.

The industry in which students intern is varied, ranging from design bureaus, design consultants, to design agencies. The experience they get varies. Industry readiness in accepting apprentices also varies. How are students satisfied with the design industry as an internship? The purpose of this study is to describe student satisfaction with the internship experience in the design industry as an internship place.

Method

Types of Research

This research uses quantitative descriptive method. The quantitative approach used is descriptive statistical analysis to measure the degree of tendency of respondents' answers through frequency distribution. This research is descriptive in nature which aims to analyze the extent of student satisfaction with the MBKM internship program.

Participants

The respondents in this study were Design students of the Class of 2019 who programmed internship courses in the city of Surabaya. The respondents were 106 students consisting of 59 men and 47 women.

Data Analysis Techniques

The data collection process in this study used questionnaires that were distributed to the research subjects online. The instrument in the form of a questionnaire consists of three types of questions, namely first the respondent chose a likert scale of 1-4, the two respondents concluded a satisfaction level between 0-10, and at the end the respondent gave input or outlined the constraints on the MBKM internship program he was undergoing. The instrument distributed to each student consists of 21 questions with groupings including internship motivation, atmosphere in the industry, and internship experience. The internship Motivation Questionnaire consists of 3 indicators, namely the desire to succeed, the internship drive and needs, hopes or aspirations for the future (Georgiou & Kyza, 2018). The questions on the questionnaire represent each indicator. For example, I chose my own internship program in the design industry. I hope to be recruited into an employee after the internship is completed. The questionnaire on the atmosphere at the internship consists of 4 indicators, including industrial facilities, work atmosphere, cooperation between employees, professionalism between superiors and subordinates (Lan, 2020). The question is for example that the facilities in the industry are complete according to the design industry standards. In the industry, I am free to ask anyone if they experience work problems. The internship experience questionnaire consists of 4 indicators, namely skills, solving various problems, experience in the field of design and outside the field of design, self-confidence (Ocampo et al., 2020). The question type for example after taking an internship my ability did not improve. After joining the internship program I am confident of being able to work in the design industry. Before the instrument is shared, validation is carried out first.

The validity of the content is the validity that questions the appropriateness between the items of the question and the description of the experience given. So a question is said to have content validity when measuring certain specific objectives that are parallel to the material or content of the lesson given (Arikunto, 2013). The validity of the content must include the

entire content, meaning that the test domain must not only be comprehensive in its contents but also contain relevant items for measurement purposes (Azwar, 2019).

The validity of the contents of an item can be proven using spss 25 statistical software. The instrument assessment uses a likert scale with a scale of 1-4, then the validator gives an assessment. The results of the validation assessment of each instrument from the validator were analyzed using *spss 25 statistical software*. According to (SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciencen) has been introduced a long time ago from 1968 as one of the software for statistical calculation banu tools by Norman H. Nie, C Hadlay, As well as Date Bent from Stanford University.

The instrument's reliability test uses Cronbach's Alpha by calculating the reliability of the student's test. The reliability test of this research instrument uses an internal consistency assessment method because respondents tried the test only once. Reliability is determined by the value of the reliability coefficient (Azwar, 2019). This reliability test uses the spss 25 statisti k software program. Instrument reliability criteria when the reliability coefficient is at least 0.6 (Bakar, 2018).

Result

Validity tests are useful for determining the validity or appropriateness of questionnaires used by researchers in measuring and obtaining research data from respondents. The basis for making pearson validity test decisions.

Comparator of rhitung values with rtabel:

1. If the value of rhitung > rtabel = valid
2. If the value of rhitung < rtabel = invalid
   How to find the rtabel value with N=106 at 5% significance in the distribution of statistical rtabel values, then a rtabel value of 0.195 is obtained.
   View significance values (Sig.)
3. If the significance value < 0.05 = valid
4. If the significance value > 0.05 = invalid

Table 1. Validity Test Results

No Item	Rcount	Rtabel (5%)	Information
1	0.510	0.195	VALID
2	0.308	0.195	VALID
3	0.456	0.195	VALID
4	0.393	0.195	VALID
5	0.222	0.195	VALID
6	0.359	0.195	VALID
7	0.278	0.195	VALID
8	0.386	0.195	VALID
9	0.391	0.195	VALID
10	0.510	0.195	VALID
11	0.340	0.195	VALID
12	0.318	0.195	VALID
13	0.456	0.195	VALID
14	0.386	0.195	VALID
15	0.308	0.195	VALID

16	0.230	0.195	VALID
17	0.278	0.195	VALID
18	0.393	0.195	VALID
19	0.343	0.195	VALID
20	0.363	0.195	VALID

From the table of validity test results using spss 25 statistical software above, it can be concluded that the questionnaire with 20 items has 100% validity.

The Reliability Test aims to see if the questionnaire has consistency if measurements made with the questionnaire are performed repeatedly. The basis for making the Cronbach Alpha reliability test decision according to questionnaire is said to be reliable if the cronbach alpha value > 0.6.

Table 2. Reliability Test Results

Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
649	20

The results of the reliability test with 20 items and 106 respondents analyzed using the help of *spss 25 statistical software* obtained an Alpha value of 0.649. Then the questionnaire can be said to be reliable because the Cronbach Alpha value > 0.6.

Student motivation towards internship programs

The motivation to take part in the internship program is one of the factors that can make students able to make logical considerations, have the ability and willingness to choose the internship field according to their competencies. The student tried to find out for himself the company he was going to as an internship. The higher the motivation to join the internship program will cause the internship experience as a result of the internship to be high and vice versa, the lower the motivation to join the internship program will cause the experience to be low. Internship motivation consists of 3 indicators, namely the desire to succeed, the internship drive and needs, hopes or aspirations for the future (Georgiou & Kyza, 2018). The motivation to take part in the internship program arises because of the interests and desires from within the students. The questionnaire distributed to Design students by choosing the location of the internship, the results are as follows.

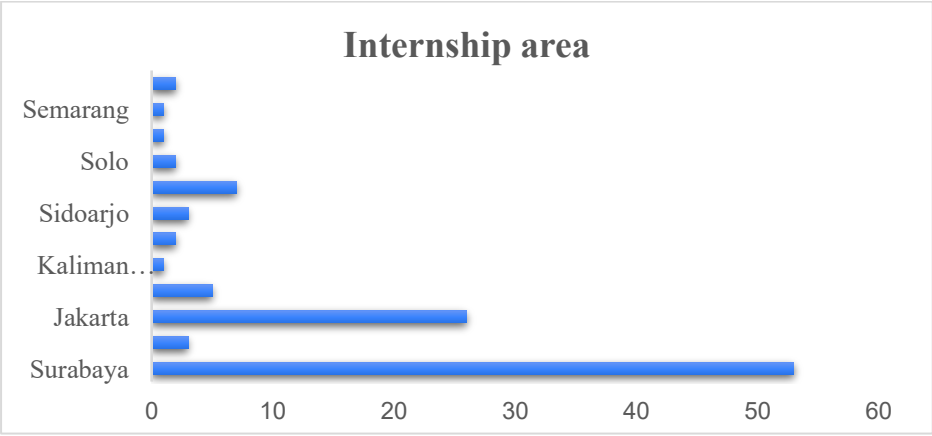


Figure 1. internship location

Apprentice students are scattered in various cities. From the data above, the percentage order from the largest to the smallest is Surabaya at 5 3 students, Jakarta 24 students, Yogyakarta 6 students, Banyuwangi 5, Bandung and Sidoarjo 3, Mojokerto, Gresik and Solo 2, Kalimantan, Bali and Semarang 1. The city of Surabaya is the biggest pill ihan for students because in addition to the big city where there are many industries in the field of design, student residences are close to the internship location, and most students already know the industry.

In the implementation of technical internships in the post-pandemic, there are 3 types, namely online internships with a remote system, offline coming to the office every working hour, and hybrid is a combination of online and offline.

Implementation of internships in the industry

Table 3. Student involvement in projects.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Satisfied	9	8.5	8.5	8.5
	Less Satisfied	16	15.1	15.1	23.6
	Satisfied	47	44.3	44.3	67.9
	Very Satisfied	34	32.1	32.1	100.0
	Total	106	100.0	100.0	

In carrying out the internship program, students do not work alone. The ability to communicate as the basic capital in the ability to work together with the team. The data above shows that 44.3% of students work together with the team in completing tasks/projects. Usually the form of tasks / projects given cannot be completed independently, technically offline or hybrid work. So there must be close coordination between members in the team. This will hone students' soft skills in communicating, thinking critically, respecting the opinions of others, and adaptability in socializing. The independent campus policy encourages the development of student entrepreneurial interests with appropriate learning activity programs, reduces the problem of unemployment among intellectuals, and improves the quality of graduates through mastery of academic knowledge, thinking skills, management skills, and communication skills (Baharuddin, 2021). projects that are done independently without having to cooperate, the type of independent project / task given is instructional from the supervisor or supervisor. The technical work is usually online with a remote work system. So students deposit assignments with the supervisor and the supervisor gives input on the tasks that have been done. Only a relationship is established between the supervisor / supervisor and the student intern. With high motivation, smooth communication, it will be easy to work as a team. Whether it's with a team of one major or from another campus. With cooperation, commitment, a sense of responsibility, respect for the opinions of others are automatically formed soft skills of student interns.

Internship experience

Table 4. Students gain experience in the field of design.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Satisfied	3	2.8	2.8	2.8
	Less Satisfied	17	16.0	16.0	18.9
	Satisfied	51	48.1	48.1	67.0
	Very Satisfied	35	33.0	33.0	100.0
	Total	106	100.0	100.0	

After participating in the implementation of the internship program, students gain experience as an increase in competence in both soft skills and hard skills. This is in accordance with the concept of an independent campus, namely internships can direct students to be more ready to work, work together, be creative and can benefit themselves and the community (Siregar, et al, 2020). From the data above, student experience in the field of Design in accordance with their competence has a percentage of satisfied 48.1% and very satisfied 33.0%. Meanwhile, students who felt dissatisfied were found to be 16.0% and 2.8% dissatisfied. This shows that there is a lot of experience gained in the field of student design through this internship program. So it can be concluded that in the implementation of the internship program, students get a lot of experience that is not obtained in lectures. The experience gained can increase their competence and as capital to enter the world of work.

Table 5. Students gain experience outside the field of design.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Satisfied	12	11.3	11.3	11.3
	Less Satisfied	16	15.1	15.1	26.4
	Satisfied	47	44.3	44.3	70.8
	Very Satisfied	31	29.2	29.2	100.0
	Total	106	100.0	100.0	

In table 6. Students gaining experience outside the design field had a satisfied percentage of 44.3% and very satisfied 29.2%. Meanwhile, students who felt dissatisfied were found to be 15.1% and 11.3% dissatisfied. This shows that there is a lot of experience outside the field of Design gained by students through this internship program. So that students get new soft skills and hard skills that vary by adapting to the industrial world. The experience gained can improve their competence and as capital to enter the world of work.

Student satisfaction with the internship experience

Table 6. Students are satisfied with the internship program.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not Satisfied	9	8.5	8.5	8.5
	Less Satisfied	33	31.1	31.1	39.6
	Satisfied	45	42.5	42.5	82.1
	Very Satisfied	19	17.9	17.9	100.0
	Total	106	100.0	100.0	

After implementing the internship program, students who feel very satisfied with the existence of this internship program have a percentage of 17.9%. Students are satisfied with a percentage of 42.5%. The student is satisfied because he has gained valuable experience to improve his competence so that he is ready to enter the world of work. Meanwhile, students who were dissatisfied with the internship program got a score of 31.1% and those who were dissatisfied with the internship program got 8.5%.

Discussion

The MBKM curriculum provides opportunities for students to study off-campus for 1-2 semesters. One of them is the internship program. The Ministry of Education and Culture facilitates this internship program through an independent campus. Where students choose and take part in the internship selection through the kampusmerdeka.kemendikbud.go.id page. Students who pass the selection are entitled to the form of facilities including the provision of certificates for interns, providing incentives for interns and internship partners. Student internships in the Graphic Design and Visual Communication Design study programs are internship programs with Industry partners. To support the implementation of internships in partnership with the business world or industry, support from various parties is needed, so that this collaboration can provide benefits for all parties involved. Sharing knowledge and skills can occur through two directions, so that no one feels disadvantaged, but instead mutually beneficial with various innovations that can arise as a result of this collaboration (Aswita, 2022). This is in line with what was conveyed by (Effrisanti, 2015) that internships provide many benefits for students in improving their soft skills. Furthermore, (Baharuddin, 2021) mentioned that business internships are an effort to improve the quality of graduates who are ready to compete and open business opportunities in the digital era.

Internship motivation

Internship motivation consists of 3 indicators, namely the desire to succeed, the internship drive and needs, hopes or aspirations for the future (Georgiou & Kyza, 2018). An indicator of the desire to succeed against the opportunity to be achieved as a goal. It is explained that the greater the motivation of students to take part in the internship program, one of which is to achieve the internship goal, the greater the chance for success in this goal. The greater the influence of the desire to succeed, the greater the goal of the internship is achieved. The desire to succeed in the internship program towards solving problems or projects, the stronger the student's desire to succeed in participating in the internship, the greater the student's ability to complete the project. Because in it there are challenges that must be solved by students. The desire for success in design and outside of design experience.

Indicators of encouragement and need. The relationship between the drive and the need for opportunities to achieve goals is that the greater the student's encouragement and need for internships, the greater the opportunity to achieve goals in meeting the needs of these students. Indicators of students' encouragement and need for internships towards problem solving or projects. In solving the problem of a project requires a strong encouragement from both oneself and the environment or team. So the greater the encouragement and need in the internship, the easier it will be to solve the problems that occur in the completion of the design project. Indicators of students' encouragement and need for internships to experience in the field of design and outside of design. The greater the encouragement and need for internships, the easier it will be for students to achieve goals, find the right solutions in

solving problems, so that experience in the field of design and outside the field of design will also be obtained by students to the fullest.

Indicators of expectations or ideals. The greater the expectations or aspirations of student internships, the greater the opportunity to achieve goals in meeting student needs. Indicators of student internships' expectations or aspirations towards problem solving or projects. The greater the expectations or aspirations of the student internship, the easier it will be to complete the design project by solving problems. Indicators of student internship expectations or ideals for experience in the field of design and outside of design The greater the expectations and ideals of the internship, students will easily achieve goals, find the right solution in solving problems, so that experience in the field of design and outside the field of design will also be obtained by students to the maximum.

According to (Stephen P. Robbins; Timothy A. Judge, 2008) expectancy theory is the most accepted explanation of motivation everywhere. This theory derived from Victor Vroom states that the strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectation that the action will be followed by the result that exists on the attraction of that result to the individual. In a more practical form, the theory of expectations says that employees will be motivated to expend a higher level of effort when they believe that the effort will result in a good performance appraisal. Likewise, interns hope to get a good assessment, an award from a supervisor in the industry.

The theory of expectations by Viktor Vroom focuses on three relationships: 1. The effort-performance relationship. The possibility felt by individuals who expend a certain amount of effort will result in performance. 2. Performance-reward relationship. The degree to which the individual is confident that working at a certain level will result in the desired achievement. 3. Personal reward-goal-goal relationship. The degree to which organizational awards satisfy personal goals or needs of an individual and the attractiveness of potential rewards for that individual.

Before the internship, students who take the internship program an internship course of 20 credits, and are approved by the Academic Supervisor (DPA). Students choose their own internship place and type of internship. The types of internships provided are certified internships organized by the Ministry of Education and Culture, and regular internships. Off-campus course programming of the MSIB program (Certified Internship and Independent Study) begins with registration at MELISA with the approval of the head of study program and internship division. Then students register for the campus merdeka.kemdikbud.go.id then students follow the flow on the page. Starting from uploading the requirements file, participating in the interview selection with partners, and announcement of the selection. In addition to certified internships, the Study Program also provides regular internships. The study program provides a place for industry internships that have been involved in previous learning. So the industry knows the competence and interest in the field owned by prospective interns. In the implementation of internships, it is regulated and monitored through simagang (internship information system).

Because most industries have partnered with study programs, and some are involved in lectures in the classroom. So that students prefer internships at study program partners because they have previously known the industry and are in accordance with the field of expertise owned by each student as well as partners who already know the competencies possessed by students through learning in previous classes. with the largest percentage being

regular internship students, and the location of study program partners as internship places is in Surabaya.

In carrying out internships, students have a very high motivation. Motivation is shown by seriousness in participating in internships, seriously working on internship tasks/projects, and completing tasks/projects on time. This shows that Design students are all motivated to take part in self-selected internships according to their competencies. In addition to the seriousness of the next thing that is the timely completion of the task. This shows that Design students can work with deadlines.

Internship Implementation

There is high motivation, seriousness at the internship site, the task or project given can be completed on time. The technical implementation of the internship is mutually agreed upon between the students of the intern and the industry. The implementation of the internship offline where technically students come to the office according to working days and hours. In the company, students get more experience, especially soft skills. They meet fellow interns from other campuses or from different majors, meet with superiors, work teams, employees etc. There students really experience a real working atmosphere. Cooperation, communication, responsibility, collaboration are felt directly by students. In addition to honed soft skills, students also have connections from various campuses. Students who intern offline are usually in the city and the distance is not too far.

The implementation of this technical online internship is carried out usually because the position of students and internship places are far apart or even outside the city, the type of project or task can be done from home. So that the implementation is online with a remote work system. Students coordinate through zoom, WAG, and certain applications specifically used by company employees. Students work on assignments and the ACC process online. But working hours still apply.

The implementation of hybrid internships as many as students do internships online and offline according to the needs of companies and students. Time and technical flexibility is felt by students. Usually coordination is carried out offline, and project work is carried out online from their respective homes. And meet Back to present the progress of the project being worked on. The implementation of this hybris trains students to be ready at all times and work according to the timeline that has been agreed upon in advance.

Student satisfaction with the internship experience

In the implementation of internships, students are left entirely to the industry. The study program through the internship supervisor only directs and monitors the implementation of the internship. Policy regarding the technical implementation and types of tasks / projects given is the authority of the industry according to the agreement with students. The internship program not only provides benefits for students, but also provides benefits for companies that provide opportunities for students (Denny et al., 2022). Mutually beneficial relationships between students, study program institutions, and industry are established with the existence of internship programs. The type of assignment given is in the form of real or real projects and students are included in certain divisions according to student competencies. In 1 internship location consisting of several student interns are usually included in different divisions so that the tasks / projects carried out are also different.

In the implementation of internships, students work on real or real projects. With that engagement students who feel they are experiencing real work. Students are involved as designers according to competencies placed in one of the divisions in the industry. The design work produced by the student is actually used, reproduced and published in the project. In addition to working on real projects, there are also interns who do assignments from superiors or supervisors. The type of task given is in accordance with the competence in the field of Graphic Design / DKV but not in the form of a real project. Usually, student design works are used by industry for assets or work documents for the next project submission. Meanwhile, students who are dissatisfied with involvement in the project have a percentage of 15.1% and those who are dissatisfied with 8.5%. From the percentage comparison, it shows that Graphic Design and DKV students have competencies according to their respective fields in working on real projects, so it can be concluded that these students have experience for work readiness.

Students feel that the experience gained needs to be improved to prepare for the world of work in the field of Graphic Design / DKV. Not only internships but there is still a need for special training, competency certification tests that can be used as capital to show their competence. A very significant comparison between satisfaction and unsatisfied with this internship program.

So it can be concluded that the internship program for students is in accordance with the purpose of the internship, and in accordance with the wishes of students. However, in some cases there is a need for quality improvement in accordance with student input or comments on this internship program. These inputs or comments include preliminary planning as a preparation and overview of the student implementation of the internship completed from the beginning of filing, management to reporting. Adjustments between the academic calendar and the internship calendar. So that students have time to compile reports to the maximum. Inputs from students will be considered by the Study Program as a form of improving the quality or quality of the next internship.

Conclusion

The MBKM curriculum provides opportunities for students to study off-campus for 1-2 semesters. One of them is the internship program. The Ministry of Education and Culture facilitates this internship program through an independent campus. Where students choose and take part in the internship selection through the kampusmerdeka.kemendikbud.go.id page. Students who pass the selection are entitled to the form of facilities including the provision of certificates for interns, providing incentives for interns and internship partners. In addition to certified internships, the study program also provides regular internship programs. Each internship program weighs 20 credits which is converted into 8 courses. The internship program participated by students of the Class of 2019 is an internship program. In this case, the study program needs to prepare maximum management to implement internships for students. The systematics of the implementation of the internship has been regulated in the internship guidelines and its implementation is monitored on the university-level simagang page. Coordinated management between the university and the study program will support the achievement of internship goals. In addition to internal coordination, the Institution also needs to coordinate with outside parties, namely the industry as an intern partner.

The freedom to choose an internship location is based on the competence of the field they have, the affordability of the internship location with students, and the suitability of the industrial field with the competence of students. Students at the joint consideration of the study program determine the location of the internship. Together with the industry, they agreed on the technical implementation (online, offline, hybrid), and the length of the internship time. Students choose locations in big cities such as Surabaya, Jakarta, Bandung because in big cities there are many industries in the field of Graphic Design and Visual Communication Design, besides that students also During the internship, students gain experience both in the field of Design and outside the field of design as an effort to increase competence in the field of Graphic Design and DKV to prepare themselves to enter the world of work.

The level of student satisfaction with the internship program is very high, because students feel that they are getting what is the purpose of their internship. One of them is the increase in soft skills and hard skills which are used as a benchmark for student readiness to work. However, there are several things that need to be improved, for example, debriefing at the beginning as a preparation and overview of students for the implementation of the internship is completed from the beginning of filing, management to reporting. Adjustments between the academic calendar and the internship calendar. So that students have time to compile reports to the maximum. Inputs from students will be considered by the Study Program as a form of improving the quality or quality of the next internship.

Acknowledgement

Alhamdulillah, praise be to Allah swt, because thanks to the grace of Allah the researcher was able to complete this article. On this occasion, the researcher would like to thank the parties who have supported and helped in the preparation of this research.

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From Novice to Pro: A Modified Scaffolding Research Guide for Elementary Students

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Research writing was viewed as an advanced skill that should only be taught after students had mastered fundamental language processes like grammar, punctuation, syntax, and spelling. However, with the recognition of research as a crucial component of 21st-century skills, there has been a shift towards introducing research writing earlier, even at the elementary level. The aim of this study was to improve Grade Five students' research writing skills and attitudes towards writing using a process-genre approach. The study identified that students in Grade Five lacked proficiency in writing, research skills, and often had an aversion to writing. A pre-assessment test revealed a neutral level of understanding among students with a mean of 3.429 and a standard deviation of 0.172, emphasizing the need for research writing training and guidance. The study employed an experimental design, where the experimental group was taught using process-genre writing, while the control group was taught using traditional writing methods. The study was conducted for 8 weeks, resulting in significant improvements in research writing skills and expertise in both groups. The study's findings demonstrate the effectiveness of a process-genre approach in improving students' research writing skills and attitudes towards writing.

Keywords: Process-Genre Approach, Research, Scaffolding

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Introduction

Research writing was regarded to be an advanced skill that should be taught only after pupils had mastered vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, grammar, syntax, and other mechanical language processes supposed to give the necessary foundation. However, because of the changing perception of learning and the fact that research is a component of the 21st- century skills that need to be established, it was said that it should be taught as early as the elementary grade.

Hadani (2010) proved that developing research writing skills for an elementary student is an opportunity to gain skills that will be useful in whatever future career plans they may have, especially now that the global context necessitates a productive research culture that can collaborate with the most recent educational trends.

Almost all institutions in the Philippines are recognizing the importance of research. The development of research culture is a top objective. However, in the Division of Pasig, only 4 or 14 % of public elementary schools and 7 or 44% of secondary schools participated in National Science Fair. (Excluding 2020-2021 due to the pandemic).

Conformance to DepEd Memorandum No. 176 Series of 2016, mandating student participation in the Science and Technology Fair and promoting Science and technology consciousness among the youth, as well as identifying the best Science researchers representing their schools and the country in international competitions, research programs, and activities, is encouraged.

To continue research activities, such as conducting research and publishing scholarly works, the science program must be strengthened by implementing Science Investigative projects in elementary and high school. Science investigative projects should be promoted in elementary and secondary schools to inculcate the value of inquiry in students from a young age.

The Division of Pasig's poor participation in the National Science Fair at the primary level is linked to the division's poor Mean Percentage Score (MPS) in science during the last three years. The Division intends to concentrate on the academic facet of the subject. According to the data (Phil-IRI), the Division's learners' writing abilities and comprehension levels are also below average.

Writing and comprehension are essential skills for elementary students to learn. Integrating writing in research is exceptional. Students can communicate their ideas, feelings, and thoughts to the readers through research. Writing encourages students to arrange words by word, phrases by phrases, and clauses by clauses while also considering structure, cohesion, organization, meaning, and so on. According to Yah (2010), writing well and having good comprehension effectively aim to provide opportunities for language learners to be eager to learn the language and improve language skills, fluency, accuracy, and appropriateness in communicating meaning and messages.

Research writing is critical for students to improve their knowledge and achievement. So, introducing research writing to elementary students can be challenging, but developing an approach in research writing from a different perspective can be extremely beneficial.

Teaching students how to write a basic research paper in a manner that they can readily grasp is the simplest strategy to spark students' interest in research-related activities in Science, such as SIP or Science Investigative Project.

Students must first comprehend the writing process to be persuaded to write research papers. Developing writing skills at a young age, according to Baker, fosters a love of writing and eventually leads to exceptional writing ability (2015).

Writing skills may be taught in a variety of ways, including product-based approach, process-based approach, and genre-based approach. If an effective approach to teaching writing is employed in conjunction with the right activities, students will be encouraged to explain their concepts in outstanding writing and may produce a great research paper (Badger, 2010).

This research will combine the process and genre approaches to write a mini-research paper. According to Badger and White (2010), combining the two approaches in writing (process-based approach and genre-based approach) may be effective in enhancing students' writing skills. This strategy is known as the process genre approach. It enables students to investigate the relationship between purpose and form for a certain genre by using the prewriting, drafting, revision, and editing methods. In this approach, the researchers will utilize a Modified – Scaffolding Research Guide to create a Mini-research paper, which will be anchored in the Process-genre approach in writing.

It takes time to learn research writing skills, and students must practice them regularly. Regular writing practice promotes fluency. As a consequence, adequate time must be provided for teaching research-related writing activities, and the development of an appropriate writing approach is required.

This study will enhance skills in scientific and research-related writing activities such as the SIP- Science Investigative Project. Since the researchers provide a basic technique for writing a research paper, the number of schools participating in regional and national contests related to the research may increase. Teachers may also employ the MSRG-A process-genre approach to prepare pupils for scientific research projects and writings.

I. Innovation, Intervention, and Strategy

The Modified Scaffolding Research Guide **(MSRG)**, a process-genre approach (PGA), is a teacher-made activity package that will be used by the researchers. In a nutshell, PGA is an approach to improve a learner's writing skills. The activity combines two well-known writing approaches. The researchers will serve as teachers, demonstrating a process-genre approach using MSRG- an activity package. As a result of the activity, students will have a Mini-Research paper.

Badger and White (2010) experimented using the genre and process approaches together as an alternative in a model called the process genre approach. Through this research, they affirmed that this dual approach works well if the writing cycle begins with models, a description of the key linguistic features, a discussion of the social situation in which it happens, and an analysis of the recommended rhetorical patterns of each genre. Student writing is then subjected to the sequence of drafts in the process approach.

The researchers altered a task known as "Mini Research Paper" (MRP). This activity focuses on writing a research paper appropriate for a Grade Five student. It is a guided activity using a process-genre approach. The guided activity is composed of 5 stages: brainstorming, planning, researching, writing, revising. The researchers will provide supplemental materials (OFFLINE Version- APK File Activities), printed research guide materials, self-made videos, and online interaction via google or Zoom platform for 6 weeks.

It is erroneous to presume that a Grade Five student cannot write a research paper. Today's students have access to more information, making the role of the teacher a guide. This activity Modified Scaffolding Research Guide (MSRG) will help students improve their research skills over time. The ability to find and use information effectively is a necessary skill for life and work and this underpins a solid research skill. Gilmore and Feldon (2010) revealed that, on average, over an academic year, a poor writing approach has been found to relegate research skills development, whereas engagement in research-related activities in basic education may improve the research skills through time.

II. Action Research Questions

1. What are the pre- and post-assessment levels of Grade Five learners in writing a research paper?
2. How does MSRG – a process-genre approach improve the research writing skills of the Grade Five pupils based on the mini-research activity task?
3. Is there a significant difference between the two groups (control and experimental) after the treatment (MSRG- a process- genre approach)?
4. What is the attitude of learners after learning the Modified Scaffolding Research Guide?

III. Action Research Methods

A. Research Design

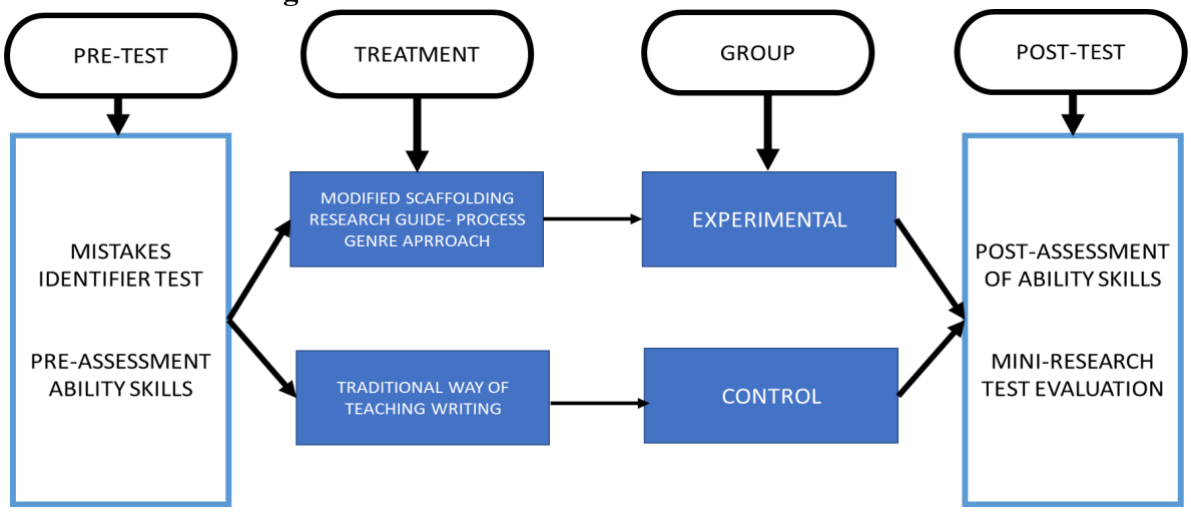


Figure 1: Quasi-Experimental Design

B. Participants and/or other Sources of Data and Information

This study includes two elementary schools in Pasig (18 in Pinagbuhatan Elementary School & 18 in San Lorenzo Ruiz Elementary School). Participants will be selected based on their

academic group or level, class size, and grade level. They were labeled as the Experimental Group (MSRG-Process Genre Approach) and the Control Group (Traditional Approach). Thirty-six (36) Grade Five students in both schools are included in the study and will take part in the learning activities.

The researchers use stratified random sampling (usually referred to simply as stratified sampling) is a type of probability sampling that allows researchers to improve precision (reduce error) relative to simple random sampling (SRS). The population is divided into non-overlapping groups, or strata, along a relevant dimension such as gender, ethnicity, political affiliation, and so on. The researcher collects a random sample of population members from within each stratum. This technique ensures that observations from all relevant strata are included in the sample.

The researchers facilitate triangulation using the data sources listed above for additional verification and validation of the intervention's effectiveness.

The researcher conducts a pilot study to identify the most common writing errors made by Grade Five students. The researcher gave the students a task: writing a paragraph. The topic is all about his favorite animal.

After writing the paragraphs, the researcher corrected them and counted the sentences to determine the most common errors, which were as follows: grammar, spelling, agreement, and punctuation. After identifying the most common writing errors, they will complete the Self-Assessment of Research Writing Skills to determine the learners' current level of research- writing skills.

Research Writing Performance Test - Common Mistakes Identifier Rubrics - For the pilot study, the researchers will ask participants to write a paragraph (minimum of 3 paragraphs) on this topic: favorite animal. Following the pilot testing, it will be evaluated using writing rubrics adapted from the Curriculum of Research and Planning Division-Singapore (2001).

Modified Scaffolding Research Guide- The researchers will use a teacher-made activity package that demonstrates the process-genre approach. It is a modified activity designed to meet the needs of the research. It will be shown in two modes: real-time teaching (synchronous) and video presentation (asynchronous).

Mini-Research Paper Rubrics for Research Writing - The researcher modified a multi-purpose scoring guide to evaluate student research writing skills. If you master the mini-research paper, you can score up to 90 points. It was divided into four categories (exemplary, good, acceptable, unacceptable).

The rubric criteria are based on parts of the MSRG activity packet (introduction, content, sentence structure, grammar, word choice, and references).
Total Score Description:

90-68	Expert Research Writer
67-45	Proficient Research Writer
44-22	Apprentice Research Writer
21- 0	Novice Research Writer

Teacher-made lesson plan – The researchers will develop a lesson plan explaining the process of how to make a mini-research paper using the process-genre approach. Experts from the field will evaluate the lesson plan based on the DepEd LRMDS Development and Validation Guidelines.

Table 1: A descriptive evaluation will be given to assess the lesson plan

Descriptive	*Points*
Exceeds Expectation	10-9
Meets Expectation	8-6
Needs Improvement	5-3
Does not meet Expectation	2-0

Self-Assessment of Research Writing Skills Questionnaire – The researchers will adapt and modify the SARW from Marquette ESLP 25 Questionnaire (2012) for the pre and post-assessment, with questions about research writing retained.

The assessment instrument will be interpreted using the 5-points scale. (5 is the highest and 1 is the lowest.)

5=never or seldom true of me
4=usually not true of me
3=neutral
2=usually true of me
1=always or almost always true of me

C. Data Gathering Methods

This study takes a mixed qualitative and quantitative approach, with one group designated as the control group and the other as the experimental group. Before the treatment, both groups will be pretested using the Common Mistakes Identifier Rubrics. The experimental group will receive the treatment, while the control group will participate in the standard classroom discussion. Pre-test assessment and post-test assessment will be used to verify if there is an improvement in research writing after the treatment. Survey questionnaires will also be used to determine students' involvement, satisfaction, learning, and impressions of using a process-genre approach in writing a research paper.

D. Data Analysis

SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) - was used to analyze quantitative data gathered from the pre-assessment and post-assessment. The following statistical tools for data analysis are discussed:

Descriptive Statistics- To answer the qualitative profile of the subjects, descriptive statistics such as arithmetic mean, percentage frequency distribution, standard deviation, and coefficient variation will be used as well as for the FGD/ interview.

Inferential Statistics- Data will be gathered and analyzed using Independent Sample T-test. The Independent Samples t-Test compares the means of two independent groups to determine whether there is statistical evidence that the associated population means are significantly different. Students in both the experimental and control groups will be pre-tested on their writing abilities and analyzed the pre and post-assessment skill test afterward.

Conclusion

The Pilot Study

The researcher performed a pilot study to ascertain the most frequent errors made by Grade Five students when writing. Students were asked to write a paragraph about their favorite animal. Three paragraphs at a minimum.

Following the completion of the paragraphs, the researcher corrected them and numbered the sentences, at which point the researcher determined the frequent errors as follows:

Table 2: Frequent Errors in Writing

	Mistakes			
	Grammar	**Spelling**	**Agreement**	**Punctuation**
Number of Mistakes	325	245	542	198
Percentage	24.8%	18.7%	41.4%	15.1%
Mean	9.02	6.81	15.0	5.5

A pilot study was carried out to assess students' performance in writing. A total of 36 students participated in the pilot study. The results are shown in Table (1). The results showed that the sample's mean writing scores were lower than the average (9.02). This demonstrates that the students had a relatively low level of achievement in writing. It was clear that their writing ability was weak.

The most common mistake made by Grade Five students when writing a paragraph is subject and verb agreement (41.4%), followed by grammar (24.8%), spelling (18.7%), and punctuation (15.1%). It only reveals that students must learn a subject and verb agreement and, as a result, it is recommended that a special session be held to discuss the basic rules of subject and verb agreement.

According to Brown (2019), teachers teach subject-verb agreement in two ways: deductively and inductively. The rules for deductive and inductive teaching are not the same. As a result, the approach taken by the teacher is determined by several factors, including the nature of the language being taught as well as the preferences of the teachers and students. A suitable approach for an elementary student, on the other hand, maybe a combination of both approaches.

Research Q1: What are the pre and post-assessment levels of Grade Five learners in writing a research paper?

To ascertain control variables before implementing the process-genre approach, the results of the research writing pre-assessment test were statistically analyzed to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in overall research writing performance between the two groups (control and experimental). As a result, the mean scores of the two groups were compared using the t-test for independent homogenous groups, as shown in Table (2).

Table 3: T-test results of the Research Writing Pre-assessment comparing both control and experimental groups in overall writing performance

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-test for Equality of Means	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-Assessment Mean Score	Group C	18	3.5718	1.04931	0.24733	0.935	34	0.356
	Group T	18	3.2394	1.08267	0.25519			

According to the results, there were no statistically significant differences in overall writing performance between the control and experimental groups on the research writing pre-test; the t value (0.935) is not statistically significant at the (.05) level. According to scores, the two groups are homogeneous at the start of the experiment.

Table 4: Pre-Assessment of Research Writing Skills

Code	Research Writing Ability Test (Pre)	Mean
SK1	I can write a good paragraph.	3.444
SK2	I can write a topic sentence that identifies a paragraph's main idea.	3.472
SK3	I can compose a paragraph with clarity.	3.361
SK4	I can communicate with the reader using proper vocabulary and word forms.	3.611
SK5	I can combine many sentence structures.	3.167
SK6	I can correctly spell, capitalize, and punctuate.	3.806
SK7	I can accurately summarize information I read in English.	3.444
SK8	I can accurately translate information I read into English.	3.556
SK9	I can research any topic.	3.528
SK10	I can select an academic research topic.	3.194
SK11	I can create a good research question.	3.194
SK12	I can make a draft before writing a paragraph.	3.444
SK13	I can organize my writing in many ways (e.g. process, comparison, cause, effect, outlining).	3.556
SK14	I can support my argument with facts.	3.333
SK15	I can perform effective library research to support my thoughts.	3.444
SK16	I can use search engines (e.g. Google, Internet Explorer, Mozilla) to find material to support my ideas.	3.639
SK17	I can compose an essay conclusion in English.	3.444
SK18	I can write and format articles in English using a word processor.	3.250
SK19	I can efficiently brainstorm before writing.	3.500
SK20	I can read a lot of books before writing.	3.278
SK21	I can organize my thoughts before drafting an outline.	3.500
SK22	I can write quickly under pressure.	2.028
SK23	I can notice flaws in my writing and how to fix it	3.556
SK24	I can apply effective ways to improve my writing.	3.556
SK25	I can think on my own when writing.	3.417
	Mean	3.429 (Neutral)
	Standard Deviation	**0.172**

Margin of Error: 3.4289 ±0.0677 (±1.97%)

According to Table 3, the pre-assessment skills of Grade 5 students are neutral, indicating that the student has a general understanding of how to write a research paper, with a mean of 3.429 and a standard deviation of 0.172. The table depicts that skill code ***SK6 - I can correctly spell, capitalize, and punctuate.*** Get the highest mean of 3.806, which means students in Grade 5 can recognize wrong spelling, wrong capitalization, and wrong punctuation. Followed by, ***SK16 - I can use search engines (e.g. Google, Internet Explorer, Mozilla) to find material to support my ideas,*** with 3.639.

Corresponding to some studies, search engines have become ingrained in our information environment. They are increasingly taking the place of libraries in terms of aiding information discovery and access. The term "googling" has come to mean "research" (Mostafa, 2018). According to recent statistics, Google has surpassed the use of library catalogs and other online citation databases as the preferred search interface for many staff and students when it comes to addressing their information needs (Griffiths and Brophy, 2019).

Based on the data, the lowest mean score of skill is ***SK22- I can write quickly under pressure,*** 2.028, indicating that students require enough time to write a paragraph. As a result, the researchers extended the number of weeks required to implement the process-genre approach from two to six weeks. Allowing them more time to complete their mini-research paper.

Table 5: T-test results of the Research Writing Post-assessment comparing both control and experimental groups in overall writing performance

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-test for Equality of Means	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Post-Assessment Mean Score	Group C	18	3.4216	.72012	0.24733	-17.348	24	0.353
	Group T	18	4.1767	.13124	0.02625			

According to the results, there were statistically significant differences in overall writing performance between the control and experimental groups on the research writing post-test; the t value (-17.34806)) is statistically significant at the (.05) level.

Table 6: Research Writing Ability Test (Post Assessment)

Code	Research Writing Ability Test (Post)	Mean
SK1	I can write a good paragraph.	4.139
SK2	I can write a topic sentence that identifies a paragraph's main idea.	4.139
SK3	I can compose a paragraph with clarity.	4.194
SK4	I can communicate with the reader using proper vocabulary and word forms.	4.389
SK5	I can combine many sentence structures.	4.028
SK6	I can correctly spell, capitalize, and punctuate.	4.472
SK7	I can accurately summarize information I read in English.	4.222
SK8	I can accurately translate information I read into English.	4.361
SK9	I can research any topic.	4.250

SK10	I can select an academic research topic.	4.083
SK11	I can create a good research question.	4.056
SK12	I can make a draft before writing a paragraph.	4.278
SK13	I can organize my writing in many ways (e.g., process, comparison, cause, effect, outlining).	4.650
SK14	I can support my argument with facts.	4.111
SK15	I can perform effective library research to support my thoughts.	4.250
SK16	I can use search engines (e.g., Google, Internet Explorer, Mozilla) to find material to support my ideas.	4.139
SK17	I can compose an essay conclusion in English.	4.139
SK18	I can write and format articles in English using a word processor.	4.083
SK19	I can efficiently brainstorm before writing.	4.250
SK20	I can read a lot of books before writing.	4.083
SK21	I can organize my thoughts before drafting an outline.	4.194
SK22	I can write quickly under pressure.	3.806
SK23	I can notice flaws in my writing and how to fix it	4.167
SK24	I can apply effective ways to improve my writing.	4.194
SK25	I can think on my own when writing.	4.139
	Mean	4.1767 (Usually True)
	Standard Deviation	**0.131**

According to Table 5, the post-assessment skills of Grade 5 students are **usually true**, indicating that the students in the experimental group improve their research writing ability after the 6 weeks session, with a mean of 4.1767 and a standard deviation of 0.13124, while the control group after doing the traditional way of teaching research writing gained a mean score of 3.4216 and SD 0.72012, which fall under **neutral level.**

According to the data, the skill with the highest mean of 4.650 is ***SK13- I am capable of organizing my writing in a variety of ways (e.g. process, comparison, cause, effect, outlining***), which indicates that after the session using the Modified Scaffolding Research Guide (Process-Genre approach), the students learned outlining and creating graphic organizers which is a very important component of research writing.

Research Q2: How does MSRG – a process-genre approach improve the research writing skills of the Grade Five pupils based on the mini-research activity task?

Table 7 shows that there were statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the control and experimental groups on the research writing after the treatment; the components of research writing performance (introduction, content, sentence structure, word choice, grammar, and use of references) according to analytic scoring, t value is (-4.3333) for "Introduction", (-3.8889) for "Content", (-4.0556) for "Sentence Structure", (-3.8889) for "word choice", (-3.2778) for “Grammar” and (-5.0000) for “ Use of References” were statistically significant at ($\alpha \leq .05$) level, which means that Modified Scaffolding Research Guide (Process-Genre Approach) is an effective intervention to improve Grade Five students research writing skills.

Table 7: Comparison of Two Means based on the Score - Research Writing Skills

Independent Test of Significance							
Research Writing Skills	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	Interpretation
Introduction	Traditional Group	18	6.7222	1.63799	0.38608	-4.3333	Significant
	Experimental Group	18	11.0556	1.73111	0.40803		
Content	Traditional Group	18	6	1.878672873	0.44281	-3.8889	Significant
	Experimental Group	18	9.88889	1.778594584	0.41922		
Sentence Structure	Traditional Group	18	6.38889	1.576999716	0.3717	-4.0556	Significant
	Experimental Group	18	10.4444	1.293523334	0.30489		
Word Choice	Traditional Group	18	5.94444	1.513555309	0.35675	-3.8889	Significant
	Experimental Group	18	9.83333	1.098126747	0.25883		
Grammar	Traditional Group	18	4.5	1.504893977	0.35471	-3.2778	Significant
	Experimental Group	18	7.77778	1.477500097	0.34825		
Use of References	Traditional Group	18	5.38889	1.68519117	0.3972	-5.0000	Significant
	Experimental Group	18	10.3889	1.68519117	0.3972		

Hence, Table 7 reaffirms the fact that the two groups are homogenous at the beginning of the experiment concerning analytic scores.

Research Q3: Significance difference between the two groups (control and experimental) after the treatment (MSRG- a process- genre approach)?

Table 8 Test of Normality of Two Groups (Control and Experimental Group

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov[b]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Experimental Group	Score	0.186	18	0.1	0.928	18	0.182
Control Group	Score	0.156	18	.200*	0.938	18	0.272

The researcher used a normality test to see whether our data was normally distributed. This test will determine whether or not the Independent T-test can be used in our study. We can now assume that we can use the test because the p-value is greater than the. 0.05 level of significance (0.182 and 0.272) with no outlier's item.

Table 9: Mean Scores of the Two Group (Traditional and Experimental Group)

Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Score	Traditional Group	18	34.9444	2.81743	.66407
	Experimental Group	18	59.4444	2.93503	.69179

* Based on the Mini-Research Paper Evaluation Results

The 18 students who undergo the Modified Scaffolding Research Guide Session (Process-genre approach) while writing a Mini-Research Paper have a greater mean (M- 59.44, SD- 2.93) compared to the 18 students who write the Mini-Research Paper in Traditional Way (M- 34.94, SD- 2.81). The t-value is -25.54897. The p-value is < .00001. The result is significant at p < .05. In other words, the Modified Scaffolding Research Guide (Process-Genre Approach Activity) is an effective way to improve the research writing skills of Grade Five Learners.

Table 9.1: Mean Scores of the Two Group (Traditional and Experimental Group)

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test Equality of variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	f	Sig.						Lower	Upper
Mean Scores	0.109	0.744	-25.549	34	0.000	-24.50000	0.95894	-26.44881	-22.55119

* Based on the Mini-Research Paper Evaluation Results with Levene's Test

The findings revealed that the students completed the task (mini-research paper) within the time limit. After the session was taught using the modified scaffolding research guide (process-genre approach), the students performed significantly better. Resulting in proficiency to expert research writers (45-90). The findings corroborated previous research on the beneficial effects of scaffolding in writing instruction (Dewi, 2017; Peters, 2019).

Research Q4: What is the attitude of learners after writing a mini-research paper? (Traditional Approach and Process-Genre Approach)

Table 10 reveals that there were statistically significant differences in mean scores between the control and experimental groups on the student writing attitude scale; the t value (6.421) is statistically significant at (.05).

Table 10: T-Test Attitude Scale of both Group (Control and Experimental) after Research Writing

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t-test for Equality ofMeans		
					t value	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control	18	21.3333	5.4125	1.4214	6.421	24	.000
Experimental	18	32.5405	5.4125	1.3165			

These findings provide evidence in favor of the group who undergo the treatment process (process-genre approach). These significant differences between experimental and control results can be attributed to the successful experimental group's session while doing the mini-research paper.

As a result of the researcher's attitude scale survey, we can recommend that as teachers, we should provide them with guidelines on how to write a research paper. Elementary students, on the other hand, are unable to write independently. They require a demonstration of how to write one. That is the purpose of the modified scaffolding research guide, as they will require an output throughout the session to assess their understanding with the teacher's guidance.

The following are some of the comments made by students while writing their mini-research papers:

Respondent 1: "Madali palang magsulat ng research.akala ko mahirap.Tinulungan lang ako ni mama sap ag gamit ng canva."

Respondent 2: "Gusto ko ulit magsulat ng research. Pero this time tungkol naman sa mga plants. My favorite plants naman."

Respondent 3: "It is now easy to write an introduction. As long as you have data and google."

Respondent 4: "My most favorite part of writing a research paper is when I'm doing the graphic organizer. It is colorful and I can easily understand. I can now answer the guide questions easily because of my data."

Respondent 5: "Most of my scale is 5 because I learned a lot! Kudos to my science teacher. She's the best."

Respondent 6: "Now I realized that writing research is not toxic as my ate said. It is really easy peasy."

Given that a change in attitude occurred as a result of the introduction and implementation of the Process-Genre-approach in this study, it is critical to recognize that teaching research writing as a process encouraged students to become writers. Students gained knowledge by participating actively rather than passively absorbing information.

The process-genre approach compelled students to take an active role in their education. They were required to take control of their writing by choosing their topics, determining how their topics would be developed, and determining the final product. Concentrating on PW resulted in the natural evolution of written language. It sprinted attention to the process of learning rather than the result.

It is concluded that all students are capable of writing and possess something worth writing about. It facilitated the development of writing subskills because Process-Genre-approach

activities occurred in a non-threatening environment in which students were not afraid to take risks. Students developed their style and preferences within this environment (their home).

I assigned a very simple research paper to my students two years ago. There is no standard procedure for writing one. I simply assign the task. I simply explain that it is similar to writing an essay. Just keep writing. The end result was a shambles.

Then I realized that asking them to write a research paper was a bad idea. The best part is that as a teacher, I need to show them how to begin writing a good research paper. And to do so, I'll need to conduct some independent research. I discover one of the two best writing approaches, the process approach, and the genre approach. I conduct some readings and interviews and realize that I can combine the two processes. The gist is to provide them with the genre by teaching them the importance of data and graphic organizers, as well as to provide them with the right process through scaffolding. I look for a group mate and voila! That is the beginning of this paper.

Teaching research writing skills in elementary school is necessary because as early as elementary grade their love for research will bloom. When they become senior high school, research will just be an easy peasy.

We can guide our students through the "how-tos" of research. We've mastered the skills of navigating text features in nonfiction books, finding credible sources online, using google, and taking notes, which we can pass on to our students. Giving them the basic guidelines on how to start writing is the best first step.

As we go through this study, some ideas pop up like providing video clips on the steps on writing so that during the asynchronous time they can browse and review the process, which is a big help. We also give the student an APK file of the lesson. Meaning they can have a reviewer that can be installed on their cellphone and can be used offline. All of this is provided by the researcher.

We are all aware that conducting research during a pandemic is extremely difficult, but it is one of the challenges that we have overcome. We obtain parental permission, wait for the materials to be validated, run the session for 6 weeks, and check the paper for 1 month using the validated rubrics.

As a recommendation, teachers require additional writing training, particularly in the process genre approach. For those unfamiliar with the writing process, it is recommended that they read books written by experts in the field. Teachers should speak with other teachers who employ the process approach to gain a better understanding of current trends in the field of writing. They will have a more solid foundation for discussions about what writers do and how they feel when they write. These types of discussions are critical for the development of students' subskills in writing.

In the end, we were more than pleased with the outcome. We can now share this study with our colleagues, and we are proud to say that it is highly effective; if we implement this approach to other subjects, perhaps they will achieve the same results.

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Improving Kindergarten Readiness by Upskilling Parents Through a Webinar Series Entitled "Ready, Steady, Zoom" During the New Normal

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The pandemic has forced the Philippines' education system to discontinue face-to-face sessions and adapt to new modes of instruction, but education must continue to advance, and teachers must adapt. Kindergarten preparation has always played a role in how well students do throughout their first week of face-to-face sessions. Other studies indicate that parental participation has an effect on children's learning results. As a result, a series of webinars and training sessions were organized for kindergarten parents and guardians to assist them in preparing themselves and their incoming kindergarten students for online learning. By establishing expectations for the learners, the researcher hopes to motivate them to participate in online classrooms using conferencing platforms, resulting in a high rate of attendance. The study included a total twenty-six persons who consented to participate. They included both the pupil's parents and guardians. They were tasked with the responsibility of applying their experience and abilities to the youngsters in order to assist them in adjusting to the new normal. During the first week of online classes, 56.33 percent of students attended. By week eight, however, it had increased to 97.33 percent. Participants agreed in a Likert assessment that the webinars prepared them and their students for online learning. In general, the researcher discovers that providing training and support to parents or guardians will aid them in preparing and encouraging their children for the new normal, resulting in a higher rate of online class participation.

Keywords: New Normal, Pandemic, Online Classes

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Introduction

On the 20th of January 2020, the first case of Corona virus was reported in the Philippines. World Health Organization (2020). Months later, classes were suspended, and the suspension was extended until the end school year resulting in closing ceremonies held virtually. As the following academic school year neared, questions on how will learning take place when schools were closed and face to face classes were forbidden? Aside from the global pandemic, Covid 19 also lead to the adoption of the Basic Education Learning Continuity Plan (BE-LCP) which lead to the utilization of different learning modalities including online distance learning.

In a recent study by Pe Dangle and Sumaoang (2020), regarding the implementation of Distance Learning in Philippine Secondary Public Schools, one of the challenges that emerged was the parent's lack of capability in academically guiding the pupils. This poses a threat since the parents will be the one of the uniting elements between the pupils and their learning. This is applicable not only for secondary pupils but most especially with young learners. According to Gohl and Thorson (2020), family engagement has an important role in student engagement for positive outcomes in learning. Therefore, if the parents as well as household members are supportive in terms of a pupil's academic activities, there is a probability that the child will succeed in school.

Trautner (2019) "Parents who attended classes and learned effective discipline and parenting techniques, report having children with higher grades, fewer behavior problems, less substance abuse issues, better mental health and greater social competence."

The key purpose of this study is to establish the involvement of the parents to prepare their children for online learning in the new normal. An 8 series webinar was prepared for parents and guardians of kindergarten pupils in Pinagbuhatan Elementary School. Ready, Steady, Zoom is aims to help ready the pupils, have a steady communication with the parents, and consequently *zooming* up the attendance rate and learning of the pupils. After the completion of the webinars, it is highly likely that the students will be prepared for the new normal through the support of their parents, giving them the opportunity to head start on their lessons and have a positive attitude on online classes. If this study succeeds, it may springboard research and solutions for other challenges that is experienced for the online learning modality in the new normal.

Ready, Steady, Zoom

Ready, Steady, Zoom is a series of webinars designed for the parents and guardians of kindergarten pupils in Pinagbuhatan Elementary School which aims to upskill the parents for them to be able to academically guide and encourage their children.

According to a study from the University of the Philippines, Filipino students are generally capable in terms of navigating and using the technology e.g., computers and internet connectivity but are not prepared in terms of learner control and other factors.

Reyes *et. al* (2020) stated in the conclusion of the study that external distractions may result in loss of the learner's productivity and recommended that the pupils sustain a healthy life and work balance through planning and time management. Moreover, household members ought to be informed of the following factors and there must be a conscious effort between

the family to support and guide the learners. Therefore, the researcher devised research to determine if enlisting the parents or guardians for online webinars with topics that would aid them to prepare pupils for online learning.

During the start of classes, an orientation was provided for the parents to inform them of the study, the webinars, and its goal. The webinars took place during Saturdays from October to November. A total of 26 participants agreed to attend the webinars. The webinar topics included Importance of Messenger in this time of Pandemic which highlights the use of Facebook messenger as one of the key means of communication. The parents were taught how to use the apps' different features that could be maximized for learning delivery. The next webinar was Adapting with the new Modes of Learning which gave simple backgrounds on the different learning modalities that will be used; and providing pointers for the parents on how to prepare for them. The next set of webinars were entitled Educational Webinars at Home and Use of Indigenous Materials at Home for Learning. During face-to-face classes, it is imperative for the teachers to provide different games, activities, and instructional materials to promote learning for the children but then, since the parents will act as the facilitators of learning at home, they should be able to come up with the same activities and resources that will help nurture their own children and those two webinars would help them. While the episode Making Kids Ready for Remote Learning did not just provide tips for the parents, but since the online classes already started there was sharing of challenges that were encountered as well as the other participants sharing plausible results that they did with their children. After the series of webinars, the parents are expected to apply the knowledge that they acquired.

The actual dates of implementation are shown on table A.

Table A.

Webinar Topics	**Date of Implementation**
Importance of FB Messenger in This Time of Pandemic	October 10, 2020
Adapting with the New Modes of Learning	October 17, 2020
Educational Games at Home	October 24, 2020
Distant Learning: reading at Home	October 31, 2020
Use of Indigenous Materials at Home for Learning	November 7, 2020
Everyday Parenting: The ABC of Child Rearing	November 14, 2020
Roles of Parents in Developing Children's Interest in Reading	November 21, 2020
Making Kids Ready for Remote Learning	November 28, 2020

According to Trautner (2019) Parenting programs that offer guidance and support to make parenting easier, and enjoyable can reinforce the child's abilities to succeed. Therefore, since assistance was provided for parents and guardians early on, the anxiety of the learners was addressed, which resulted in progress of the number of days that they attended classes.

Conclusion

The improvement of the pupil's readiness and attitude towards online classes would be determined should the pupils attendance rate increase. The data gathered through the SF-2 forms would be presented through utilization of visual graphical representation. According to Verdinelli and Scagnoli (2013) the use of visual representation of data heightens the reader's analysis as well as comprehension of data and highlights a research's data presentation and assessment.

The Likert Scale for the parents' responses was designed in which 5 was strongly agree, 4 agree, 3 is neutral, 2 is disagree while 1 represents strong disagreement. The first part of the questionnaire is dedicated to the respondents demographics, age and gender while the second part is regarding the parents' evaluation of the webinars and if their expectations were met.

The Likert scale would determine if majority of the parents agree that the RSZ webinar series helped them guide and prepare their children for online learning.

Kindergarten Readiness in the New Normal

The new normal way of schooling has posed a lot of challenges for young pupils. Young children have to stay in front of computers or other available gadgets and navigate through the school's chosen online platform to unmute and mute themselves during online classes Reilly (2020).

During the first week, the pupils were struggling during classes. Their attendance rate was at a low level, as seen on table 1 and 1.1, based on a 3-day online conference class for week 1, only 5 out of 26 pupils were able to attend thrice which is only 19.230 % while, 9 were able to join twice which is 34.615 % and 38.461% were only able to attend once.

Table 1

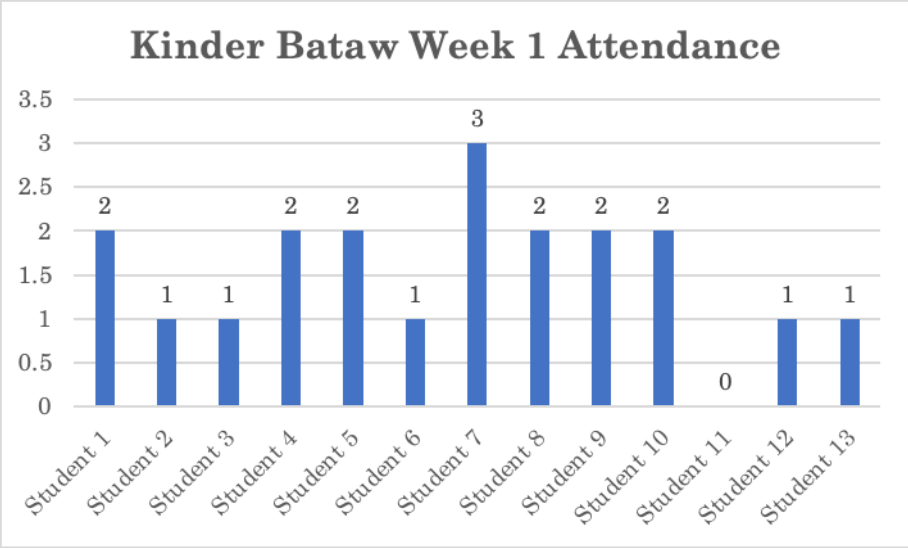
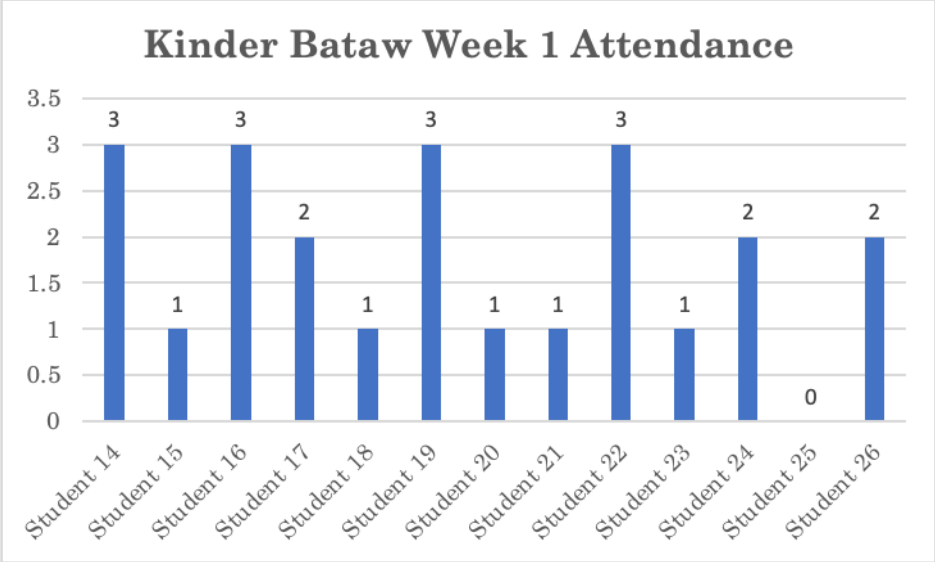
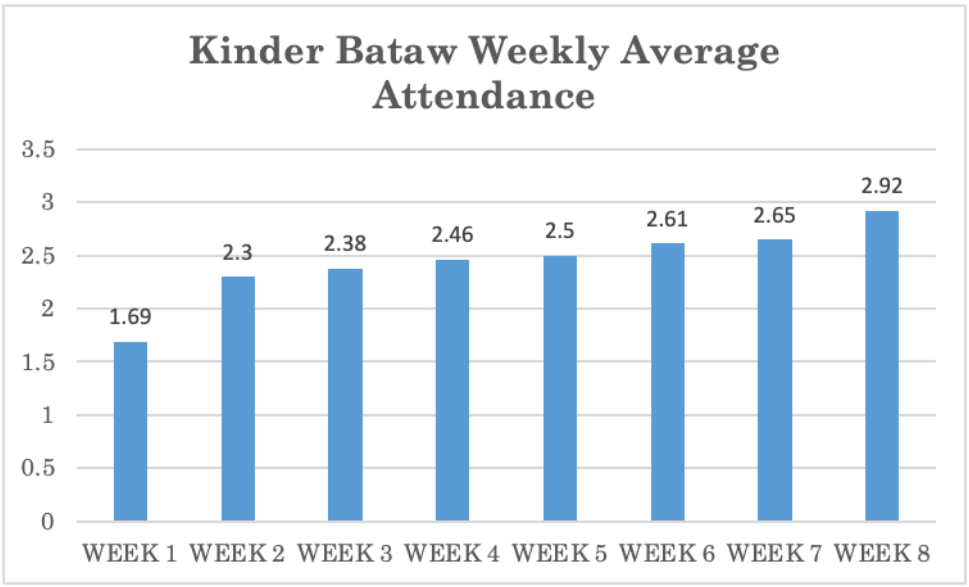


Table 1.1



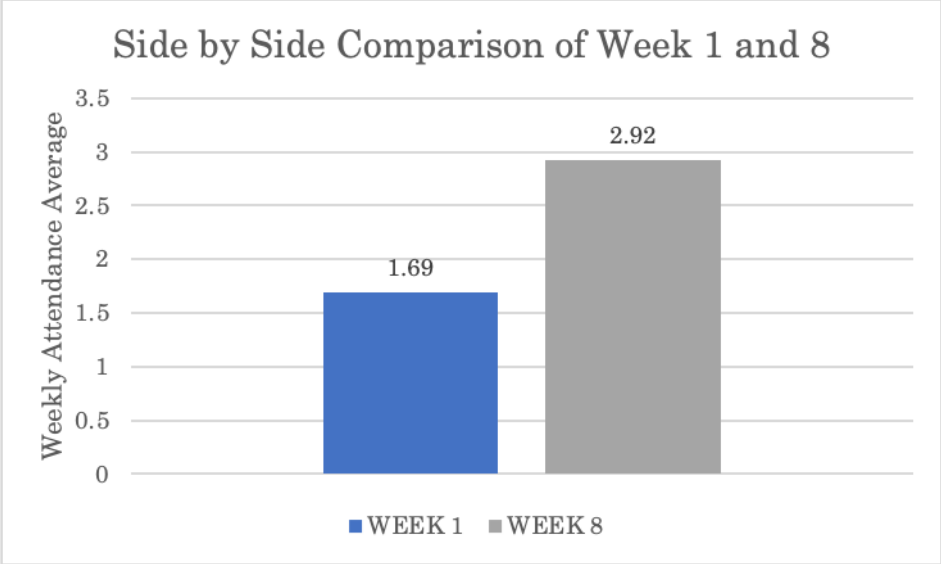
After the 1st webinar, there was an increase of the pupils weekly average attendance. From 1.63 out of 3 days which was 56.33% it had a 30.57% increase the following week. Out of 3 days, they closed in on their average at 2.3 as seen in table 2.

Table 2



Looking closely on Kinder Bataw's weekly average attendance from table 2, it had a steady increase in the span of 2 months. Comparing week 1 and week 8, Kinder Bataw's weekly average attendance went from 1.69 to 2.93. From 56.33% it has risen to 97.33%. Week 1 and Week 8 had a 72.78% increase in their interval.

Table 3



Parents Perception on the RSW Series of Webinars

From the results of the participants Likert scale survey questionnaire, it shows that for question number 1, 3, 4 and 5: *The skills and information presented were timely and relevant; The topics of the webinars increased my knowledge and skills to help me guide my child for the new normal education.; The webinar helped me prepare my child for the incoming new normal education; I am very satisfied with the webinars* each had a mode of 5 which means that most of the participants strongly agree with the statements while question 2, *The webinars were properly presented and easily understood* had a 4 as the most frequent answer which means that most of them agree.

Table 4

1. The skills and information presented were timely and relevant.	2. The webinars were properly presented and easily understood.	3. The topics of the webinars increased my knowledge and skills to help me guide my child for the new normal education.	4. The webinar helped me prepare my child for the online classes.	5. I am very satisfied with the webinars.
5	5	5	5	5
5	5	5	5	5
5	5	5	5	5

	5	5	5	5	5
	5	5	5	5	5
	5	5	5	5	5
	5	5	5	5	5
	5	5	5	5	5
	5	5	5	5	5
	5	5	5	5	5
	5	5	5	5	5
	5	4	5	5	5
	5	4	5	5	5
	5	4	5	5	5
	4	4	4	5	5
	4	4	4	4	4
	4	4	4	4	4
	4	4	4	4	4
	4	4	4	4	4
	4	4	4	4	4
	4	4	4	4	4
	4	4	4	4	4
	3	4	4	4	4
	3	3	3	4	3
	3	3	3	3	3
	3	3	3	3	3
mode	5	**4**	**5**	5	5
mean	**4.38**	**4.30**	**4.42**	**4.5**	**4.46**

In conclusion, the attendance rate of the pupils increased from the first week of classes before the parents and guardians attended any webinars and continued to improve successively after each webinar series. The implication that the improvement was credited to the RSZ webinar series were derived from the results of the parents Likert Survey questionnaire. Item no. 3 which asks if the topics of the webinars increased the parents' knowledge and skills to help them guide their child for the new normal education, had an average of 4.42 out of 5. While for question 4, which asks if the webinars generally helped the parents prepare the pupils for online classes scored 4.5 out of 5.

Moreover, the researcher suggests that in this time of the pandemic, teachers should take into consideration in helping and training the parents to guide their children since the new normal and different types of modalities are entirely a new territory for all stakeholders.

Acknowledgments

All praises are for the Lord, our creator. Which enlightened and guided me throughout the completion of this study. This would not be possible without the support and motivation that I have received from the people around me.

I would like to express my gratitude to the City Government of Pasig and Schools Division Office of Pasig City for, allowing me to showcase and present my paper at the Southeast Asean Conference on Education and for funding my endeavor in pursuing truth and knowledge through research.

Many thanks to my Principal Ma'am Josephine Z. Macawile for being supportive and encouraging me toward the end.

To my genuine friends and colleagues, thank you for the inspiring discussions, and motivations and for staying with me through the end.

To my loved ones, your unending moral and emotional support, your efforts, are duly noted, and my accomplishments are dedicated to you.

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Integration of Contents of Local Wisdom in Curriculum for Cosmetology Vocational Schools: An Analysis

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study aims to analyze the curriculum in beauty vocational schools in Ponorogo Regency-East Java based on the values of local wisdom. This school's curriculum is based on the character and resources that exist in the area, both natural and human resources. This type of research is descriptive qualitative with data collection techniques through observation, interviews, and FGD (Forum Group Discussion). The results of the FGD with district staff and local schools produced data that the local area had become one of the crowded areas because of its proximity to the border between Central and East Java and the folding of natural resources. Therefore, many locals work as farmers and some are employees. All these data are materials for developing the curriculum of the vocational school of beauty management in the School. The results of this study explained that the curriculum development of vocational schools in Ponorogo Regency-East Java is based on the values of local wisdom, which includes the cultivation of natural resources and the empowerment of human resources. The recommendation for further research is the development of vocational schools for curriculum management based on local wisdom in other schools.

Keywords: Cosmetology Vocational School Curriculum, Local Wisdom, Natural Resources, Human Resources

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I. Introduction

Education in schools requires a curriculum that is relevant to industry needs. The curriculum used in Vocational High Schools is said to be relevant to the needs of the business world and the industrial world, because the curriculum is important in education and significantly affects the quality of graduates. Curriculum should begin with a specification of student needs. A question posed is why the target curriculum is designed based on the needs of the community? The answer is because the community will be users of graduates (Ambiyar et al 2018). The totality of experiences experienced by students in the educational process is referred to as the curriculum. Clark (2015) says, "Curriculum is a collection of experiences designed for students through their education, wherever they are educated. In particular, the curriculum refers to what knowledge and skills will be learned by students, which contains the expected learning objectives; teacher-taught units and lessons; assignments and projects given to students; books, materials, videos, presentations, and readings used in the course; and other methods used to evaluate student learning (Fitriyanti, et.al, 2021). The government is trying to overcome the stagnation in the quality of SMK graduates in the industrial and business world by issuing Presidential Instruction Number 9 of 2016 concerning Vocational Revitalization. It is a way of addressing the mismatch between skills taught in vocational schools and the industrial and business world (Handel, 2014; Hersch, 2012). Policies related to linking and matching with industry needs must exist revitalized (Sloane, 2013; Boudarbat and Chernoff, 2015). Apart from these policies, the curriculum in vocational high schools must also be able to present the integration of local wisdom, which can also be seen in the learning process so that graduates meet expectations in the world of work. The world of work requires not only qualified hard skills but also soft skills.

Local wisdom is an accumulation of knowledge and policies that grow and develop in a society that includes theological, cosmological, and sociological perspectives (Afiqoh et al., 2018). Opinions from other sources state that local wisdom is a living concept that is trusted and used by the local community. In society, beliefs and ways of life are passed down from generation to generation. Local wisdom is also the result of community adaptation originating from life experiences passed down from generation to generation. According to Fajarini (2014) local wisdom is the way local people address life's problems to solve their life problems with knowledge, and all forms of life that are embodied in every activity. In line with this opinion, local wisdom according to Hajrah, et.

The integration of local wisdom into the curriculum in schools is urgently needed, considering the local wisdom that has been implemented supports good character education. Local wisdom-based education can also create a global-minded society or a society commonly referred to as global citizenship. Local wisdom or culture of an area can be introduced to the national and international scene. Currently, global citizenship education is a topic of discussion for many people.

The self-learning curriculum used in Vocational High Schools is an implementation of the noble life of the Indonesian nation which is contained in Pancasila and reflects the original personality of the Indonesian nation (Nurgiansah, 2021; Sulianti et al., 2020). Indonesia is a country consisting of thousands of ethnic groups and cultures. Indonesian culture will be explored through local wisdom education, including variants with Indonesian cultural potential that can be shown to the world as an effort to develop Indonesia from an environmental sustainability perspective. Through education, the effort to develop culture is through learning programs based on Pancasila ideology which can give birth to student

profiles with Pancasila. Therefore, learning based on local wisdom is an effort that is being carried out by the Indonesian government to create students with a Pancasila profile.

The cosmetology department at the 2nd vocational high school in Ponorogo, East Java, especially in the Ponorogo district, adopted an independent curriculum. The curriculum used there is the school's operational curriculum. In order to be meaningful, this Curriculum is developed according to the context and needs of students and schools. In the preparation and development of the School Operational Curriculum, the Pancasila Student Profile becomes a reference in developing the school's vision, mission and objectives. The Pancasila Student Profile has six competencies. The six competencies are interrelated so that efforts to realize a complete Pancasila Student Profile require these dimensions simultaneously. The six dimensions are Faith, piety to God Almighty, and noble character, Global Diversity, Mutual Cooperation, Independent, Critical and Creative Reasoning. The expected profile of graduates from the cosmetology major is to prepare students to become skilled mid-level executives, trained according to the expertise program they choose and able to apply their abilities to be self-employed/work independently both in beauty companies, salons and spas.

Based on observations and interviews with Beauty Therapy Teachers at Ponorogo vocational high schools, it is known that from year to year the community's interest in studying at SMK Negeri 2 Ponorogo is very large and continues to grow, although there are also many State SMKs growing in every sub-district in the Ponorogo district. This is certainly a threat to SMK Negeri 2 Ponorogo. For this reason, excellent service and good and correct management of students must be given as a form of responsibility in educating the nation's children. The output produced must be truly competent and have good character and soft skills. The resulting outcomes are also able to position alumni to be accepted to work in the World of Work both domestically and abroad such as Japan, Korea and Taiwan, capable and courageous to become entrepreneurs and continue to a higher level of education.

Referring to the problems previously described, it is necessary to disclose the relevance of the curriculum applied in schools whether it reflects the values of local wisdom. This study aims to identify and analyze the contribution of local wisdom in the curriculum, and reformulate the local wisdom-based curriculum development framework. The importance of this research is to contribute local wisdom values in curriculum design for international benefits and interests. This contribution can be interpreted as an effort to support national interests where education based on local wisdom is expected to be an asset in developing education management based on local goals, but oriented to national interests so that this contribution can be beneficial for the progress of the nation. education.

II. Method

This type of research is descriptive qualitative with data collection techniques through observation, interviews, and FGD (Forum Group Discussion). In qualitative research there are several types of data collection methods, but which ones are related must be adjusted to what the researcher wants to achieve. The most common tools used for qualitative research are focus group discussions, interviews, and participant observation (Vanderstoep & Johnston, 2009). In this study, qualitative focus group discussions on research methods have been highlighted. Social science investigators in general and qualitative investigators in particular rely on focus groups to gather data from several people at once.

III. Result And Discussion

Based on the results of observations made at the Department of Cosmetology at Vocational High School 2 Ponorogo, it is known that: 1) the Beauty Department is one of the favorite expertise programs that produces graduates with basic knowledge, attitudes, and skills that are qualified, professional, competitive, and creative as Beautician, Hairstylist, Makeup Artist, and Therapist. Graduates need these competencies if they want a career as a beautician. This is in line with Elley's opinion (2018), that a cosmetologist studies hair cutting, styling, color, makeup application, manicures, and pedicure services, what styles and colors will look good on different people, chemistry for mixing colors, and treatments. other chemistry. 2) Availability of adequate and quite complete infrastructure facilities to support student competency to learn and develop according to expectations in the world of work 3) The curriculum used at the school uses the New Paradigm curriculum, where the curriculum used is formulated together with stakeholders in a collaborative, meaningful, in-depth manner, taking into account the latest technological developments. This is because this curriculum will become the school's internal guidelines in carrying out the learning process. 4) The curriculum at school gives students the freedom to develop skills in the field of entrepreneurship through traditional cosmetic products, herbal drinks that are well accepted by society. These products are made by utilizing local potential that is around Ponorogo. The materials used for making products such as coffee beans, turmeric, ginger, pandan leaves are very easy to find in the surrounding plantations, and even grow in the yards of residents' houses. In addition, students are enthusiastic when practicing product making in existing laboratories. 5) In practice, almost all subjects use project-based learning and the case method. The learning approach applied is competency-based learning.

In the FGD activities, where this activity involved several aspects, starting from industry which is a stakeholder from schools, members of professional certification bodies, and universities, a curriculum was formulated that was in accordance with the needs and conditions of schools and the surrounding environment in Ponorogo Regency.



Figure 1. FGD activities with industry

In the FGD activities, which involved several aspects, starting from the industry which is a stakeholder and partner of schools, members of professional certification bodies, and universities, a curriculum was formulated that was in accordance with the needs and conditions of the school and the surrounding environment. in Ponorogo Regency.

Based on the FGD activities, it is known that the curriculum used already uses a new paradigm curriculum that is guided by the Pancasila student profile. Pancasila is the basis of the Indonesian state, so it is expected that student learning outcomes in each subject are made rationally but still contain Pancasila student profiles in it as the characteristics and identity of

the Indonesian nation. In learning, the system developed at SMK Negeri 2 Ponorogo, especially in the Beauty program, is a block system. 9. The Beauty Department is included in the Expertise Group: Tourism, Specialty Program: Spa and Beauty. Where there is a Concentration of Expertise (1) Concentration of Expertise in Beauty Therapists (2) Hair and Beauty. Concentration is a study specialization taken in an expertise program at the beginning of phase F (Grades XI and XII). Concentration on studying more specific competencies, in accordance with the objectives and the World of Work or business opportunities that will be placed by graduates. Based on this, students in all Skills Programs at SMK Negeri 2 Ponorogo are allowed to take one concentration, because this concentration is intended so that students are truly focused and competent, so they are ready to enter the world of work or entrepreneurship.

In the block learning system, subjects are divided into general subjects, vocational subjects, and character development and work culture based on the profile of Pancasila students. Where in general subjects contain religious and moral education. Moral education that is fostered in schools based on local wisdom which is the standard for the surrounding community, as well as the work culture that is applied in the industry that is a stakeholder. Where the majority of stakeholders from these schools are still in Ponorogo and its surroundings. In addition, the subjects of Pancasila and citizenship education, Indonesian language, history, arts, physical education, sports and health. Subjects for the Vocational School group are divided into Mathematics, English, Informatics, Science and Social Projects, Vocational Schools, Creative Products and Entrepreneurship (Based on local potential around Ponorogo) and Field Work Practices.

Based on the results of interviews with school principals regarding learning carried out in schools it is known that: "Learning that builds student performance includes mastery of knowledge, skills, and attitudes as an inseparable unit. in order to be able to master attitudes, knowledge, and skills so that they can work according to their profession and what is no less important is the mastery of soft skills to support the hard skills they already have.

Furthermore, to explore the completeness of student learning, through questions to the deputy head of the curriculum, several strategies are known to achieve this, including: "develop learning principles, namely learning by doing, individualized learning, teamwork learning". That is one of the keys to why the quality of school graduates is valued. The absorption of graduates into the world of work is very good, the majority of beauty salons and businesses in Ponorogo district and its surroundings are beauty school graduates with this major.

Which translates to:

1. Learning by doing (learning through real, authentic, contextual activities or activities that provide meaningful learning experiences), developed into project-based learning, production-based learning, problem-solving-based learning, work-based learning, and others that are appropriate to apply at school.
2. Individual learning, namely learning by taking into account the uniqueness of each individual, and carried out with a modular system.
3. Teamwork learning is learning that develops the ability to work in teams by strengthening self-competence, being responsible for tasks, and understanding their position and function in the team. Vocational learning is not enough to learn to master competence individually but needs to learn in groups.

From the results of the context analysis, the improvement of the Education Unit Operational Curriculum is directed at improving the following:

1. The teacher's individual work procedures are changed to collaborative work procedures;
2. Strengthening the positive character and soft skills of students by making the values in the Pancasila Student Profile the main principles of development;
3. Strengthening facilities and infrastructure to improve services in the learning process;
4. Strengthen cooperation with the World of Work through resource sharing;
5. Student-centered learning management. Learners must have a choice of the material studied to have the same competence;
6. Interactive learning (interactive teacher-student-society/natural environment, other sources/media);
7. Network learning (students can gain knowledge from anyone and anywhere that can be contacted and obtained through the internet);
8. Active-seeking learning (Learning of students who are actively seeking is strengthened by the science approach learning model);
9. Learning strengthens the development of the special potential that each student has so that he develops according to his potential,
10. Multidisciplinary learning so that students are flexible in applying their competencies in society.

Added by the head of the cosmetology department at the Vocational High School that "All subjects offered in the curriculum structure, how to achieve competence, are packaged in the form of Learning Outcomes prepared by the teaching teacher for each learning outcome which is translated into a Flow of Learning Objectives using various models and learning methods adapted to the characteristics of each subject. Evidence of learning outcomes in the form of portfolios of student work is well documented as a form of teacher accountability when conducting assessments through various supporting instruments and reporting them to parents in the form of a report card."

Then the deputy head of curriculum added that for the application of local content in the curriculum, namely in the subject of creativity and entrepreneurship products, the results of student projects were in the form of beauty products in the form of traditional herbal drinks (jamu) and traditional cosmetics. Where students make projects in groups and then sell these products to the community. For drink formulas, traditional cosmetics and other products, they get product formulas based on team research results and traditional family recipes and natural ingredients that are around them."



Figure 2. One of the student's products

Furthermore, regarding the responses of subject teachers who teach creative product and entrepreneurship subjects, they admit that they are very grateful to be able to teach and explore the surrounding natural wealth for the younger generation to maintain ancestral culture so that it remains sustainable. At first, the students had difficulty finding the formula, but the teacher guided them to gather information from the elders of the village where their parents lived and the leader of the neighborhood where they lived. The information is collected then they summarize and determine which formula they will embody in the form of a creative product. Another teacher said that "the parents responded positively to the project and in the end, some of them helped market the student's product."

In a further interview with the head of the cosmetology section at the school, "it was found that the products made by students in the cosmetology section were superior school products that the school was very proud of. When participating in educational exhibitions in districts or provinces, student products were selling well and received positive responses."

Several students were also asked about their responses to creative and entrepreneurial product-making projects using local materials. Their responses were very happy and interesting. One student said "so far I haven't cared about the surrounding plants, the natural wealth that exists. Everything is normal, but through this lesson, I realized that everything can be used and make money." Another student also said "I have been taking care of my skin by buying beauty products in stores, but I am now thinking of making my own as they are cheaper, and safe to use on the skin."

IV. Conclusion

That the school has implemented local wisdom values in its curriculum. The local wisdom in question is based on the profile of Pancasila students contained in the curriculum. The curriculum at this SMK in Ponorogo has been jointly drafted and standardized by the World of Work. Strengthening aspects of soft skills and work character to complement hard skill aspects according to the needs of the world of work. In addition, real-based learning from the World of Work (Project based learning) from the start and schools ensures that graduates from these schools have hard skills accompanied by soft skills and a strong character of work readiness. That the school has implemented local wisdom values in its curriculum. The local wisdom in question is based on the profile of Pancasila students contained in the curriculum.

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Pagtimakas: Modular Learning Experiences of CAPSU MSC Students

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Hiligaynon is a language used in Western Visayas, Philippines. *Pagtimakás* is a Hiligaynon word meaning to exert oneself or make great efforts. In the Philippines, the Education sector is among the most highly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. Capiz State University, Mambusao Satellite College (CAPSU MSC), is situated in a rural area with limited internet connection. Thus, the institution implemented a modular learning approach with little or no face-to-face interaction between students and their instructors and is highly dependent on printed modules to maintain the education of students. Understanding the plight and challenges of these students can be a source of actions and plans that will help them cope and succeed in their academic endeavors. Hence, this study was conducted. The study uses phenomenology to answer the research questions. An in-depth interview using a semi-structured questionnaire was the researcher's data-gathering instrument. Eight students purposively chosen based on inclusivity criteria became participants of the study. Results showed that lack of learning resources, time, and self-paced learning are the challenges the CAPSU MSC students faced. However, students cope with these challenges by seeking help, time management, and a proper mindset and determination. All of these attributes to Bandura's (1997) Self-Efficacy Theory, which states that Self-efficacy refers to the person's belief in their capacity to execute behaviors necessary to produce specific performance attainments. It is recommended that the institution must incorporate technological innovations to improve modular learning, and awareness of students' knowledge of modular learning is encouraged.

Keywords: Learning Experiences, Challenges, Phenomenology

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Introduction

The education sector is one of the most highly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. In the Philippines, where there are still growing COVID-19 infections, this study presented some new normal situations in the school setting. Academic institutions have been forced to entirely cancel face-to-face teaching, including laboratories and other learning experiences, as a mitigation step against the risk posed by the Coronavirus. Accordingly, various measures by higher education providers have been initiated to implement social isolation strategies, and online teaching is followed with rapid curriculum transformation.

To respond to the needs of learners, especially of the 3.5 million tertiary-level students enrolled in approximately 2,400 HEIs, certain HEIs in the country have implemented proactive policies for continuing education despite the closure. These policies include modified forms of blended learning that aim to facilitate student learning activities. Despite the calls for an academic freeze due to the coronavirus outbreak, the Department of Education still believes education should not be compromised. The government implemented a distance learning approach to maintain the education of millions of Filipino students. Distance learning is also known as correspondence education or home study. It is a form of instruction with little or no face-to-face interaction between students and their instructors. This type of modality has three categories. One of the highly convenient for most typical Filipino students is Modular Distance Learning. Students are expected to complete the task and submit their outputs at the end of the week. Open communication between the teacher to students and/or teacher to parents/guardians is also part of the norm. This is to ensure and monitor the progress of the students at home.

Learning is considered one of the essential features and characteristics that play a significant role in a nation's progress. In contrast, it positively and comprehensively raises new generations while relying on modern and advanced scientific foundations. This progress is measured by the extent of educators' knowledge of teaching methods, means, and theories and their knowledge of contemporary teaching orientations. For varying reasons, however, different sectors have chastised the proactive, flexible learning measures by HEIs. They argue that "adding more workload for the students increases their burden and contradicts the purpose of the lockdown, which is to help their families prepare and adjust to the situation at hand." Finally, there is an issue about the "lack of environments conducive to learning at home and the effectiveness of the online lectures" (Bagayas, 2020).

This present phenomenon needs to be given attention before it becomes a social problem in the future. Understanding the plight and challenges of these students can be a source of actions and plans that will help them cope and succeed in their academic endeavors. Studies on students' experiences under the modular learning approach in this university, particularly on this campus, need to be explored, hence, this study.

Research Questions

This study sought to determine and understand the lived experiences of CAPSU MSC students on the modular learning approach in the AY 2020-2021. Specifically, the study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What challenges do CAPSU MSC students face with the modular learning approach?

2. What are CAPSU MSC students' coping mechanisms for the challenges modular learning brings?
3. What action or plan can be drawn from the study?

Literature Review

On December 31, 2019, the Wuhan health authority reported a group of 27 pneumonia cases stemming from a mysterious etiology (Committee WCH, 2019). The infected cases were linked to the closed Wuhan Huanan Seafood Wholesale Market. Later medical investigations resolved the ambiguity and determined this pneumonia a novel Coronavirus (2019-nCoV) or (COVID-19). Then, World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 a "public health emergency of international concern" through the Health Regulations Emergency Committee. A month later, on January 30, 2020, WHO declared COVID-19 a pandemic (Liguori & Winkler, 2020).

The rapid outbreaks of the virus have shed light globally on the actual threat that the virus possesses. While speculation and uncertainty still exist around the virus, there are no specific vaccines or treatments for COVID-19 (Sohrabi et al., 2020). Therefore, the entire organization worldwide has begun exploring contingency preparedness plans and percussions to confront the COVID-19 pandemic. Like the other industrial sectors, the global higher education sector has been highly affected by the COVID-19 pandemic. Governments have adopted abundant measures to restrain the extremely pathogen contagious of COVID-19, and these measures beset the education systems worldwide. Quarantine, self-isolation, lockdown, curfew, and the subsequent closure of academic universities and institutions have influenced the normal progress of the educational process. On April 6, 2020, 188 countries enforced interim closure for their educational institutions, as reported by UNESCO, while localized closures have been implemented by several countries, consequently affecting 1,576,021,818 learners. Accordingly, as an emergency response to COVID-19, most educational authorities have argued for sudden online transformations for classes at all levels. However, the issue of the affected groups is how to meet the essential, necessary conditions of remote learning (Eder, 2020).

COVID-19 has immensely influenced academic institutions that rely on the income of these international student (Perrotta, 2020). However, the global trend has moved toward "suspending classes without stopping learning," a contiguous policy launched by the ministry of education in China (Zhang et al., 2020). As the spread of the disease evolved globally, most academic institutions, universities, and schools responded with diverse approaches. Accordingly, the educators converted the curriculums to an online environment and modular approach.

School from Home during the COVID-19 Pandemic has impacted the educational systems of all countries across the globe significantly. In response to this crisis, countries have applied different rules and methods for dealing with changes in the learning system. Within a few months, national educational systems turned to solutions like online methods (using online applications, TV, radio, and offline methods, including printed books and modules. Along with these changes, alterations have been necessary for instructional strategies, technological readiness to implement online learning, and supporting and motivating all concerned parties. While the great hope is that the situation soon returns to normal, in the meantime, changes in national curricula must be made to increase flexibility, and technological readiness must be accelerated.

Due to the COVID-19 crisis, teachers and students both find themselves feeling compelled to embrace the digital academic experience as the summum bonum of the online teaching-learning process. Through digital intelligence (DQ Institute, 2019), teachers can cater to children's digital skills, which are on the brink of cyber risk, into educational opportunities to achieve success in future ventures, especially in this pandemic, where children are wholly dependent on online learning. The Coronavirus is upending life (EdSource, 2020) that caused an enduring threat to our educational institutions from kindergarten to tertiary level and, day by day exacerbated the teaching-learning. Apart from philanthropic efforts, some people hoped to parlay their enterprising skills into profit-making opportunities.

The theoretical perspective of this study focused on the constructivist worldview that recognizes reality as a product of human intelligence interacting with experience in the real world (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). It accepts reality as a construct of the human mind; therefore, the reality is perceived as subjective (Corbin, 2007). The observer creates reality by giving meaning to what is observed. In other words, the reality is constructed through a person's operational experience. Therefore, reality needs to be interpreted. In this study, the reality students face is how to survive the daily struggles of modular learning. Students are in a real world of overflowing modules and lecture notes, and how will they be able to.

Methodology

The study is a qualitative design using phenomenology to answer the research questions on the lived experiences of students in CAPSU on the modular learning approach.

The research study utilized the interpretivist phenomenological approach in its methodology. In this approach, it is essential for the researcher as a social actor to appreciate the differences between people (Hadzilias, 2011). The interpretive research assumed that access to reality is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, shared meanings, shared experiences, and instruments (Creswell, 2014). Moreover, Interpretivism usually focuses on the meaning and may employ multiple methods to reflect different aspects of the issue (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). The Interpretivist approach will be supported by other theories that can best explain and understand the purpose of the study. In this study, students have experiences that can be understood based on the meanings ascribed to their stories.

Phenomenology as a methodological approach in this study is understood as the detailed description of experiences in how the subject experiences them. All rely on experience as a valid form of knowledge. Knowledge stems from human experience (Collins, 2010), and, despite being embedded in networks of power, the experience can be helpful (Oksala, 2016).

Qualitative research is a design that looks into a deeper meaning and understanding of the participants' lived experiences (Creswell, 2014). Likewise, it gave many opportunities that assume the value of context and setting. Its main feature is to provide meaningful and more profound explanations of social activities. Creswell (2007) stated that qualitative research was intended to explore, more importantly, the social phenomena by immersing in the situations. Using a modular learning approach, this study understands and investigates students' lived experiences at Capiz State University for the academic year 2020-2021. In gathering evidence, qualitative research relies less on scales and scores. It focuses on in-depth data that reflects the experiences, feelings, and judgments of the participants participating in the investigations. Data was gathered from interviews and focus group discussions of the participants under study.

The study participants were identified using a purposive sampling method based on the following criteria: (a) currently enrolled in CAPSU MSC; (b) willing to participate in the study. There were eight participants included in the study. The researcher asked for their permission before they were considered as participants. Moreover, their identities are not exposed.

The researcher used the semi-structured interview protocol as a tool for gathering data. Computer data analysis was also utilized with the use of NVivo12. NNivo12 is a qualitative data analysis (QDA) computer software package produced by QSR International. It has been designed for qualitative researchers working with rich text-based and/or multimedia information, where deep levels of analysis on small or large volumes of data are required.

Ethics and the safety of informants have an extraordinary emphasis in any research work. Accordingly, utmost care was used to ensure the anonymity and safety of participants. Participants in this study were informed through informed consent of the anonymity of their identity, about the research goals, and that they could skip questions or stop at any time.

Results and Discussion

Challenges faced by the CAPSU MSC students on the modular learning approach

According to Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (oecd.org), the current COVID-19 crisis has obliged most education systems to adopt face-to-face teaching and learning alternatives. Many education systems moved activities online to allow instruction to continue despite school closures. Accordingly, the educators converted the curriculums to an online environment and modular approach. This conversion and the shift in the mode of instruction pose struggles to students who play an integral part in the new normal education. Based on the result of this study, the students at CAPSU Mambusao Satellite College encountered various challenges in modular learning modalities amid the COVID-19 pandemic.

It can be seen that the students' challenges are lack of learning resources, lack of time, and self-paced learning. As the study's locale, the institution opted to use printed modules. However, some materials must be downloaded online to supplement the lessons. This results in need for more learning resources as one of the challenges the students encounter. Dayagbil, Palompon, et al. (2021), in their study, pointed out that students reported that the majority of them were unable to accomplish the tasks assigned by the teachers due to their inability to access the learning resources uploaded on the internet.

Moreover, they need more suitable gadgets to finish the tasks. A study by Boca (2021) confirms that there are also some inequalities regarding internet access (no telephone signal, needing a laptop/computer/tablet/mobile phone, and a reasonably low level of digital skills). Moreover, the locations of the participants prohibit them from having a clear and stable internet connection. Thus, students unanimously reiterated that poor internet connectivity hinders them from accessing other learning materials. Inequalities in internet connection and personal gadgets were prevalent issues among the participants. The Guidance and Counseling Services office reported in 2019 that most students enrolled in the institution were categorized under the poverty threshold with a monthly income of 10,000 and below. Thus, internet connections and personal gadgets are not readily available, resulting in limited access to learning materials.

As for the lack of time, students experienced more difficulties managing their time and regulating their attention and efforts and reported needing more motivation than before the pandemic (Wiradhanyz et al., 2021). Thus, the participants need help with how they will use their time. Essel and Owusu (2017) found that having domestic responsibilities and responsibilities related to a job while in school are among the sources of stress for most students. It was also found that they are aware of the deadlines of their requirements, but they tend to forget it unless it is the day before the submission. This is observed when a participant stated that the *"deadline pressures me to finish all the activities."* Essel and Owusu (2017) also claimed that an increase in class workload stresses students because when students have to do more than they can handle, they get frustrated and cannot focus and think straight. Although Dunham (2020) stated that losing track of time during this pandemic is a common occurrence, it is to be noted that the bulk of activities stipulated in the modules may contribute to the pressure felt by the participants. Thus, in doing so, they need more time to finish their modules.

Regarding self-paced learning, Sason and Kellerman's (2021) study found that teacher-student interaction is one of the most significant contributors to students' motivation, satisfaction, and ability to cope with learning assignments. However, since the participants use printed modules, learning must be self-paced, and interaction is limited. For example, a participant highlighted their difficulty in this self-paced learning by stating, *"it is difficult to absorb the lessons without another more knowledgeable person who can explain complicated topics appropriately."*

Gray and DiLoreto (2016) postulated that increased learner interaction, student engagement, and instructor presence positively affect student satisfaction and perceived learning. In their study, Dela Cruz et al. (2022) recommended that colleges and universities generate new instructional methodologies in the new normal that will enable feedback and interaction. Teachers should continue communicating with their students, and institutions should consider ways to reach out to students to address their educational needs.

Coping mechanisms of CAPSU MSC students on the challenges brought about by modular learning

As students face different challenges in implementing modular learning, they strive to overcome them through different approaches. An interesting coping mechanism enforced by the participants is *"seeking help."* A participant mentioned, *"I usually ask for help from my professors and friends. I do not hesitate to ask them, especially my teachers, if there is something unclear for me/ I do not understand about the topics or questions."* The participants' responses showed that they cope with their struggles by seeking support from others. This support is usually emotional or academic. Students get emotional support from advice, sympathy, and encouraging words from their friends, parents, or teachers. This result is congruent with Guevarra and Cimanes's (2017) study, where students' primary coping strategy is social support. Social support refers to getting advice from others, talking to someone with similar experiences, discussing feelings, getting sympathy, or telling someone how you feel. Students feel that their feelings towards the uncomfortable situation or the problem are valid when they think they are heard. Kwaah and Essilfie (2017) also claimed that getting emotional support from friends and family is an effective way of coping with students' stress. Since students' life is stressful, students need the understanding and sympathy of their friends and family, especially when they are experiencing significant pressure from their academic workload. Calo et al. (2021) recommended that schools help students cope

effectively with stress. It should be more open and willing to extend social support for students in the new normal by utilizing different social media platforms.

Proper time management was also found to be the most used coping mechanism of the participants. For example, a participant echoed this idea, *"By giving specific time to study my modules and attending webinars on how to manage stress in modular learning or related to mental health also help me to cope with it."* Interestingly, another participant shared their time management technique, *"What I have employed is giving at least 2-4 hours per day of studying the modules. Taking a break from social media also helps me stay focused on my studies."* Based on the respondents' responses, managing one's time effectively copes with the struggles of modular distance learning. Having time management has given students satisfaction in finishing their modules on time. Hearon (2015) and Young (2017) recommended that students develop time management skills to help reduce work stress. These techniques and skills can help students manage their time more effectively and have more control over their time. Guevarra (2017) further stated that managing one's time ineffectively can often be a source of stress. Establishing priorities and working to these is an effective way of managing one's time.

Another coping mechanism that arose in the study is the proper mindset and determination. Faced with uncertainties in the new normal, participants shared their thoughts on coping with the difficulties they experienced in learning in the new normal. A participant mentioned, *"When I feel like giving up, and there's much destruction in my surroundings, I always realize why I started and how important it is to finish what I am doing."* This was echoed in the answer of another participant *"Once you are dedicated to achieving your goals, you will always find ways to make it possible even how hard you may take and no matter how many obstacles you have faced along the way."* Another participant highlighted their "willingness" to learn: *"Although I prefer to learn in the face-to-face discussion but showing my willingness to understand and to answer my modules and also with the help of our professors that are hands-on to respond with our concerns related to our modules, I can say that I can pass and I can graduate with modular learning."* Lastly, the determination was very evident in the answer of a participant, *"I do my best to understand all the topics written in the modules."* Based on the responses of the participant, during this time of the pandemic, they could perceive themselves as someone who could overcome everything, especially their academic endeavors.

A plan of action can be drawn from the results of the study

Results of the study showed that the students wanted an actual discussion, especially on the major subjects, and giving feedback on their performance in modular learning. The actual discussion, primarily on the major subjects, is one of the themes evident in the participants' answers. Unanimously, they advocated for honest or face-to-face discussions, especially on significant subjects. This emphasized the need for the participants for social interaction and feedback on the teacher's part. Leach and Walker (2000) argue that the instructor's feedback is essential to students in distance education for their self-evaluation, task orientation, instructor support, and flexibility. Also, they indicated that the degree level of students' experience with technology directly correlates to whether or not the technology used in distance education is a barrier. Technology concerns must be minimized for a successful online education, and programs must be designed accordingly.

Giving feedback is another theme revealed in the study. Three participants stated that a Lack of feedback from the course facilitator was observed in learning in the new normal. To quote their statements, *"I guess the instructor should exert some time to talk or meet their students to discuss the topics in the modules and for them to know the feedback of the students," "Feedbacking is significant in times like this as we do not have any idea how was our performance so far"* and *"There is little to no feedback regarding what we have learned and if our answers are correct."* A participant stated that the course facilitator must *"offer and allow the students to discuss any concerns that might have arisen in modular learning."* The participants believe in the importance of communication. Since participants generally reported a need for more feedback and attention from their instructors, a strong feedback mechanism must be appropriately integrated into the teaching strategies of the course facilitators. Offir et al., 2003 state that In a distance environment, the student's ability and disposition to self-monitor and accurately evaluate content comprehension and request help may represent a crucial variable affecting learning and teaching processes. In a distance learning environment, instructors need more direct access to verbal and nonverbal feedback from their students. This feedback enables the teacher in a conventional learning environment to use verbal and nonverbal signals to adjust the instructional process in real-time to meet their student's needs. For example, effective instructors often re-organize and repeat content in response to students' confused expressions and off-task behavior. However, unlike instructors in a conventional learning environment, distance learning instructors cannot monitor, decode simultaneously, and use student feedback to modify instruction "online." In a synchronous distance learning environment, the instructor frequently stops teaching to ask students whether they understood the presented content.

Recommendations

The university must produce modular learning coupled with technological innovations to help students and teachers utilize their time and knowledge to achieve goals and make modular teaching-learning easy. The school and other stakeholders may extend their help and assistance to students in coping with these challenges. Strong feedback mechanism needs to be appropriately integrated into the teaching strategies of the course facilitator; In-service training for faculty equipping them with the current trends of new normal education is important in modular learning. The University must think and plan for various activities to help the students reduce their stress and burden and keep themselves motivated, and awareness of students' knowledge of modular learning is encouraged.

Conclusion

The COVID-19 pandemic had a significant impact on the educational system, particularly on students' learning experiences. The transition to modular learning has brought about several concerns, including less engagement with teachers, a shortage of resources and appropriate technology, and issues with time management and attention regulation.

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Preparing Undergraduate Designers Using the Results of a DE&I Survey of the Local Design Industry

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This paper presents and analyzes the hidden biases in the Dubai design industry and proposes a pedagogical framework to assist students in transitioning into the workforce by equipping them with relevant tools to tackle their occurrences and engaging in reflection around their own biases. Diversity of Dubai is heralded everywhere, yet many designers experience bias from clients, colleagues, and employers. The framework of the survey was based on bias studies conducted in the USA by AIA and in the UK by BIID, with questions modified to align with cultural appropriations applicable to the UAE. Understanding that bias exists is the first element, then followed by bias interrupters. 'Bias Interrupters for Architecture' is published by AIA and it discusses various strategies that can help firms' "diversity metrics, foster a culture of belonging, and make progress toward eliminating bias" (AIA). Data was collected from September until December, 2022. Findings from the survey and approaches from the bias interrupters report will inform lectures, tasks, discussions and other tools in professional practice class and any other classes which support students' understanding of diversity, equity, and inclusion. Survey findings are expected to confirm that various biases exist. By illuminating both what students may face as professionals and their own hidden biases, they are better able to identify bias and to not engage in similar behaviors. It is important to tackle this issue from various angles simultaneously. Therefore, teaching students the significance of their role in this equation is also an important aspect of everyone's success.

Keywords: Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, UAE Interior Design, UAE Architecture

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Introduction

The composition of UAE society is unique, in that roughly 88% of the population are not citizens but expatriates. Dubai consistently has a far larger expatriate population than the local / Emirati population which is currently 11.48% of the total (fig.1). At the American University in Dubai (AUD), the same holds true for the student body – the majority of students in the Interior Design (ID) department are expatriates from GCC countries, largely having grown up here. The makeup of the ID department reflects this as well – with five full time faculty: 3 female/2 male; 1 American, 1 Italian, 1 Canadian/Iranian, and 2 Lebanese.



Figure 1: Breakdown of UAE population

Diversity in terms of nationality and/or cultural background is the norm in the UAE. In February 2018, the UAE government approved the National Strategy for Advanced Innovation, this is part of the UAE's goals to shift the economy from oil-based to knowledge-based. As listed on the UAE government website, "The innovation strategy aims to position the UAE among the world's top leaders of innovation and to develop a type of thinking that encourages experimentation and taking well-thought-out risks to achieve the goals of UAE Centennial 2071." *(Home - The Official Portal of the UAE Government*, n.d). According to Kemeny, one of the ways to drive organizational innovation is through a diverse workforce ("Immigrant Diversity and Economic Performance in Cities," 2016). Additionally, in 2015, the UAE government established the UAE's Gender Balance Council, to "ensure that Emirati women continue to play a leading role in the development of the UAE…which will support the UAE's vision to become one of the world's top 25 countries for gender equality by 2021" (*Home - the Official Portal of the UAE Government*, n.d.). Likewise, the law in the UAE does address discrimination. There is a law in the UAE which is known as the 'Federal Decree – Law No. (22) of 2021', enshrines equality and non-discrimination in article 4, stating equality and non- discrimination in the workplace. Issues such as diversity, inclusion, and equality are prevalent in most sectors in the UAE economy as a result of the makeup of the society and government led initiatives.

One reason Dubai is so attractive to expatriates is the economic growth, fueled in large part by the construction sector. According to a report by Mordor Intelligence, "The construction sector is the essence of the UAE economy, and the industry is expecting rapid growth in the coming years. The construction industry plays an important role in the economic upliftment

and development of the country." *(UAE Construction Market Analysis - Industry Report - Trends, Size & Share*, n.d.). As reported in the Emirates News Agency WAM, the Arab Monetary Fund estimates that in the UAE, the construction industry contributes $36.8 billion to the GDP (2022). The relevance of the construction industry in the UAE is succinctly summed up in Love That Design's Interior Design Industry Insights for 2023, "What started aa little over two decades ago in the form of an aggressive yet strategic push towards a non-oil powered economy has resulted in the creation of a budding, diversified business ecosystem. This ecosystem has generated a need for world-class global design and has created an attractive force that has pulled in design firms and talent from across the world." (*LoveThatDesign*, 2022).

The construction industry can be broken down into essential roles: those that commission projects, those that design projects, and those that build projects. Design firms in the UAE take many forms, from large international firms, to local fit-out companies offering design services, and everything in between. Architects and Interior Designers (sometimes called Interior Architects) work closely with one another, sometimes as consultants and sometimes as colleagues within the same firm. Both interior designers and architects can be referred to simply as 'designers', as roles are complementary and overlap. The diversity of the region is evident in the makeup of these firms. The professions related to the construction industry, and especially Interior Design, are highly collaborative; it takes various roles and responsibilities to move a project from conception to construction.

Around the world Interior Design is a predominantly female led profession; this is true of both the perception and the reality, perhaps owing to its origins in interior decoration, a profession deemed "appropriate" for women (Tuchek, 2020). According to DataUSA, in 2020 83% of the US Interior Design workforce was female *(Interior Designers | Data USA,* n.d.). This is also true in the UAE.

In this paper we will investigate the makeup of the leadership roles in terms of gender, ethnicity and highest qualifications. We will explore the readiness and enthusiasm of interior design students to take on leadership roles in their careers. We will discuss bias interrupter strategies including some key findings as well as steps that some firms are taking to implement these interrupters. Lastly, we will discuss how we have incorporated this work into the classroom.

DEI Existing Research

The global design industry has been engaging in self-reflection for several decades. Within Interior Design, nearly 30 years ago, Interior Design educators were talking about cultural diversity at the 1994 Futures Roundtable in Chicago, IL. At this roundtable, 16 participants from both Interior Design education and practice determined that global cooperation, business values, *cultural diversity*, and technology were noted as important areas to the profession (*Jani et. al*, 2007). As the Architecture profession has been established for a greater length of time than Interior Design, this discussion extends back 55 years at least (Travis, 2018). More recently, the American Institute of Architects (AIA), along with The Center for WorkLife Law at the University of California Hastings College of Law conducted a 2021 quantitative study of bias based on gender and race/ethnicity in the practice of architecture (*New Report: The Elephant in the (Well-Designed) Room: An Investigation into Bias in the Architecture Profession - WorkLife La*w, 2021). They received 1,346 architectural professionals' responses to their Workplace Experiences Survey. Key findings relate to open

racism and sexism, with white men having a different experience than all other groups in architecture workplaces (Fig 2 & 3).



Figure 2: AIA survey

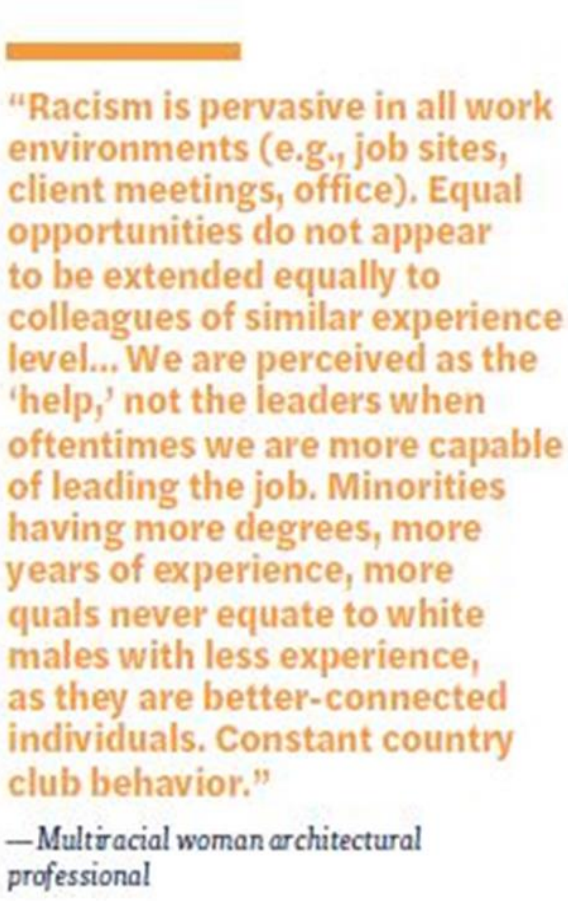


Figure 3: AIA survey

In 2020, the British Institute of Interior Design (BIID) did its first ever survey of the profession, citing a lack of demographic data on the make-up of the UK's interior design profession (*Diversity in Interior Design Survey Result*s, 2021). They received 363 responses. We refer to a quote from the survey to get a glimpse into challenges faced by women (fig. 4).



Figure 4: from BIID survey

Within the region, Construction Week Middle East magazine conducted a survey in 2019 for women architects focused on gender discrimination at work. Respondents were asked about sexual discrimination, unequal pay, and attitudes towards women. Their survey garnered 141 responses from more than 10 countries in the Middle East. More than 75% of the women who completed the survey said they had experienced sexual discrimination in meetings with clients, contractors, engineers, planners and other architects (Alsammarae, 2019).

Methodology

Since the UAE is so diverse and the Interior Design industry is heavily female led, the research will explore real experiences within the design industry in the UAE. As educators, our interest involves understanding how the findings help us best prepare our students to join the professional world.

Our professional survey was distributed to Interior Design alumni from both AUD and Heriot Watt (from the past 15 years), sent out to our professional networks and Advisory Board members via email and on LinkedIn, and was shown as a link on both LoveThatDesign's newsletter and as part of a design-industry recruiter's email signature for a month in the fall of 2022. The survey was available from September-December 2022.

The basic findings of the survey show the following.

We had 95 responses from which 67.4% were female, and 32.6% male. A closer look at the breakdown of nationalities shows that Indians are the largest group, followed by Egyptians and then Pakistani and Syrians, followed by Jordanians, Americans and British and lastly Emiratis at only 1% which constitutes 70% of the answers. The remaining 30% are made up of many different nationalities each at 1 or 2% each (Table 1).

Nationality	Percentage
Indian	36.8%
Egyptians	9.4%
Pakistani	5.2%
Syrian	5.2%
Jordanian	4.2%
American	4.2%
British	4.2%
Emirati	1%

Table 1: Breakdown of 70% of the nationalities of the survey

The data reveals that almost 35% of the respondents have more than 12 years of experience in the field which is closely followed by 26% respondents who were relatively new to the profession with up to 3 years of experience (fig. 5).

Largely similar to the above, the breakdown of the roles in the company shows 24% at partner level and 24% at junior designer level (fig 6). However, it also raises the question of the roles of the respondents who had more than 12 years of experience. Further investigation of the data reveals that their roles were mainly director, manager or partner.

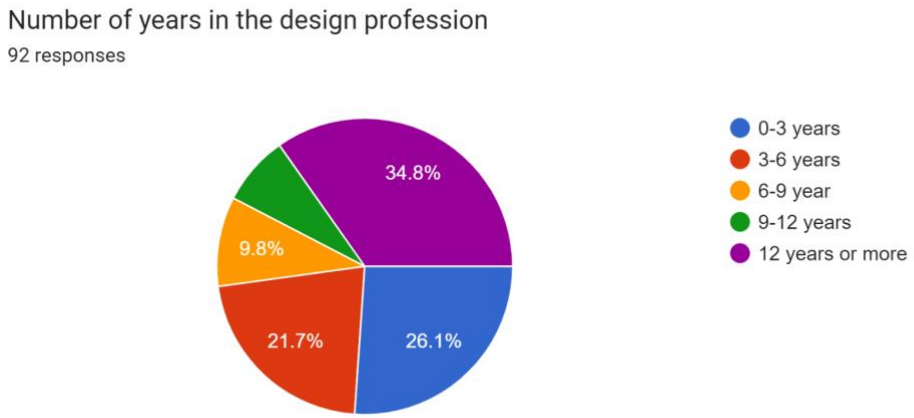


Figure 5: DEI survey of Professionals in Dubai

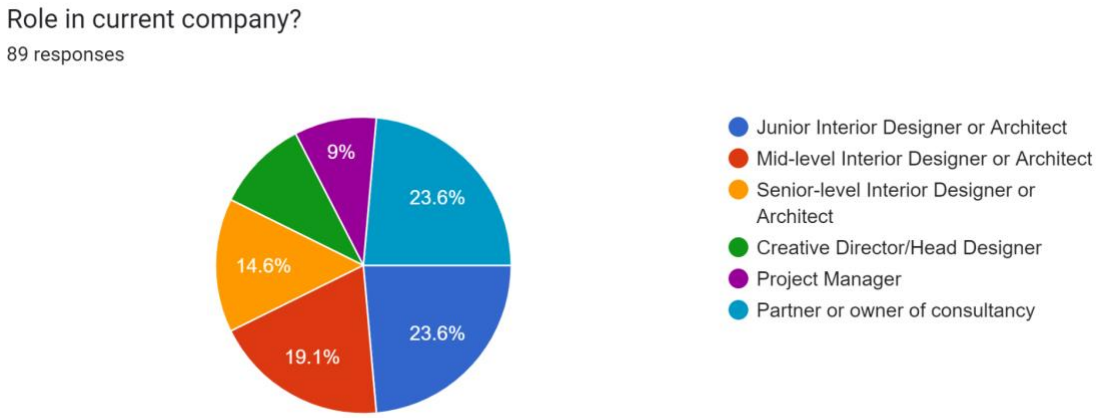


Figure 6: DEI survey of Professionals in Dubai

Yet when we looked deeper into more senior roles, there was a sharp contrast between what males and females were doing in the workplace. Not accounting for years of experience, we can observe that 9 female respondents are Senior Designers, but only 4 are Creative Directors and 3 are Project Managers out of 62 respondents. Whereas only 4 out of 30 male respondents were Senior Designers and 5 were Creative Directors and 4 were Project Managers. Senior level management positions have a strong representation of men and an equal or lower representation of women (fig. 7). On a similar tone 12 out of the 62 women are partners as compared to 9 men in the role of partner or owner, which resonates with the comment found in AIA survey (fig. 2) above that women are "forced out" or "denied career advancement opportunities". More women are seen in more junior to mid- level roles, whereas more men are seen in mid-level to senior management roles despite the fact that a higher percentage of women have more experience in the profession with the exception of respondents with more than 12 years' experience (fig. 8).

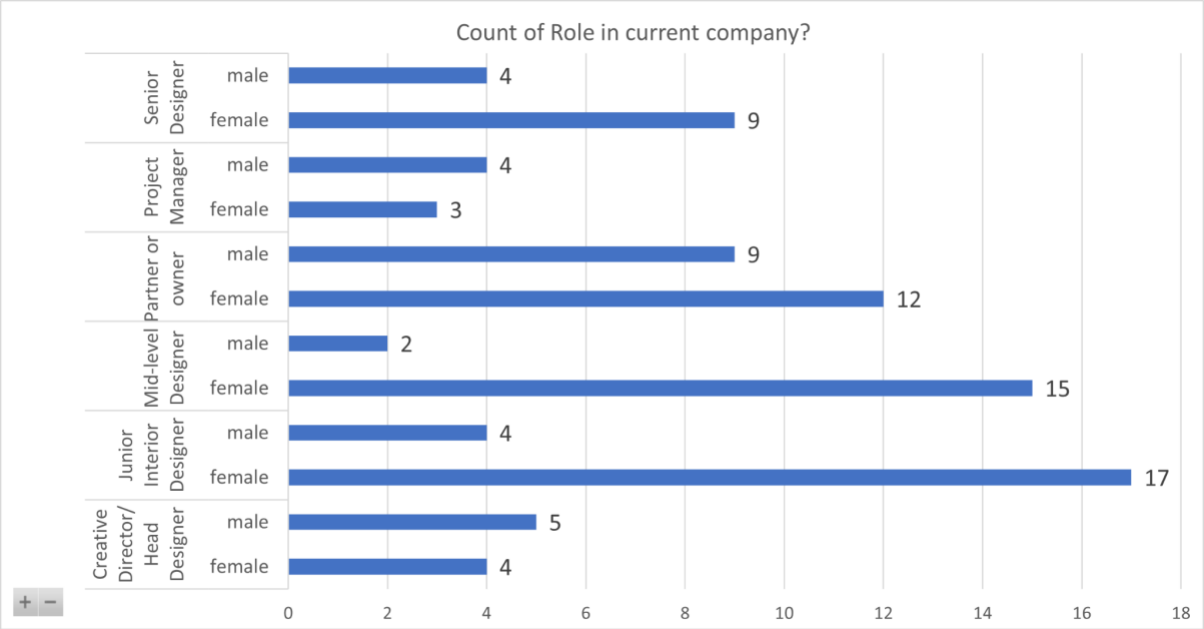


Figure 7: DEI survey of Professionals in Dubai

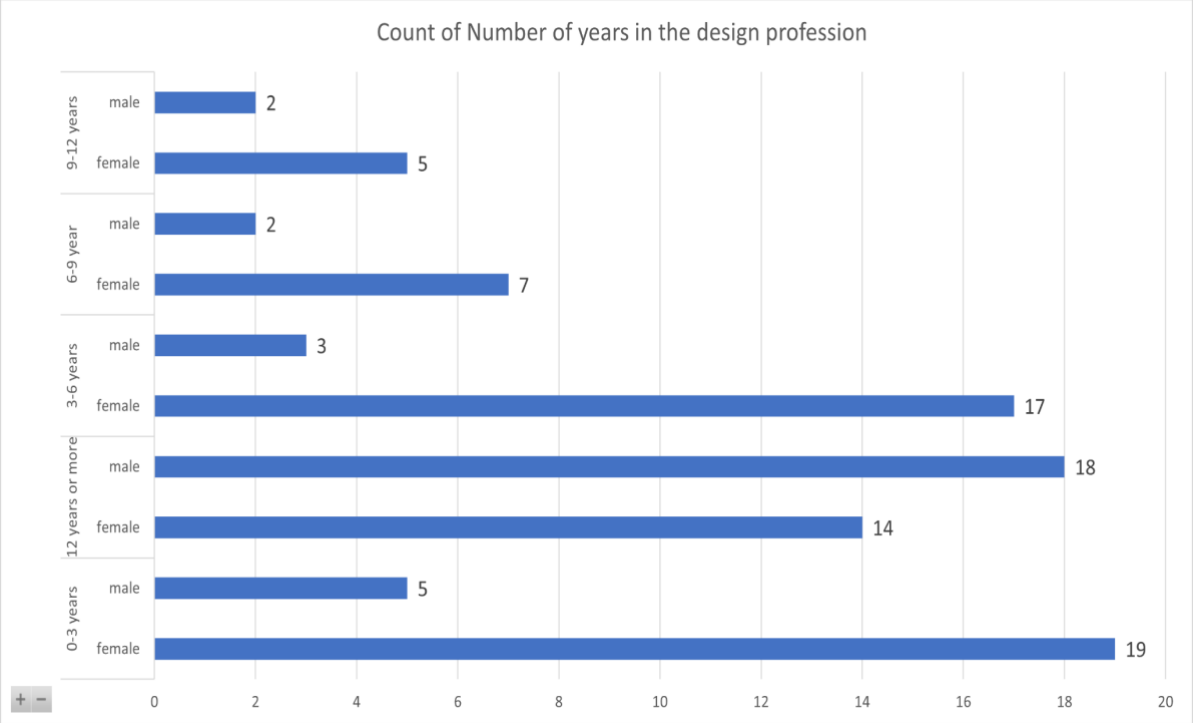


Figure 8: DEI survey of Professionals in Dubai

Similar numbers stated that their race/ethnicity has created barriers to their progression in the design industry. Our survey received responses from 30 different nationalities which is representative of the diverse population of UAE, but it makes it difficult to analyze instances of racism based on nationalities. Therefore, we have looked at incidents of racism based on gender. The number of women who experienced racism is almost double or higher than that of the men which is similar to the 2:1 women to men ratio of the respondents.

Higher number of women experience negative reactions to justified anger than men. Similarly, women experience more pushback to assertive behavior than men, and higher number of women are made to feel that their success is a result of luck rather than their own hard work (fig. 9, 10, 11).

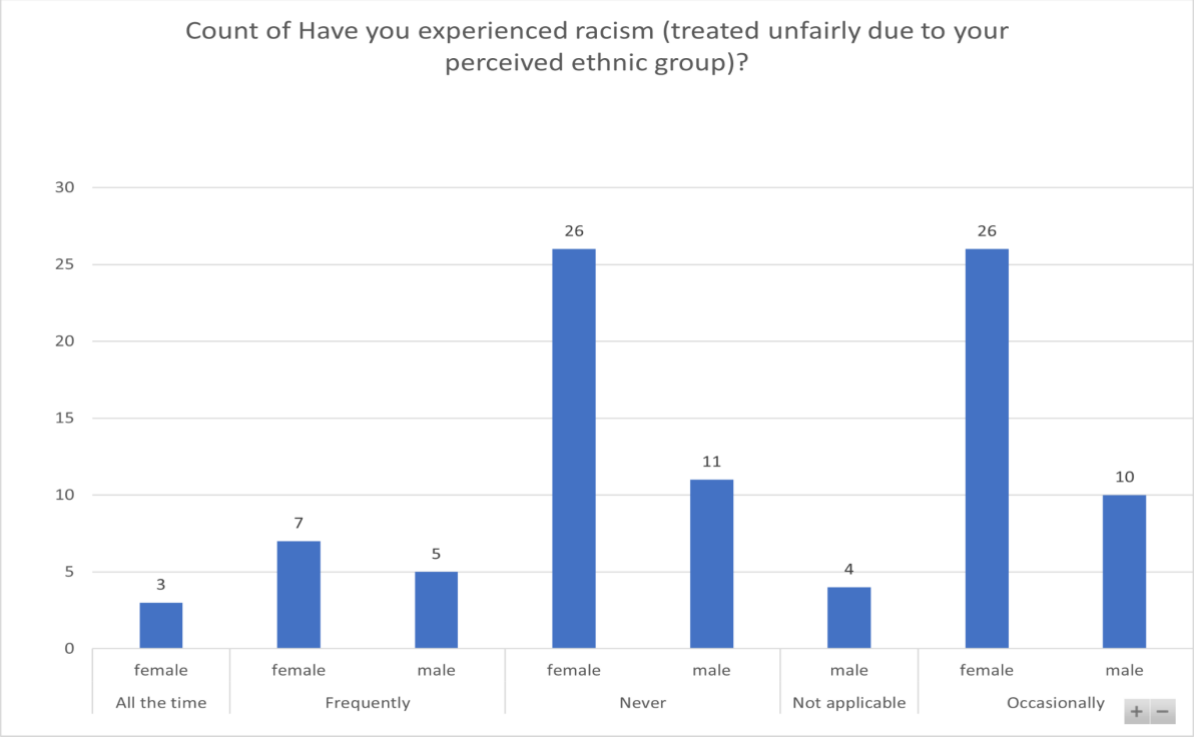


Figure 9: DEI survey of Professionals in Dubai

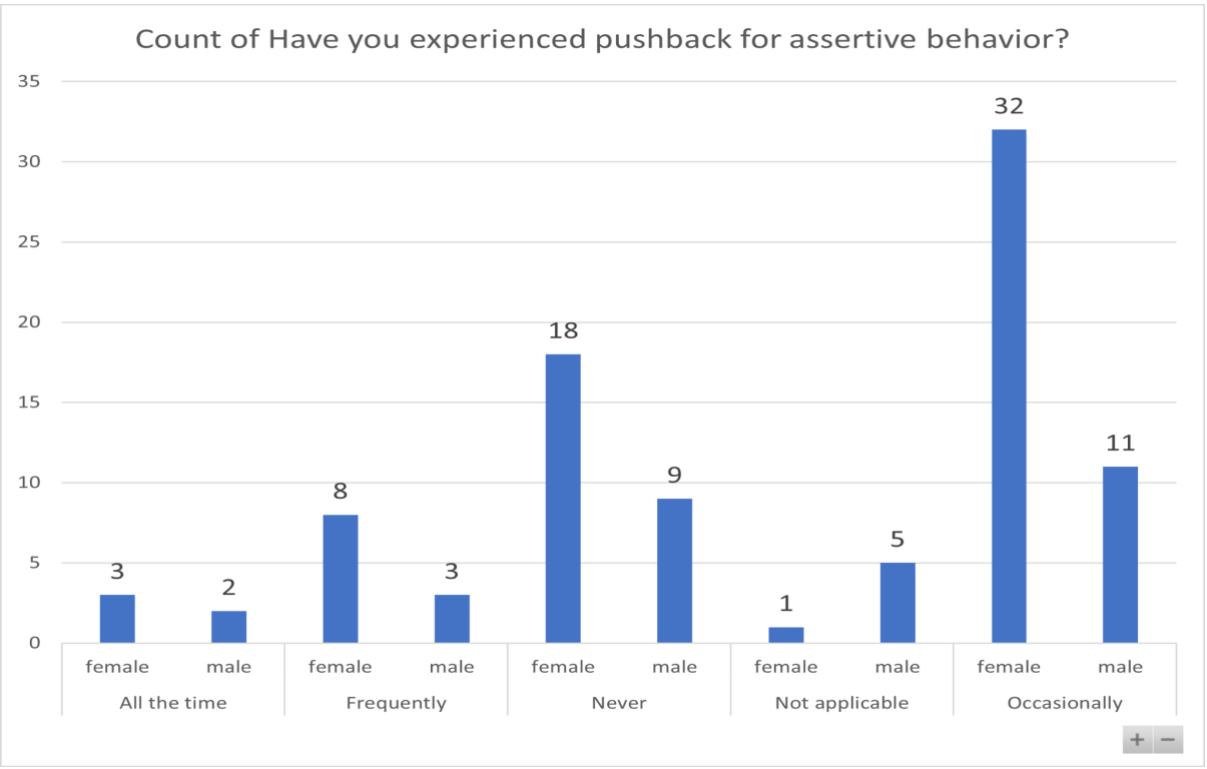


Figure 10: DEI survey of Professionals in Dubai

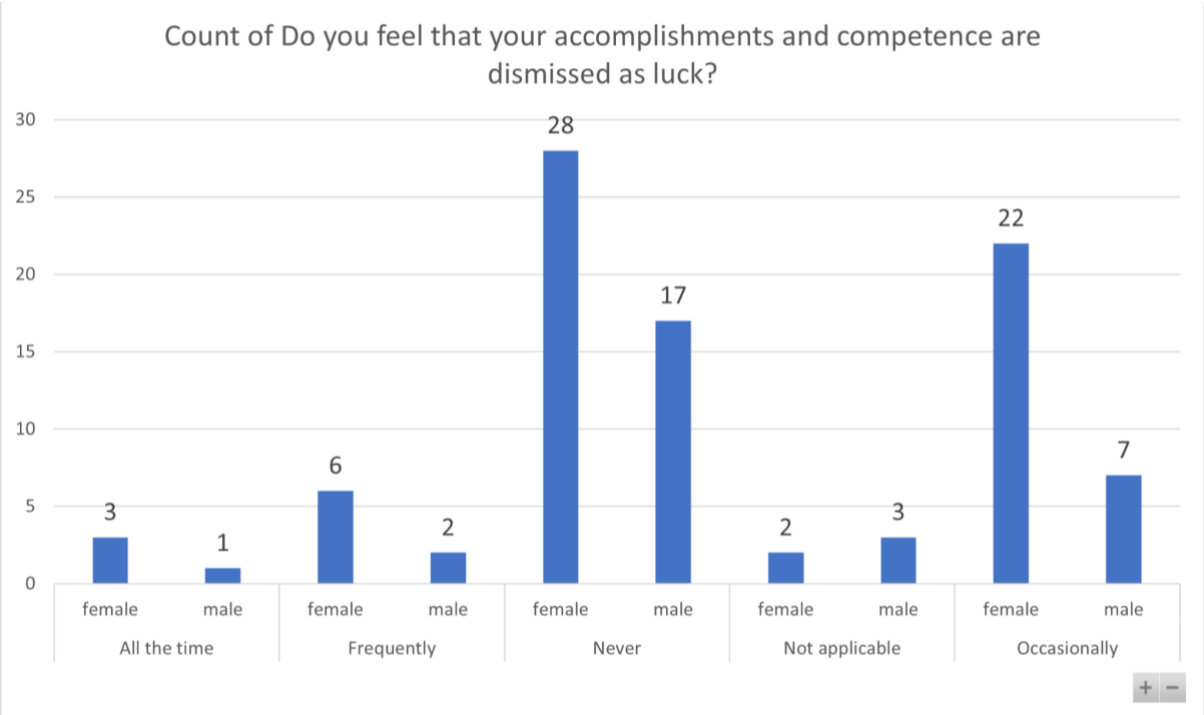


Figure 11: DEI survey of Professionals in Dubai

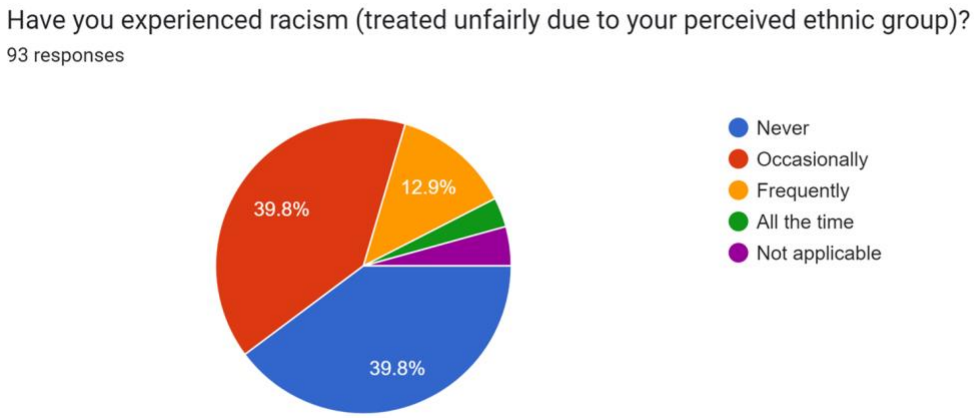


Figure 12: DEI survey of Professionals in Dubai

Students in UAE

In order to establish a baseline for our current students' understandings related to DE&I, a second survey was sent via email in early 2023 to students at various stages within the Interior Design program at AUD. Given that our student population is majority female and of expatriate backgrounds, survey responses related to sexism and racism were of greater relevance.

We had 27 responses (92.6% female, 7.4% male).

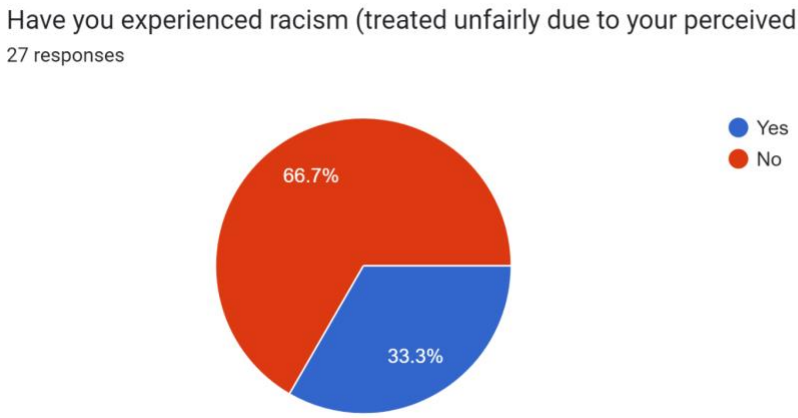


Figure 13: DEI survey of Students in Dubai

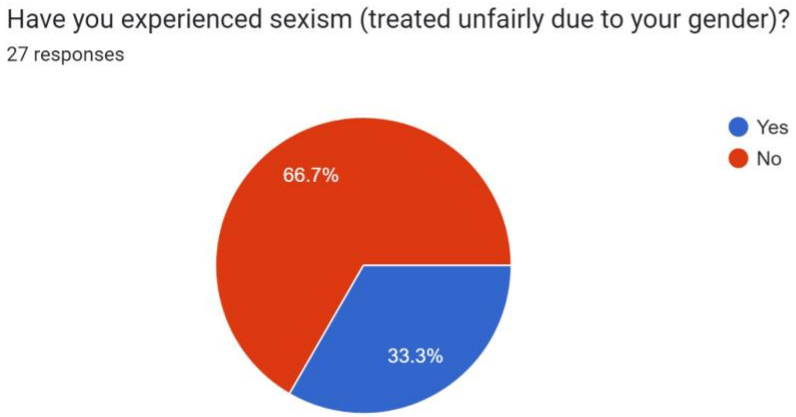


Figure 14: DEI survey of Students in Dubai

Overall, students' experiences with racism and sexism were less than that of the professionals (fig. 13 & 14). Yet students demonstrated awareness of these issues, with 77.8% of students responding that they think their future career may be negatively impacted by another person's bias. Students also demonstrated a drive to achieve a leadership role; 85.2% of students responded they wished to take on a leadership role (eventually), and 88.9% responded they would start their own firm in order to achieve a senior leadership position.

Within the Classroom

These surveys have led to a change in AUD's Professional Practice course (required for 3rd year students). In spring 2023, we shared the surveys with students as an opening to a module on bias, DE&I, and bias interrupters. We then approached bias as a biological brain function, a way to organize information. To underscore this, we did an Implicit Association Test in front of students from Project Implicit (put together by researchers at U of Washington, U of Virginia, Harvard U and Yale U). We chose the test on genders and careers, and despite our best efforts, we showed slight bias towards linking males with careers and females with family. Students were encouraged to take additional tests on their own at home, with a goal of understanding that bias can be hidden, but that when revealed, we can make a more conscious effort to not act out of it.

From biasinterrupters.org, we shared with students the idea of workplace bias interrupters:

"For organizations who care about employees who are more committed, innovative and loyal, a three-step approach:

1. Use metrics – businesses use metrics to assess whether they have progressed towards any strategic goal. Metrics can help you pinpoint where bias exists and assess the effectiveness of the measures you've taken to prevent or combat bias.
2. Implement bias interrupters – bias interrupters are small adjustments to your existing business systems. They should not require you to entirely abandon your current system.
3. Repeat as needed – After implementing bias interrupters, return to your metrics. If they have not interrupted, you will need to ratchet up to stronger bias interrupters." (*Bias Interrupters*, n.d.)

Discussions with students included potential interview questions when applying for jobs, how to gauge a potential employer's "culture", and ways in which to address DE&I workplace issues. Our hope in all this is that students are aware that this exists, that they are not alone, and that they can bring pressure on their future organizations to better address DE&I, as it has a profound impact on financial performance.

Alongside this work students are also participating in an inter-university design competition. This competition is mentored by an international design firm (Dubai office) that is committed to both reaching out to students and discussing DE&I. By placing students in groups composed from different universities (both in the region and internationally), and with non-faculty mentors, students are confronted with the need to communicate effectively; they are pushed out of their comfort zone. It is also a benefit for students to experience professionals within their chosen field that work for an organization that values DE&I. This competition first ran in 2022 and is currently running its second iteration. Feedback from 2022's reflection essays:

> DE&I is very important, because it encourages us to recognize, respect and embrace others regardless of their differences. I believe that this competition is about coming together to share our different knowledge, experiences and ideas to have better discussions and better decision making, which ultimately leads to better outcomes
>
> DE&I has a very important role to play in each of our lives. Be it a small play group or a large organization the aspect of being included and given the respect and equality that every human deserves is a necessity. Through this competition, having to work with complete strangers with different backgrounds and outlooks to life and design, was a very interesting process and it is essentially these difference that made us direct our thought to achieve a single perspective
>
> The fact that we all came from different backgrounds made communication a bit more difficult, but we were able to reach a common point of understanding through multiple meetings

Conclusion

Our survey has shown that despite the high presence of women in the design industry, they are not seen in management or senior roles in companies. We do see that there is a higher

number of women who are partners or owners; this is also reflected in the surveys from other countries - women start their own companies in order to achieve a leadership role.. Women receive pushback for assertive behavior, negative reactions to justified anger, and their accomplishments are dismissed as luck more often than not. Even though women are capable of answering certain questions they find the questions being addressed to others. We are not able to discern why this is the case due to the limitations of the first survey. We would continue to collect data through conducting focus groups or workshops on the topic so that there can be a wider discussion around the subject. Students demonstrate an awareness of overall DE&I issues, and know that they may have to deal with these obstacles in their professional lives. We would like to equip them with tools that can help them navigate through their professional careers so that they can achieve senior management roles in design firms if they choose to.

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Augmented Reality and Metaverse in Aesthetic Education Discourse in Indonesia for Future

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study aims to conduct a systematic literature review on the concept of Augmented Reality (AR), which adds virtual objects into the real world and affects the computer vision field, which is the starting point for the metaverse concept of aesthetic education in Indonesia. This content analysis study systematically analyzes how AR impacts aesthetic education and how the metaverse concept has discoursed in education in the future. The search was conducted on Springer Link, Science Directs, Taylor Francis, JSTOR, and Google Scholar databases, with the keywords "augmented reality", "aesthetics education", "arts education", and "metaverse" and their combinations. Based on the inclusion criteria established, 50 articles were collected to be analyzed. The study results show that human needs increasingly vary according to the level of achievement of their culture, including in the post-pandemic phenomenon that makes all entities in the phase of resilience the footing of a new era. Furthermore, the collaboration between art and technology becomes significant in the dynamics of this culture, especially in the design of digital and virtual-based products, including in the field of aesthetic education in Indonesia. In this regard, AR has become an interesting discussion, along with the concept of a parallel world in art education called "metaverse", which can support students' understanding beyond just reading texts. This is related to the condition of the low literacy level in Indonesia; while the trend of technological and information advancement in Indonesia is so rapid, the discourse on the application of AR and the metaverse of aesthetic education in Indonesia can be an effort to increase the intellectual power of students in Indonesia.

Keywords: Augmented Reality, Indonesian Aesthetics Education, Metaverse

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Introduction

Learning media is needed as an intermediary to deliver messages to minimize failures during the communication process in education. Furthermore, learning media is an essential aspect of the learning process. The learning process is the process of delivering messages or materials from the sender of the message (in this case, the teacher) to the recipient (students) (Paatela-Nieminen, 2012). In the process of delivering the message or material, sometimes it succeeds, and sometimes it doesn't, where failure in the communication process is called noise or barrier. The process of converting messages or materials into verbal and nonverbal communication symbols is called encoding, and the interpretation of communication symbols by students is called decoding (Dekker, 2015; Priyaadharshini et al., 2020).

Learning media is needed by teachers to help deliver material in a learning process. A good learning process must contain interactive, fun, challenging, and motivating aspects and provide more space for students to develop creativity and independence according to students talents and interests (King et al., 2019). Although the teacher is only a facilitator in a lesson, and students are required to be more active, the teacher must be able to create a pleasant learning atmosphere to stimulate students to be more active in learning. Fun learning activities are strongly influenced by various factors, one of which is the selection of learning media used must be attractive for students to learn, interactive when used, but does not reduce the essence of the material presented (Sampurno & Camelia, 2020).

The development of increasingly advanced technology, of course, affects various sectors of human life. This development also plays a role in the development of learning media. Learning media is becoming more exciting and concise even though it does not reduce the essence of the material. One of the developments of learning media that are currently still new is learning media using Augmented Reality (AR). AR is an application of merging the real world with the virtual world in the form of two-dimensional and three-dimensional projection in a natural environment simultaneously (Lu & Liu, 2015; Pianfetti, 2001). AR is often also referred to as tethered reality. This application is often applied in a game. Xbox Development from Microsoft not only presents games in the form of Virtual Reality (VR) but also presents games in the form of AR.

The use of AR in Indonesia is not too big (Andriana et al., 2022; Kasiyan, 2019; Kidi et al., 2017), which is still relatively new, has little use in Indonesia. The lack of public knowledge about this technology is one of the causes. Using AR as an alternative learning media, it is hoped that a learning activity can be more interesting for students. Another benefit is a more advanced learning media utilizing current technological developments. Through AR, it can be a solution to overcome expensive modules or trainers that schools cannot buy. Students can still do practicum by seeing the goods as they are in the original but virtual form (Huang et al., 2016; Hurrell & Baker, 2020).

In connection with the above, the emergence of AR is also "supported" by the development of society, where there is a post-pandemic trend that makes life today prioritizes technology. Another exciting thing is that one of the tech moguls, Mark Zuckerberg, announced on October 29, 2021, that Facebook would change its name to Meta and also made significant investments in developing the Metaverse technology (Rahaman, 2022). The synergy between AR, VR, and Metaverse technology provides a perspective on how aesthetic education can be synergized with technology. The problem focuses on the role of technology intertwined in aesthetic education that puts forward the question of taste. However, when it is felt that

similar research has not been widely carried out, this study aims to determine whether the use of metaverse is appropriate for feeling-centered aesthetic learning, especially in the post-pandemic era, and to provide broader insight into the concept of a metaverse in aesthetic education in Indonesia.

Methods

This research approach uses multi-site qualitative methods, combining content analysis and literature concepts (Denzin & Lincoln, 2013; Leavy, 2017; Shkedi, 2019; Tashakkori & Creswell, 2008). This approach is used to deepen the theoretical context of the research about digital technology in education and its complexity with modern education perspectives. Furthermore, the data were analyzed with technology education, contextualized to how digital technology, modern technology, and contemporary technology that explores Internet of Thing (IoT) turned into augmented reality to metaverse aesthetics education (Dubowsky, 2016; Grossman, 2017; Keifer-Boyd, 2018; Kress, 2010; Kress & Leeuwen, 2012; Moerdisuroso, 2014; Svasek, 2012).

This content analysis study systematically analyzes how AR impacts aesthetic education and how the metaverse concept has discoursed in education in the future. The search was conducted on Springer Link, Science Directs, Taylor Francis, JSTOR, and Google Scholar databases, with the keywords "augmented reality", "aesthetics education", "arts education", and "metaverse" and their combinations. Based on the inclusion criteria established, 50 articles were collected to be analyzed (Figure 1).

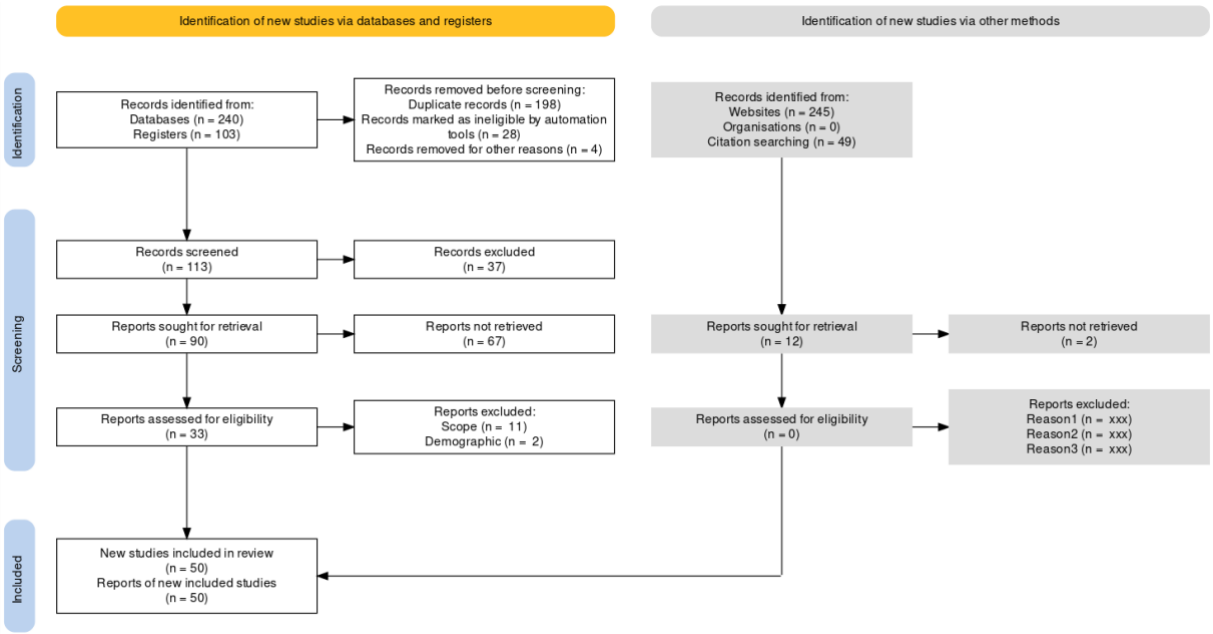


Figure 1. PRISMA Flow Diagrams

This approach begins its critical review from the introduction of the presence of digital art which is characterized by three things, namely; the presence of Virtual Reality (VR)-based art treasures, the principles of digital art for everyone, and a future that will be marked by technological-enabled artistic creativity. All three will be discussed cross-sectionally in order to achieve a more generic, multidimensional understanding, because this paper is not intended to lead us to a specific understanding of digital-based aesthetic education. Digital-based aesthetic education is certainly related to Artificial Intelligence (AI) or intelligence

engineering. So, this study is basically to observe the interconnectedness which explains that every aspect of learning or a particular intelligence in principle can be described precisely so that a machine, technology, or cyber things can be made to simulate it. In short, technological disruption (technological disruption) in the world of aesthetic education has occurred since the development of the world of ICT (Information Communication Technology).

Educational Need for AR and VR

Increasing students' interest in learning by reconstructing abstract concepts into visual forms will help educators deliver the material. During the past Covid-19 pandemic, technology became an educational medium to help increase student interest in learning. Unlike Virtual Reality (VR), which adds natural objects to virtual objects, Augmented Reality (AR) adds virtual objects to natural objects at the same time (Almonacid-Fierro, 2021; AlNajdi et al., 2020; Hash, 2021; Marsudi et al., 2020; Sampurno et al., 2020; Turan & Atila, 2021). AR was first used in 1957-1962 by a cinematographer named Norton Heilig named Sensorama (Koutromanos et al., 2015). Sensorama is a simulator that can simulate visuals, vibrations, and smells. In 1966, Sutherland claimed to have invented the head-mounted display, often shortened to HMD (Koutromanos et al., 2015). HMD became the forerunner to AR, which uses hardware and is installed in the user's head. An example of using HMD at this time is Google Glass. In the 2000s, to be exact, in 2009, Sqoosha introduced FLARToolkit, which was the result of the development of ARToolkit (Hwang et al., 2020; Samson & Karthiga, 2020). FLARToolkit can be used to add AR to websites because the output produced by the FLART toolkit is in the form of Flash. In 2010, Acrossair immersed AR technology in the iPhone 3GS (Payne, 2017). AR can be used in various activities, such as presentations, estimating an object, performance stimulant equipment, simulating a tool's performance, and others (Cai et al., 2020; Suparjoh et al., 2020).

AR is an application that can display small, large, fast, and slow objects seen with the naked eye clearly without assistance (Capuano et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2016). In the context of education, AR has a feature to convert information into visual form. So that by utilizing this technology, students will receive learning in a visual form that is easy to understand. Like research on AR, which represents objects of tradition and cultural heritage, this technology can display museum objects from small to large by reconstructing museum objects into 3-Dimensional objects (Capuano et al., 2016; Harkema & Rosendaal, 2020). This technology allows visitors to study history, see the museum's contents virtually, and interact with the object.

Likewise, the AR Molymod application of hydrocarbon compounds is a learning medium for Chemistry subjects (Kelly et al., 2018; Udeozor et al., 2021). This application contains alkane derivative compounds such as alkyl, alcohol, and alkanol. Some 206 objects and 30 addition reactions are displayed clearly and in detail in this application so that students do not misunderstand differentiating the existing compounds. Next, is the AR application applied to Biology learning, namely the digestive system AR application (Christopoulos et al., 2022). This application can visualize the human digestive organs into 3-Dimensional objects. With these advantages, of course, to study the digestive organs of teaching staff and students, they do not have to practice it directly, just by depicting it virtually with AR applications (Farrell et al., 2022).

AR technology can be defined as a platform combining virtual objects into the real world as these two objects seem to blend. AR is not the same as Virtual Reality (VR) because, by

definition, VR is a virtual world that is made to resemble the real world. AR has several advantages when compared to VR. AR manipulates the real world on the device screen using a smartphone's camera or other image capture device. In contrast, VR makes use of sensors and other peripherals and makes the user feel in another world that is depicted virtually (Maas & Hughes, 2020; Mehrfard et al., 2021). On the one hand, AR was more popular at the beginning than VR. Moreover, AR is now ready to use, and VR is still being developed with improvements in programs and various hardware. They both have in common that AR and VR produce virtual content that users can interact with in various ways and features. Both have the same development area, namely for the development of the world of education and education.

In the context of aesthetic education in Indonesia, the discourse on AR shows that it can provide a live picture between the natural and virtual worlds. AR can also display a detailed visualization of an art object that should not be seen with the eye but ultimately can be seen by the components or particles that make it because of AR. AR has the advantage of being an aesthetic education medium coupled with a positive response that this technology has a considerable influence where students who study art objects will more easily understand using this technology than not using AR technology which can be seen from the results of comparison and analysis of learning (Baía Reis & Ashmore, 2022; Kumar, 2022; Szymański, 2019; Thomas et al., 2010). AR is considered feasible if it is implemented in art learning media which, from the highest total score of 100, got a score of 87 so that it can be classified as adequate to be implemented as a learning medium (Patton et al., 2020).

Judging from the advantages of AR above, of course, this platform is very useful in increasing student interest in aesthetic learning. Starting from illustrating invisible objects, which in the art world, will undoubtedly lead to different conceptions of each student because each person must have a different interpretation. Although face-to-face learning can indeed be helped a little by 2-dimensional drawing examples on the blackboard, this will still make it difficult for students because the level of teachers in representing an image is not always the same, even for representing 3-dimensional objects on a 2-dimensional board. AR can be the best solution in solving this problem. It can also be studied at school and home, especially in post-pandemic conditions.

AR can also be a learning solution in art design, which is very difficult to imagine. For example, in sculpture material or 3-dimensional primary forms, where AR can be a solution and can realize all of these things in the form of 3D animation that will describe it in an interactive educational media container that can be interacted with by zooming in on objects, rotating and play animations (Harkema & Rosendaal, 2020). The advantages of AR are directly proportional to the needs of learning media, making it easier for students to learn various things from 3D visualization. The estuary of the advantages of AR as an educational medium is to encourage students to think more creatively and critically to increase the experience and insight of the students themselves so that there is an embodiment of learning materials.

Metaverse Concepts and A New Chapter of Aesthetic Education

AR has produced educational products with the appropriate methods for the reconstructed field of science. This technology can attract the interest of potential users, which has been strengthened in recent studies. The application of AR into the world of education will be a solution for educators to help them impart knowledge to students (Kyza & Georgiou, 2019;

O'Banion et al., 2022). AR products made for a specific field of science can be implemented to be included in the Indonesian aesthetic education curriculum starting from elementary schools, junior high schools, high schools, and universities (Özyalçın & Avcı, 2022; Turan & Atila, 2021). Aesthetic learning mechanisms that can be used for AR learning can be divided into two: independent aesthetic learning at home and collective aesthetic learning in the classroom.

There are essential things to consider in developing AR into learning in aesthetic education. The issue of heterogeneity of education in Indonesia is the main starting point (Marsudi et al., 2020; Sampurno et al., 2020). This is related to the government's role in the collaborative development of digitalization in the world of aesthetic education, especially for the application of learning using AR technology. The country of Indonesia, which is quite large, certainly requires special attention, especially for areas that have not been touched by digital technology supporting infrastructure as a medium that supports the use of AR technology.

Because AR, many people see "metaverse" as a new term. Nevertheless, the concept of Metaverse is not a new term. The Metaverse first appeared in 1992 in the speculative fiction Snow Crash by Neal Stephenson (Rahaman, 2022). In this novel, the Metaverse is a large virtual environment. On the other hand, the Metaverse was also introduced in the novel and film Ready Player One, which ultimately led to the concept of Metaverse as a virtual environment, also known as MUVE (Multi-User Virtual Environments), which has a format derived from MMORPG (Massive Multiplayer Online Role-playing) (Baía Reis & Ashmore, 2022; Dichev & Dicheva, 2017; S. Kim et al., 2018; Rahaman, 2022; Rospigliosi, 2022a). Playing games, which allows everyone to meet avatars in 3D video games by combining virtual reality, augmented reality (AR), virtual reality (VR), and the internet (P. W. Kim et al., 2017). So, the Metaverse and its supporting technology devices allow users to feel the sensation of being in an authentic virtual environment.

At first, even though it was just speculation, scholars did an in-depth study. Society enters the stage of true post-humanism life where there will be many cyborgs, and society will ultimately depend on machines. This trend shows that the community's collective memory immediately turned back to the existence of "cyborgs." Cyborg is short for Cybernetic Organism, namely cybernetic creatures (human machines) that have a system of self-regulating abilities (Houston, 2004). So the effect is a kind of human-machine where machine parts can be replaced, integrated, or functioned as additional body parts to increase the body's strength potential. Aesthetic education in the future also considers cyborgs living in a complete dimension with no boundaries between inner and outer space (Baía Reis & Ashmore, 2022; Rospigliosi, 2022b; Taylor & Carpenter, 2016).

Space for movement or alternative space in aesthetic education is called cyberspace (cybernetic space). Cyberspace is an alternative space for aesthetic education where data is depicted in such a way as to give the operator the illusion of control over movement and access to information (Baía Reis & Ashmore, 2022; Garrido-Iñigo & Rodríguez-Moreno, 2015; Rospigliosi, 2022b; Tasa & Görgülü, 2010). In this case, the cyborg is connected to various shadow-like simulations. For aesthetic education, such technologies are familiar to the public (3D, and 4D games, for example). Some are still being developed ('real time' presentations, for example), and some are still fictional, all of which have the capability of simulating the space in which we interact.

Synergy is seen when cyberspace is usually equipped with virtual reality (AR or VR), namely the expansion of the cyberspace process in order to provide a 'pure' information space through data construction that gives the effect of immersion into cybernetic space. AR is usually 3D/4D multimedia. So reality can provide artificial senses to our bodies in light, sound, and touch that are not limited to space and time (2D) and provide an exciting experience impact for aesthetic education.

Moreover, if in the 'normal' dimension, we cannot share space with other people precisely at the same time, in alternative space, we can not only share but also from entirely different places; we can share the same space with others. Moreover, because the 'movement' in cyberspace is entirely different from 'normal' space conditions, we can fly and enter the wall because the wall is not made of natural sand, brick, and cement but only visual manipulation (manipulate imagery) (Fook et al., 2021; Lungu et al., 2021; Sample et al., 2018; Waters, 2016).

In the context of community culture for aesthetic education in the context of the Metaverse, it is closely related to the community's readiness to face a new era. A small part of the community, especially users, can explore this Metaverse by carrying out various digital activities like in the real world. These people are usually already members of cyber and virtual 3D communities that support each other from various parts of the world. They go to school, work, and other activities in the virtual world (Blankenship, 2011; Weninger, 2017). Of course, there must be knowledge or skills that must be prepared for the younger generation, especially to prepare everything so that this metaverse era can later be helpful for the progress of the Indonesian nation.

The education system in Indonesia often changes. One of them is curriculum changes from year to year. The transformation of learning from time to time continues to occur. Facing the metaverse era, which is currently being discussed, the government needs to facilitate all needs in the field of technology-based education. The curriculum of the metaverse era must be different from the previous curriculum to welcome changes that will occur in the future. Even though it looks fun and exciting if society can do virtual activities like in the real world, but still this metaverse era has several challenges that need to be considered, including users will be busy with all activities that occur in the virtual world, so that users become addicted and choose to be engrossed in activities in the virtual world than in the real world (Ardoin et al., 2020; Sudarsana et al., 2019). The more sophisticated technology that develops, of course, has an impact that can affect its users. In addition, the field of education certainly experiences various challenges and obstacles because they have to make changes to the curriculum according to technological developments. The presence of the metaverse era is not only a challenge in education but also a challenge for society, especially in the economic field. The two fields are closely related because the fulfillment of economic needs accompanies the process of continuing education to facilitate education. For example, if learning is done virtually, it will cost money to finance these digital activities. Electronic devices such as gadgets and quotas will become the primary needs of people entering this metaverse era (Behnamnia, Kamsin, & Ismail, 2020; Behnamnia, Kamsin, Ismail, et al., 2020).

Meanwhile, many Indonesians still find it challenging to meet their daily needs. If education in Indonesia is directed to enter this metaverse era, there will be new problems considering that the online learning process still leaves many obstacles. The teaching and learning process will reduce the interaction between teachers and students because they will spend more time

in the virtual world (Lehtomäki et al., 2016; Mercer et al., 2019). Even though we know that students not only need various kinds of knowledge and skills but also need character education and moral values to shape each student's personality. In addition, parental supervision must be stricter so that children do not fall into negative things in the virtual world. Another thing, of course, every parent would hope to send their children to the best educational institutions and have adequate facilities. In this case, the best category is undoubtedly very subjective. However, some things can be considered general agreement, such as the need for a clean, safe, and comfortable school environment.

Nowadays parents want their children to study in modern schools. The term modern school is meant not only in terms of the availability of learning facilities considered sophisticated, such as the presence of a computer laboratory, the internet, or using specific applications to support online learning. However, modern schools can offer, even implement, educational systems and teaching and learning methods that can help students become independent in learning, have academic knowledge, be innovative, brave, critical, and ready to apply their knowledge in various contexts (Cannon, 2018; Richardson, 2020; Zhu et al., 2018). The concept of the modern school has become a reasonable discourse. Talking about modern schools is undoubtedly related to educators or teachers. Educators or teachers must also be able to choose materials and learning media suitable for teaching in this metaverse era.

The use of technology-based learning media can expedite the learning process. Of course, educators or teachers in this era must not be ignorant. They must be more proficient than their students because it is in the hands of these educators or teachers that the younger generation will be able to enter the metaverse era correctly so that they do not fall into a negative digital space. Even though we know the reality is that many teaching staff are still having trouble doing online learning for various reasons. The era of the Metaverse is in sight with all the changes that will occur there. Many preparations must be made, starting from the facilities and infrastructure, intellectual abilities, and legal umbrella from the government in regulating the metaverse era. Now the education system in Indonesia will face a metaverse era.

This is a big challenge because of the influence of metaverse technology on the world of education. The use of metaverse technology will change the world. The two-dimensional world we have known is starting to be replaced with a three-dimensional virtual world. Even now, this technology is reaching the more modern world of education. However, the Metaverse generally visualizes the internet in a three-dimensional media format. Metaverse technology must be used through mobile application tools, augmented reality glasses, virtual reality, and others. Some devices currently use metaverse technology. Soon there will be a significant change in schools and campuses' teaching and learning processes. In addition, learning technology tools will use a more sophisticated online system, and there are more interactive technology tools.

Conclusion

"The 'earth' without art is 'eh'...this world without art people will only be 'ehhh'." Furthermore, when today's society says that art is on the side of the road, meaning that it is not the same as other knowledge, it turns out that after being reconstructed in neuroscience, art is very extraordinary. When the context of aesthetic education is put forward, there are two kinds of meaning. Aesthetic education, in the sense of schools, we call education for life and education for earning a living. The second is aesthetic science. Aesthetic education as the

estuary of art produces metacognitive thinking patterns expected by education's success in general.

The world of telepresence (virtual existence) is a cyber world because the primary entity (object) is transported and transfigured into the cyber world. As another layer of reality, cyberspace allows people to be present in other places and meet others even though their bodies are physically in other places. Aesthetic education through digital technology can enable even more extraordinary telepresence than that. Moreover, all of this is possible because of computers. Computers and aesthetic education are inseparable parts.

The concept of science in the conventional era shows that science develops partially and disconnectedly, including by their respective methods. The picture in the Aufklarung period provides an aesthetic deepening into dynamic and definite particles. Definite knowledge, very limited where to go. If it has become A, it is not possible to solve B. It is different from this metaverse era, where if art develops creativity, then technology develops for the benefit of humans. In other words, technology has developed with new technology, which increasingly shows that aesthetic education has the nature of developing creativity so that it penetrates the boundaries of the arts branch with fractal patterns and integrated, solid, and natural art. Therefore, aesthetic education is now integrated. Aesthetic education is undeniably integrated with other arts. Thus, aesthetic education in the metaverse concept includes three things; namely, it is presentational, non-representational, and deformative material at the same time. The discourse on AR and the metaverse in aesthetic education in Indonesia are fascinating, mainly when he collaborates with pure art, which has given rise to Non-Fungible Token (NFT) Art which certainly has more stable management than aesthetic education in the context of the metaverse. Thus, when collaboration and interdisciplinary, the context of Mixed-Reality (MR) can be discussed further.

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The Comparative Study of Ethical Procedures in Education for Law Amendments in Thailand

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study was aimed (1) to examine the condition and problems in ethical processes in education in Thailand (2) to compare the ethical procedures in education from ten countries or regions (3) to provide recommendations for improving legislation within Thailand. The research methodology was based on documentary research that was divided into three phases. The first part was analyzing three pieces related to educational personnel management laws in Thailand and interviewing the experts to verify the finding data. The next step was finding related ethical procedure regulations from ten countries or regions for comparing the procedures outlined in the professional ethics of the Education Code of Conduct by applying the Simultaneous Approach of Comparative method. The last step was consultation with various stakeholders and experts for approving the guidelines of law amendments related to improving ethical procedures in Thailand by applying the policy recommendation method. The finding from Thailand's related laws was that there is an overlap from the personnel management system and an inconsistency among the authorized organizations of schools in Thailand. Moreover, in this comparative study from ten countries or regions, the following points were suggested: The first point was de-centralizing the power of disciplinary and ethical procedures to local educational units and institutes by appointing subcommittee members in each province in advance, for cases of professional misconduct. The second point was revising the subordinate legislation for the disciplinary and ethical procedures to be combined, and having this legislation ultimately amended.

Keywords: Comparative Study, Ethical Procedures, Law Amendments, Thailand

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Introduction

Education is the foundation of any country's progress and development. Teachers are the people who are the core of education in the role of educating people by cultivating knowledge and morals. So, teachers are role models and mentors for every student because they influence the learner's impressionable minds; as well as inculcate sound social and moral values through their words and deeds. Moreover, teachers share their knowledge and help students develop their own characteristics, thereby making a positive impact on their readiness for their future; so that students have tools to solve problems by applying the facts and concepts that they have learned. In addition, teachers have been playing an important role for inspiring and constructing the meaningful education for societies (OECD, 2011).

In order to manage teacher's personal behavior; UNESCO has stated that the code of conduct is a set of written guidelines produced by public authorities or professional organizations; which aims to enhance the commitments, dedication and efficacy of service. It has also provided self-disciplinary guidelines by establishing norms of professional conduct. Furthermore, in the education aspect, a code of conduct provides guidance to teachers with concrete ethical procedures applicable to all kinds of activities (Muriel Poisson, 2009).

The Code of Ethics supports teachers' self-improvements; it outlines teachers 'primary responsibilities to their students; and to interact positively with parents, community members, and other stakeholders of the school. Moreover, the Code of Ethics provides the standards of judging conduct that all teachers aspire to. As mandated in the Code of Ethics for Teachers, Thailand has regulated the Code of Ethics for Teachers comprising of five areas: Personal ethics, Teaching Profession ethics, Client centered ethics, Collegial ethics, and Societal ethics (Ethical Professional Standards Regulation, 2013). It is the main regulation for ethics of the teaching profession published by the Thailand Teachers Council, which is the organization of semi government sector acting as juristic person. This organization is authorized by the Ministry of Education responsible for teacher certificates, including registration, suspension and withdrawal of teacher's certificates. Moreover, its function is to regulate teaching professional standards and ethical regulations; as well as professional conduct for the educators to adhere to the teaching professional code of conduct and professional standards. Its mission was aimed to preserve and enhance educators' reputations together with dignity in the profession for building the faith for society; to provide ethical procedures for related complaints of educators; and giving sanctions authorized by the professional committee of the Teachers Council (Teacher and Educational Personnel Council Act, 2003).

Thailand Code of Conducts Regulation

According to Regulation of Teachers Council of Thailand about Ethical Misconduct Procedure Regulations 2010 and amendments, Thailand Teachers Council has regulated the ethical disciplinary procedure as follows:

Table 1: The procedures for consideration of misconduct in professional ethics, 2010 and amendments

Procedures	**Time frame**
Section 1: Accusation The letter of accusations or any petition must be subjected to the Secretary of Teachers Council of Thailand in accordance with each case whereas the Secretary shall conduct initial investigation in prior. If the case has exceeded one year of its process, starting from the date that the accused has been proven innocent, such case shall be dismissed and shall not be put into further investigation.	Not specified
Section 3: Investigation Item 11 – If the Secretary, as authorized by the professional standard committee, finds that the case is valid due to (1) prominent evidence, (2) credible details or clues in anonymous letters, (3) public reports in the press and media, and/or (4) any other reason that the committee agrees upon, the Secretary has the rights to make accusation in prior to submit the case to the Board for consideration.	Wait for the committee's approval
Section 4: Designating the Subcommittee for Investigation Item 15 – The Secretary must suggest three to five candidates to be designated as the investigation subcommittee by the committee. Item 17 – Immediately notify the accused about the designation of the investigation subcommittee. In the event of failure in giving notification or the accused refuses to acknowledge, a hard copy of the notification letter must be sent to the accused's address as recorded on official documents or as specified by the accused via registered post with advice of receipt. After 15 days since the notification letter is posted, the accused therefore cannot refuse the notification and the subcommittee must include a copy of this notification in the investigation file.	Immediately
Section 6: Objection (1) The accused has the rights to object the designation of certain subcommittee members. (2) The Professional Standards Committee must consider, investigate, and come to resolution regarding the objection of the designation of subcommittee members ever since the date that the objection letter is received.	7 days Within 60 days
Section 8 Investigation methods (1) The subcommittee is responsible to conduct and carry out the investigation. (2) The timeframe of the investigation process can be extended. (3) Experts may join the investigation process. (4) Item 33 – The subcommittee must notify the accused in advance if explanation is needed. The notification letter is required to be signed and returned via mail post. The accused will be assigned to give explanation at proper time.	90 days Up to 30 days 15 days 15 days
Item 42 – If the findings after investigation lead to other misconducts which are not defined in the orders regarding the designation of the subcommittee, the head of the subcommittee must report to the Professional Standards Committee. Item 45 – In the event that the fault has been pointed out or a disciplinary action has already been taken by a government division or other authority,	Immediately

such fault or any findings from the investigation can be put into consideration without having to summon additional evidence.	
Section 9: Forms of investigation reports Item 48 – The investigation committee must come to resolution whether the accused's misconduct in professional ethics based on the following conditions. If the accused is proven innocent, the accusations are considered false and the case must be dismissed. If the accused is proven wrong, it is needed to be clearly specified which rules or regulations were violated, which level of penalty to be given, and the investigation report must be documented.	Cases under investigation is considered close once reported to the committee
Section 12: Item 58 – The Secretary must document the judgement of the Professional Standards Committee and submit it to the president of the Professional Standards Committee. Once the document has been signed by the designated committee members, the accused must be informed of the judgement as well. Item 59 – Once the accused has learned the committee's judgement to suspend or revoke the professional license, the accused must acknowledge the judgement and return the professional license to the Teachers Council of Thailand. Item 60 – The accused may appeal the judgement to the Board of Teachers Council of Thailand.	15 days 15 days 30 days

Resource: Thailand Ethical Misconduct Procedure Regulations 2010, Teachers Council

From the table above, every complaint related to ethical procedures which are made to the Teachers Council, should follow the order of the secretary of the council notifying the appointment of a Professional Committee to investigate and appoint the subcommittee to run the hearing process. The Teachers Council is open for all government and private sectors to make a complaint. Moreover, The Council also accepts the disciplinary cases from the school authorized sectors, but they begin to re-investigate the procedure to judge the possible withdrawal of the registration certificate. This process could be refined by accepting the report from the authorized sectors instead of doing an additional investigation.

For the ethical procedure in Thailand, according to the report of the ethical procedure annual report of 2022 (Teacher Council, 2022), the Teachers Council has a problem with dealing cases that received complaints due to the limited human resources and the inconsistency of procedure which was regulated by the Teacher and Educational Personnel Council Act, 2003 and related regulations such as Ethical Professional. These problems cause the procedures to be weakened and the application of them to be time-consuming. As a result, ethical punishment is not effectively implemented to protect the professional dignity and faithfulness of teachers in Thailand. Moreover, the Thailand Teachers Council is one of the government organizations, but they have no authority to directly assign any procedures to teachers or schools. This reflects the structural problem of the system of ethical procedures.

Therefore, the Thailand Teachers Council should improve the related ethical procedure's registration or laws to solve the problem of procedure for better service and provide related ethical procedures in the teaching profession. Consequently, it is crucial to examine from high competencies in education of other countries or regions for the appropriate method for applying Thailand's ethical procedure for teacher. This will lead to more efficient procedures in order to be more effective solutions and this would be beneficial to education in Thailand.

Aim of the Study

1. To examine the condition and problems in ethical procedure in Education of Thailand
2. To compare the international existing procedures when dealing with ethical matters
3. To provide recommendations for improving legislation within Thailand

Methodology

The research methodology was based on documentary research, divided into three phases, as follows:

Phase I: The documents and related current practices and regulations were studied, concerning procedures in professional ethics of Thailand Teachers Council for analyzing the administration system of ethical procedure and overlap amongst the different pieces of laws (Bix,1999). Then, experts of personnel management in Education were interviewed and responses were obtained from both Education offices and private sectors. The data collection instruments were an opened- questionnaire, and outline sheet for discussion for identifying the challenge concerning Ethical Procedure in Education of Thailand. The expertise contained the representative experts from the Office of Professional Ethics of Education Code of Conduct, the Secretariat Office of the Teachers Council of Thailand and Office of Procedure and Laws affiliated to the Teachers Council.

Phase II: The similarity and differences of regulations applicable to the procedure outlined in the professional ethics of the education code of conduct internationally were examined. In this part, countries and regions were chosen according to the IMD 2022 (IMD, 2022)from 63 countries or regions and PISA2018 Result's indicators from 75 countries or regions (OECD, 2019) and the most developed areas from each continent were considered and then chosen. The primary methodology at this stage was a comparative study employing the technique of content analysis and presenting the results in a comparative table by presenting the data of the codes of conduct and related laws.

From the indicator of IMD2022 and PISA2018 Results, ten countries and regions from five continents were chosen as follows:

1. Asia: Singapore, China, Chinese-Taipei, and Japan
2. Europe: England, Ireland, and France
3. Africa: South Africa
4. America: Pennsylvania, the USA, which has the highest rate of teacher investment in 2022. (Department of Education, Pennsylvania, 2022)
5. Australia: Queensland, Australia, which is the first state in Australia regulating teacher registration (Queensland College of Teacher, 2011)

The process of this step was conducted by searching the internet for the code of conduct and related ethical procedures from two parts of each country or region. Then, some academics from experts of comparative laws were interviewed as the following step. After that, the table for analyzing the comparative data was created by applying the Simultaneous Approach of comparative education theory (Khakpour,2012); to find the outstanding points in ethical procedures of education in each area. Therefore, in this part the summative content analysis of the data was applied for conducting the comparison. For the data analysis, the method was divided into three steps: (1) concluding the problem and challenge of ethical procedures in

Thailand, (2) designing the solution of the problems in Thailand by borrowing from other countries (3) and analyzing the design of solution with Thailand context.

Phase III: Providing the recommendation for laws amendments was applied with policy borrowing for Thailand's Ethical Procedure of Teachers Council. After finishing the comparative method, the borrowing policy theory was applied to design the solutions for ethical procedures of Thailand (Phillips,2021). Moreover, the recommendations were developed in consultation with various stakeholders and experts that could be implemented to assist in revising laws associated with procedures in the professional ethics of the education code of conduct of the Teachers Council of Thailand. In this part, focus group interviews were conducted with a group of experts which are from Thailand Teachers Council, Teaching Professional Committee, and Division of Professional ethics and laws, to analyze the solution of this research problem. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for analyzing the data to conclude the recommendations for improving ethical procedures in Education in Thailand.

Findings

According to the purpose of this study, the findings will be organized into three sections: the problems of the system in personal management in Thailand, the comparative international study, and recommendation for revision ethical procedure in Education in Thailand.

Current practices and Challenge of personal systems in Thailand

In this section, to begin with, the laws related to Personal management were examined, including (1) Teacher and Educational Personal for Civil Service Act of 2004 published by the office of the Teacher Civil Service and Educational Personnel Commission, (2) Teachers and Educational Personnel Council Act of 2003 published by Teachers Council of Thailand, (3) Administrative Procedure Act of 1996, published in the Royal Thai Government Gazette Vol.1133. Part60a., and (4) Regulation of Teachers Council of Thailand about Ethical Misconduct Procedure 2010 and amendments, for analyzing the problem of the system in Ethical Procedure in Thailand.

According to the above laws and regulations, it can be concluded that for the misconduct procedure of the personal management in Thailand for teachers, there are two distinct channels of legislation, namely:

(1) Disciplinary Procedure Channel for teachers in Civil Service, From the analysis of Teacher and Educational Personal for Civil Service Act of 2004 section 82 -97, it has been found that the disciplinary procedure of civil service teachers in Thailand is the responsibility of the Local Educational Area office in each province. The disciplinary committee is set up by the Director of Educational Area Office for investigating and hearing any cases of teacher's misconduct behavior. The highest possible sanction against a teacher is dismissal, but the teacher registration is not withdrawn. Moreover, the complainers can also appeal to the educational area office for any process that may be deemed to be unfair. In case of withdrawing the registration of teaching profession, the director should write the notice to the Teachers Council for any further action which consumes time.

(2) Ethical Procedures for teachers in Thailand, This procedure covers all teachers both in government and private sectors in Education all over Thailand. According to three pieces of laws: Teachers and Educational Personnel Council Act of 2003, Administrative Procedure

Act of 1996, and Regulation of Teachers Council of Thailand about Ethical Misconduct Procedure 2010 and amendments; it was found that this procedure was run by a professional standards committee; the decision is approved by the chairman of the committee which takes time, all the ethical procedures are dependent on this committee; starting from consideration on each cases of misconduct, investigation, hearing, sanctions, and appeal. In each process it is necessary to wait for the chairman of the committee to approve and provide the notice; and this hierarchy can cause unnecessary delays. After the approval, the decision is announced by the secretary of the Teachers Council who has the highest authority. As a result, from the statement in the laws to practice, the analysis shows that the power is centralized with the Teachers Council for Ethical Procedures.

In this part, interviews of the experts also provided the information of the current practices and challenges concerning procedures in the professional ethics of the education code of conduct (according to the annual cases results reported in July 2022) as 1) the centralization of power at the Secretariat Office of the Teachers' Council of Thailand; 2) the Professional Standards Commission (PSC), which has the primary responsibility to administer the procedures of the professional ethics of the education code of conduct, must also handle other functions; 3) there is no preliminary review process of incoming cases before issuing a case number. This also covers even the accepted cases, which may not be relevant, yet the Secretariat Office of the Teachers' Council of Thailand may be unable to resolve the issue; 4) there is an absence of a procedure to assist in integrating the disciplinary process and the professional code of conduct; notwithstanding, they constitute the same offence.

In the analysis and interviews regarding these four pieces of legislation, it can be identified that the code of conduct parts in these laws overlap; it provides a division between the disciplinary and ethical procedures; and this creates challenges when trying to practically apply these procedures. So, there is an inconsistency between local authority units in Education and Teachers Council of Thailand because they don't link with each other when applying the laws in misconduct of teacher's procedure. This weakens Thailand's procedures and makes the application of laws time-consuming, and this causes the low efficiency when dealing with disciplinary and ethical issues. Moreover, it is found that Thailand does not decentralize the authority to Educational Office Area and school's despite in the section 24 in the Ministry of Education Act 2003, it states that schools are the organization entity. However, the Thai education administrative style is still Top-down from the center unit, and this means that schools don't have any autonomy in any decision of the code of conduct aspect. Furthermore, the Thai Teachers Council has no authority to control any of the educational units. From this phenomenon, it can be seen that there is an inconsistency in how punishments are given in the code of conduct.

Comparative Study of International Ethical Procedures

Educational professions in ten various nations or regions were examined. It was discovered that most of them had legislation that integrates the professional ethics of the education code of conduct with the professional teaching standards. This is distinct from the ones that are found in Thailand. In Japan, regulations concerning professional ethics have been incorporated into the local public service laws. These laws are referenced from the national public service laws. The People's Republic of China, Singapore, and the Republic of Taiwan all keep their professional ethics regulations and their professional teaching standards completely apart from one another. The People's Republic of China, on the other hand, takes a similar approach to that of Thailand and keeps its professional ethics and the procedures

of ethics distinct from its regulations concerning disciplinary actions. In the other nine countries, the regulations addressing the code of ethics of the teaching profession, and the disciplinary and punishment legislation, are found within the same laws. When taking into consideration the interconnection between the procedures of professional educational ethics in foreign countries, or the special administrative regions according to the issues discovered in phase 1, this study reports the following results: 1) They decentralize power to local educational offices. There are educational institutes and organizations which are authorized by the law to collaborate along with the professional regulating board of the original affiliation. 2) There is a procedure that can be followed to deliberate on cases involving the professional ethics outlined in the education code of conduct. This begins when the educational institutes report the incidents to their original affiliation and the central office. This is determined by the level of offences committed by the professionals. Alternatively, if the case is less serious, all of the action will take place within the educational institutions. On the other hand, if the case is highly offensive, it will be reviewed by a screening committee that decides whether or not to accept and pass on the case. 3) There is a system for investigating and a procedure for the punishment of offences of a professional code of conduct. Each country details sentencing patterns for offensive incidents involving the professional code of conduct and discipline in the primary legislation. 4) A sentence is imposed based on cases. Depending on the circumstances, different degrees of severity of punishment could be assigned to each offence. The most severe level of the sentence consists of revoking the teaching license and prohibiting offenders from doing their teaching job. 5) The procedure for appealing a decision made in an ethics case includes a criterion that indicates the case cannot be judged by the committee or organizations that considered the case before. These results were obtained from the various forms of legislation applicable to each country or region as indicated below in table 2 which was divided into 3 groups.

Table 2: The Comparative of Ethical Procedure in ten countries or regions

Group / Data	Separating code of Ethics in Education	Ethical procedure in Education is included in Local Service Laws		
Country or Regions	China	Singapore	Japan	France
Code of Ethics	Code of Ethics 2018	Ethos of Teaching Profession	Ethics for Civil Service	Teaching Professional Standard 2007
Publishing Units	Ministry of Education	Academy of Singapore Teachers	Local Civic Service Units	Ministry of Education
Ethical Procedure Laws	Ethical Procedure for Secondary and Primary Teachers 2018	Public Service Disciplinary Proceedings Regulations	Local Public Service Laws	Public Service for Disciplinary Procedure
Publishing Units	Ministry of Education	Singapore Parliament	Local Public Service Authority Units	France Parliament
Units for Ethical Procedure	School and District Educational Office	School, and Ministry of Education	Local Public Service	Schools, Education Area Office, and Province of Education Office

Table 2: The Comparative of Ethical Procedure in ten countries or regions (Continue)

Group / Data	Integrating Teaching Professional Standards and Disciplinary Procedure					
Country or Regions	Pennsylvania, USA	Queensland, Australia	Ireland	England	South Africa	Taiwan
Code of Ethics	Professional Standards and Conducts for Educators	Code of Ethics for Teachers in Queensland	Code of Professional Conduct for Teachers	Teacher's Standards	Code of Professional Ethics and Disciplinary Procedures	Taiwan Teacher Ethics Code
Publishing Units	Department of Education, Pennsylvania	Queensland College of Teacher	The Teachers Council	Department of Education	South African Council for Educators	Taiwan Teacher's Association
Ethical Procedure Laws	Educator Disciplinary Act	Education (Queensland of College Teacher) Act 2005	Teachers Council Act 2015 Section 42(1)	Teachers' Disciplinary (England) Regulations 2012	Code of Professional Ethics and Disciplinary Procedures	Teacher's Act 2019
Publishing Units	Department of Education, Pennsylvania	Queensland College of Teacher	The Teachers Council	Teaching Regulation Agency, Department of Education	South African Council for Educators	Ministry of Education
Units for Ethical Procedure	School and Disciplinary Committee of Department of Education Pennsylvania	College of Teacher Queensland and partners	Schools and Teachers Council	Schools and Teaching Regulation Agency	Schools and South African Council for Educators	Schools and Authority Units

From the data shown on the table above, there are three categories: (1) China has separated code of Ethics in education which was published by Ministry of education, (2) Singapore, Japan and France's ethical procedure in Education is included in Local Civil Service Laws, (3) The rest of the countries or regions have integrated teaching professional standards and disciplinary procedures. Moreover, from the comparative study it was found out that China is the only country amongst the ten examined that uses the ethical procedure regulations instead of specific published acts of legislation. China has enacted the Code of Ethics of 2018(Ministry of Education,2018) and the procedures of how to handle these incidents are administered by the ethical procedure regulations which is run by local authorities. An examination of all the educational professions shows that all of them had legislation that put the code of ethics for educators and disciplinary and punishment procedures together, except for China and Thailand. Moreover, every country, except for Thailand, decentralizes power to local educational offices, organizations, or educational institutes to operate procedures and consider cases relating to the professional ethics of the education code of conduct.

Nevertheless, it is apparent that the authority of the divisions and the committee members responsible for ethical and professional conduct is decentralized from the central office to

educational institutions or committee members in each country. Therefore, if authority is properly delegated to personnel in local or provincial educational institutions under the educational service area and if there are sufficient legal personnel, it can lead to a faster operation compared to work done by the central office alone. An interesting point of the results of this study is the decentralization of authority to the operating unit or the parent unit of the local educational institutions, that they are delegated to proceed and report back to the central office in compliance to the Decentralization of Powers to Local Administrative Organizations Act, 1999.

Recommendation for Law Amendments of Thailand

From the comparative study from ten countries or regions in five continents the following two points are submitted for policy amendment recommendations:

1) De-centralize the power of disciplinary and ethical procedures to local educational units and institutes by appointing subcommittee members in each province in advance, for cases of professional misconduct that does not necessarily need to proceed to the level where the teacher's license needs to be suspended. These subcommittee members will be required to collaborate with the educational institute committees in these procedures. If an offender violates the professional code of conduct and breaks the disciplinary laws but does not reach the level where their license is revoked, the subcommittee can consider what the appropriate sentence should be. The local subcommittees should report their findings to the central units in serious cases which would require the teacher’s licence to be suspended by the Teachers Council (Reyes, 2016).

2) Revising the subordinate legislation for the disciplinary and ethical procedures to be combined and having this legislation ultimately amended. (Sudirman et al., 2019) Revising the subordinate legislation to appoint the special units in each province to deal with the code of conduct procedures so the Teachers Council should de-centralize the power to the subcommittees.

Moreover, the final suggestion from the focus group interviews from the experts of Thai Teachers Council has suggested that the recommendations for revising the legislation should emphasize putting short-term problem-solving solutions in place. This is because amending subordinate legislation could be more straightforward and require less time. The suggestions comprise 1) putting up an amendment to subordinate legislation that would appoint subcommittee members with authority to investigate a matter before and after it has been brought to their attention, including in cases where evidence of professional misconduct has been found. The subcommittee can only carry out its duties if there is a case involving allegations of professional misconduct that does not necessarily need to proceed to the level that the teacher's license is not suspended. 2) Empowering the Professional Standards Commission to exercise its authority under section 25(5) to appoint a subcommittee with direct responsibility for the professional code of conduct. 3) introducing additional subordinate legislation that enables the committee to decline to accept a complaint or issue a case number when it does not appear necessary to accept the complaint in the first place. In the long run, it is recommended that the accepting procedure under section 52 of the Teachers Council of Thailand Regulation and the Teachers and Educational Personnel Council Act, 2003 be amended to allow the Secretariat Office of the Teachers' Council of Thailand to have the authority in considering rejecting the case and giving the authority to not accepting the allegation. 4) If an offender violates the professional code of conduct and breaks

the discipline laws but does not reach the level where their license is revoked, and if the government then agrees to appoint a committee to investigate this not-serious offence, then that should allow integration of the work, allowing the investigation committee to consider what an appropriate sentence should be. Moreover, there should be no need to appoint a new subcommittee team to investigate the case again. Despite this, it is still essential to maintain the way the initial affiliation handles disciplinary actions separate from the way the Teachers Council of Thailand handles disciplinary actions and professional ethics. This is because both procedures can be carried out parallelly. 5) to address the risk problems in the administrative legislation, it is suggested that 5.1) enact subordinate legislation, especially for the case that is requesting an appeal. This is a request to one position-based committee within the Teachers' Council of Thailand not to give a vote to judge any wrongdoing in cases involving professional misconduct. 5.2) amend the subordinate legislation does not conflict with the Teachers and Educational Personnel Council Act, 2003. This can be done by altering the term “serious offences of professional ethics” to “offence of professional ethics requiring license revocation” and replacing the phrase “Not serious offences of professional ethics” with the phrase “offence of professional ethics which does not exceed the suspended license level” in all related legislation.

Conclusion

In summary, the main findings were that the laws related to personnel administration for teachers in Thailand are time-consuming and often duplicated and this is caused by the separation of ethical and disciplinary procedures. Furthermore, the centralization power of the Teachers Council of Thailand can also cause delays because of their limited resources. In addition, when a complaint is made the Teachers Council could delegate this responsibility to the local education office. In order to find the solution from a global perspective, the comparison study was applied. Applying the data of Ethical Procedures from ten countries and regions and using the borrowing policy theory; it is suggested that Thailand should decentralise the power of ethical procedure to education authorities and then report the results to the Teachers Council for withdrawal of the teaching registration certificate. (West et al., 2010) Moreover, combining ethical and disciplinary procedures together to reduce resources such as time and people. The implications of applying the proposed amendments to the legislation as detailed in this comparative study are that the procedures would be far more effective, consistent, and clarified, to be more consistent with other international practices in this regard. However, the limitations could be the resistance to cultural or system changes as well as the time-consuming process required to conduct the necessary consultations and amend the applicable legislation. Furthermore, Thailand is a developed country, and the justice process is run by government sectors as a main, which is still difficult if it will decentralise to schools in the code of conduct aspect. It also takes time when the country wants to combine the duplication of laws.

Acknowledgement

This study is the part of laws amendments research project which was funded by Thailand Teachers Council under the Teacher Education Research Funding Programme, and administered by the Faculty of Education, Burapha University, Thailand.

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L1 Use in the L2 Classroom: A University Instructor's Perceptions of His Language Choices

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
First language (L1) use in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms has been researched for over three decades. Scholars have studied classroom L1 use from different perspectives, for example, the functions of teachers' L1 use (Sert, 2005; Forman, 2016) and its pedagogical effects (Lee & Macaro, 2013; Lee & Levine, 2020). Although English-only policies have been questioned in many countries, in Japan the Ministry of Education recommends that English should be taught through English. As Hawkins (2015) notes, this has led to a belief in Japan that L1 use should be minimized or avoided in EFL classrooms. Although research regarding the quantity and functions of classroom L1 use has gained more attention, there are few studies that have investigated teachers' perspectives on their own L1 use (e.g., Polio & Duff, 1994; Hobbs et al., 2009). This paper reports on the findings from a qualitative study which explores how and why a university instructor used students' L1 in his classroom. Data from semi-structured interviews, stimulated recall interviews, and classroom observations are analyzed using a phenomenological approach. The paper focuses on one participant, an English-speaking EFL instructor in a Japanese university, and discusses his use of the students' L1 with his understanding of his language choices. The findings show that the instructor's L1 use is likely associated to sociopragmatics and that his language choice is a multifaced and dynamic phenomenon as he responds to the communication needs of his students while managing his classes.

Keywords: L1 Use, Language Choice, Teacher Perception, EFL, Japanese

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Introduction

There has been an ongoing debate regarding the L1 use in the second language (L2) classrooms for over three decades, and researchers such as Cook (2001) have argued for inclusion of L1 in teaching and learning L2 in language classroom settings. In recent years, there has been a shift to L1 inclusion in teaching L2 in many countries and learning contexts; however, a negative connotation about the L1 use in language teaching contexts remains (Hawkins, 2015) in Japan, and monolingual approach is preferred in English teaching contexts. L1 use is often discussed with how much is used and in relation to avoidance or minimization, and the discussions tend to be related to how much L1 is used by teachers.

However, as Borg and Sanchez (2020) note, teachers are "thoughtful, active decision-makers who have a significant influence on what happens in the classroom" (p.16). Indeed, language instructors are often required to make spur of the moment decisions as they respond to classroom events and students' reactions. Although what English as a foreign language instructors believe and perceive about their language choices plays a large part in their classroom teaching practices, there is a dearth of research that investigates how and why they use the student L1 in their classrooms in EFL contexts, especially at the tertiary level. This paper reports on an instructor's perceptions of his language use and choices in a Japanese university EFL classroom. The data and participant presented in this paper is drawn from one of the participants from a larger study that I conducted (Harwood, 2020). It considers the participant's sociopragmatic aspects of language choice and use. The first language refers to students' primary language, Japanese, and the instructor's first language is English in this paper.

Context and background

In Japan, English has been learned in the context where English language was not directly linked with the periods of colonization but learned in a foreign language context especially for cultural and economic growth. , The Japanese Ministry of Education, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) developed the English education reform plan (MEXT, 2014) which are intended as a response to the globalized economy and society. The government and universities put considerable effort into English education from secondary to higher education. MEXT recommends that, in principle, English should be taught through English (MEXT, 2014) in secondary and upper secondary schools; this is partly because Japan is an EFL context where most students have limited exposure to English outside the classroom. At the tertiary level, MEXT's report shows that 99% of Japanese universities (730 out of 736 universities shown in the survey) offer English language classes, and approximately 40% of the universities offer English classes in English (MEXT, 2019; 2021). Universities offer various English programs to prepare Japanese students for the globalized world (Yonezawa & Shimmi, 2017), and the government and universities direct many resources to English education in Japan.

Literature review

L1 use in foreign language classrooms has been extensively researched from various aspects and contexts. Researchers have focused on quantity (Duff & Polio, 1990; Lo, 2014), effectiveness of L1 use to teaching and learning the L2 (Lee & Levine, 2020; , Macaro et al., 2014; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Viakinnou-Brinson et al. 2012; Zhang & Graham, 2020), and functional analysis of codeswitching (Sert, 2005;

Cahyani et al., 2018; Forman, 2016). Studies have reported positive findings, and generally there is consensus among the researchers that students benefit from their L1 use, and researchers have sought judicious use of learner's L1.

While many studies related to L1 use has focused on the frequency of L1 used in the classrooms and its effects on or efficacy in teaching and learning the L2, other studies have investigated instructors' perceptions of the L1 use and how L1 and L2 were used (Polio & Duff, 1994); self-evaluated how the instructor actually used L1 and identified motivations and reasons underlying her own L1 use (Edstrom, 2006); and explored the culture of learning in relation to codeswitching and instructor's language use (Hobbs et al. 2009). Several studies have explored instructors' attitudes and motivation for codeswitching and language choices (Canh & Hamied, 2014; Humphries & Stroupe, 2014; Littlewood and Yu, 2010). Other scholars have analyzed classroom discourse to better understand code choice (Levine, 2011) and the L1 impact on social interactions (Sert, 2015) in the language classrooms. Those studies have reported on social, cultural, and pragmatic factors, and how contexts can also influence and determine the instructors' language choices (Gallagher, 2020).

Methodology

The current study employs a qualitative study approach to understand how an instructor makes sense of his use of the student L1 and consider the influences on his language choices. Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA). In IPA studies, the researcher's analytic attention is placed on the participants' attempts to make sense of their experiences and the participants' interpretations of the phenomenon in inquiry (Smith et al., 2009; 2022). The focus of the study results is drawn from how the researcher makes sense of how the participant makes sense of that experience. Following the IPA principle, the current study is committed to understanding the participant's point of view and interpretation of his meaning-making.

Data collection

The data were collected from two 90-minute classroom observations and two one-hour semi-structured interviews. A stimulated recall interview method was also incorporated to allow the participant to provide interpretations of his own actions and enable me to elicit the thought processes in the instructor's actions (see Friedman, 2012). The two classroom observations and interviews were audio-recorded. I was present in the classroom throughout each 90-minute class and kept field notes. The language used in the interviews was the participant's L1, English. I transcribed the interview data and classroom discourse that involved the participant's use of Japanese and English, and the transcripts from the classroom observations were used in a 50-minute stimulated recall interview with the participant. The data were analyzed to understand the participant's point of view by following IPA principles: phenomenological; double hermeneutic; and idiographic.

Participant and Setting

The study was conducted in a private Japanese university. The study participant, George (pseudonym) is a fulltime faculty member at the university. He is an American citizen and English speaker who has over 25 years of experience in teaching tertiary level English in Japan as well as several years' experience teaching in North and South America in English as a second language contexts. George is a highly proficient Japanese speaker and is competent

in several other languages. He was selected for the study because he is an experienced instructor who is highly proficient in Japanese (the student L1) and is not constrained in his language use in L1 and L2 in the classroom.

The classes observed focus on speaking skills and are part of a compulsory English course for general academic purposes for first year undergraduate students. At the university, English is taught as a required subject to all students regardless of their major at the university. The English program is designed to support first-year undergraduate students as they transition from the English that they learned at high-school to be able to use English for academic purposes at university. The class comprised of 22 non-English major students, and their first language is Japanese. Their English proficiency level is A1 to A2 on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

Findings and Discussion

George's Aim in this Class

One of George's concerns is that his students are freshmen and their major is not English. He observes that most of his students are often reluctant to speak English and do not feel comfortable using English because they did not have many opportunities to communicate only in English at high school. In addition, he explained that he believes those students feel frustrated or embarrassed as they are streamed by their English proficiency and assigned to the class based on their TOEIC® scores. To mitigate the difficulties that his students may face and to ease their frustration, George aims to create a comfortable classroom atmosphere for his students and facilitate their smooth transition to university. George explained that he does not see himself as a person who dispenses knowledge about the target language to the students, but he positions himself as a facilitator in the class.

George's Attitudes Towards his Use of the Student L1

George stated that although he uses English to teach English, he is strictly against English-only classroom environment. He notes that he codeswitches with his family, friends, and colleagues in order to better communicate and convey culturally more appropriate meanings in the given contexts. He acknowledges that codeswitching is a normal behavior if a speaker and a hearer share the same languages. He does not separate classroom settings from everyday settings in terms of his language use, and he takes a natural approach to his teaching in terms of his language use. He believes that it would make the class quieter and less engaged if he kept his instructional language in English only.

In the first interview, which was conducted before the classroom observations, George associated his use of the student L1 with the students' proficiency level. George explained that he uses the student L1 to explain vocabulary and clarify task instructions. He noted that some tasks and activities are complicated for his students to understand, and that he provides explanations in Japanese to support students when necessary. He noted that he thinks the use of the student L1 saves time, and that it also helps his students to follow him and the lesson if their proficiency in the L2 is limited.

Subsequent interviews and classroom observations as well as the stimulated recall shed further light on George's sense making regarding his language choices. His concerns about cultural and social appropriateness or sociopragmatic aspects of language use emerged.

Sociopragmatics connects pragmatic meaning with a degree of social distance between the interlocutors, social rules in the language or speech community, and accepted behaviours and discourse practices (Thomas, 1985). Below, George's perceptions of his language choice are discussed using the excerpts from the classroom observation.

George's Language Use and his Perceptions about his Language Choices

Three excerpts in the following section illustrate George's language use and choices in relation to sociopragmatics. His language choices are connected to: (a) to make lighter atmosphere (make students laugh); (b) to lower student anxiety; (c) to help to build rapport; (d) to show a little more respect; and (e) to use words which are culturally more relevant (no equivalent words in English to fit in the Japanese context).

The incident shown in Excerpt 1 was when the class was working on a dictation activity using the textbook. The class was about to work on dictation activities with the audio recording. George gave instructions to his students, and they had to fill gaps in the textbook as they listened to the two people talking. He was going to play the audio recording.

Excerpt 1*:* いきます *(Ikimasu)*

1. T: Are you ready (for the dictation exercise)?
2. S: [No response - Students talking to each other]
3. T: Please try to answer the questions. I will pause it (the audio recording) for you. [Students still talking to each other]
4. T: いきます。Ready? [instructor starts playing the audio recording for the dictation exercise]

In line 1, George asked students whether they were ready. His students were not attentive because they were busy talking among themselves. In line 4 George uttered a Japanese word, いきます (*Ikimasu). Ikimasu* is a statement that is generally used when one is ready to do something. People often use it to attract others' attention to their action. The students stopped talking and looked at their textbook as George uttered the word.

George explained that there is no equivalent word to *Ikimasu* in English which is useful in a context such as this. He elaborated on his use of Japanese that one or a few words in Japanese can help him capture students' attention and reaction especially when they are not listening or tired. George used the Japanese word which is linguistically and pragmatically more familiar to his students as he wanted to capture their attention in an efficient way.

The observation data suggests that using a Japanese word, George managed to inform his students that the audio recording was about to be played, stopped them from talking, and let them focus on the listening activity. The data shows that, George's codeswitching from English to Japanese functioned as a cue to gain students' attention to the listening activity.

Such language switching between L1 and L2 can work efficiently and economically to help instructors to attract students' attention when the class shares the same L1, and the lesson is conducted though the L2 (Harwood, 2022).

Excerpt 2 below illustrates an incident when the students were about to practice their speeches in front of the class. The students were quietly waiting for George to nominate them

to practice their speech. In this incident, George used a Japanese phrase in order to pay more respect and be polite to the students.

Excerpt 2: お願いします (*Onegaishimasu*)

1. T: OK? Ready? Lucky person No.1 is…Kenji. じゃ、お願いします。
2. S: [Looking down. No response.]
3. T: Stand up, read your speech. Speech time.
4. S: Speech? [Responding to the teacher. Looking nervous]
5. T: Yes. お願いします。
6. T: How about Ayumi? お願いします。

In line 1, George nominated one student, Kenji and then said a Japanese word, "お願いします" (*onegaishimasu*). Kenji did not respond so George repeated his instructions for Kenji (line 3). In line 4 George managed to elicit Kenji's response, and George responded to Kenji and said "お願いします" again. George nominated the other student, Ayumi, to work with Kenji and said "お願いします" to her.

George explained that the word, *onegaishimasu* is literally translated in English as *go ahead*. He further explained that nuance is slightly different between those two phrases because the English phrase, go ahead, does not have exactly the same meaning. He perceives that go ahead sounds top-down,and that *onegaishimasu* sounds more polite. More importantly, George believes the Japanese phrase is an appropriate expression to convey a more suitable meaning in the context.

Excerpt 2 is an example of when L2 instructors use the student L1 can provide affective support. George reflected that he used the Japanese phrase to create a supportive environment and to reduce the stress that students experience when presenting and giving speeches in front of the class. As Forman (2016) notes, many students in language classrooms are reluctant to speak the L2 in class, and instructor's use of the student L1 can facilitate easy and natural interaction between teacher and students. In a potentially stressful and uncomfortable context shown in Excerpt 2, George uses Japanese to attempt to ease the tense situation and lower students' anxiety.

Excerpt 3 below illustrates the incident when George was talking about the speaking test at the end of the lesson. The news about the upcoming speaking test was important information for George to relay to his students.

Excerpt 3: 楽しみ? (*Tanoshimi*)

1. T: Shush, shush! Let's talk about the speaking test next week. Does everybody know we have the speaking test next week?
2. Ss: Huff. [Several students sigh loudly]
3. T: 楽しみ？(Are you looking forward to it?)
4. Ss: No. No. No. [Several students respond at the same time]
5. T: But we had so much fun last time. You guys did a good job.
6. Ss: Good job! Good job! [A few students repeat what the instructor said]
7. T: Yah. This time, you will do a better job because it's your second time.

Most of the students were not listening to George when he started talking about the test while a few students reacted to the news. In line 3, George then said a Japanese word, 楽しみ (*tanoshimi*) as he continued to talk about the test. The word, *tanoshimi*, literally means *looking forward to something*. He used the Japanese word using a question form (by emphasizing the last part of the word). In response to his Japanese, his students responded to him in English.

George reflected on this incident and noted that his students seemed to have lost their concentration since it took place at the end of the 90-minute lesson. George explained that the news about the speaking test was not exciting for his students and that he intended to elicit students' reactions and ease the tension related to the speaking test. He understands that listening to English for the full lesson can be stressful for many students and perceives that a few Japanese words or short phrases in between the constant English makes his students laugh and can create a lighter atmosphere.

George reflected further. He thinks his language use and attitudes towards language choices are often an attempt to make the atmosphere more comfortable for his students and thus create a better learning environment. He believes that the use of the student L1 can work positively, however, too much Japanese can be an insult to some students because they are in the classrooms to learn English and may want to use English. Explaining further, George noted that some students may think that their instructor uses Japanese because they misunderstand their students' proficiency level of English. In such a case, he thinks that some students may lose face as they can speak more English in the classroom. While George thinks that use of the student L1 is not necessarily a negative practice when students need support for linguistic and affective reasons, he is interested in understanding his students' perceptions about his use of their L1 in his classrooms.

Summary

In line with other research findings (see Sert, 2005; Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Forman, 2016; Harwood, 2022) affective reasons and factors seem to influence George's use of codeswitching. As with the findings of Edstrom (2006), George also feels a moral obligation to his students, and that the use of the student L1 can help to create a comfortable classroom environment for students. Furthermore, Georges shifts from the L2 to L1 seems to work as a tool for classroom management in his EFL classroom when he needs to gain students' attention immediately and to convey information efficiently.

The observation data and George's interpretation of his language use in the interviews illustrate that he realizes his aim of creating a comfortable classroom atmosphere by making use of the student L1 based on his sociopragmatic knowledge in Japanese and Japanese EFL classroom contexts. As Tsui (2003) notes, experienced teachers are able to manage problems as they respond to events and issues based on their experience and provide alternatives in order to facilitate their teaching. Although instructors are often expected to plan how effectively the student L1 is used and to be able to articulate their purposes for its use, it can be difficult to "manipulate the teachers' language choices" (Levine, 2011, p. 145) because their use of the L1 is often embedded in their automated routines in the classroom (Sert, 2005). As discussed above, George's use of the student L1 is more than simply a literal translation to support students' limited proficiency in the L2. His L1 use conveys social, cultural, and pragmatic meanings that underlie the words.

Conclusion

Instructors use the student L1 for many reasons. L1 use can carry innumerable meanings and bring unanticipated effects to the classroom (Harwood, 2022) although such findings are very difficult to quantify. This study has shed some light on L2 instructors' L1 use from their perspectives especially on sociopragmatic aspects.

In EFL contexts such as Japan, the use of the student L1 in language classroom settings is often understood as a negative practice, and avoidance or minimization of the L1 tends to be praised. However, each classroom is a social space where teachers interact with students as they would with people in their real life. This study shows that the sociocultural context of the classroom can impact on the instructor's language choice in the classroom. George's language use is a reflection of the social norms that he follows and sociopragmatics that he understands beyond the language classroom setting.

The findings in this paper are highly context-dependent analyzed from a single case, nonetheless, the current study indeed shows that teachers' language choice is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon. More studies that explore teachers' perspectives of the student L1 use and codeswitching in EFL classrooms will help clarify our understanding of underlying meaning and rationale about their L1 use. That will lay to rest the negative notion about L1 use as a hinderance to language learning that remains in EFL contexts such as Japan.

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Reforming English Curriculum for Students With a Low Level of English Proficiency

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
In Japan, the government has emphasized the importance of English skills and of working on various improvement measures for the English curriculum. Even with such emphasis, Japanese proficiency scores are not showing the desired results. According to Education First (EF), the Swiss international education company, Japan's English proficiency Index ranking has been dropping since they started the survey in 2011 and the most recent results show that Japan ranks 78th among 112 non-English speaking countries. At the tertiary level, the decline in students' English proficiency, especially for universities with low academic standards, have been of great concern. As a result, some universities provide remedial education for under-prepared students. As one such university, the studied university has seen an increased number of students whose placement test marks low. To provide appropriate English instruction, a needs analysis of recent students is urgent. This study examines the results of the placement test, vocabulary size, final scores, the admission styles, and GPA of 61 first-year students. The analysis of this study involves numerical and correlation approaches. High correlations are found between two finals as well as between finals and GPA. Moreover, strong to moderate correlations are found among students' placement test scores, vocabulary sizes, final scores. At the same time, the study concerns students' low level of vocabulary size, which is compared to the standards found by previous studies. The results raise various challenges for adapting the situation, finding innovative instructions for students.

Keywords: English Proficiency, Remedial Education, Universities

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Introduction

According to the demographic data, Japan's 18-year-old population has been decreasing. After peaking at 2.05 million in 1992, the number of 18-year-olds has nearly halved and is predicted to be less than 1 million in 2031. This decrease negatively impacts universities, suffering from a shortage of applicants. It is reported that this is a severe condition that has hit universities hard, especially small and regional private ones; they find it challenging to attract students. As countermeasures, they must develop alternative admission routes to ensure their enrollment rate.

At the same time, the percentage of students proceeding to university has steadily increased. According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) the rate has reached its highest record in 2022 at 60.4%. With these situations overlapping, another serious issue facing universities is the academic decline of students, especially in the private sector. Many universities are now dealing with underprepared students. Universities must identify their problems and provide the necessary support through remedial education before they can continue their university education.

Literature review

The literature review covers the following topics:

- Definition of remedial education
- Types of remedial education
- Research on remedial education
    - English proficiency of university students
    - Approaches
    - Students' motivation and attitudes

Definition of remedial education

Remedial education, sometimes called developmental education, describes any program, course, or activity designed for students with basic deficiencies in skills necessary to start coursework at institutions. However, such definitions vary depending on institutions and contexts. The Japan Association of Developmental Education (JADE) defined and recognized remedial education at the plenary session in August 2019 as follows. 1. Remedial education means support for learning and acquiring skills and knowledge. 2. Individualized or coordinated support activities, including subjects, programs, and services in college work, which institutions offer as an essential basis for all students and prospective students at the tertiary level.

Types of remedial education at Japan universities

Since the definitions of remedial education vary, the remedial education programs vary at different institutions. Yamamoto argues there are four patterns of remedial education in Japan (2001). These are: 1) Additional courses provided by universities to review high school subjects targeting underprepared students; 2) Introductory courses aimed at freshmen which mainly prepare them for regular classes; 3) Preparatory courses to develop skills and knowledge for specialized or professional education; 4) Pre-admission education targeting prospective students, doing reports, or attending intensive programs. According to Hoyashita

et al. (2011), 70% universities offer the first type. These supplemental courses and variations are broadly divided into the following categories:

1) Intensive classes, implemented during breaks, or outside of regular classes.
2) Classes for underprepared students determined through proficiency level tests.
3) Classes for students who failed regular courses.
4) Formation of classes based on proficiency levels.

These classes vary in terms of required or non-required, credit or non-credit courses.

As can be seen, utilization of remedial education shows a large variety.

Research on remedial education

English proficiency and university students

It has been claimed that university students' English proficiency levels are declining. Nakajyo and Nishigaki (2007) measured students' English proficiency levels through the Eiken Foundation of Japan's tests. Among 50 participants, the results show that 8.7 % achieved high school graduation level, 47.8% achieved junior high school graduation level, and the rest performed below junior high school graduation level. According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) study in 2021, 46.1% of third-year seniors among 3306 high school senior students meet the government goal of possessing Grade Pre-2-level Eiken certification or above. Ishihara, K. et al. (2010) compared English abilities between the 1994 and 2008 cohorts, using C-tests and speed writing tests. The study reports noteworthy declines in students' English abilities. When these students are classified into three groups, including lower, middle, and upper proficiency group, the difference between 1998 and 2008 become wider. Nakajo, K et al. (2012) examined English proficiency level, targeting 161 university students. The study reports a serious deficit of grammatical proficiency among participants. Sakai et al. (2005) also reported the tendency of weak grammatical knowledge in remedial course students.

Approaches

Many universities have introduced remedial courses (Otani university, Nishio, 2016; Fukuoka University, Hayashi, and Ono, 2013). Approaches for each university vary.

The following two studies examined materials to determine their applicability in remedial education: Kuniyoshi et al. (2005) developed e-learning material for English remedial education, targeting freshmen with limited basic English skills. This program intends to help students develop their fundamental English language abilities to actively participate in and enjoy English courses. The program is also helpful for instructors who provide guidance and explain materials. Shigyo et al. (2019) focused on using digital materials for young children and examined the possibility of using them as remedial education materials targeting underprepared university students. The program used is the "Let's Go" books 4 to 6 by Oxford University Press. The study describes that the program teaches students a language by converting text to speech while covering basic English at junior high school level. Moreover, there is a wide variety of topics that pique students' interests. The study concludes that these digital materials are suitable for remedial education.

Other studies implement strategies and exam their effectiveness. Kominato (2021) utilizes "word order" in grammar teaching for students with low English proficiency. The study focuses on 43 students; 65% did not understand word order during their junior high and high

school years. She also utilizes e-learning for extracurricular activities. In this e-learning, instead of word order, a "connect two sentences" method is used. The survey result shows that the word-order method promotes their understanding, which is easier to understand than connecting sentences methods. In other study, Kominato (2016) examined the impact of homework assignments on self-regulated learning, which consists of effortful regulation, monitoring and planning strategies, and self-efficacy in education. The study, involving 33 first-year students in a remedial course, found that regular homework completion enhances self-regulation and self-efficacy.

Chujo and Nishigaki (2007) examine the effectiveness of a CALL program geared to EIKEN-type questions. The study involved 34 beginner-level freshmen who used CALL exercises and quizzes tailored to their proficiency level. Students participate in the program at their own pace with feedback from instructors. The study found an improvement in pre- and post-tests while the program was more favorably perceived by the more proficient participants in the group. Chujo et al. (2013) examined the application of the Data-Driven Learning approach, which uses authentic materials, promotes learner-centeredness through exploratory tasks, and use corpus tools such as concordances. Since this DDL approach have been used for intermediate or advanced level, the author modified materials using suitable level of corpora. Moreover, the complexity of the materials is modified to be more straightforward, easy, and intuitive. The study uses the AntPConc software and reports significant improvement in grammatical knowledge for beginner-level EFL university students. It is also reported students' positive perceptions of the material.

Regarding the contents of such courses, Makino and Hirano (2014) reported 40% of grammar instruction, followed by vocabulary instruction (28%) in their studies at 25 universities. The following studies implemented some strategies in their remedial courses and reported students' perceptions or attitudes.

Some other studies feature involvement of e-learning in the remedial education. Ono and Sakai (2005) examined the effectiveness of e-learning in remedial education, implemented at three universities. Significant improvement was observed when students' study hours and a supportive environment were secured. It suggests good monitoring systems enhance students' study habits. Hayashi and Ono (2013) report their study on their two-week remedial English intervention, which consists of one-week textbook learning and one-week e-learning. The improvement in pre-and post-diagnosis tests was observed in 10 participants, while the remaining two did not show improvement. The study suggests the importance of repeated practice, revision, and teacher support in sustainable and autonomous learning.

Students' motivation and attitudes

Gardner and Smythe (1975) argue that motivation is the major affective factor influencing L2 achievement. Dörnyei (2005) also claims that motivation is critical in second language acquisition; reporting high motivation may compensate for deficiencies in both one's language aptitudes and learning conditions.

Some studies focus on motivation among Japanese students. Ogane and Sakamoto (1997) performed a correlational study in which students' motivation and English proficiency were measured by the Certificate in English Language Teaching (CELT) test. The study found strong correlations between the two.

The subsequent studies focused on motivation among remedial students. Kiyota, Y.

(2009)focused on 200 freshmen at a remedial level and their cause. Their motivation is measured by a questionnaire developed by Hiromori (2005), and their English proficiency level is measured through the Society for Testing English Proficiency (STEP). The study classified students into three groups based on their attainment level and found that the lowest level group shows low motivation and serious difficulties in acquiring the necessary skills. Nakai (2008) examined learners' attitudes toward a remedial course through a survey containing 17 questionnaires administered to 99 freshmen. The study found students with a positive attitude toward learning specific elements tend to have an affirmative attitude toward other specific elements. In contrast, students with negative attitude toward learning specific elements tend to have negative attitudes toward other specific elements. The study investigates effective strategies which motivate students in remedial courses. These strategies include introducing listening and vocabulary learning, which will promote students' satisfaction with studying well. In turn, it improves their progress which may induce motivation. Moreover, a grammar review should be included when reading materials are introduced in class. Then students feel they can read and understand, which may enhance their interests. Makino (2017) studied 36 second-year students at the lowest level based on TOEIC scores. All of them were anxious and showed negative attitudes toward English. Makino planned and introduced several strategies based on the questionnaires administered in their first year to determine needs analysis. The survey was administered after the course and the students' self-efficacy and positive attitudes were significantly improved.

Harvard and Minami introduced their basic English course for students who scored the lowest in GTEC, namely 250th. The pre-and post-tests were administered, including 35 vocabulary, grammar, and reading multiple-type questions. The results showed that their grades improved significantly. Furthermore, according to questionnaires, most students felt that the class level was appropriate, as they were optimistic about reviewing basic grammar. Harvard and Minami suggest that their feeling of "I can do it" should be connected to their intrinsic motivation. Yamaoka (2014) used authentic materials, such as songs, movies, comics, and emails, as they all communicate content between actual senders and actual receivers. The study involved 83 medical students in remedial English classes and found that such authentic materials promote learners' autonomy and motivation. Yamamoto (2009) focuses on scaffolding activities for students in remedial English classes. Yamamoto argues the importance of creating a supportive environment where teachers recognize students' needs, facilitating appropriate scaffolding activities. The study found that students gradually acquire grammar and listening skills and make sentences. Students feel comfortable communicating in supportive environments. Yamamoto points out the critical role of the instructor in promoting students' intrinsic motivation.

Discussion (significance of the results of work)

MEXT has emphasized the importance of English education and has implemented major reforms in its guidelines for the last three decades to cultivate students' practical English skills. However, so far, such attempts have failed to achieve the goals set by MEXT. To make matters worse, some pointed out that measures for achieving such educational goals weakened students' knowledge of grammar, reading, and writing skills. As stated above, mainly due to a shortage of applicants, private universities continue accepting many underprepared students in English. In such a situation, a better understanding is necessary for underprepared students, including their proficiency levels, background, and difficulties.

The studied university has been using English placement tests since 2007 to identify students with low English proficiency and create special support classes for them. The year 2022 hit a record low on the average score in which an increased number of students with low English proficiency were observed. It is essential to continue needs analysis of the population's responses to identify problems and issues; design modified approaches to provide appropriate support, and identify early failures among the new cohort.

The study

Aims

This is a pilot study, performing need analysis on underprepared students. It aims to examine students' characteristics through various measurements.

Based on information obtained through this study, support needed for these students will be sought. This study aims to implement a well-planned support system for these underprepared students.

Methods

The following data collection and analysis methods are used to achieve the above purposes.

For data, the following tests are used.

Placement test scores: This is our original test. The test consists of 35 questions, including listening, word scrambles, grammar, and reading comprehension. This study uses records of the past 18 years of placement tests and the latest records involving the target populations' scores.

Vocabulary Size Test: Students' vocabulary size is measured by the Vocabulary Size Test for Japanese students developed by Hamada et al. (2021), administered at the beginning of the school year.

Final examination scores: There are spring and fall semesters' final examination scores.

Admission styles: Individual admission styles are found through students' records.

GPA: Students' GPA end-of-year scores are collected.

For the analysis, IBM's SPSS software is used for numerical and correlational analysis.

Participants

Participants are 61 first-year students, which include special class students. Their majors are physical therapy, occupational therapy, and human communications.

English instructions

English is a mandatory course for first- and second-year students. It uses the content-based ESP approach. Originally developed ESP textbooks targeting rehabilitation majors are used.

First-year students take the placement test, and those with the lowest scores will be assigned to the special class. The classes consist of mixed majors: physical therapy, occupational therapy, and human communications. In the second year, classes are divided into majors, and more major specific textbooks are used.

The textbook for first-year students has five units featured as self-introduction, introducing schools and majors, describing occupations, body, muscles, blood, health problems, and medical histories.

The following is a summary of the lesson format:

1. Study goals are stated at the beginning of each lesson to ensure students know the unit's goals.
2. Vocabulary: Vocabulary lists are presented as quizzes; students must match English and Japanese words. Students practice pronunciation.
3. Expressions in topic-related conversations are listed. Students practice these expressions orally.
4. Grammar rules: Grammar rules are explained using example sentences during reading.
5. Listening: Scripts, listening comprehension quizzes such as [true/false quizzes], and [open-ended answer] questions are prepared.
6. Other activities include labeling (in which students label welfare devices, muscles, and body parts), summarizing, fieldwork, such as research activities for muscles, blood cells, and their functions, role plays, and presentations.

Besides such activities, the following feature in the English instructions.

There are quizzes for each unit, five to seven quizzes per semester, and final examinations at the end of the semester. For these quizzes and final examinations, study guides are prepared. Make-up tests are also implemented for those failing final exams or missing quizzes.

In class, PowerPoint presentations are frequently used for visual support (written forms of language). Meanwhile, an originally developed online self-study site is prepared where students practice vocabulary exercises. Teachers can monitor students' website logs and their scores for quizzes.

Grading

For students' grading, all classes including the special class, use the same grading system and standards. Their grades consist of quiz results, presentation, and final examinations.

Support for special class students

Although the grading system and standards are similar for all students, there are extra support methods for the special class. Study guides are provided to all students, but extra time with step-by-step explanation is provided for the review, and all answers are provided before tests. Extra time is provided for the quiz period. L2 is more often used in the class. Moreover, grammar is explained slowly, simplifying and providing more example sentences and exercises. Another feature of this class is the extensive use of PowerPoint presentations. Since these students do poorly with listening or spelling, written forms of English are

necessary. In addition, student translations are provided for all reading material. Besides such instructions, students may have individual consulting or support upon request.

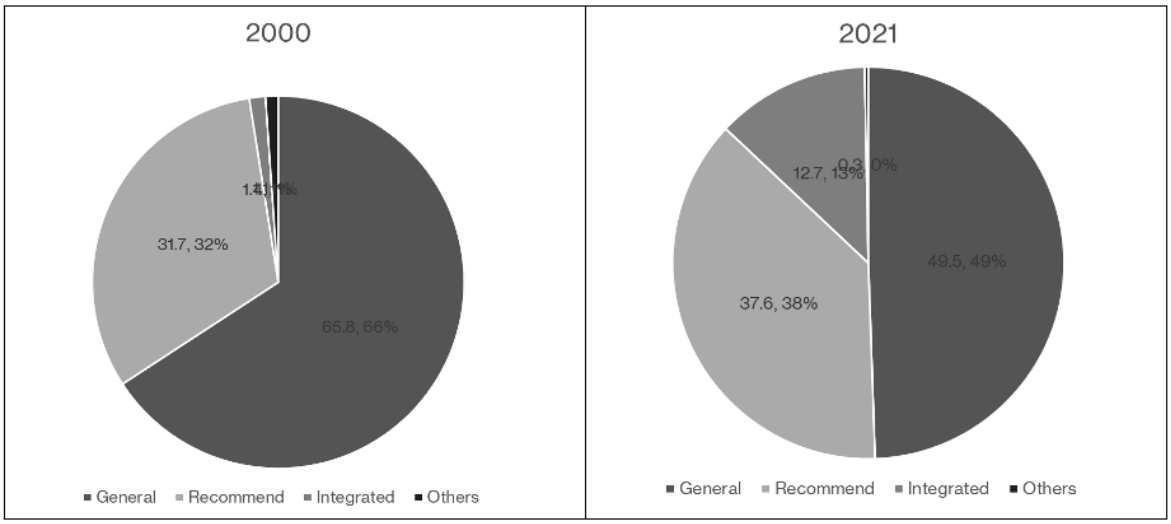
Findings

Admission style

There are various types of admission track in Japanese universities. The General Examination or National Common Examination measures students' academic performance through subject tests. In addition, there is the recommendation-based integrated selection system (formerly the AO) and the designated school system. The integrated selection system involves the process of self-recommendation wherein students present their motivations and strengths in their applications. The designated school system is based on the contractual agreement between high schools and universities to accept students without testing. The purpose of these admissions is to understand students' interests and unique abilities without them undergoing subject tests. Instead, interviews, presentations, group discussions, and written essays are assigned to students. It has been observed that the ratio for these types of admissions is transitioning.

The following two charts in Figure 1 indicate the ratio of students admitted through different admission styles in the years 2000 and 2021.

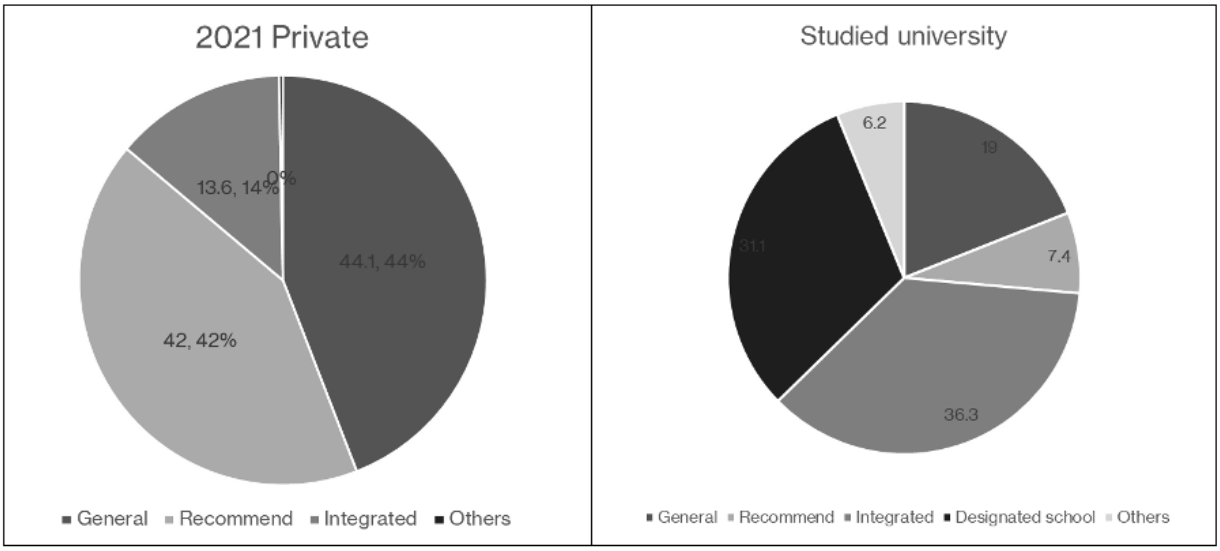
Figure 1: *Ratio of Admission styles in 2000 and 2021*



As shown in Figure 1, the ratio of students who entered universities through general admission in 2000 was 65.8%; subsequently, this ratio dropped to 49.5% in 2021. Presently, the number of students admitted via the integrated selection (recommendation) system is growing and now they total over 50%. As such, this means that new students with no experience of a written subject test have increased.

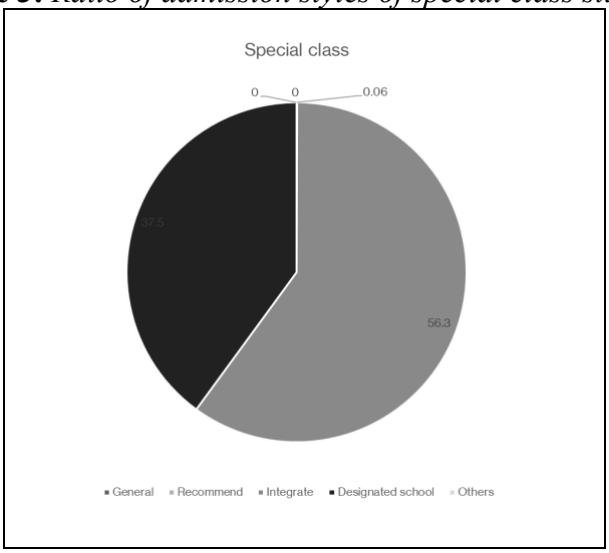
Figure 2 shows the types of admissions of all private universities in Japan as well as the situation of the studied university. The chart on the left, which indicates private universities in Japan, shows that about 44% of the students have entered their university through a general examination. By contrast, the ratio of students who have entered university through general admission at the studied university is only 19%. The remaining applicants have entered university through avenues which do not require subject tests.

Figure 2: *Ratio of admission styles of the studied university*



Next, Figure 3 shows the admission type of the special class.

Figure 3: *Ratio of admission styles of special class students*



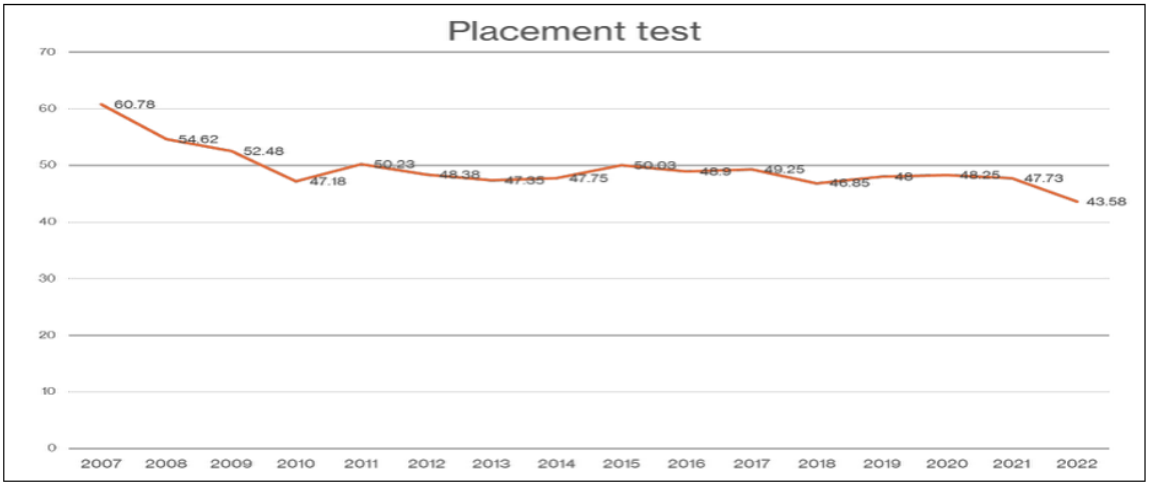
For this special class, there are no students who entered their university through general admissions. All of them have been admitted by either the integrated selection or the designated school system.

Placement scores

The university conducts an English placement test before classes start. The placement test is developed, implemented, and evaluated by the faculties responsible for English classes. Accordingly, based on the test scores, the English course coordinators decide the "cut-off line" to form a special class consisting of students with the lowest scores.

The following graph (Figure 4) shows the results of a placement test over a period of 15 years.

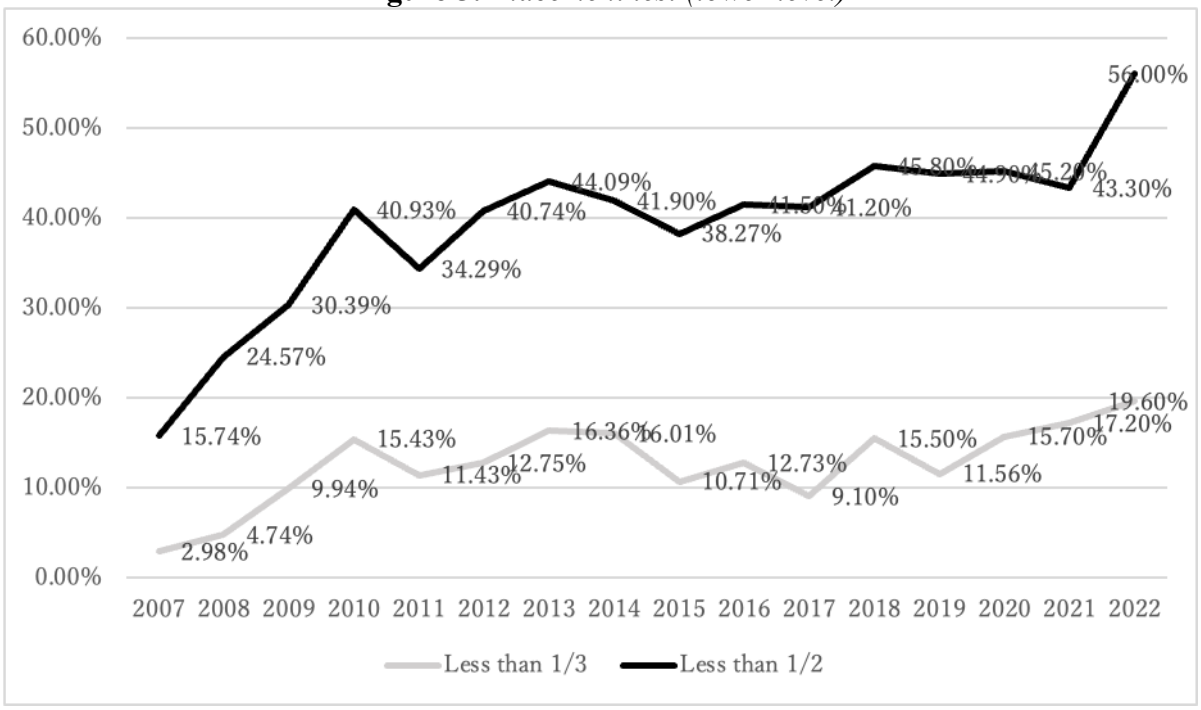
Figure 4: *Placement test scores*



As shown, when the data was collected for the first time, the average was 60.78; then, it decreased and the record lowest score of 43.58 was established in 2022.

The next graph (Figure 5) shows the percentage of students whose scores were less than one-third of the total score as well as those which were less than half the total score.

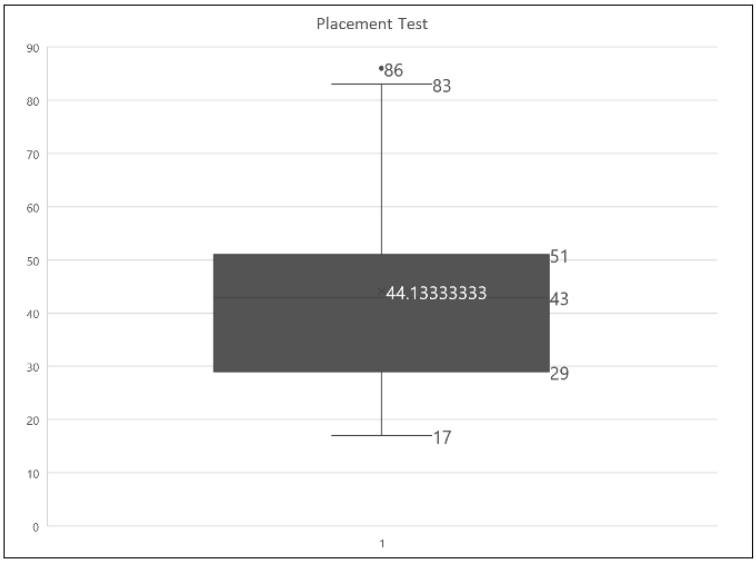
Figure 5: *Placement test (lower level)*



As indicated by figure 5, the percentage of students with lower scores has dramatically increased over the past 15 years. In 2007, the percentage of students who did not score 50% on the test was only 15.74%. Presently, 56% of them cannot obtain 50% and 19.6% cannot even score 33%.

The next box plot (Figure 6) presents the placement test scores for 2022.

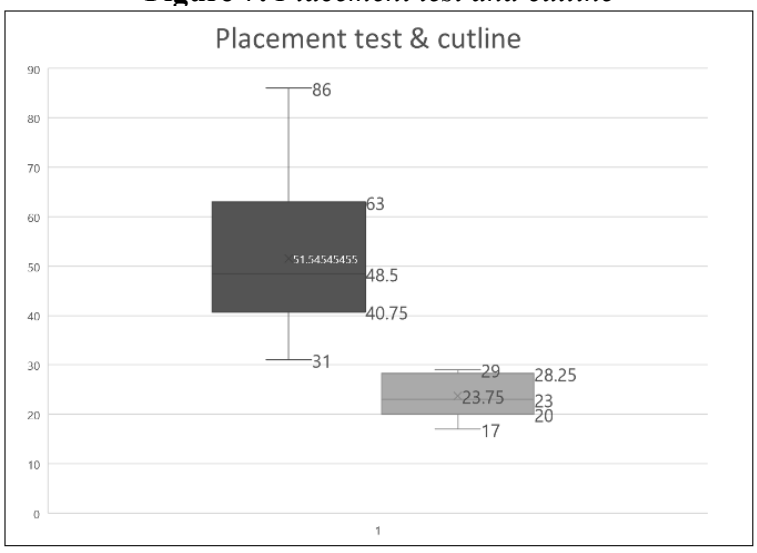
Figure 6: *Placement test (2022 fiscal year)*



The average score is 44.13 with the highest being 86 and the lowest being 17. The interquartile range is between 29 and 51.

Figure 7 shows the comparison of the placement test score of the regular class and the special class.

Figure 7: *Placement test and cutline*



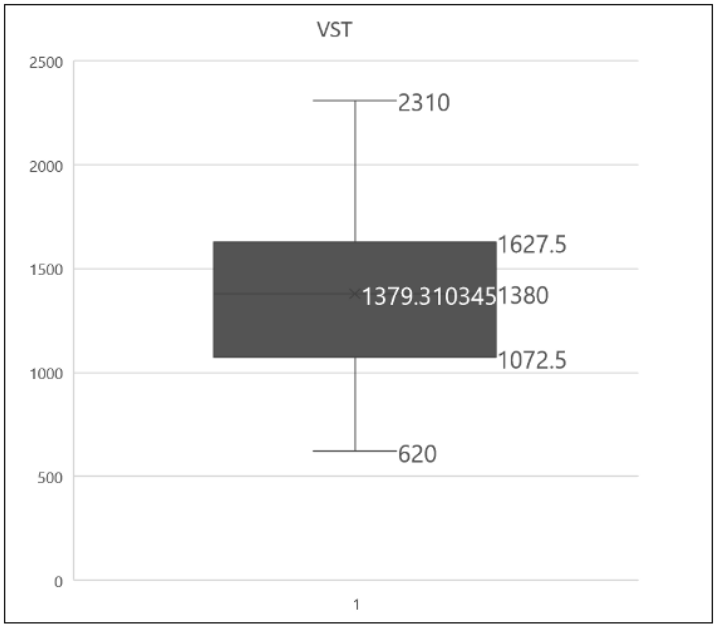
The cut-off line is at 30; notably, those whose scores were less than 30 are located in the special class. As shown, the regular class (right) had a wider range of scores compared to the special class.

Vocabulary size

Various studies have measured the vocabulary size of Japanese students. Although the target populations and measurement tools are varied, the average score of the VST for Japanese university students is between 2,370, which is the lowest, to 4,130, which is the highest.

The following box plot (Figure 8) shows the score of the first-year students in this study.

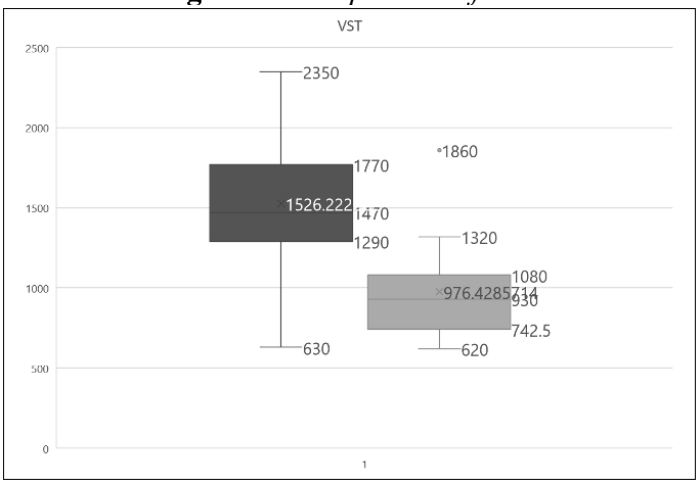
Figure 8: *Vocabulary Size*



The interquartile range, which indicates the middle 50%, is from 1,072.5 to 1,627.5, thereby indicating an average score of 1,379. In general, it is clear they have lower scores than average.

Next, Figure 9 presents the comparison of vocabulary size between the regular class (left) and the special class (right).

Figure 9: *Comparison of VST*

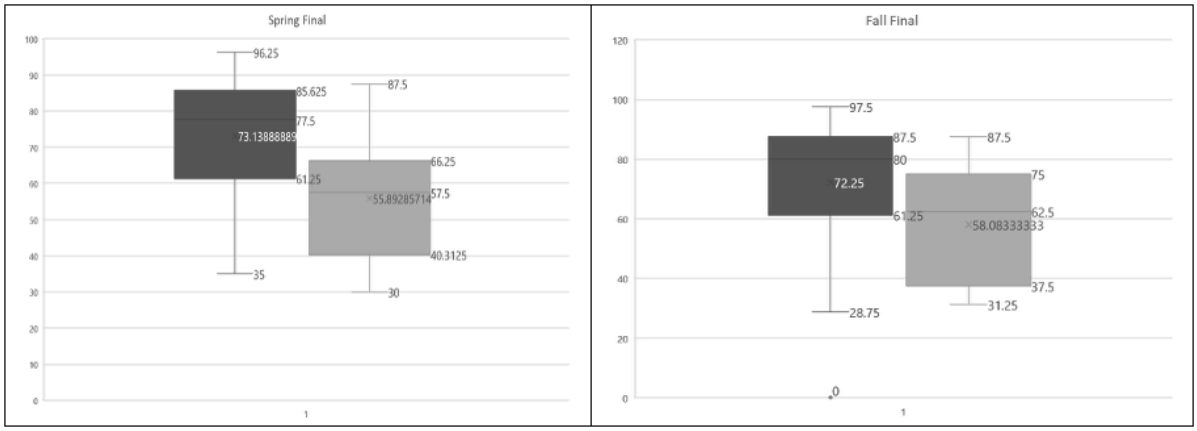


The average score of the regular class is 1,526 whereas that of the special class is 976.

Final test scores

The next two box plots (Figure 10) show the results of the two final tests which were conducted in the spring and fall.

Figure 10: *Final examination score*

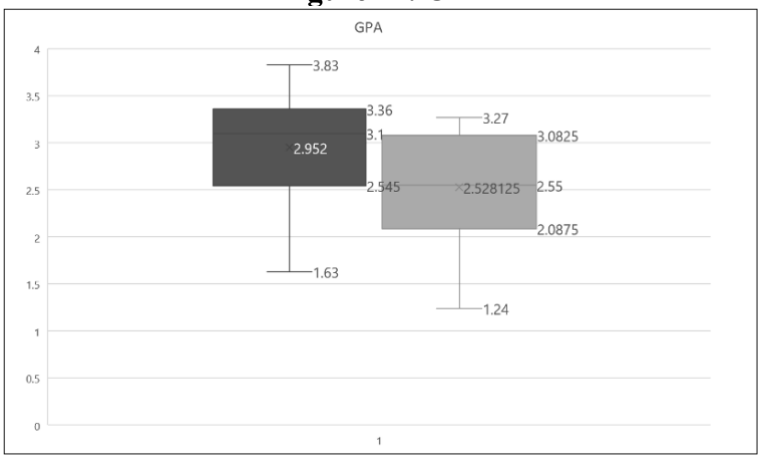


For the spring finals, the average of the regular class (left) is 73, while it is 55 or 56 for the special class (right). For the fall finals, the average of the regular class is 72, while it is 58 for the special class. The interquartile range of the special class in fall finals is the widest. It should be noted that the passing grade is 60 and above. Therefore, the average of scores for the special class in both spring and fall are the below the passing score.

Grade Point Average (GPA)

Figure 11 shows the students' GPAs collected at the end of their first year.

Figure 11: *GPA*



The average of the regular class is 2.95 whereas that of the special class is 2.53.

It should be noted that the described comparisons (Figure 7, 9, 10, and 11) were found to have significant differences via a t-test.

Correlational analysis

A correlational analysis among variables was performed and the results are shown below.

Table 1:*The results of correlational analysis*

		VST	Spring	Fall	PT	GPA
VST	Pearson's correlation	1	.477**	.367**	.531**	.457**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.004	.000	.000
	N	59	58	59	58	59
Spring	Pearson's correlation	.477**	1	.608**	.565**	.694**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	58	59	59	58	59
Fall	Pearson's correlation	.367**	.608**	1	.449**	.598**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	.000		.000	.000
	N	59	59	61	60	61
PT	Pearson's correlation	.531**	.565**	.449**	1	.429**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.001
	N	58	58	60	60	60
GPA	Pearson's correlation	.457**	.694**	.598**	.429**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001	
	N	59	59	61	60	61

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) 1% P<.001

As shown in Table 1, a moderate to strong correlation has been found among various measures. There is a strong correlation between the spring and fall finals, which is .608, as well as between each final and a GPA of .694 for spring and .598 in fall. Moderate correlations with a placement test were found in each final, VST, and GPA.

Summary of findings

The vocabulary size of the sample was found to be much lower than the national average.

Correlational analysis established moderate to strong correlation among the variables; strong correlations were evident between the spring and fall final scores. These final scores were also strongly correlated with students' GPAs. Placement test scores were also revealed to be correlated with vocabulary size, both finals, and GPA.

The special class consisted of students who entered the university only through integrated selection or designated school admission and none took subject tests for admissions.

Moreover, the averages of final tests are below 60, which is a "fail" grade. They also have extremely small vocabulary size (average 976) as well as lower GPA (average 2.53), significantly lower than those of regular classes. Results of GPA score suggest that the students in the special class have weaknesses not only in English but also other subject areas.

Conclusion, implications, and limitations of the study

It is clear that students in the special class need more support. Some possible strategies for providing necessary support are outlined below.

One is to enhance the pre-admission education. Students in the special class are admitted by integrated system or designated schools, and they gain admission by December. At this point, they are likely to stop studying whereas other high school students usually study until

February to March. Such condition may create disparity between the two groups in terms of academic performance as well as study habits. Pre-admission education, for example assigning workbooks or even tests, could help them to continue their studies.

Second, since these students' vocabulary size is extremely small, emphasis may be placed on vocabulary learning. Use of the online self-learning site should be considered. Currently participation on this site is voluntary, and only a limited number of students use it. Having students log in at least once a week may be helpful for improving their vocabulary size as well as nurturing good study habits. Additionally, introducing online sites for games, music, video sharing websites such as YouTube, or movies could help exposure to English materials and increase students' vocabulary size.

Third, the use of a study guide should be re-considered. Although study guides are designed to prepare for quizzes and finals, encouraging students to make good use of such guides is necessary. It is important students recognize the importance of review. For these students, opportunities for repetition, such as providing the same sheet twice, can be implemented.

Another possibility is related to students' autonomy, self-regulation, and sense of responsibility for their own learning. Creating a semester study log in which students set their goals, and record their learning or study hours outside the class may improve such aspects.

In addition to the above strategy, this study draws another implication. Moderate to strong correlations were determined among various measures. Therefore, focus on the placement test score could be considered. The placement test score can predict students' later academic performance or can identify at-risk students. Careful examination of the placement test scores and utilizing such information could be necessary.

This study has some limitations. First, the study involves a limited number of subjects (N=66). Therefore, the study may not be particularly generalizable. Another concern relates to the study method. The study only focuses on scores of various measurements. However, to achieve the triangulation of the study, students' perspectives should be included. Analysis of quiz or test results may also support the triangulation.

Since population or situations at the tertiary education level continue to change, on-going needs analysis with comprehensive approaches is necessary. There is an urgent need for well-planned curriculum with specific goals, plans, and activities and goals among stakeholders are necessary. The ultimate goal is to provide supportive learning environment in which students become active learners, being motivated and focused without anxiety.

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Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education Implementation: A Basis for Policy on Culture Preservation

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The study aimed at determining the elementary school teachers' socio-demographic attributes in terms of their sex, age, civil status, and language spoken at home. It likewise determined the perception of the respondents on the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education. The subjects of the study came from the different elementary schools who are teaching under the mother tongue-based multilingual education curriculums. It highlighted the teachers struggles and experiences on the implementation of the mother tongued based multi-lingual education and more importantly as to their perceptions whether such curriculum of instructions should further be implemented adding on their recommendations to its continuance to help in the preservation of culture and traditions emanating from language used. The respondents believed on the following: that the use of mother tongue will make a better communication between pupils and teachers; mother tongue-based education will develop the writing system of the children; mother tongue-based education will be a big help in developing curriculum and instructional materials; the teacher utilizes role play in the generalization of lesson using mother tongue; and children who use their mother tongue will have easier way for them to learn a second, third and fourth language. Thus, the respondents strongly believed that MTBMLE should continue its implementation for it will guarantee the preservation of our culture.

Keywords: Mother Tongue-Based Education, Culture, Language, Preservation

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INTRODUCTION

Mother tongue education refers to any form of schooling that makes use of the language or languages that children are most familiar with. This is usually the language that children speak at home with their family. The 'mother tongue' does not have to be the language spoken by the mother. Children can and often speak more than one or even two languages at home. For example, they may speak one language with their mother, another with their father and a third with their grandparents.

When children are offered opportunities to learn in their mother tongue, they are more likely to enroll and succeed in school, and their parents are more likely to communicate with teachers and participate in their children's learning (UNESCO, 2007).[1]

Mother Tongue-Based project is launched in the Philippines in S.Y. 1999-2000 as mandated by DECS Memo no. 144s. 1999. The DepEd said, the use of Mother Tongue from pre-school to grade three is called bridge program because the Mother Tongue or first language of the learner is being used as a bridge to learn a second or third language, like Filipino or English.[2]

Order no. 74 is based explicitly on assumptions about the "superiority" of the use of mother tongues in education based on successful projects and empirical research who which include the Lingua Franca Project of DepEd that begun in 1999, an immediate precursor of MLE; the longitudinal study of the Lubuangan Experiment (Walter, et.al, 2008)[3] which showed that the educational performance of Primary Grades 1-3 pupils who were taught Mathematics in the local language outperformed those taught in English; and the DepEd study which affirmed international studies showing pupils who were taught Mathematics in their mother tongues performed relatively well in International test.

Many developing countries are characterized by individual as well as societal multilingualism, allow a single foreign language to dominate the education sector. Instruction through a language that learners do not speak has been called "submersion" because it is analogous to holding learners under water without teaching them how to swim. Compounded by chronic difficulties such as low levels teacher education, poorly designed, inappropriate curricula and lack of adequate school facilities, submersion makes both learning and teaching extremely difficult, particularly when the language of instruction is also foreign to the teacher. Mother tongue-based bilingual programs use the learner's first language, known as the L1, to teach beginning reading and writing skills along with academic content (Carole Benson, 2004).[4]

The choice of the language is a recurrent challenge in the development of quality education speakers of mother tongue, which are not the same as the national language, are often at a considerable disadvantage in the educational system (UNESCO, 2007).[5] By the time children begin schooling, they gain confidence in their ability to communicate meaningfully in their mother tongue. They have built a foundation of knowledge and experience through observing and interacting with peers and adults in their community. The language, knowledge and experience that children bring to school form an important foundation for their learning in the classroom.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Secretary Andrew B. Gonzalez.[6] of Department of Education, the Regional Lingua Franca (RLF) Pilot Project was launched in 1999-2001. It began with 16 regions, but covered only 32 schools, with 16 belonging to the experimental class and another 16 to the control class. The project utilized one of the largest LinguaFranca – Tagalog, Cebuano and Ilocano – as media of instruction in grades 1 and 2. The result of the project of the first implementation for S.Y. 1999-2000 the experimental group obtained numerically higher scores than the control groups in all learning areas – Mathematics, Science, Wika at Pagbasa and Sibika. For the second year of implementation, it shows that for the experimental classes in both grades performing better in all subject areas, except English where the Grade 2 pupils in the control classes were exposed to English since Grade 1. Based on the results, Gonzales[7] pointed out that languages grow and change in response to changes in the physical, social, political, spiritual and economic environments in which they are used. As a language is used for instruction, for example, it intrinsically evolves to adapt to the demands of its users. New objects and concepts become part of the meanings that people used to communicate. Languages are able to do this through the process of barrowing lexical items or idiomatic expressions or coining words of expressions. This is the characteristic of human language.

Cummins (2000),[8] an educational researcher and writer suggests: 1) Children with a solid foundation in their mother tongue develop stronger literacy abilities in the school language; 2) The level of development of children's mother tongue is a strong predictor of their second language development; 3) Children's knowledge and skills transfer across languages from the mother tongue to the school language. A good bridge allows learning of a new language before learning in a new language. Reading and writing skills only have to be learned once and these skills, as well as understanding concepts, can be transferred from one language to another (second language acquisition). Second language learning is more successful with a good L1 foundation. Learning a language should come before learning through a language.

The group study of Dekker, et. al (2012),[9] explained that MTB-MLE is a structured program of language learning and cognitive development providing a strong educational foundation in the first language, with successful bridging to one or more additional language, and enabling the use of both/all languages for life-long learning. The purpose of a multilingual educational program is to develop appropriate cognitive and reasoning skills enabling children to operate equally in their community language, the national language and English.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The descriptive-survey method of research was used in this study. According to Creswell, (2002),[10] a Descriptive-survey Research is a quantitative research with a process of collecting, analyzing, interpreting, and writing the results of a study, while qualitative research is the approach to data collection, analysis, and report writing differing from the traditional, quantitative approaches.

Subjects and Sampling Procedure

The subjects of this study focused on the groups of teachers belonging to District I of Labrador, Pangasinan, Philippines. There are eleven (11) schools in the said District I comprising of one hundred and twenty- one (121) teachers. The respondents of the study should meet the following criteria or characteristics: a) They came from the schools

belonging to District I of Labrador, Pangasinan; b) they are teaching in the elementary for the S.Y. 2019-2020; c) They are willing to be a part of the study.

There is a large number of elementary school teachers in the province but only the respondents who have met the criteria will be involved in this case study. Thus, the purposive sampling techniques were utilized. According to Calderon (1993),[11] as cited in the study of Mendoza (2015),[12] purposive sampling is determining the target population, those to be involved in the study.

The respondents of this study were the One hundred and twenty-one (121) Elementary School Teachers of Labrador District of Pangasinan, A.Y. 2019-2020.

Data Collection Procedure

In order to undertake successfully this study, the researcher had sought prospective respondents through personal visits. Before the start of the actual interview, rapport is established with the subjects through scheduled visits hence, they were assured of the confidentiality of their responses by not mentioning their real names in the case study report.

Administration of the questionnaire is done in their residence and likewise all other data gathering procedures is conducted anytime they are available. Like, during weekends when they are free from their jobs or during their most convenient time. Follow-up interview and observation of the respondent's activities is taken into account to establish other data in order to clarify vague points and other statements which may not be clearly captured in the questionnaire. Taped interview is likewise used during the data gathering procedure.

Instrumentation and Validation

To obtain the primary sources of information, the interview schedule is used. In gathering the data, the researcher used the questionnaire-checklist as the main instrument. The said questionnaire is constructed by the researcher. The questionnaire consists of two parts: Part 1 includes profile of the respondents in terms of sex, and language spoken at home. Part II, includes 20 items that determined the perception on Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education. Observation is also done to supplement the data gathered which was later subjected to content validation with the help of some experts, prior to its finalization. The draft of the questionnaire was presented to the researcher's adviser, critique reader, and panel members for their comments, and suggestions. After the necessary revisions were made, the draft of questionnaire was tested to ten (10) citizens who are not actual respondents of the study in order to determine the areas that are confusing to the respondents. The questionnaire was presented to a pool of experts for content-validation purposes. Their wise recommendations were considered in finalizing the questionnaire.

In gathering the data, the researcher made use of the questionnaire checklist as the main instrument in gathering the needed data relative to her study. Informal interviews to some respondents to gather additional data was likewise conducted during the actual administration of the questionnaire.

Data-Gathering Procedure

Permission from the different offices was sought for by the researcher to conduct this study. Before the needed data were gathered a communication was prepared by the researcher, addressed to proper authority for their approval of administering the questionnaire.

The researcher personally administered the survey questionnaire to the respondents to identify their perception on Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education.

To enable the respondents to freely express their ideas on the items of the questionnaire, an assurance was made by the researcher that their responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality.

Sources of Data

To answer the problems stated in the research, the following were used as sources of data.

To answer problem number 1, a questionnaire-checklist on the respondent's socio-demographic profile in terms of their age, sex, civil status, highest educational qualification and language spoken at home were used to describe the socio demographic profiles of the respondents on the above stated information.

To answer number 2, a twenty (20) item each questionnaire checklist about the perceptions by the elementary school teachers were administered to the respondents.

To answer problem no. 3, as to whether the respondents believe that MTBMLE continue its implementation, a frequency count is used.

Moreover, the researcher kept in touched with the respondents through follow-up visits in order to clarify vague answers and uncertain information to guarantee the reliability of the study.

Statistical Treatment of Data

To answer problem no. 1, frequency counts and percentage were used. Below is a formula of percentage rate.

$$P = \frac{f}{N} \times 100$$

Where:

P=percentage rate
F=number of frequency
N=total member of respondents
100= constant factor

To answer problem no. 2 extent of Perception of Elementary School Teachers. Average weighted point will be used. The formula is stated below:

$$AWP=\frac{\Sigma(fiXWi)}{N}$$

Where:

AWP= average weighted point
f3 = Frequency of those who will answer Strongly Agree
f2 = Frequency of those who will answer Agree
f1 = Frequency of those who will answer Disagree
N = Number of case

AWP	Interpretation	(W)
2.50-3.0	Strongly Agree	3
1.50-2.49	Agree	2
1.0-1.49	Disagree	1

To answer problem no. 3, as to whether the respondents believe that MTBMLE continue its implementation, a frequency count is used. If there are more than half of the respondents who answered Yes, it means that they still favor the continuation of the implementation of MTBMLE

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents across the variable categories considered in this study.

Table 1. Profile of Elementary School Teachers
N=121

Variable	f	%
AGE BRACKET		
18 – 28 Years Old	5	4.13
29 – 39 Years Old	98	81.00
40 – 50 Years Old	15	12.40
51 – 61 Years Old	3	2.47
62 and above	-	-
TOTAL	**121**	**100**
Sex		
Male	15	12.40
Female	106	87.60
TOTAL	**121**	**100**
CIVIL STATUS		
Single	9	7.44
Married	111	91.73
Widow	1	0. 83
TOTAL	**121**	**100**
HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT		
Elementary undergraduate	__	__
Elementary graduate	__	__
High School level	__	__
High School graduate	__	__
College level	__	__
College Graduate	5	4.13
Masteral level	99	81.82
Masteral Graduate	10	8.26
Doctoral level	5	4.13
Doctoral Graduate	2	1.66
TOTAL	**121**	**100**
Language Spoken at Home		
Pangasinan & Filipino	58	47.93
Pangasinan	22	18.18
Filipino	18	14.87
Ilocano	15	12.40
Ilocano and Filipino	4	3.31
Ilocano, Pangasinan & Filipino	4	3.31
TOTAL	**121**	**100**

Age. Majority of the respondents belong to age bracket of 29-39 years with 98 members or 81.00%. Thus 15 respondents or 12.40% belong to the age bracket 40-50 years, 5 respondents or 4.13% belong to the age bracket 18-21, and only 3 respondents or 2.47% belongs to age bracket 51-61 years. It shows further that none of them belong to age bracket 62 and above. It simply indicates that majority of the teaching force belongs to the young generation.

Santrock (2002),[13] categorizes 30-60 years old as middle adulthood stage. The respondents in this study are mid adults (30-60 years). Middle adulthood as discussed by Papalia, et al. (2003),[14] has many markers, and they are not the same for everyone. The middle years are the central years of the adult life span, but their content varies greatly. Cognitively speaking, middle-aged people are in their prime. They have the ability to apply mental powers to novel problems that require little or no previous knowledge.

Sex. It can be seen on Table 1 that 106 or 87.60 percent of the Elementary School Teachers are females, while 15 or 12.40 percent are males. The result shows that females outnumbered the males. This may be attributed partly to the conservative notion that teaching is more for women while the men should be aggressively involved in the community leadership or other manly endeavors.

Civil Status. With respect to the civil status of the respondents, it shows that 9 or 3.37 % of them are single, 111 or 91.73 % are married, and 1 or 0.83% are widow. It shows further that most of them are married.

Highest Educational Attainment. The highest educational attainments of 99 or 81.82% of the respondents are Masteral level. 5 or 4.13% are College Graduate, 10 0r 8.26% of them is with Masteral Units, 5 of them or 4.13 % are have Doctoral Units, and 2 or 1.66% of them are Doctoral Units. This simply connotes that majority are pursuing to finish Education and to be able to obtain the highest possible educational qualifications.

The data shows that all of the respondents were able to finish college and were able to pursue higher level learning. This is indicative that finishing education guarantees a better opportunity for a person to find a greener pasture. As stated in NSCB (2008), “Education is the great equalizer that will give all Filipinos, rich or poor, the chance to uplift their lives and face a secure future. Nobody can deny the fact of education are the most important thing or factor for some people to bring change in their lives. It has been recognized as the most prevailing gearing-up the socio-economic development of our government or our nation.” This supports the results conducted that 47% of those surveyed says not having a diploma makes it hard to find a good job. Others say they would rather go back to school than to have a not stable job:
(http://www.careerconnectionsct.com/index.asp?Type=B_BASIC&SEC=%7BED52E35D-26DB-4822-B7C7-74AB857D3BB5%7D).[15]

Language Spoken at Home. It can be seen that 58 or 47.93% of the Elementary School Teachers speak Pangasinan and Filipino at home, 22 or 18.18% speak Pangasinan, 18 or 14.87% speak Filipino, 15 or 12.40% speak Ilocano, 4 or 3.31% speak Ilokano and Filipino and 4 or 3.31% speak Ilocano, Pangasinan and Filipino. The findings show that most of the respondents speak Pangasinan and Filipino at home because these are the language spoken by their parents since they were born. Pangasinan (*Pangasinense*) is an Austronesian language, and one of the eight major languages of the Philippines. It is the primary and predominant language of the entire province of Pangasinan and northern Tarlac, on the northern part of Luzon's central plains geographic region, most of whom belong to the Pangasinan ethnic group. Pangasinan is also spoken in southwestern La Union, as well as in the municipalities of Benguet, Nueva Vizcaya, Nueva Ecija, and Zambales that border Pangasinan. A few Aeta groups in Central Luzon's northern part also understand and even speak Pangasinan as well.[16]

Table 2: Perception of Elementary School Teachers on Mother Tongue-Based Education

PERCEPTION		3 (SA)	2 (A)	1 (D)	AWM	Interpretation
1	Mother tongue-based education from grades 1-3 helps but it's not sufficient to sustain the learning momentum	89	25	7	2.47	Agree
2	The use of mother tongue will make the teacher easily explain to the pupils about the topics	87	29	5	2.58	Strongly Agree
3	Mother tongue education makes it possible for the community to produce its own culturally relevant reading materials and teaching aids	100	17	4	2.59	Strongly Agree
4	Through the use of Mother Tongue Education, the teacher can more accurately assess what has been learned and identify and identify areas where students need further assistance	75	38	8	2.55	Strongly Agree
5	Children who use their mother tongue will be easier for them to learn a second, third and fourth language	90	24	7	2.69	Strongly Agree
6	Teaching all subjects except Filipino and English should be done using the mother tongue	5	35	81	1.37	Disagree
7	The use of mother tongue will make the pupils immediately construct and explain their world, articulate their thoughts and add new concepts to what they already know.	85	30	6	2.65	Strongly Agree
8	English and Filipino are languages foreign to most children and legislating it as medium of instruction will do more harm to an already ailing system of education.	15	45	61	1.61	Disagree
9	Shared reading using mother tongue will increase the levels of performance of pupils.	63	47	11	2.42	Agree
10	The use of mother tongue will increase the levels of performance of pupils	59	57	5	2.45	Agree
11	The use of mother tongue will make a better communication between pupils and student teachers.	99	18	4	2.75	Strongly Agree
12	The use of mother tongue is an innovative approach in learning	77	41	3	2.61	Strongly Agree

13	We should use our regional languages as official languages and make use of them as the language of instruction at least in grade school.	70	49	2	2.51	Strongly Agree
14	The use of mother tongue will make the teacher easily explain to the pupils about the topics.	80	34	7	2.60	Strongly Agree
15	Mother tongue Education will develop the writing system of the children	97	17	7	2.74	Strongly Agree
16	Mother Tongue Education will be a big help in developing curriculum and instructional materials.	96	17	8	2.72	Strongly Agree
17	The teacher utilizes role play in the generalization of lesson using mother tongue	96	17	8	2.72	Strongly Agree
18	Use simple activities and work cards to engage in reading using mother tongue to understand more by the pupils	89	21	11	2.64	Strongly Agree
19	Reading and writing should be first taught using mother tongue	79	21	21	2.47	Agree
20	Teachers who use mother tongue incorporate oral literature, local history, local arts, craft and music in the curriculum as well as the learners	70	31	20	2.42	Agree
	AWP				**2.47**	**Agree**

It can be gleaned in Table 2 the indicators under perception of Elementary School Teachers on Mother Tongue-Based Education were Agree as evidence by the Average weighted Point of 2.47. The five (5) indicators which got the highest point are the following: 1) The use of mother tongue will make a better communication between pupils and student teachers with 2.75; 2) Mother tongue Education will develop the writing system of the children with 2.74; 3) Mother Tongue Education will be a big help in developing curriculum and instructional materials with 2.72; 4) The teacher utilizes role play in the generalization of lesson using mother tongue with 2.72; and 5) Children who use their mother tongue will be easier for them to learn a second, third and fourth language with 2.69.

Children with solid foundation in their mother tongue develop stronger literacy abilities in school language. This was stated by Cummins (2000),[17] who is an educational researcher and writer. The level of development of children's mother tongue is a strong predictor of their second language development. Children's knowledge and skills transfer across languages from the mother tongue to the school language. A good bridge allows learning of a new language before learning in a new language. Reading and writing skills only have to be learned once and these skills, as well as understanding concepts, can be transferred from one language to another.

The findings of the recent student coincide with the study conducted by Walter (2016),[18] where he states that language is an integral feature of educational practice in the classroom.

Teachers communicate content and instructions via language. Learners listen and interact via language in the process of learning.

Table 3: Respondents who believe that MTBMLE continues its implementation N+121

Respondents who believe that MTBMLE continue its implementation	f	%
Yes	103	85.12
No	18	14.88
TOTAL	121	100

It can be gleaned in Table 3 that 103 or 85.12% of the Elementary School Teachers believed that MTBMLE should continue its implementation, while 18 or 14.88% does not believe that it should be continued. Based on interview, those who say no for its continuation says that he MTB MLE policy, therefore, can create a polarity of functions—that is, accelerate or delay learning based on the context by which it is understood and implemented. When used as a means to understand concepts, it can speed up comprehension. When it is taught as a subject in isolation, it can take the shape of a second language effecting a sense of linearity because learning is taught within the limits of time, human and material resources and activities. The current milieu finds the newly-integrated archaic words irrelevant not just because they are not used at home but because children find them too complex to use and phonetic structure too complex to pronounce and use for conversations. They hope that this study also captured realities confronting the students, teachers and parents who are directly affected by the policy one of which is a weak prospect of promoting MTBMLE successfully in all contexts. The results will serve as a solid empirical basis for the formulation of reform policies, innovations and programs that will create a path for all learners to experience a smooth flow of thinking and processing of information in any language, be it mother tongue or foreign language or both.

Metila, et. al. (2017),[19] in their study states that Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) policy in the Philippines involves implementation of local mother tongues as the language of instruction in Kindergarten to year three (K -3), with the official languages (Filipino and English) being introduced as the language of instruction after grade three.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. The respondents belong to the age bracket of 29-39 years, are predominantly female and mostly are married and have Masteral Units.
2. The respondents all “agree” that the use of mother tongue will make a better communication between pupils and student teachers, will develop the writing system of the children and it will be a big help in developing curriculum and instructional materials.

3. That majority of the respondents believed that MTBMLE should continue its implementation.

Recommendations

The findings and conclusions made the researchers suggest that:

1. The use of Mother Tongue in teaching learning process should be strongly implemented;
2. The parents and other stakeholders shall support the Mother Tongue-Based Curriculum;
3. Find more avenues or activities that will encourage children to speak their Mother-Tongue;
4. There must be formulation of reform policies, innovations and programs that will create a path for all learners to experience a smooth flow of the implementation of the MTBMLE;
5. More studies related to the Mother Tongue-Based Curriculum should be conducted to possibly improve its implementation.

Having a strong mother tongue foundation which is anchored on the implementation of the mother tongue based multilingual education, children will be able to learn the best skills needed, thus the language learned will allow them understand that the structure of language they know will be and can be used to learn more other languages.

The conduct of multi lingual education is becoming more advantageous for the child will be exposed to the mandates of globalization but not forgetting his roots and to be the agent to promote such language identity innately distinct and multi-faceted. It shall play a major role in the child's personal, social and cultural identity for they shall be the first who shall acquire grassroot knowledge of who they are, based on the mother tongue they speak, that they can use to make a stand in its promotion, propagation and preservation. That being the case, they will have a deeper understanding of the role they have to play and what is their role in the society they belong to.

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Fostering Social Communication Skills Through Small Talk Practice in Post-pandemic Japan

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Small talk is often said to be like a lubricating oil in human relationships. However, the Japanese appear to be influenced by its high-context culture (Hall & Hall, 1987). People often need help to decide on good topics to initiate conversation, even in business settings (Murao, 2021). 3rd-year college students who enrolled at the onset of the pandemic in 2020 and were exposed to its effects longer than other grades appear to have suffered more from not establishing good friendships or nurturing their communication skills. While face-to-face teaching officially started in 2022, students came into the classroom quietly and sat without interacting with their peers. In order to help develop their small talk competency, the author prepared a short questionnaire to uncover students' daily social communication, such as whether they greet the university's president and teachers in the same department. Further questions include how successfully they think they can exchange small talk with "new" classmates and whether they can talk to strangers if necessary. Students are then given time to practice small talk by selecting appropriate topics at the beginning of their classes. The growth in their small talk competence is observed through their journals and the questionnaire results. The small talk session is a simple activity. However, as students start smiling when practicing in class and talking to the author in the corridor, the effect benefits their future careers and can be used in versatile ways.

Keywords: Small Talk, Communication Skills, Pandemic, Japanese EFL Students, High-Context Culture

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Introduction

The Covid-19 outbreak since 2020 has impacted the world. According to Japan's Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, its death toll exceeded 72,000 as of March 1st, 2023. This unprecedented phenomenon cast a dark shadow naturally on the youth. Even after elementary school children returned to school, they had to eat in silence with a plastic shield in front of them. After lunch, they are expected to spend time quietly without interacting with others. The effects on children, both psychologically and in terms of social skills development, have been a major concern for educators. The Ministry also announced on February 28th, 2023 that cases of youth suicide, from elementary to high school students, marked a record high 512 in 2022.

University students are not an exception. The Japan Association of Private Universities and Colleges published a survey result on university students' worries and anxieties in September 2022 regarding the effects of the pandemic on 50,000 college students. According to the survey, which was conducted online between December 2021 and April 2022, somewhat over 55% worry about their future and nearly 34% worry about their health.

The following graph illustrates Dutch social psychologist Hofstede's Cultural survey of Japan and Singapore. Country Cultures were analysed into the following six dimensions, i.e., 1) Power Distance, 2) Individualism Versus Collectivism, 3) Masculinity Versus Femininity, 4) Uncertainty Avoidance, 5) Long-Term Versus Short-Term Orientation, and 6) Indulgence Versus Restraint (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). As the conference's host country, the results for Singapore were included in the comparison sample. Japan ranks as one of the highest countries in "Uncertainty Avoidance." Tourists to Japan, for example, are surprised to see trains arriving on time at intervals of every three minutes, which is taken for granted in Japan. People can infer when the next train will come and whether they will reach their destination on time. As such, the rise in anxiety among young people amid the pandemic is understandable.

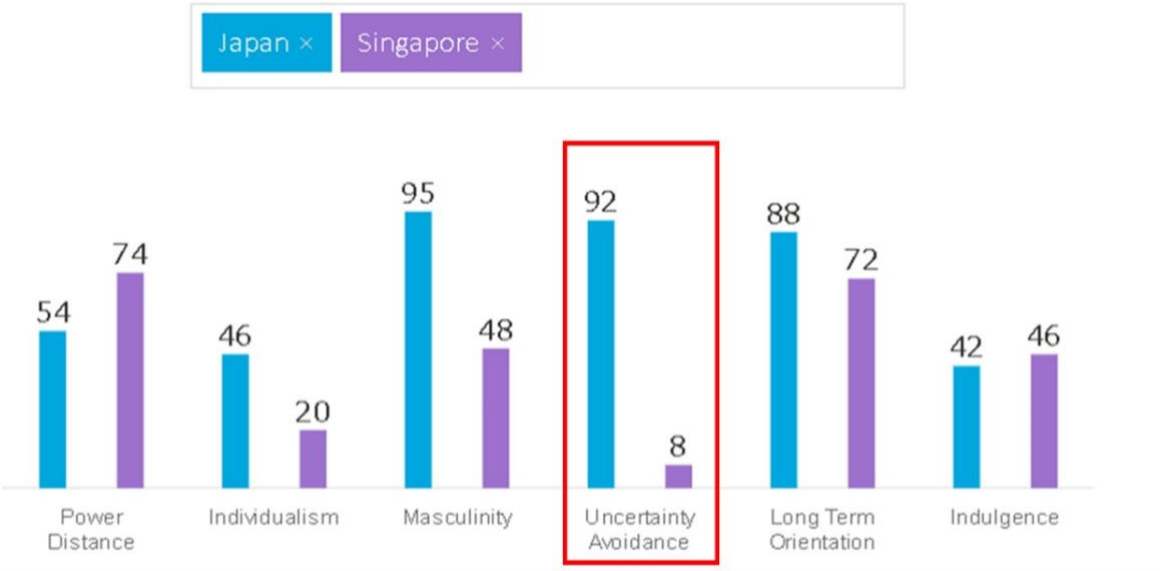


Figure 1: Hofstede Cultural Survey, Source: Hofstede Insight

When we looked at the 3rd-year students, who were robbed by Covid of their entrance ceremony, school retreat trips, and various face-to-face events until April 2022, they were in need of bonding in class. Most Japanese universities have two-term systems starting in April

and October. Last October, students sat quietly in the first class, waiting for the author to start the class. Normally, girls would be quite excited to meet up again with their friends after the summer holiday. I felt that the situation needed to be addressed.

Yokota (2022), who teaches presentation skills at universities, also noticed this phenomenon. He says that 3rd-year students' communication skills have been affected by the absence of face-to-face learning experiences. He noticed this when he taught the 3rd-year and 4th-year students simultaneously. The difference is that 4th-year students had one year of face-to-face class experience before the pandemic emerged, whereas the 3rd-year students did not physically interact in class for their first two years.

Online meetings also highlighted the lack of small talk skills of Japanese business people. Murao (2021), who teaches MBA skills, often hears their concerns, such as "I don't know what and how I should talk to acquaintances or people I meet for the first time" or "I'm worried that the absence of small talk will create gaps of silence."

There are more than a few sociologists who illustrate the differences of the "Public and Private Self" between Japanese and Americans. For example, Barnlund's study (1989) found that Japanese are more guarded in disclosing their private feelings whereas Americans have a narrower area of the private self. Miyake (1994) illustrates the psychological barriers between them through concentric circles. At the center is what she calls the mindset of self, which is identified by the Chinese character "自" (Figure 2), and the next circle is the in-group such as family (*Uchi*). The third circle, called "*Soto,*" includes groups such as one's bosses. The outermost circle is for psychological settings for strangers (*Yoso*). The left diagram shows that the Japanese in-group mindset (*Uchi*) is smaller and has higher barriers (illustrated by the solid line) compared with that of Brits & Americans (illustrated by the dotted line). Likewise, the barrier between *Soto* and *Yoso* for Strangers is clearly defined, and the mindset for strangers is noticeably larger.

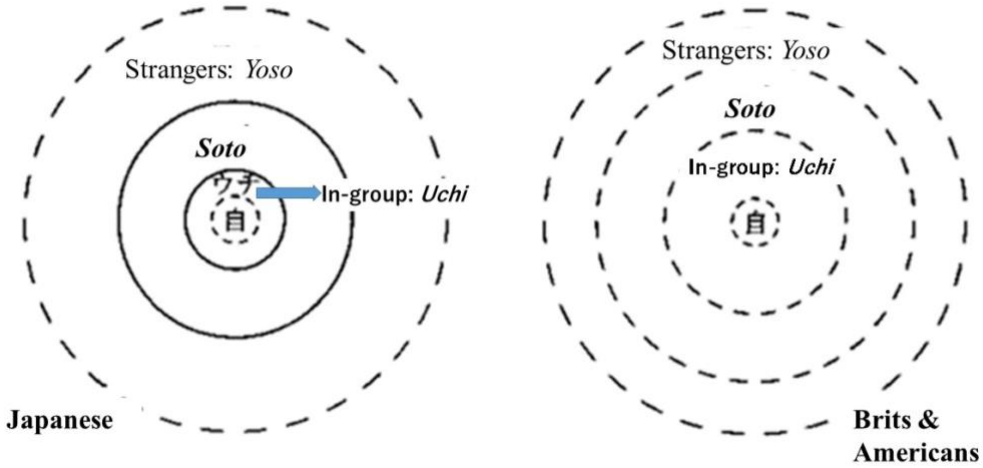


Figure 2: Source: Patterns of Japanese Linguistic Behaviour: Miyake, 1994 p. 35
English translations are added by the author

Ting-Toomey (1999) also analyzed that collectivists like the Japanese have limited self-disclosure. Further, Gao warns that "collectivistic, high-context individuals often are reluctant to provide strangers with elaborate and explicit responses" (1991, p.113) for researchers.

Small Talk

The benefits of small talk are described by many researchers. For example, Endrass, Rehm, and Andrè (2010) describe the following:

> Small Talk can be used to influence social relations positively. (…) to develop trust and rapport toward a virtual agent. In applications where the development of social relations is intended, Small Talk can be a crucial part of the system's social intelligence. (p. 3)

Pullin's (2010) study also concludes that "small talk functions in a number of ways in building, maintaining, and reinforcing rapport and solidarity (…) small talk can help reestablish more harmonious working relations and also set a favorable tone for ensuing business talks" (p. 469).

Politeness is regarded as a universal attitude to maintain good relationships and enjoy interaction. Lakoff (1973) clarifies the three rules of politeness with small talk as follows; i.e., 1) Don't impose, 2) Give options, and 3) Make the person you are talking to feel good (p. 298). Topics of small talk at work should naturally be non-controversial, such as the weather, (…) health, out-of-work social activities, sports, generalized complaints about the economy, positive comments on appearance, and work (Holmes 2005, pp. 353-354).

Student Survey Results (Pre)

Figures 3 and 4 show the results of a small survey of students conducted last October at the beginning of the second term. The students are majoring in English and Communication and studying at a women's university in central Tokyo.

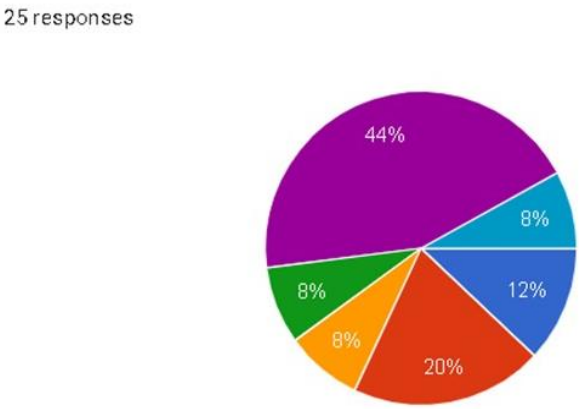


Figure 3: How Confident Are Students Talking to Strangers (1st-year students)

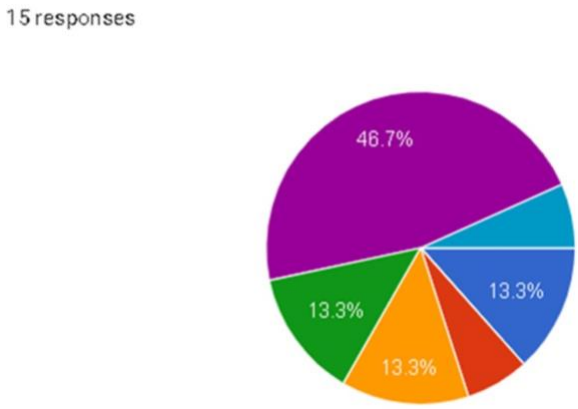


Figure 4: How Confident Are Students Talking to Strangers (3rd-year students)

These pie charts show how well they can talk to strangers. The top chart (Figure 3) represents 25 1st-year students and the bottom 15 3rd-year students. The colours indicate different sets of strangers. The purple area, which accounts for almost half of both charts (11 students, or 44%, and 7 students, or 46.7%, respectively), indicates they are comfortable conversing with all generations. The green, yellow, and red areas distinguish their comfort levels according to gender and/or age. Of the 1st-year students, 20% (5 students) feel capable of talking with female strangers of the same generation, whereas this shyness falls to 6.7% (1 student) in the 3rd-year group. The dark-blue area indicates the share of students that avoid eye contact (12-13.3%, 3 and 2 students, respectively), and the light-blue area indicates the "indifferent" share (8-6.7%, 2 and 1 students, respectively). These results suggest that the students majoring in English language and Communication need to improve their small talk skills.

Figure 5 shows whether the students acknowledge the following groups of people and greet them or give a slight bow; a) neighbours, b) teachers of the department, c) teachers they had classes with, d) guards at the school gates, e) teachers of other departments, f) chancellor, and g) president.

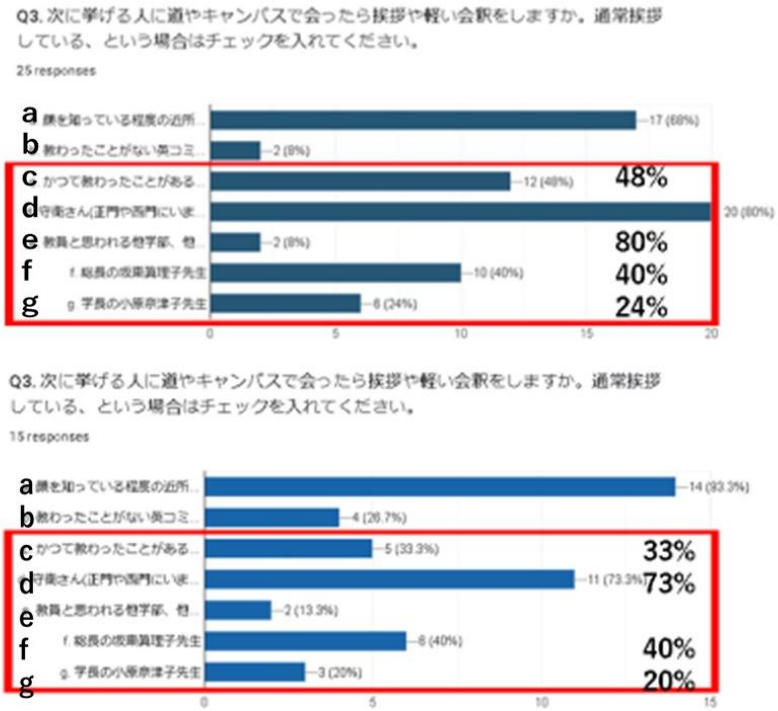


Figure 5: Students' Acknowledgement by Greeting or Giving a Slight Bow

The 25 1st-year students' results are shown in the top bar graph and the 15 3rd-year students' results in the bottom graph. It should be noted that less than half of both 1st-year and 3rd-year students greet their teachers (12 students, or 48%, and 5 students, or 33%, respectively), whether past or present, and a much larger percentage greet the campus gate guards (20 students, or 80%, and 11 students, or 73%, respectively) than they do the chancellor (40%) or president (20-24%) of the university.

These issues raise the following research questions.

1. Can the small talk sessions improve students' social attitudes?
2. Can students feel more comfortable with small talk in English after the small talk sessions?

Method

Classes

In an attempt to answer these questions, small talk sessions were applied to two classes for the 3rd-year students. Each class was held once a week.

Class A: 28 students
Main activities; learning marketing, Customer Relationship Management, Supply Chain Management, and email writing.
Class B: 12 students
Main activity is learning different formalities of business email writing.

The small talk session was divided into the following categories:

1. Body Language

Students learned and came to realise that smiling was the first universal communicative "language" before starting a conversation. Moreover, they noticed that hand and arm movements often demonstrated their feelings. They were warned not to talk or listen to their partner(s) with their arms crossed as it might suggest they were bored.

2. Find Good Topics

Some students were unsure what to talk about, so the class discussed possible topics for the day, such as recent news, train delays, and school events.

3. Diplomatic Questions

Students were introduced to some polite and indirect expressions, such as "Can I ask where you are from?" instead of "Where are you from?" or "I understand what you mean, but.…" instead of "I don't think so" to express different ideas.

4. Ways to Respond and Acknowledge (e.g., Tag Responses and Giving positive adjectives)

Students often give non-verbal or one-word reactions such as "Ah-huh," "Yes," or "Really?" without applying their grammar knowledge. So they were encouraged to use this knowledge, such as tag responses. To emphasise the importance of exchanging some opinions or one's impressions rather than returning short one-word reactions, some examples of successful and unsuccessful dialogue patterns were shown. As an unsuccessful example, the failure of a Japanese speaker to establish rapport by not giving emphatic responses, described in Murata

(2006), was used. In the example, the American partner says “It’s so funny, I sit here going on and on and you just say, “uh huh,” it’s like I’m in an interview or something” in the end (p.151).

5. How to Start and End

Some students did not know how to start and end the conversation naturally.

This suggested that learning some small talk skills would be useful.

In 10 classes over 15 weeks, the students practiced small talk during the first 6 to 8 minutes of each class. Initially, they practiced in pairs, but eventually expanded to 4 or 5 people. On two occasions, the students were asked to record their conversations and listen to how they talked. The Learning Journal they kept might be the most revealing of their experience, as their reactions were traced. Journal entries were assigned 10 times for 2 points each.



Figure 6: Class Photo Taken by the Author

Post Survey and Final Journal Entries

These pie charts (Figure 7) show their emotional changes after the course. The students were not given time to answer this questionnaire in class, so only 7 students in class A and 9 in class B responded. The blue areas (14.3% in class A and 11.1% in class B) indicate that one student in both classes “feel much more comfortable with small talk compared with the beginning of the term,” and the red areas (57.1%, 5 students in class A and 88.9%, 8 students in class B) indicate “feel a little more comfortable with small talk than before.” The yellow area (14.3%, one student) shows that the student was already good at small talk, so did not feel any improvement. The green area (14.3%, one student) indicates “not yet very confident.”

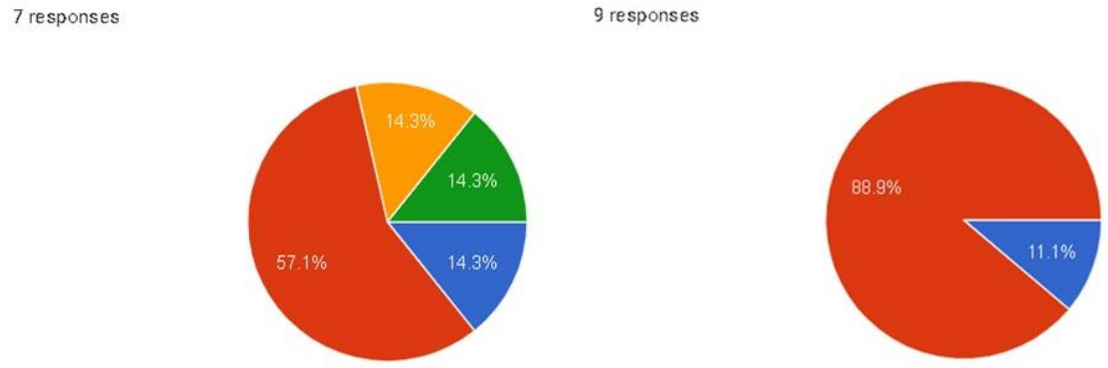


Figure 7: Students' Emotional Change After the Course

The following bar graphs illustrate whether the students feel confident in the following situations and manage to talk with strangers (multiple answers).

a) I can talk with smiles and give short responses.
b) I can find common topics and ask questions.
c) I can find good questions while talking and enjoy interactions.
d) I can express my opinions even when they are different from the other person(s)' and also refuse their requests politely.
e) I can express complaints and make a fuss politely.
f) I do not feel confident in any of the above situations.

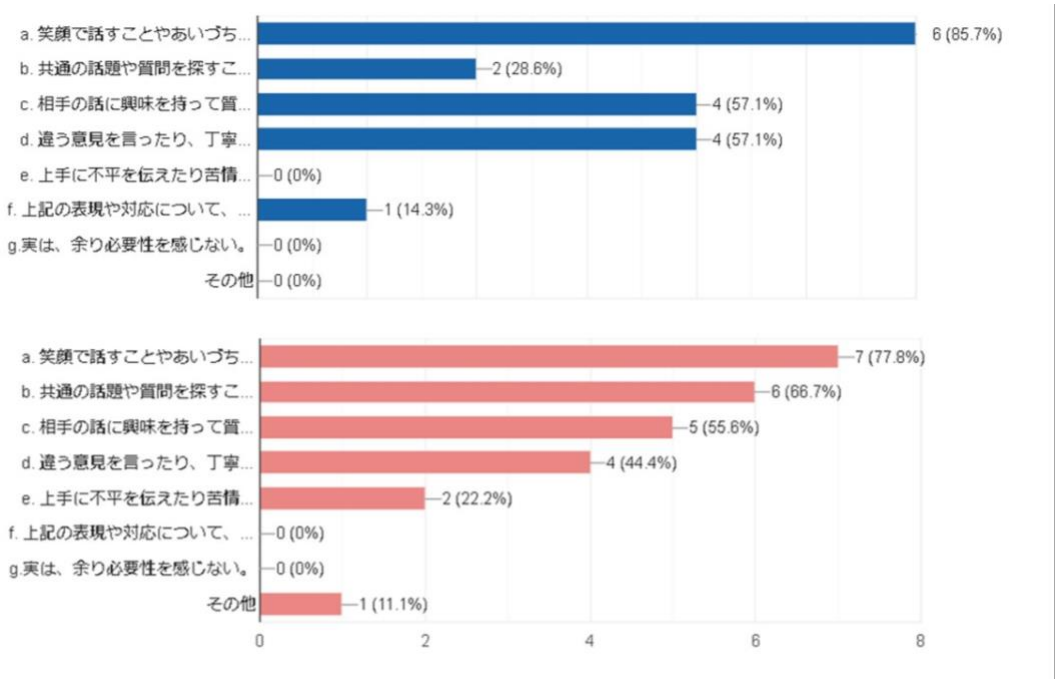


Figure 8: Students' Confidence Levels in Small Talk with Strangers in Various Settings

The above blue graph shows Class A's result and the bottom pink Class B's. The results show that 85.7% and 77.8% of the students, respectively, are confident with small talk while smiling, and over half can express their opinions and ask questions while enjoying the talk. So although the number of respondents was small, it appears the small-talk sessions were helpful.

Lastly, some students' final journal entries are introduced. They are reproduced verbatim.

A: Through this class, I think I have reduced my resistance when talking to new people. Because I'm not good at speaking on my own. However, I was able to learn what kind of content I should talk about in the class. Thus, I was able to break down my own barriers and speak on my own. In addition, I learned that content is very important when I talk with new people. I learned that close Q&A is NG such as an address. So, I want to continue to use what I have learned and do my best!

B: The Small Talk activity has improved my communication skills because I have had many opportunities to talk to people I don't know very well. I used to be a shy person, but through this class, I am no longer afraid to talk to someone. Last week I was asked for directions by a foreigner in *Harajuku*, so I used the directions I learned in class.

C: Before taking this class, it was difficult to talk with unknown people for me. However, through this activity, I became able to talk with new people without hesitation. I can start the conversation and ask a question first now. I learned tag responses and how to ask questions politely. I've never used those two expressions before. But not only during class but also in daily English conversations with my friends I can use those expressions naturally. Also in this class, it was the first time to record and listen to my conversation. I think it's a good way to improve my pronunciation.

D: I learned the difference between conversing in a group of four to five people and in a two-person conversation. When it was just the two of us, it was either me talking or the other person talking. But when in a group, I thought it was important to pay attention to see if anyone was silent the whole time. I tried to speak things up and make sure that the topic of the talk was something that everyone could easily talk about.

E: Previously, after saying my name, "What are your hobbies?" I had asked. However, since I have developed the habit of thinking about topics in small talks in class, the range of conversation content has broadened. …Finally, I have overcome shyness in conversation. I was able to do that in each class with an attitude of "Let's converse better than last time." Since the coronavirus caused me to distance myself from people and avoid conversation, I felt more uncomfortable conversing than before. In particular, I was shy in small talk situations where topics were not specified. However, after repeated practice, I am now able to speak openly in person. In addition, my instructor made sure that everyone understood the class, which made the lessons very easy to understand. I really enjoyed your class!

Based on these results, the previous research questions can be answered affirmatively.

Conclusion

The unprecedented pandemic robbed us of face-to-face learning opportunities. Young people have suffered the most losing not only academic subjects but also social communication skills. Small talk is a straightforward daily activity, so the benefits of small talk may be taken for granted. We tend to be unaware of its significance in developing friendships and relationships. University students in the high-context collective culture may have needed opportunities to disclose the self and widen the in-group layer to grow their friendship. So learning how to exchange simple communication benefitted them in their school life as well as in their future careers.

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Yokota, I. (2022, June 24). Tatta 1 gakunensa, koumo chigau daigakuseino komyunikeshon ryoku[*Just one year has made a big difference in university students' communication skills*]. Nikkei Business. https://business.nikkei.com/atcl/author/19/061600552/

Development and Evaluation of Frankards: A Manipulative for Teaching Probability

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study focused on developing and evaluating an instructional material based on the needs of mathematics teachers and on the least mastered learning competencies in Grade 10 Mathematics. Baseline data gathered revealed that teachers faced difficulties in contextualizing and discussing the concepts of statistics and probability. They specifically cited the lack of instructional materials for the learning competencies under this content area. This served as the basis for the development of *Frankards*, a manipulative designed to aid in teaching the concepts of probability. This study utilized a development research method and adopted the ADDIE Model in creating the manipulative. Subsequently, Frankards was evaluated by teachers and instructional material developers using the standardized Evaluation Rating Sheet for Manipulatives prescribed by the Philippines' Department of Education. Frankards passed all the criteria set for the three areas of evaluation, namely: Contents (Factor A), Other Findings (Factor B), and Additional Requirement for Manipulative (Factor C). Revisions related to the visual aspects of the manipulative were suggested. The evaluators have recommended that the developed manipulative be submitted for copyright. It was further suggested that the effectiveness of the manipulative be subjected to an experimental study. It was also proposed that a teacher training on its use be conducted to further validate its benefits to both teachers and learners.

Keywords: Frankards, Instructional Material, Mathematics Education

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Introduction

In teaching and learning, how educators deliver and teach the content is crucial, especially in mathematics. Hence, teachers handling this subject should therefore be proficient in teaching the subject and equipped with the essential skills and strategies. Moreover, it is vital that their goals be based on the current trends in education. Knowing the Department of Education's current curriculum framework enables the teacher to develop and adapt lessons that are suited to the needs of the learners (Braza and Supapo, 2014). In the Philippine setting, mathematics is viewed and perceived as the hardest subject not only by students but also by teachers. In the study conducted by Gafoor and Kurukkan (2015), they have found that 75% of the respondents believed that Mathematics is a difficult subject. With that, teachers tried to innovate and use other approaches to make mathematics a more meaningful and engaging subject, such as visual materials and manipulatives. Leinhardt (1991) emphasized that the utilization of various representations is an integral part of teachers' knowledge of mathematics, and they play a vital role in explaining mathematical concepts. In this connection, researchers and mathematics educators through the years develop and create instructional materials and other aids to address issues in relation to low performance in mathematics. In the study conducted by Moyer (2001), he concluded that teachers play a significant role in creating mathematical environments that help students in acquiring knowledge and improving their learning through visual representations. Vinson (2001) also stated in his paper that the use of appropriate and concrete instructional material is indispensable to ensure that mathematical content is understood by the learners. Similarly, Boaler et al. (2016) emphasized that educators should encourage students' visual approaches and replace the idea that excellent mathematics learners are those who memorize and calculate well. Research has also emphasized that the use of visual representations in mathematics, both for teachers and students, is a necessity in their teaching and learning process (Leinhardt, 1991).

Concrete manipulatives were defined by Bartolini and Martignone (2020, p. 365) as "physical artifacts that can be concretely handled by students and offer a large and deep set of sensory experience". When used in teaching abstract concepts, manipulatives helped in enhancing students' achievement and attitude towards mathematics when used on a long-term basis (Holmes, 2013; Larbi & Okyere, 2014; Sowell, 1989; Uribe-Flórez & Wilkins, 2017). Furthermore, Ojose and Sexton (2019) pointed out that manipulatives' use can deepen the understanding of abstract concepts if it was used along with other teaching methodologies. Specifically, Golafshani (2013) pointed out that manipulatives had been significantly helpful to struggling learners. Because of this, Holmes (2013) and Ramilo et al. (2022) suggested that educational institutions should purchase manipulatives since it contributed to the enhancement of students' learning. Research on the use of manipulatives in teaching mathematics was extended by utilizing it along with other methodologies such as problem-based learning. Meke et al. (2018) argued that problem-based learning and the use of manipulatives were both effective in terms of enhancing students' cognitive abilities in mathematics. Innovations were also made in the use of manipulatives from concrete to virtual manipulatives. Despite these changes, manipulatives in concrete and virtual form both exhibited positive results in terms of supporting students' learning and encouraging relational thinking and algebraic reasoning (Suh & Moyer-Packenham, 2007). These are the reasons why the first author intended to develop an instructional manipulative that will assist teachers in teaching probability. In this way, the learners will be assisted in learning the subject meaningfully. This research concentrated on topics related to probability for Grade 10

students since it was revealed in the baseline data gathering that teachers and students viewed statistics and probability as the most difficult content area.

Theoretical Framework

This research is anchored on Johnson and Lakoff's (2002) Experiential Realism. In this theory, there is a reality "out there" and that our perceptual and cognitive processes serve to represent this reality. This suggests that if we want to provide our students with a meaningful context, we should place them in their own reality. To accomplish this, we must bring the "out there" world into the classroom. This study is also anchored on Realistic Mathematics Education where the contexts and real-life experiences of learners are being utilized as starting points prior to the learning of abstract and formal concepts of mathematics. It also gives opportunities to learners to reinvent their own understanding of the mathematical content and processes through horizontal and vertical mathematization (Barnes, 2005; Gravemeijer, 1994; Van den Heuvel-Panhuizen & Drijvers, 2014).

Methods

In this study, development research method was utilized since it aimed to develop a new instructional manipulative. It was implemented using the Development Research Design anchored on the ADDIE Model (Branch, 2009). Based on the ADDIE Model, this study has two major phases: the gathering and evaluating of the baseline data and the development and evaluation of the manipulative developed. In the first phase, the participants were 35 students and 15 mathematics teachers. They were asked to answer the questions using the baseline interview schedule by Fetalvero (2013) as cited by Malicse et al. (2019). On the other hand, Phase 2 focused on the development and evaluation of the manipulative developed. After the development of the manipulative, 26 Grade 10 Mathematics teachers were asked to evaluate the manipulative using the Evaluation Rating Sheet for Manipulatives as prescribed by the Department of Education (DepEd, 2009). The data collected from the structured interview and questionnaire responses were analyzed using percentages. On the other hand, the evaluation ratings from the mathematics teachers were gathered and statistically analyzed using mean.

Results and Discussion

Baseline Data Report

Based on the results of the survey conducted, the students and teachers have identified statistics and probability as the most difficult content area in Mathematics 10 (students: 40%, teachers: 80%). When asked about their perception on the use of module as the sole instructional material in teaching, 77% of the students disagreed. This implies that students wanted to be engaged in learning using other instructional materials other than their modules. In terms of the mode of teaching the subject and the data gathered shows that 49% of the students preferred to learn mathematics with the aid of the manipulative while 31% and 21% of the students preferred lecture and group activities, respectively.

Frankards: The Developed Manipulative

As shown in Figure 1, here is the developed manipulative, the "Frankards". It is a set of 56 cards specifically crafted to assist teachers in teaching probability concepts. Unlike the

regular deck of cards, Frankards was uniquely designed to use polygons as the card suits instead of the suits in a standard deck of playing card. The use of the standard deck of cards has been banned in schools to prevent students from engaging in gambling-related activities. Hence, an instructional material that is more mathematical than the standard deck of cards was developed.

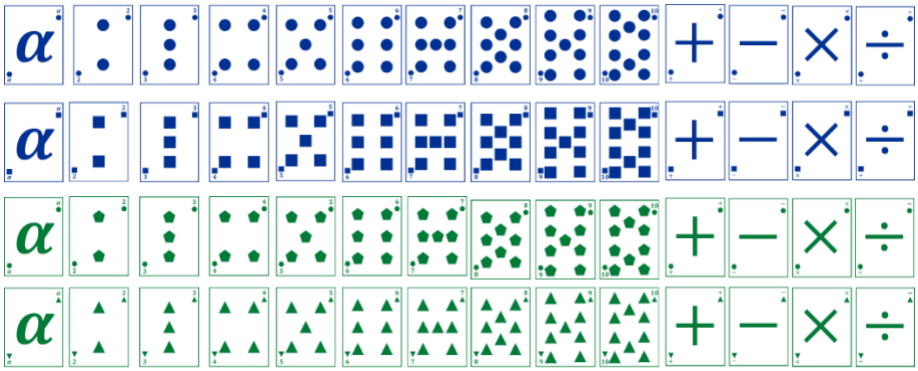


Figure 1: Deck of Frankards (Fran, 2021)

Evaluation of Frankards

Table 1 shows the expert's evaluation of the manipulative in terms of Factor A (Content). It generally shows that the manipulative is formatively evaluated as very satisfactory in terms of content. This implies that the manipulative passed the requirements prescribed for manipulatives as to the content. Specifically, the evaluators have given the manipulative a perfect rating of 4.00 to these indicators: Content reinforces, enriches, and/or leads to the mastery of certain learning competencies for the level and subject it was intended; material has the potential to arouse interest of the target users; and size of the material is appropriate for use in school. Other indicators are also rated very satisfactory signifying that the instructional manipulative is excellent as to content.

Table 1: Experts' Evaluation in Terms of Factor A (Content)

Indicators	Mean Rating	Descriptive Interpretation
1. Content reinforces, enriches, and/or leads to the mastery of certain learning competencies for the level and subject it was intended.	4.00	Very Satisfactory
2. Material has the potential to arouse interest of the target users.	4.00	Very Satisfactory
3. Facts are accurate.	3.76	Very Satisfactory
4. Information provided is up-to-date.	3.60	Very Satisfactory
5. Visuals are relevant to the text.	3.68	Very Satisfactory
6. Visuals are suitable to the age level and interests of the target user.	3.80	Very Satisfactory
7. Visuals are clear and adequately convey the message of the subject or topic.	3.76	Very Satisfactory
8. Typographic layout/design facilitates understanding of concepts presented.	3.88	Very Satisfactory
9. Size of the material is appropriate for use in school.	4.00	Very Satisfactory
10. Material is easy to use and durable.	3.96	Very Satisfactory
Total	38.44	

Note. The indicators are adapted from the Evaluation Rating Sheet for Manipulatives as prescribed by the Department of Education (DepEd, 2009). The following are the equivalent descriptive interpretations for the mean ratings: Very Satisfactory, 3.26 – 4.00; Satisfactory, 2.56 – 3.25; Poor, 1.76 – 2.50; and Not Satisfactory, 1.00 – 1.75.

Table 2 presents the evaluation of experts on the manipulative in terms of Other Findings (Factor B). It further shows that conceptual errors, factual errors, grammatical and/or typographical errors, and other errors are not present as evaluated.

Table 2: Experts' Evaluation in Terms of Factor B (Other Findings)

Indicators	Mean Rating	Descriptive Interpretation
1. Conceptual errors.	4.00	Not Present
2. Factual errors.	4.00	Not Present
3. Grammatical and/or typographical errors.	4.00	Not Present
4. Other errors (i.e., computational errors, obsolete information, errors in the visuals, etc.)	4.00	Not Present
Total	16.00	

Note. The indicators are adapted from the Evaluation Rating Sheet for Manipulatives as prescribed by the Department of Education (DepEd, 2009). The following are the equivalent descriptive interpretations for the mean ratings: Not Present, 3.26 – 4.00; Present but with very minor and must be fixed, 2.56 – 3.25; Present and requires major redevelopment, 1.76 – 2.50; and Poor, 1.00 – 1.75.

Table 3 presents the evaluation of the validators as to instructional and technical design of the manipulative which is rated very satisfactory (3.89). Specifically, the evaluators formatively assessed that the manipulative is safe to use, achieving a perfect rating of 4.00 from the evaluators. The validators also viewed that the size and composition of manipulative is appropriate for the intended audience (3.96). It can be noted that the evaluators formatively assessed the manipulative and rated it very satisfactory across the given indicators for instructional and technical design. This implies that as to the instructional and technical design, the manipulative passed the given criteria.

Table 3: Experts' Evaluation in Terms of Factor C (Additional Requirements for Manipulatives)

Indicators	Mean Rating	Descriptive Interpretation
Instructional Design		
1. Adequate support material is provided.	3.84	Very Satisfactory
2. Activities are summarized; extension activities are provided.	3.72	Very Satisfactory
3. Suggested activities support innovative pedagogy.	3.92	Very Satisfactory
Technical Design		
4. Manipulative is safe to use.	4.00	Very Satisfactory
5. Size and composition of manipulative is appropriate for intended audience.	3.96	Very Satisfactory
6. Suggested manual tasks within the activities are compatible with the motor skills of the intended users.	3.92	Very Satisfactory
Total	23.36	

Note. The indicators are adapted from the Evaluation Rating Sheet for Manipulatives as prescribed by the Department of Education (DepEd, 2009). The following are the equivalent descriptive interpretations for the mean ratings: Very Satisfactory, 3.26 – 4.00; Satisfactory, 2.56 – 3.25; Poor, 1.76 – 2.50; and Not Satisfactory, 1.00 – 1.75.

Figure 2 shows the summary of ratings of the evaluators across the areas for evaluation. It shows that the earned points for every factor are above the required minimum points reflected as follows: Factor A (Content)=38.44; Factor B (Other Findings) = 16.00; and Factor C (Additional Requirement for Manipulatives) = 23.36. This implies that the manipulative passed the requirements prescribed by the Department of Education for Manipulatives.

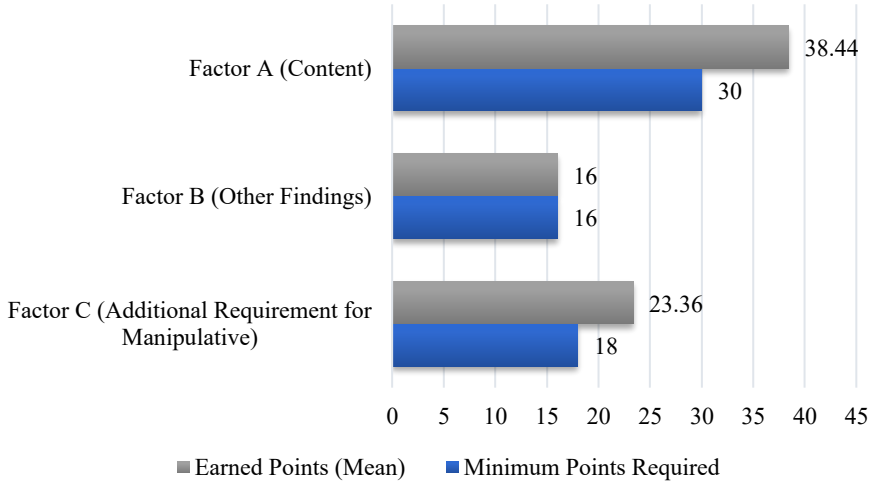


Figure 2: Summary of Ratings for the Areas of Evaluation

Conclusion

It can be inferred that the instructional material developed passed all the prescribed criteria set by the Department of Education in the selection of the appropriate and quality instructional material such as manipulatives. Consequently, the utilization of the instructional material is highly recommended. This is suggested to be the next phase of the study. After testing its effectiveness, it can be recommended for dissemination to teachers especially those who are handling subjects that deal with probability and statistics. The research output can be utilized as an instructional material in teaching probability. Corollary to this, the instructional material is recommended to be submitted to the Intellectual Property Office of the Philippines for Copyright Application. Initial processes had been conducted by the researcher in relation to the intellectual property rights of the owner and the university. In relation to its dissemination and utilization, the effectiveness of this instructional material should be tested first. Thus, it is recommended to conduct future research focusing on testing the effectiveness of this material.

Acknowledgements

The authors extend their heartfelt thanks to Romblon State University, Ateneo de Manila University, and Department of Science and Technology-Science Education Institute.

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Design and Evaluation of an Online Interactive Story Game for Learning the Theory of Love Attachment Style

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Love is one of the most important issues in life, and everyone may have different attachment styles of love, including their behaviors and attitudes in relationships. Learning to identify one's attachment style of love can help us understand our needs and build good relationships with others. This study proposes a multi-path contextual interactive story game for distance learning. The online Google form-based game "First Love" was designed with situated learning and the conceptual scaffolding to increase learners' knowledge of attachment styles and to provide opportunities for self-awareness and reflection. Participants were 16 adults in Taiwan, and the goal of learning activity is to continue the contextual script story in the game, in which students became the protagonist of the story, and depending on the options they choose, the protagonist then showed different attachment styles. Students could learn about attachment styles through the development of story situations. The game uses a four-quadrant diagram to present different style dimensions as the conceptual scaffolding, combined with situational examples, which allows students to understand the concepts of different attachment styles of love in a simplified diagram. At the end, it enhanced students' self-awareness and reflection on attachment theory. The results indicated that, the motivation was significantly higher than the median of the scale (i.e., 3), and the post-test was significantly higher than the pre-test, indicating that the game design had a positive effect on the motivation of students to learn attachment style knowledge and could be used to improve their learning performance.

Keywords: Love Educational Game, Situated Learning, Scaffolding

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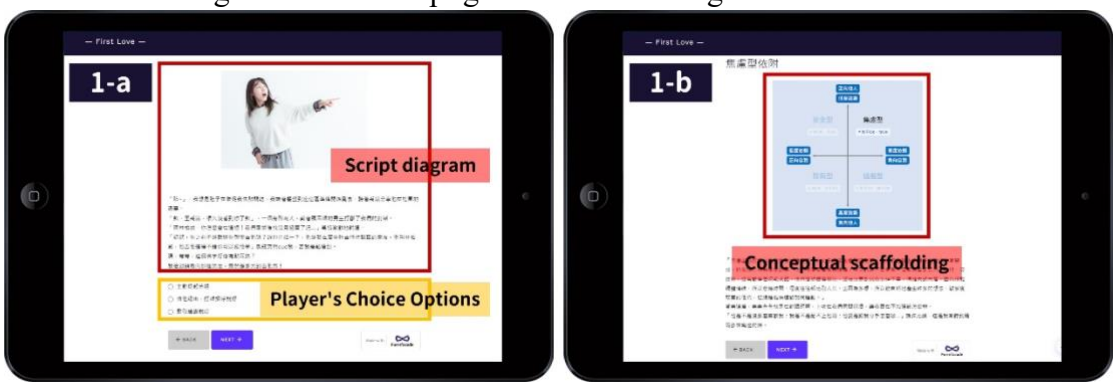
Introduction

Attachment theory was designed to explore interactions with primary caregivers during infancy and is now used to research romantic relationships between partners. Attachment has a positive effect on the development of interpersonal skills because it helps people learn how to maintain intimate relationships and develop a positive self-concept, which helps to enhance their sense of self-worth and thus their interpersonal skills (Honghao et al., 2021), and attachment styles influence behaviors and feelings in relationships (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Therefore, understanding the attachment style of the self and how to deal with attachment needs is important for establishing and maintaining good romantic relationships, so knowing the attachment style of the self can help people understand themselves better and can help build relationship and maintain good romantic relationships, emotional health, and interpersonal relationships (Martin, 1988).

Situated Learning emphasizes the connection between knowledge and real-life situations (Brown et al., 1989), and situation gives "meaning" to the learning content.

In this study, an online romance script game was designed using an online form to allow learners to learn about attachment styles through the relationship situation simulated in the game and to help learners understand themselves through self-awareness. "First Love" is a love script game to understand attachment styles (Figure 1-a). Learners will make different choices to express the attachment styles of the main characters and integrate them into the story with the realistic story to learn about the attachment theory and the four types of attachment styles (Figure 1-b) through the concept scaffolding and understand the characteristics of each attachment style. At the end of the game, additional information will be provided to guide the learners in self-reflection and self-awareness, so that the learners can have more knowledge about themselves after the game.

Figure 1. Love script game "First Love" game interface



Methods

A total of 16 participants (9 females and 7 males) were enrolled in the study. Students and community members over 20 years old were recruited through the Internet. Each participant used a personal computer and participated in the First Love in their own space.

In order to analyze the participants' flow status during the experience, the questionnaire used in this study included of 22 questions Likert five-point scale flow scale translated and modified from Kiili (2006) by Hou and Li (2014), which contains two dimensions: flow antecedents and flow experience. The reliability of the flow scale is 0.897 (Cronbach's

alpha=0.897). In order to understand the anxiety of the learners during the game, the activity anxiety scale of the learning experience scale translated and adapted by Hong (2001) and Han (2002) were used, and a five-point Likert scale was used with a reliability of 0.703 (Cronbach's alpha=0.703) for 8 questions. In order to understand the participants' motivation in the game, the motivation scale was adapted from Keller's (1987) ARCS motivation model scale, and a five-point Likert scale was used. In order to understand the participants' understanding of the conceptual content of the attachment theory before the activity, the participants were given a pre-test and a post-test before and after the game experience to analyze the participants' learning effectiveness. The test has 20 multiple choice questions and a total score of 100. The questions were reviewed by experienced psychologists with 15 years of teaching experience. The flow of the learning activity phase of the study began with an activity presentation and pre-test (15 minutes), followed by a game experience (20 minutes), and finally a post-test and completion of the flow, anxiety, and motivation inventory questionnaire (15 minutes).

Results and Discussions

Table 1 shows the results of the analysis. Based on the results, it was found that the overall heart flow of the participants (M=4.50, SD=0.52) was significantly higher than the median 3of the scale (p=.000 < .001). Both dimensions of the flow scale, flow antecedents (M=4.38, SD=0.45) and flow experience (M=4.48, SD=0.40), were also significantly higher than the median 3 of the scale, indicating that the activity design and experience allowed participants to clearly understand the goal of the game and that most participants were focused on the activity. Based on the analysis of anxiety, it was found that participants' anxiety about the activity (M=1.85, SD=0.55) was significantly lower than the median 3 of the scale (p< .05). This suggests that the play mechanism of this activity does not cause excessive anxiety in participants, which is also consistent with previous studies (Hung et al., 2015; Lin & Hou, 2022). In the descriptive statistics of motivation, the participants' motivation to learn (M=4.40, SD=0.45) was significantly higher than the median 3 of the scale (p=.000<.001), indicating that the activity in this study encouraged students' learning motivation.

Table 2 shows the results of the learning achievement analysis. According to the results, The post-test is significantly higher than the pre-test, indicating that the participants' learning achievement could be improved by the activity experience.

Table 1. *Flow, Motivation, and Anxiety Analysis (Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test, median = 3)*

Dimension	M	SD	*p*
Overall Flow	4.50	0.52	.000***
Flow antecedents	4.38	0.45	.000***
Flow experience	4.48	0.40	.000***
Motivation	1.85	0.55	.001**
Activity anxiety	4.40	0.45	.000***

*p <0.05 ，**p <0.01 ，***p <0.001

Table 2. *Descriptive Statistics Analysis of Learning Effectiveness*

	Pre-test		Post-test			
N	M	SD	M	SD	*z*-score	*p*
27	54.38	14.71	63.75	9.20	-1.985	.047*

*p <0.05

Conclusions and Limitations

This study developed an online romance script game "First Love" with the theme of learning attachment styles. The game uses a realistic and multifaceted situation to allow learners to experience the story generated by different attachment styles, and to learn attachment style knowledge through story progression to achieve self-awareness and reflection. The above statistical analysis shows that the learners' flow experience and motivation are significantly higher than the median 3 of the scale, indicating that the design of the game enables the learners to achieve a certain degree of flow experience and has a positive effect on motivation. Learners' anxiety in the activity was significantly lower than the median 3 of the scale, indicating that the game mechanism did not cause excessive anxiety in the learners. The learning effectiveness section also reached a significant level, indicating that learning attachment style knowledge through "First Love" can improve learning performance. In the future, we will increase the sample size, add the attachment style guide suggestions and design more scaffoldings to compare the effectiveness of the love script on learning attachment style knowledge and scaffolding assistance with or without scaffolding assistance in a quasi-experimental design.

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The Identity of People With Disabilities: Advancing Through a Study on Self-Determination and Self-Knowledge

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The concept of identity has been a research topic for hundreds of years. Researchers have considered the influences of culture, physical development, and interpersonal relationships to describe how a person's identity, or self-concept, develops. Another aspect of a person's self-concept involves physical, mental, or learning disabilities. A study was conducted in southeastern Spain in 2021 to investigate the self-perception of identity among people ages 13-25 who self-identified as having a disability. The results of this study revealed a correlation between the study participant's identity as a person with a disability and their self-perception of belonging within their community. The perceived level of belonging within a community varied with the participant's age. Self-knowledge and self-determination were influencing factors that improved among older participants.

Keywords: Identity, People With Disabilities, Self-Perception, Self-Identity, Self-Determination

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Introduction

Identity can be defined as a personal and inherent construct of every human being (Forber-Pratt & Zape, 2017; González, 2021; Głodkowska & Pągowska, 2019) whose development and construction is linked to the vital experiences (Fadjukoff, Pulkkinen & Kokko, 2016). As a complex, multi-dimensional, constructive (Arfuch, 2002), social (Forber-Pratt & Zape, 2017), and endless process (Leite, 2011), identity is socially constructed (Mañas, 2020; Mijangos, 2015) and it is linked to experience (Gergen, 2007) and to the subjective, personal, social and evaluative perception that each individual makes as a result of their interactions with their social, school and family context (González, Cortés & Rivas, 2018).

Morales, Páez, Deschamps, and Worchel (1996) state identity is constructed from the opinions, judgments, and attitudes that an individual manifests regarding himself and as a result of internal and external dialogue (Lara-Subiabre, Henríquez & Villaroel, 2020) that configures an identity that can be personal and social and expressed in a unitary, multiple, discovered, constructed, stable or fluid way (Vignoles, Schwartz & Luyckx, 2011). An orientation or attitude toward self-identification as disabled includes cognitive and affective components (Darling & Heckert, 2010), meaning that the self-concept of disability in any way influences the way a person interacts with society. According to Koch (2020), students with disabilities question their placement among their peers according to their self-perception of belonging in society, and exercises involving items such as personality quizzes foster understanding among group members. Therefore, the self-concept of a person with disabilities affects their perception of belonging in society.

Erikson's Theory of Identity

Researchers have explored the concept of identity since the middle ages. The question of identity has revolved around how people develop psychologically from birth throughout their lives. Erikson (1959) explored identity through the lens of self-concept and community recognition, which Crain (2011) related to biological development. Crain (2011) noted that learning disabilities impeded biological development, specifically Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD). The hallmark of biological growth is an accomplishment ("I am what I can learn to work," Erickson, 1968, p. 127), so the community in which a person was situated would notice the lack of achievement that is a hallmark of disability could lead to peer shunning. Mooney (2013) commented on executive function challenges, often present in ASD and Attention-Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD), noting similar impacts on community acceptance. The person with a disability questions their belonging within their peer group, which leads to identity confusion (Erickson, 1959).

Identity confusion interferes with the developmental stage of fidelity (Mooney, 2013). Identity confusion occurs because the person becomes aware that they are somehow different from their peers but may not understand why or how to resolve the issue. Kroger (2007) noted that teenagers in the United States and New Zealand voiced intolerance for a peer that did not belong using the terms "outcast," "threat," and "boring" (p. 39). A person with a disability would likely not choose such identity labels from their peers but may receive them nonetheless. Lawler (2014) noted that social identity is highly linked to self-identity.

Literature Review

A review of the existing literature pertaining to self-defined identity and sense of belonging within a peer group was conducted. Literature was gathered from peer-reviewed academic journals, published autobiographies of people with learning or physical disabilities, and other published texts. The literature was gathered from global sources to identify common themes and relations to Erikson's theory of identity regardless of geographical location.

Self-Identity among People with Learning or Physical Disabilities

As Forber-Pratt, Lyew, Mueller, and Samples (2017) remind us, identity development in people with disabilities is a little-researched phenomenon. Perhaps, this fact is because the identity of people with disabilities has always been identified with a "restricted or monophonic identity" (Baquero, 2015, p.171) as a consequence of imperialism of identity (Sen, 2001) and of social and cultural traditions that have denied that people with disabilities can present multiple identities. Dunn and Burcaw (2013) define disability identity as a "sense of self that includes one's disability and feelings of connection to, or solidarity with, the disability community" (p.148).

In this sense, Forber-Pratt, Merrin, Mueller, Price, and Kettrey (2020), remind us that identity is constructed socially and historically. In the particular case of people with disabilities, their status as a minority and marginalized group (1) has favored the construction of a cultural vision of disability linked to a conception of unitary identity and associated exclusively with the group of people with disabilities (Mackelprang & Salsgiver, 1996); and (2) has configured a group identity (Brown, 2003). This complex historical, cultural, and social process has generated in people with disabilities feelings of denial, fear of being judged, or shame that contribute to the construction of a negative identity of disability (Mackelprang & Salsgiver, 1996) and favors the consolidation of a minority group model of disability in which people with disabilities are considered a minority group, subject to stigmatization (Eddey & Robey, 2005).

McNamer (2013) wrote in a first-person context about his personal experience with identity and belonging as a person diagnosed with an Autism Spectrum Disorder. The insights he shared lend credence to the concept of identity as a subjective function of culture and social input. McNamer (2013) shared the following:

> [As] I grow, I become more invisible than I was before. When I was six years old in elementary school, teachers would put me in the 'cloak of invisibility….' When I went to school with my peers then, I felt rejected too. Not as rejected as in high school, but I do feel like that 'cloak of invisibility' is working pretty well…I never wanted to change, but I do want my classmates from elementary school to understand me. It seems impossible since I'm a growing invisible…thing. I am not noticed and I will become entirely invisible by the time school ends. (pp. 80-81)

According to Van Halen, Borsma, and van der Meulen (2018), adolescents encounter the most significant challenges to their self-identity, consistent with Erikson's (1959) theory of identity versus confusion during their teenage years. According to Erikson, the need to form a strong identity is critical; however, disabilities could impede the discovery of self-identity because of disabilities lead to experiences of ostracism and exclusion.

As different studies have reported, people with disabilities experience social discrimination (Baquero, 2015) and school exclusion (Jiménez & Huete, 2002; Mañas, González & Cortés, 2020; Mogensen & Mason, 2015; Savaria, Underwood & Sinclair, 2011) and limitations to participate fully in the social and educational contexts in which they are immersed (Gómez & Cardona, 2010), generating the construction of a disability identity. According to Forber-Pratt, Lyew, Mueller, and Samples (2017), the identity of the disability can be defined as the unique and particular capacity that a person with a disability has to perceive himself, his body, and his way of interacting with the world and is related to the experience and social perception of the person with disabilities (Hopson, 2019).

Sense of Belonging Among Peers

Research has shown that a student's sense of belonging within a community affects their learning success (Pittman & Richmond, 2007). A Pew survey found 71% of students use multiple ways to communicate with friends (U.S. Health & Human Services, 2019). Still, adolescents' loneliness impedes academic performance (Moeller & Seehuus, 2019). Sense of belonging has been measured in multiple ways. Ingram (2012) notes three independent measures of belonging: Social belonging, academic belonging, and perceived institutional belonging. Ingram (2012) indicated that the strongest predictors of student belonging are not fixed student attributes but other variables that can be influenced to various extents by institutional policies and practices. In other words, the learning environment can be engineered to increase students' sense of belonging, particularly their academic belonging within their peer group.

Considering these investigations and that the identity of the disability can be determined by personal feelings and by the sense of belonging to a community (Hahn & Belt, 2004), and that it is a physical, biological, social categorization and creation of meaning (Forber-Pratt, Lyew, Mueller & Samples, 2017), we find different contexts that implicitly and explicitly to use to construct an identity of difference (González, 2018, 2021; Mañas, 2020) or disability.

In the social and family sphere, we can find, on the one hand, situations in which people with disabilities interact and share activities and spaces with other individuals with disabilities, these experiences allow them to build a positive disability identity and feelings of connection and identification with other people with disabilities (Dunn & Burcaw, 2013). On the other hand, interaction with people and family members who do not have disabilities encourages them to perceive personal differences and particular traits (i.e., communicative, physical, cognitive, etc.), which they do not share with any members of their social or family group, contributing to strengthening the identity of the disability (Forber-Pratt, Lyew, Mueller & Samples, 2017).

Similarly, in school contexts, the diagnosis, school labeling (Gergen, 1996), experiences of school segregation (González, Mañas, and Cortés, 2017), and of bullying (González, Cortés & Mañas, 2019; Mañas, González & Cortés, 2020; MECD, 2017) are those that both implicitly and explicitly contribute to the construction of a school identity linked to self-doubt or difference. These school experiences appear in students with atypical educational needs or disabilities as an identity of difference as a consequence of a cognitive (thinking), affective (feelings), and attitudinal (acts and behaviors) process (González, 2018, 2021; González, Cortés & Rivas, 2018) that leads them to show isolation behaviors and feelings of inferiority and difference with the rest of their classmates in the school context.

Summary of the Literature Review and Gaps Identified

The empirical literature shows research carried out with children (Phelan & Kinsella, 2014) and people with learning differences (Zhang & Haller, 2013), visual limitations, and physical disabilities (Atkinson & Hutchinson, 2013; Kelly, 2005; Stalker & Connors, 2004), adolescents with spina bifida (Kinavey, 2006), learning difficulties (Savaria, Underwood & Sinclair, 2011), students with autism spectrum disorders (Mogensen & Mason, 2015; Shattuck, Steinberg, Yu, Wei, Cooper, Newman & Roux, 2017), university students with disabilities (Forber-Pratt & Zape, 2017; Moriña, 2017; Riddell & Weedon, 2014), or Asperger syndrome (González, 2018, 2021) in which, in some way, the fact of being people with educational needs has had an impact on their respective identities. Aside from McNamer's (2013) autobiographical publication, the literature review revealed a gap in knowledge about people's self-perception with physical or learning disabilities. Based on Erikson's Theory of Identity, it is vital to understand people's self-perception with learning or physical disabilities. Erikson (1959) commented that having an acknowledged disability affected a person's identity, leading to potential identity confusion resulting from labeling and possible exclusion by peers.

This type of exercise, personal and experiential, constitutes a double process of self-identification linked, on the one hand, with the perception of common traits with a group of people (Forber-Pratt & Zape, 2017) "heterorecognition" (Giménez, 1996) and, on the other hand, with the ability to notice particular traits that are associated with a self-perception, individuality and difference concerning other people, "auto-recognition" (Giménez, 1996). Individuals perceive similarities and differences in gender, social class, age, and sexual orientation in this identification and recognition process.

Aim of the study

This research study was carried out in 2021 under a quantitative survey design and correlational descriptive logic. The main objective is to know if there is a relationship between age, sex, and the level of self-knowledge and self-regulation with the construction of an identity of the disability. We also intend to test the following hypotheses:

R0: The person with disabilities does not experience identity confusion and feels a sense of belonging among their colleagues with disabilities.
R1: The person with a disability experiences identity confusion and feels a decrease in the sense of belonging among their colleagues with disabilities.
R2: The person with a disability experiences identity confusion and feels a sense of belonging among their disabled peers.

Method

Participants

An intentional (non-probabilistic) or convenience sampling has been developed (Scharager & Armijo, 2001) in which people with disabilities living in the province of Malaga have participated. In the selection of the sample, we have used the criteria of a) being people with a diagnosis of some disability, b) interest in participating in the research, c) being between 13 and 25 years old, and d) having good oral and written comprehension and expression skills.

We contacted five associations of people with disabilities in the province of Malaga who facilitated contact with the participants' families. In the same way, we have contacted other people with disabilities through the snowball methodology. The total sample was comprised of 78 participants, of which N = 28 women (35.89%) and N = 50 men (64.10%), aged between 13 and 25 years, with a mean age of 18.9 years and an SD of 1.1 (Table 1) and of which 18 (23.07%) claimed to have a close relative with a disability (siblings or parents).

	Women	Men
	28	50
Mean age	18.9	18.5
S.D.	1.1	1.2

Table 1. Sample description

More specifically, Table 2 presents the disability that most frequently appears in the study: mild intellectual disability (N = 42), followed by autism spectrum disorder (N = 12).

Autism spectrum disorder	12
Asperger syndrome	4
ADHD- Hyperactivity	2
Mild intellectual disability	42
Learning difficulties (Dyslexia, Dyscalculia, etc.)	2
Visual disability	2
Hearing impairment	8
Others (Smith magenis, Cornelia de Lange)	10

Table 2. Sample division

Measures

Participants were administered a face-to-face survey using Google Forms, which included questions about demographics, primary diagnosis, gender, age, and academic status. The survey consisted of 30 questions grouped into sections, 1) about the identity perceived by the student as a person with diverse needs and questions about their perception of belonging among their peers, 2) self-regulation and 3) self-knowledge.

In this sense, the identity scale used was that of Forber et al. (2020) Initial Factor Exploration of Disability Identity, more specifically, items related to internal beliefs (e.g., I identify with the community of people with disabilities) and those related to anger and frustration with experiences related to the disability (e.g., I wish I didn't have a disability). This Likert-type scale (1-4) has been designed to analyze the degree of implication of certain factors in identity development in people with disabilities. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for this factor is .91.

Regarding self-regulation and self-knowledge, the ARC-INICO scale was used to evaluate self-determination (Verdugo et al., 2014). These factors have a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of .84 and .80, respectively. This Likert-type scale (1-4) was developed to analyze how self-determination is formed in people with disabilities and how it is influenced by factors such as self-regulation and self-knowledge, among others.

Procedure

The study questions were initially tested on 35 participants not belonging to the final study to check the scale's reliability using Cronbach's alpha. In our initial survey, Cronbach's alpha was .65, which led us to revise the scale, remove items with less load, and include other questions to improve reliability and consistency, which led to a considerable increase in our survey tool's consistency and reliability (.94). Later, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test was performed under a level of significance ($p < 0.05$), in which it was obtained that the distribution of the sample differs from the normal one.

As a step before the fieldwork, the heads of the five associations were contacted to arrange a personal meeting in which (1) the objective and procedure of the investigation were explained to them; (2) the confidentiality and information treatment documents were signed; (3) the COVID prevention measures to be considered and the place chosen within the association to carry out the interviews were agreed; (4) the person in charge of each center selected a person (i.e., Key Caregiver) who could be present during the fieldwork; (5) the days and time slots in which to carry out the interviews with each association were agreed.

Subsequently, and considering a series of COVID protocols (use of masks and hydroalcoholic gel, interpersonal distance between attendees, and choice of an outdoor location) over four weeks (initial study) and seven weeks (final study), the collection of information was developed. During all the sessions, a Key Caregiver was present to solve possible doubts for the people interviewed. In this regard, it is vital to consider that the initial study was carried out in April 2021. Some members of two of the associations that participated in the study participated. Subsequently, and once some items had been modified, the final study was carried out during May and June with the five associations that participated in the research.

The first hypothesis was verified using a logistic regression in which the identity category was binary:

1. No identification with the disability.
2. Identification with the disability.

Responses from survey participants (e.g., below mean, above mean) constituted the dependent variable (DV). The selective coding of the data made it possible to identify the participants' self-identity and sense of belonging. Furthermore, the constant comparison of the participants' responses with Erikson's Identity Theory fostered the emergence of a theory of self-identity and belonging specific to people with physical or learning disabilities. SPSS version 26 was used to analyze the survey data.

Results

Regarding internal beliefs in items 7-12 (Table 3), significant correlations (p-value .01) appear in all items that evaluate this aspect. This refers to how people who feel identified with the disability give answers congruently in the questionnaire, which is evident in the positive correlation between items 11 and 12 (ρ- .905 **).

Spearman´s Rho	7	8	9	10	11	12
7 I identify with the community of people with disabilities		.783**	.704**	.744**	.763**	.736**
8 I adopt the fundamental values of the disability culture as my own	.783**		.712**	.630**	.861**	.836**
9 I identify myself as a person with a disability	.704**	.712**		.817**	.805**	.729**
10 I have a strong sense of belonging to people with disabilities	.744**	.630**	.817**		.667**	.563**
11 I am proud to be a person with a disability	.763**	.861**	.805**	.667**		.905**
12 I consider my disability to be a fundamental part of me	.736**	.836**	.729**	.563**	.905**	

Table 3. Internal belief correlations

Within this same aspect, we denote how the average values of these items tend to personal identification with the group of people with disabilities (Table 4), although they are not very high for example, in this case, item 10 -- I have a strong sense of belonging to people with disabilities-- shows the lowest value (M= 2.45).

	7. I identify with the community of people with disabilities	8. I adopt the fundamental values of the disability culture as my own	9. I identify myself as a person with a disability	10. I have a strong sense of belonging to people with disabilities	11. I am proud to be a person with a disability	12. I consider my disability to be a fundamental part of me
N.Valid	78	78	78	78	78	78
M	2.83	2.63	2.71	2.45	2.59	2.82
S.D.	1.263	1.239	1.250	1.180	1.232	1.225

Table 4. Mean values and standard deviation internal beliefs about disability

Regarding the anger and frustrations with the experiences of disability- we see results that refer to the fact that the mean of the items of this aspect is higher than 2 (Table 5).

	13. If there were a "magic pill" that would take away my disability without side effects, I would take it	14. I wish I wasn't disabled	15. There are some days when I wish I didn't have a disability	16. I don't like thinking about my disability
N. Valid	78	78	78	78
M.	2.78	2.63	2.87	2.54
S.D.	1.265	1.320	1.252	1.256

Table 5. Mean values and standard deviation internal beliefs about disability

Once these first calculations had been developed, in an attempt to resolve the hypothesis that was raised, we decided to make the pertinent adjustments to find out how many people in the sample felt identified with the group of people with disabilities, following the formula of - Summary positive identity (SPI) - Negative identity sum (NIS) - (Table 6).

	SPI	NIS
M.	16.1	10.82
S.D.	7.37	5.08

Table 6. Positive and negative sums of disability

After calculating the SPI - NIS values, we found that 19 people (24.35%) are those who are represented in disability (identity), having the following characteristics:

Age group	Gender	Associated disability
19-23 4 people	17 Men	16 Mild intellectual disability
23-25 15 people	2 Women	2 ASD
		1 Asperger Syndrome

Table 7. Disability group characteristics

This means that 75.65% of the surveyed sample does not feel represented within the construct of disability, with values ranging between 10 and 12 below the mean that would correspond to identification as a person with a disability, giving as valid the alternative hypothesis R2.

Concerning the second of the objectives -- to know how self-determination and self-knowledge influence the conformation of the identity of people with disabilities-- we see, in the first place, as being the maximum in the levels of Self-regulation out of 48 points, the ∑ is 33.52; In the case of Self-knowledge, the maximum being 36, the ∑ is 27.5 (Table 8).

	∑ Self-knowledge	∑ Self-regulation
M.	27.5	33.52
S.D.	7.03	11.47

Table 8. Self-knowledge and self-regulation average scores and S.D.

At the same time, as reflected in table 9, the significant correlations (p-value = .01) between these three aspects refer to how the three aspects influence each other.

	Self-Awareness	Self-Regulation	Identity
Self-Awareness		.683**	.458**
Self-Regulation	.683**		.310**
Identity	.458**	.310**	

** The correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (bilateral).

Table 9. Self-Awareness, Self-Regulation, and Identity Correlations

In this regard, we wanted to know how certain variables such as gender, age, even the level of self-knowledge and self-regulation could predict recognition as a person with a disability (objective 2). For this aim, we work with binary logistic regression. As indicated in table 10, block 0 indicates a 75.6% probability of success in the result of the Dependent Variable (DV) when the positive identity is compared with the negative one (I + VS I -).

		I + VS I - No disability identity		
		No disability Identity	Disability Identity	Correct percentage
I +VS I -	Disability Identity	59	0	100.0
		19	0	.0
Global percentage				

Table 10. I + VS I -

Later, with the tool of successive steps backward (Wald), we obtained significant values in the Omnibus test of the model coefficient (Block 1). The statistical score of ROA indicates that there is a considerable improvement in the prediction of the probability of occurrence of DV categories (p <.001) (Table 11).

		Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Step 1	Step	86.608	4	.000
	Block	86.608	4	.000
	Model	86.608	4	.000
Step 2	Step	-37.301[a]	1	.000
	Block	49.307	3	.000
	Model	49.307	3	.000

a. A negative chi-square value indicates that the chi-square value has decreased from the previous step.

Table 11. Omnibus tests of model coefficients.

According to the Nagelkerke R squared value, we see how the first of the steps explains 100% of the changes in the variance of the dependent variable (DV). However, as we will see later, they are not significant. According to the Wald model, they do not predict the changes in the dependent variable. That is why the program itself records another step that indicates that the proposed model explains 69% of the variance of DV (.69) (Table 12). As we see in Table 13, it is significant in all the model variables.

Step	2log likelihood	Cox and Snell R squared	Nagelkerke R squared
1	.000[a]	.671	1.000
2	37.301[b]	.469	.699

a. The estimation has ended at iteration number 20 because the maximum number of iterations has been reached. The final solution cannot be found.

b. The estimate has ended at iteration number 8 because the parameter estimates have changed by less than .001.

Table 12. Model Summary

		β	Standard error	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(β)
Step 1	How do you define yourself?	-365.800	27753.888	.000	1	.989	.000
	What is your age group?	395.727	6605.931	.004	1	.952	7.277E+171
	∑ Self-regulation	-25.555	425.262	.004	1	.952	.000
	∑ Self-knowledge	89.366	1492.149	.004	1	.952	6.476E+38
	Constant	-2876.134	55520.295	.003	1	.959	.000
Step 2	What is your age group?	4.016	1.428	7.907	1	.005	55.495
	∑ Self-regulation	-.239	.098	5.997	1	.014	.788
	∑ Self-knowledge	.641	.197	10.627	1	.001	1.898
	Constant	-26.937	7.975	11.408	1	.001	.000

a. Variables specified in step 1: How do you define yourself?, What is your age group?, Sum Self-regulation, Sum Self-knowledge.

Table 13. Variables in the equation

Among the variables that most significantly predict (p-value = .05) identity development as a person with a disability, age stands out, which shows that as age increases, there is 55.49 times more probability of identifying with the disability, followed by the sum of self-knowledge that increases by 1.89 times and the sum of self-regulation by 0.78 times, making these in the case of the sample the three predictive variables of identity development. At the same time, for the logistic regression proposed, classification table 14 indicates an 89.7% probability of success in the DV result when we know these same variables that we have come to call predictors.

Observed		Predicted I + VS I - No disability Identity	Disability Identity	Correct percentage
I + VS I -	No disability Identity	59	0	100.0
	Disability Identity	0	19	100.0
Global percentage				100.0
I + VS I -	No disability Identity	55	4	93.2
	Disability Identity	4	15	78.9
Global percentage				89.7

Table 14. Classification

Discussion

As stated in the initial hypothesis, the results indicate that people with disabilities who have participated in this research experience confusion regarding their identity, that is, on the one hand, they identify with a group of people with specific disabilities; however, on the other hand, we find 75.65% of the participants who do not identify as a person with a disability. In this sense, we agree with the research by Chalk (2016) and Chalk, Barlett, and Barlett (2020), in which respectively 96.5% (n = 1258) and 68.7% (n = 358) of people with disabilities do not self-identify with the diagnosis.

The identity of the disability, as a multi-dimensional construct, includes external and internal factors in which the experience and personal thoughts about the disability shape the identity of the disability (Forber-Pratt et al., 2020). We find a public dimension -- social recognition-- and a private dimension -- denial and frustration-- of the identity of the disability, since to a large extent, the participants notice frustration when they think about their disability. They do not identify personally with the group of people with disabilities. People will build their identity by "searching for an individual identity and searching for a collective identity" (Morales et al., 1996, p. 40). This complex and confusing process will produce a conflict between self-recognition, and heterorecognition (Melucci, 1996), characterized in that individuals perceive common traits with a group or collective with which they identify but at the same time show a particular feeling of difference from them. The positive affirmation of disability is associated with a sense of belonging and connection with a group of people with whom spaces and experiences are shared (Hahn & Belt, 2004).

The analyses show us how identity, as a multi-faceted construct linked to personal, social, historical, and political dimensions (Forber-Pratt & Zape, 2017), should be approached under the term identities since the participants have shown at least one identity public and other private. In this sense, we agree with the results obtained by Forber-Pratt et al. (2020) when they identify "internal beliefs about own disability and the disability community" and "anger and frustration with disability experiences" as two of the critical factors in the construction of the disability identity.

A positive correlation appears between identifying with people with disabilities and age, self-knowledge, and self-regulation concerning the second objective. In this regard, we must consider that people with disabilities identify with a disability as a consequence of (1) perceiving that they have a disability, (2) experiencing externally imposed restrictions, and (3) self-identify as people with disabilities (Oliver, 2018). In this sense, and as some research indicates (Caldwell, 2011; Darling & Heckert, 2010) for many people, self-identification as a person with a disability is a positive fact related to high self-esteem and pride (Nario-Redmond, Noel & Fern, 2013). In a particular way, and this is indicated by the work carried out by Darling and Heckert (2010), there is a heightened feeling of pride among the population between the ages of 18 and 35. This perception decreases as age increases. Regarding the trinomial of age, self-knowledge, and self-regulation, it is vital to consider that age as an inherent dimension of experience will increase self-knowledge, in the same way, as some studies indicate, a better capacity for self-regulation has a positive impact on the development of self-perception (Jones, 2012; Nader-Grosbois, 2014), and therefore will contribute to increasing self-esteem. The inclusion of a self-description as a person with disabilities will lead to diminished self-esteem (Moon & Kim, 2021) at younger ages.

Limitations

This study has limitations that should be considered. In the first place, the sample of participants is not large enough, which means that the findings cannot be generalized; in the same way, it is relevant to consider information provided by families for future research and consider what dimensions contribute to generating the perception of difference. This study was meant to be replicated in the northeastern United States, but could not proceed because of legal restrictions in the United States pertaining to human subjects research involving participants under the age of 18. Attention to the social construction of identity in people with disabilities is critical because as Forber-Pratt, Lyew, Mueller, and Samples (2017) state, a more complete and larger-scale study of the development of a disability identity is necessary.

Conclusion

After all that has been indicated so far, it is revealing that many participants show a public identity --of recognition -- and a private one -- of rejection -- towards identifying themselves as a person with a disability. In this regard, we must consider that social, educational, and school contexts contribute to the creation and maintenance of an identity of difference that is built through a cognitive (thought), affective (feelings), and attitudinal (acts and behaviors) process (González, 2018). In other words, the identity of the disability, as a construct linked to the identity of difference, has been constructed and is maintained under discourses of power (Mañas, 2020) of a social, school, economic, educational, political nature, both implicit and explicit, they configure at the macro-social – citizenship -- and micro-social -- people diagnosed with disabilities -- a discourse of disability and a perception of it, and therefore contribute to a multi-faceted and complex use of the concept of identity.

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Comparative Policy Design Analysis: An Integrated Approach for Unpacking the Education Policies of Finland, Singapore, and Australia

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
In complementary to framing comparative policy analysis by policy cycle and policy sub-systems approaches, this article aims to articulate the policy design perspectives to comparative policy studies. We argue that comparing policy causations, policy instruments, policy interventions, and evaluation strategies across countries from different comparative angles helps to redefine the commonalities and differences that go beyond linear and multi-layered perspectives. By using the cases of the education policies of Finland, Singapore, and Australia, this article illustrates that different designs started from different conceptualisations of causations concerning the perceptions of education problems and appropriate solutions. This entry point stimulates each country to design policy goals, instruments, interventions, and evaluations. Finland has developed an equity-based education policy, while Singapore's education is merit-based, emphasising ranking systems and competition. Australia has embarked upon a market-based education policy to suit the neo-liberal conditions of the market economy. These divergences from the implication of the comparative policy design analysis framework can contribute to a better understanding of the policy domain by moving from ideation to action and learning within and across countries.

Keywords: Policy Design, Comparative Policy Analysis, Policy Instruments, Policy Intervention

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Introduction

The policy design approaches commenced in the 1970s as a response to the bureaucratic failures of policy implementation (Lowi, 1972). It is framed as developing solutions through a complex process of technical knowledge within the contextual realities by engaging multidisciplinary and multi-layered approaches (Linders and Peters, 1984). The function of policy design also goes beyond identifying and analysing problems to proposing solutions and building institutions, shaping beliefs and behaviours, facilitating progressive coalitions and improving social conditions. Welfare economics, public choices, governance machinery, democratic approaches, and developmental philosophies are considered when proposing policy alternatives since the dynamics of policy feasibility, legality, credibility, and sustainability depend on those factors (Stone, 2001). Hence, the policy design process establishes the legitimacy and efficacy of interplay among the legislative, bureaucratic, and democratic dimensions (Ingraham, 1987).

However, the success of a policy design is hinged upon the universal acceptance of the stakeholders in meeting the common policy goals. Therefore, the policy design approach needs a holistic perspective on the causal relationships behind its successes and failures since its formulation processes and the designs themselves significantly influence implementation outcomes. Recognising the novelty of policy formulation and its design approaches, the study of policy design has gained momentum in recent times. It is further explored to improve from non-design and less design to more design (Peters, 2018). The work is now probing into an integrated, democratic, and holistic approach to enable a systematic and comprehensive policy, thereby gaining impetus as a pathway to the new era of policy studies (Howlett, 2014, Peters, 2015).

This paper discusses the potential for a comprehensive policy design approach by underpinning the theoretical framework of policy design and comparative policy analysis and proposing a Comparative Policy Design Analysis (CPDA) Framework. The proposed CPDA framework is then used to unpack the education policies of Finland, Singapore and Australia by primarily looking at the commonalities and differences.

Literature Review

The approaches of policy design and comparative policy analysis are usually adopted separately to understand policy domains although it is promoted mainly by the same epistemic communities. Peters and Fontaine's (2020, 2022) work attempt to advance both fields of policy design and comparative policy analysis approach but still prefers to take them apart to shed their light. Along the same line, many studies focus on comparing policy designs or the design process of comparative policy analysis. Still, the discussions of the potential of their articulation in terms of theoretical advancements are limited (e.g., Fernández, Knill and Steinebach, 2021). Most works propose transferring policy tools across countries, which is only one dimension of policy design and comparative policy analysis (e.g., Margetts and Hood, 2016). The attempt of Howlett and Mukherjee (2018) seems to be progressive as they attempt to make a comprehensive and systematic review of comparative policy analysis that contributes to policy design. However, they do not provide a conceptual framework for the articulation within their scope of work.

The comparative policy analysis approach is considered a set of methods rather than a theoretical concept (Brans, Geva-May, and Howlett, 2017; Howlett and Mukherjee, 2019;

Lodge, 2007). The focus is on the state-of-the-art knowledge about the science, art and craft of policy analysis in different countries, to varying levels of government and by all relevant actors in and outside government who contribute to the analysis of problems and the search for policy solutions (Brans, Geva-May, and Howlett, 2017). Thus, the emphasis of the comparative policy analysis approach is also on fostering policy change through an understanding of policy transfer, diffusion, and learning (Hadjiisky, Pal, and Christopher, 2017; Peters and Fontaine, 2020). It does not cover the structural and institutional analysis by considering time and place.

Therefore, there is a scope to bridge the policy design and comparative policy analysis lens to enable a comprehensive and systematic approach. Thus, this study aims to articulate policy design to comparative policy analysis by attempting to propose the analytical framework called 'Comparative Policy Design Analysis' (CPDA) and illustrate the benefit of its implication by using the case of the education policy as this policy sector requires careful policy design.

Among different conceptualisations of policy design, Guy Peters' (2018) perspectives are used in the proposed CPDA framework since his lens comprehensively covers key focuses of policy design. Attuned to his theoretical underpinning, the policy design framework adopted here encompasses problem causation, instrumentation, intervention, and evaluation (Peters, 2018). Causation is when problems are identified, and their solutions are figured out. Instrumentation and intervention are then about selecting policy instruments and placing them in real-world practice. The evaluation strategy reflects on whether the design process is moving in the right direction to address the problems (Peters, 2018).

On the other spectrum, the theoretical points, including the discussion on structure versus agency, the role of context and the problem of time, and policy change, are adapted (Peters and Fontaine, 2020). The discussion on structure versus agency is related to enduring debates between methodological individualism, favouring behavioural and rational choice theories, and neo-institutionalism, arguing for structural determination (Lodge, 2007). The role of context and the time problem are mainly related to the conflicts between and within-case comparative studies.

Thus, the proposed comparative policy design analysis (CPDA) approach is combined with the policy design approach since it would foster universal policy transfer and stimulate contextual considerations of policy adoption.

CPA/ Policy design	Structure and agency	The role of context and the problem of time (Critical times, specific places and governmental levels)	Policy change (Policy transfer, diffusion and learning)
Causations	Policy problems and solutions/ goals determined from structure and agency conditions	Policy problems and solutions/ goals in consideration of times and places/levels	Policy problems and solutions/ goals framed by international experiences
Policy instruments	Instruments aiming to address structure and agency conditions	Instruments chosen from contextual considerations	Instruments chosen by considering international experiences
Policy interventions	Interventions aiming to address structure and agency conditions	Interventions chosen from contextual considerations	Interventions chosen by considering international experiences
Evaluation strategies	Evaluation criteria and methods that are sensitive to structural and institutional changes	Evaluation criteria and methods that are sensitive to Pcontextual changes	Evaluation criteria and methods that are transferred from international standards

Source: Peters (2018) and Peters and Fontaine (2020)

Table 1: CPDA Framework. Developed by authors.

Why the education policies of Finland, Singapore, and Australia?

The education policies of Finland, Singapore, and Australia are chosen for this study as they have a clear way of policy design moving from problems to solutions. Although Finland, Singapore and Australia differ in terms of their historical, geographical, cultural and economic characteristics, they have taken a similar approach to education reforms recently which makes the cases relevant. Those nations are also assessed by the OECD through the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) ranking systems which creates similar policy platforms for more focused comparisons (Kauko and Diogo, 2011).

The education policies of Finland, Singapore and Australia are also known for their ability to deliver educational services that have earned a reputation for being dynamic in meeting their local needs while performing well in the global educational rankings. While each country has different policy approaches that are suited for their contexts, those systems do share commonalities that resonate as a progressive policy paradigm to benefit the respective country's socio-economic developments. With their progressive education development, there is a scope to learn from and across them.

Methodology

A qualitative documentary analysis approach is primarily adopted as the main method for this study. The literature comprising of the education policies, acts, rules and regulations and guidelines of Finland, Singapore and Australia spanning over six decades from 1961 to 2022 were gathered mostly from open sources. Predominantly, the documents are extracted from Finland, Singapore and Australia's Ministry of Education's official websites.

The proposed Comparative Policy Design Analysis framework was used for analysis by mapping out a matrix through the adaptation of Guy Peters' policy design and Peters and Fontaine's comparative policy analysis approaches. The vertical considerations included

causations, policy instruments, policy interventions, and evaluation strategies as critical policy design angles. The horizontal considerations covered structure and agency, time and place, policy transfer, diffusion and learning as key angles of comparative policy analysis (Gidden, 1984). The framework considered 12 boxes derived from the convergence of two lenses. In the causation angle, for example, the framework is guided to consider how problems and solutions/ goals are determined from structure and agency conditions, how they are considered in relation to time and place, and how international experiences frame them.

The proposed 'Comparative Policy Design Analysis' (CPDA) framework was thus, used to identify the commonalities and differences in the education policies of Finland, Singapore and Australia.

Findings and Discussions

Commonalities of policy approaches in Finland, Singapore and Australia

For the commonalities identified by the CPDA framework, the success of education from a policy perspective involves a host of factors across the branches of policy actors, stakeholders, and citizens from different policy design angles. Although Finland, Singapore and Australia are different countries in their size, culture, and political and socio-economic contexts, the education policies of those countries share certain commonalities.

The first one is the goal of education built on the design of sound education acts and policies. A system built without a legal and credible stronghold is bound to fail in the planning and execution of policies. Hence, the education policies and acts of Finland, Singapore and Australia have not only guided to steer the educational landscape but also been adaptive to several reforms to suit the emerging national and global interests.

The second common characteristic of the Finnish, Singapore and Australian education systems is an aspiration for the right to high-quality education for the citizens by creating conditions for children to avail rigorous, relevant, and engaging learning programs that address their cognitive, affective, and physical, social, and aesthetic needs, regardless of their background or location.

The third common point between Finland, Singapore and Australia is a complementary approach to supporting education through economy and spending as the main policy instrument. The educational policies cost a significant amount of money on training, financing, and administration, and without some level of economic stability, implementing these policies becomes unfeasible.

The fourth common point between them is the structural integrity of the education system. As governments overhaul their economic strategies in the face of unprecedented challenges which are further exacerbated by technological changes, maintaining a meaningful and relevant education system is required to foster an inclusive and sustainable development of all (OECD, 2019). Although the three countries have vastly different positions on basic education, a large part of the reason these countries can succeed is the internal consistency of their education policies. Finland's education system is based mainly on self-learning and trust in the agents within the system while Singapore believes in a guided approach through rigorous performance management systems. Australia is targeting on internationalisation of

its education by making it one of the crucial components of the economy (Marks, McMillan and Ainley, 2004).

The fifth area of comparison that Finland, Singapore, and Australia have in common is the intervention at the agency level, which is the investment in training their teachers. Aside from having a stringent selection process, these countries engage their teachers in rigorous training schemes and help their trainee teachers to develop classroom competencies through work attachments as well. Aside from that, extensive lessons on pedagogy, which are not commonplace worldwide, are mandatory for prospective teachers. This means that these countries treat teaching as a serious enough profession to have prospective teachers go through courses that pertain specifically to teaching. The talent pool from which teachers are drawn is also quite strong, with almost all teachers coming from the top quarter of academic performers in their cohort. This means that the people supposed to guide students to academic excellence have also achieved it themselves.

The sixth common denominator is the consideration of policy diffusion and learning from the international level, especially the participation in global ranking systems such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) which projects them as one of the top educational-performing countries globally (Ustun and Eryilmaz, 2018). The PISA data threw light into the profile of the student's achievements in a way that enabled direct comparison to other PISA participating nations. Disappointing student achievement data has been used as an instigation for education reformations and transformations (ACER, 2016).

Similar to the previous point, the seventh common area where the education policies of Finland, Singapore and Australia meet is a focus on the diffusion and learning of global policy advocacy on the 21st century competency-based learning as an approach with emphasis on the student's demonstration of desired learning outcomes as central to the learning process. It is concerned chiefly with a student's progression through curriculum mastery and skills mastery.

The eighth area of commonalities is the influence of an inclusive policy design perspective, as can be seen from the encouragement to support students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In Australia, the regulatory policies include both language-specific curricula and frameworks for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages and classical languages. Plurilingualism is a distinctive feature of the Finnish education system, regarded as key to the personal and professional development of individuals and perceived as one of the competitive advantages in students' international performance. A summary of the country's longstanding approach to curriculum design in this field concludes that the official language policy aims at maintaining and cultivating as many foreign languages as possible for individual cultural richness and to increase national linguistic capital. In Singapore, although English is the primary medium of instruction, some schools have programmes for teaching languages to migrant populations (Wong and Turner, 2014).

Differences in policy approaches in Finland, Singapore and Australia

The CPDA framework facilitated the identification of the unique characteristics of each country depending on contextual issues and challenges faced by their education systems as follows:

Equity-based educational policy in Finland

The successes of Finnish education start from the causation angle of policy design that the government makes a very clear educational philosophy that underlines education policy goals.

Promoting equity, equality and the well-being of children is a crucial pillar of education here. The country has one of the narrowest gaps in achievement between its highest and lowest-performing schools, and continuing efforts are being made to reduce differences and inequities between schools. Finnish education is grounded on all-around classroom experience and the development of students into good humans with an equal focus on arts, play and ethics. Finnish schools are founded on promoting the total well-being of children, requiring by law that each school provide free food, access to health care, and on-site counselling and guidance. Every school must have a welfare team to advance child happiness in school, creating a safe, healthy environment conducive to learning. Outdoor, practical learning opportunities and health-related physical activity sessions are regular features (Rajala and Lipponen, 2018).

One of the innovations in Finnish education policy is developing a trust-based system that largely avoids monitoring, testing and inspections, though extensive evaluations occur. Instead, resources are diverted to teaching innovations in Finland. An active Ombudsman for Children represents and consults children and youth councils to advance the cause for children. Since 2016 children are roped into periodical surveys to identify the policy gaps and the results of the study are then incorporated into legislation and decision-making. The Finnish system has remarkable consistency across schools, and there is little variation between students from low and high socio-economic areas (Sahlberg and Hargreaves, 2011). Finland's high equity in education opportunities seems to share a strong link with a reallocation of teaching resources toward weaker students, as well as a diverse curriculum to encourage skill development and personal growth.

Merit-based educational policy in Singapore

Singaporean policy interventions are based mainly on a pragmatic orientation. With such a policy style, the education policies of Singapore are mostly implementable and impactful. The country declared after its independence in 1966 that the goal for education is to rear a generation that has all the qualities needed to lead and inspire the people and the drive to make it succeed. Singapore's philosophy was to build a highly stratified society with shared values. With a changing economic landscape that shifted towards a knowledge-based economy, rapid population growth in the 1980s and immigrant influx since the early 2000s, the policy has changed from stratification to competition. Singapore has a highly structured system of education with a centrally designed curriculum and provision of constant coaching and evaluation of teachers and students. Competition and competency criteria are the basis for career progression in Singapore. Singapore has a streaming system, and now subject matter banding system introduced to reduce the high drop-out rates from the system. These features of the Singaporean model point toward a highly competitive system that showcase the principles of new public management (Tan and Tee Ng, 2007).

Singapore is known for its exemplary education system, but it is equally known for its competitive nature. It can be argued that Singapore has "embraced the goal of achieving new economic competencies dealing with creativity and innovation while clinging to high-stakes

testing as the prime yardstick of meritocracy" (Reyes & Gopinathan, 2015, p. 152). Thus, Singapore has accumulated rich economic and human capital to project it as one of the world's most competitive nations (Garelli, 2007).

Market-based educational policy of Australia

The Australian education system emphasises cultivating a strong work ethic and sense of responsibility from an early age. This includes emphasising discipline, hard work and efficiency in their studies. Buchanan and McPherson (2011) elucidate that the Melbourne Declaration signed in 2008 by Australia's state and federal education ministers is aimed at achieving the goals of equity and excellence with a recurring emphasis on economic, educational, and technological advancements. This infers that that declaration is underpinned by the human capital theory targeted at economic reform and achieving higher productivity and participation in the global knowledge economy. Thus, Australian education policies are designed in consonance with neo-liberalism that shapes the global regime.

Australia has adopted an approach that encourages individuals to get as much out of their experience instead of the pressure and expectation of results the Asian education system tends to value. Hence, several pathway programs to higher education for domestic and international students are offered. Additionally, to prepare appropriately to adjust to the Australian education system, foundation studies and English language preparation programs are offered to international students. There are over 1100 institutions, 22000 courses and 440,129 international students enrolled in the nation's universities and vocational institutions. Notwithstanding a 15% drop from 2021, international education, valued at $18.8 billion, is Australia's third-largest export making it a leading global education provider. Thus, Australia emphasises the economic value of education based on preparing students to be work and future-ready (Australian Government, 2010, 2022).

Conclusion

The proposed Comparative Policy Design Analysis (CPDA) framework showcases the potential for the articulation of the policy design and comparative policy analysis approaches in a singular frame and features their supplementary and complementary roles from specific contexts to across contexts. It can be highlighted that with the adoption of the CPDA framework, we can capture how the principal policy approaches undertaken by Finland, Singapore, and Australia are different by digging deeper into their different designs from different comparative angles. With vertical and horizontal perspectives, they can also make us simplify complex sets of real-world conditions. The articulation of policy design and comparative policy analysis through the CPDA framework is thus productive in helping us explore real-world policy both deeper and wider.

The framework reinforces that each country has different approaches to their ideas of education systems and adopted policies and practices that are suited to its context. Finland considers the child's needs first and then plans its education policies. Its holistic education model has led to remarkable results in child well-being, educational attainment and economic competitiveness that serve its students, communities, and country. Singapore has taken a top-down approach and societal needs into account. Its emphasis on merit-based education with a high focus on command-and-control mechanisms with strategised evaluation and monitoring systems has catapulted the island nation from the third world to the first world status in just over sixty decades. Australia manoeuvres its education policies to suit market trends. Its

educational diversification and pathways programmes and supported by work-right policies have made education an essential component of its economy. The approaches adopted by these countries indicate that there is no one size fits all policy design.

However, moving to the limitations of the implication of the CPDA framework - it is hard to deny that the analysis from a matrix perspective can make us lose the intersections among boxes. For example, policy instruments and interventions are interconnected. Separating them into different boxes reduces our understanding of their connection. Moreover, the analysis of structure and agency, for instance, are not themselves at either the horizontal level or the vertical one. Within their simple classification, there is a risk to neglect something in-between and the interactions between structure and agency. The analysis provides how the education policies of each country are designed to address structural problems and institutional constraints but does not necessarily cover how structural and institutional conditions are interrelated.

There are also caveats that need to be considered regarding generalising this study's findings. Although the analysed articles provide relevant studies and interesting findings from which pertinent conclusions may be drawn, the article has limitations to the understanding of the nuances of policy design's impact on the outcomes of education policies. Notwithstanding these caveats, it is believed that the theoretical framework and the analytical synthesis presented in this article can be used as a starting point for other studies.

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the following for their valuable contributions to my work:

1. Piyapong Boossabong, Assistant Director, School of Public Policy, Chiang Mai University for his valuable support and insights during the study.
2. Ora-Orn Poocharoen. Director, School of Public Policy, Chiang Mai University for her comments and feedback.
3. Lakchayaporn Thansiri, Degree Program Officer, School of Public Policy, Chiang Mai University for her administrative and logistics support.
4. Kezang Yangden, Dhendup Norbu Wangdi and Trashi Yangzom Wangdi (My family) for bearing with me and for their patience at home.
5. All my personal and professional friends for their consistent guidance and support in my endeavours.

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A Comparative Analysis of the Self-Perceived and Actual Grammatical Competence in English of Filipino Grade 12 Students in Metro Manila

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Is there a difference between a person's self-perceived and actual grammatical competence in English? This descriptive study uses a quantitative approach to compare the levels of self-perceived and actual grammatical competence in English of Filipino Grade 12 students in Metro Manila according to sex, income class, type of school attended, foreign travel experience, movie preference, and the use of English at home. A survey questionnaire was administered to 185 respondents to elicit their self-reported level of grammatical competence in English. Then, the same respondents were asked to answer the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) to assess their actual level of grammatical competence in English. The data were analyzed in relation to the concepts of Canale and Swain's Communicative Competence and Martin's Circles within Circle. Results showed that the respondents see themselves as having more skill than they actually possess which suggests that confidence in one's ability in using a language is a positive element in building communication skills. As the Philippines finds itself lagging behind with the dismal performance of Filipinos in international assessment tests, it is hoped that the relevant findings of this study will help educators and policy makers infer "teaching-learning effectiveness" and to provide impetus towards the further development of the English grammatical competence in the Philippines.

Keywords: Grammatical Competence, Self-Perceived, TOEIC

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Introduction

Out of about 7.8 billion people in the world, almost 1.5 billion speak English (Statista, 2022). It is used as the working language of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and other international organizations, as well as in international conferences (Pochhacker, 1994, p. 154; Basel, 2002, pp. 16-19; Neff, 2007; cited in Albl-Mikasa, 2010), international business, mass media, entertainment industry, communication platforms, and the social media.

In the Philippines, the United States introduced English to us in 1898 (Bernardo, 2009). Since then, English has become one of our official languages and the medium of instruction in both private and public schools nationwide. In the 1960s, the Philippine educational system was viewed as one of the most developed in Asia (Cardozier, 1984; Lande, 1965; Swinerton, 1991; cited in Maca & Morris, 2012). In 2012, GlobalEnglish Corporation named the Philippines as the world's best country in business English proficiency, even beating the United States (Mendoza, 2012), and in 2022, the Philippines was ranked 22nd worldwide in the English Proficiency Index and was ranked second in Asia, next only to Singapore (Yraola, 2022).

Nevertheless, there is an increasing perception that the Filipino's competence in the use of English is deteriorating. The 2018 results of the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) showed that among 79 participating countries, the Philippines was ranked last in reading and second last in both math and science (Mateo, 2019). Also in 2018, Hopkins International Partners, Inc. reported that the English proficiency level of college graduates in the Philippines is lower than the proficiency target for high school students in Thailand, as well as the competency requirements for taxi drivers in Dubai (Morallo, 2018). This alarming state of English proficiency of Filipinos happened despite the restructuring of the Philippines' basic educational system through the K to 12 program of the Department of Education with the goal of giving every student quality education that is globally competitive. The dismal results of PISA and other international assessment tests indicated that our educational system still falls short of being globally competitive.

It is important to know the current level of actual grammatical or linguistic competence of Filipino Grade 12 students because the results could provide impetus to infer teaching-learning effectiveness even though teaching effectiveness is not at all clearly observable behavior in my study. According to some studies, self-perception reports are not very useful if the researcher wants to know how competent a person actually is because the person very likely does not know (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1984). Therefore, objective proficiency tests such as the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) should be administered to assess a person's actual grammatical competence in a language.

The 2007 study conducted by the University of the Philippines College of Mass Communication (UP-CMC-Communication Research Department) yielded significant results relevant to my study: 1) that respondents consider themselves most competent in listening; and 2) that the higher the respondent's socio-economic status, the higher their perceived competence in communicating. Moreover, other studies showed that there is a significant relationship between socio-economic status and communicative competence (Sibayan and Gonzalez, 1996; Tupas, 2001; and Martin, 2014). Tupas (2001) noted that "those who attain near-native competence in the language because of excellent education belong to top five percent of the population and usually come from Metro Manila and other urban centers of the

country" (p.15). Tupas (2004) also argued that although Philippine English signifies the cultural and sociolinguistic signs of the entire country, scholars have generally reserved it only to the educated few (p.49).

Although grammatical competence is just one component of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1983), some studies revealed that grammatical competence is the most important aspect in communicative competence. Hinkel (2004) argues that in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL), the knowledge of grammar prescriptions or standard grammar rules is one of the top necessities for instructors. Hinkel (2004) also contends that for reasonable purposes, grammar teaching needs to address the standard rules of syntactic developments to empower students to prevail in education, career, or other social settings where formal use of prescriptive sentence structure is regularly preferred. Other studies pointed out that gender differences indicate the respondents' attitude toward second language teaching (Baker & MacIntyre, 2003); and that objective measures are required by which one may assess the competence of a person in one or more languages by a common standard (Lehmann, 2007). Consequently, Hodgson (2014) used a mixed method of qualitative questionnaire and proficiency assessment results of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) to investigate the degree to which native speaker models of communicative competence affect the linguistic self-confidence.

My study builds on the models of Canale & Swain and Martin's Circles within Circle. According to Canale & Swain (1980), grammatical competence includes the knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology. In other words, a person with grammatical competence knows what words to use and how to put them into phrases and sentences.

I. P. Martin (2014) reexamined the Three Circles Model of Braj Kachru in the context of the Philippines to better capture the linguistic realities of Outer Circle speakers of English (See Figure 1). Philippine English, an Outer Circle country can be thought of as a circle with many circles. Filipinos in the Inner Philippine English Circle have embraced the English language and actively promote it. Filipinos in the Outer Philippine English Circle know that Philippine variety exists but fall short of promoting it. Filipinos in the Expanding Philippine English Circle see that English is irrelevant.



Figure 1. I. P. Martin's Circles within Circle Model

In my operational model, the Filipinos in the Inner Circle or English Elite have high family income, use English at home, attend top private schools, have foreign travel experience, prefer watching English movies, and are the most competent and most comfortable in

communicating in English. Those in the Outer Circle or English Aware have average level of grammatical competence in English while those in the Expanding Circle or the English Irrelevant have the lowest level of grammatical competence and least comfortable in communicating in English (See Figure 2).

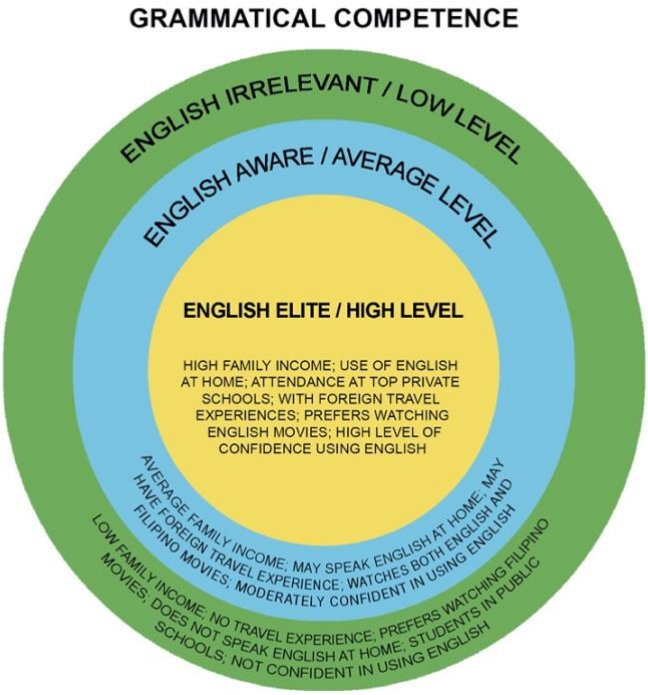


Figure 2. Operational Model integrating Canale & Swain's Grammatical Competence and I. P. Martin's Circles within Circle

Drawing from the concepts of Canale & Swain and I. P. Martin, my study aims to answer the following fundamental question: How do the levels of self-perceived and actual grammatical competence in English of Filipino Grade 12 students in Metro Manila differ: 1) between male and female respondents; 2) among respondents from low, middle, and high socio-economic strata; 3) between respondents studying in private schools and those studying in public schools; 4) between respondents with foreign travel experience and those without foreign travel experience; 5) between respondents who prefer to watch Filipino movies rather than watch English movies; and 6) between respondents who speak English at home and those who do not.

This study aims to achieve the following objective: To compare the levels of self-perceived and actual grammatical competence in English of Filipino Grade 12 students in Metro Manila according to sex, income class, type of school attended, movie preference, foreign travel experience, and the use of English at home.

This descriptive study used a quantitative approach to elicit the answer to the research question. A survey was conducted to determine the level of self-perceived grammatical competence in English of 185 Filipino Grade 12 students in Metro Manila. TOEIC listening, speaking, reading, and writing tests were administered to the same respondents to determine the actual grammatical competence in English. Then, the results of the survey and TOEIC tests were compared and analyzed. I used criterion sampling because I had to set the criteria

and select all cases that meet those criteria (e.g., students who speak English at home and those with high family income). To determine if the scores in the long version of the TOEIC instruments are significantly different from the scores in the abridged version based on a sample of three subjects, the Fisher sign test was used. The Fisher sign test yielded a test statistic value of B = 1 for the listening part and B = 0 for the reading part with p-values of 1.0 and 0.25 respectively which were not significant at the 0.05 level. This result indicated there was no sufficient evidence to say that the scores from the two versions of the test significantly vary at the 0.05 level of significance.

Results and Discussion

The age of the respondents ranged from 15 to 21 years old, but a majority of the respondents were 16-18. There were more male than female respondents. Most of the respondents reported having average monthly family income of at most P50,000. However, it may be presumed for the private high schools that their monthly family income would be more than P50,000 given that the respondents were chosen based on the characteristics for this study. About 54% of the respondents came from one public school while 46% came from three private schools. Around 70% preferred watching both English and Filipino movies while only 24% preferred watching English movies only. Almost 23% had visited at least one foreign country, and only 2% reported using pure English at home.

The table below shows the levels of self-perceived grammatical competence of the respondents. Respondents felt most competent in listening to English conversations, but least competent in responding to different English accents orally because the approach in teaching English in the Philippines is focused more on grammar rather than oral communication. Overall, the respondents felt more competent in listening (4.076), followed by reading (4.016), then writing (3.7295), and finally speaking (3.373) (See Table 1).

Table 1. Mean Scores of Self-Perceived Grammatical Competence

Item/Situation	Skill	Mean Score	Average Mean
4.1 Read English materials	Reading	4.016	4.016
4.2 Write essays in English	Writing	3.735	3.7295
4.3 Write reports in English	Writing	3.724	
4.6 Listen to English conversation	Listening	4.076	4.076
4.4 Explain orally in English	Speaking	3.254	3.373
4.5 Reason orally in English		3.222	
4.7 Respond to different English accents orally		3.189	
4.8 Answer English questions orally		3.827	

Table 2 shows the summary of the levels of self-perceived grammatical competence in English. The level of scores was identified using the scoring system below:

Level	Total Score Range
Low	Less than 60%
Average	60% to 80%
High	More than 80%

According to DepEd Order No. 8, s. 2015, all grades in the K to 12 Basic Education Program will be based on the weighted raw score of the learners' summative assessments wherein the minimum grade needed to pass a specific learning area is 60, which is transmuted to 75 in the report card. Therefore, I used the same policy in grading the raw score of the respondents' self-perceived grammatical competence in English.

Table 2 below shows that only 24% of the respondents have low scores in communication skills such as reading, speaking, listening, and writing while 37% and 39% have average and high scores respectively. This shows that more respondents perceive themselves to have average to high grammatical competence in English.

Table 2. Summary of the Levels of Self-Perceived Grammatical Competence

Level	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Low	45	24
Average	68	37
High	72	39
Total	185	100

However, Table 3 shows that more than half of the respondents had low actual scores in speaking (67%) and writing (69%) tests, and no respondent scored high in these tests. Almost half (48%) had average actual scores in listening, and more than half (58%) had average scores in reading.

Table 3. Levels of TOEIC Total Scores per Skill

	Level	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Speaking			
	Low	124	67%
	Average	61	33%
	High	0	0%
	Total	185	100%
Writing			
	Low	127	69%
	Average	58	31%
	High	0	0%
	Total	185	100%

Listening			
	Low	42	23%
	Average	89	48%
	High	54	29%
	Total	185	100%
Reading			
	Low	64	35%
	Average	108	58%
	High	13	7%
	Total	185	100%

Table 4 shows that the students' actual English grammatical competence did not necessarily match their self-perceived abilities. Their self-perceived scores tend to be higher than their actual test scores. Wilcoxon signed rank test was used to compare the respondents' self-perceived and actual grammatical competence in English.

Table 4. Self-Perceived vs. Actual Grammatical Competence

Statistic	Actual	Self-Perceived
Average	51.9562	58.2801
Median	50.0000	58.1818
Standard Deviation	22.5215	23.1236
Wilcoxon's W	5840	
Wilcoxon p-value	0.0002 (significant difference)	

A comparison of self-perceived and actual grammatical competence across various demographic factors follows (See Table 5). Mann-Whitney U Test was used for comparing two samples while Kruskall-Wallis Test was used for more than two samples. The results show that females have higher mean scaled scores for both self-perceived and actual grammatical competence. Also, those in private schools have higher mean scaled scores for both self-perceived and actual grammatical competence. The highest scores belong to those respondents who spoke predominantly English at home for self-perceived grammatical competence but for the actual grammatical competence, language spoken at home was not a significant factor. However, the results may be affected by the limited number of respondents for the language used at home variable. The family's monthly family income has a strong association with how confident the respondents were in their ability to communicate in English. The highest scores belong to respondents towards the higher income brackets. Expectedly, the lowest average scores were observed from respondents whose families earned below P6000 monthly. In terms of movie preference, students preferring English movies tend to score higher in both their self-perceived and actual English grammatical competence. Moreover, the more foreign countries the students visited, the higher their self-perceived and actual grammatical abilities tend to be (See Table 5).

Table 5. Summary of Self-Perceived (SP) and Actual (A) Grammatical Competence Across Various Demographic Factors

	Sex				Type of School Attended				Movie Preference					
	Male		Female		Public		Private		English		Filipino		English & Filipino	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
SP	53.44	23.60	64.23	21.18	51.64	21.76	66.10	22.34	63.39	23.82	37.92	13.98	57.61	22.78
	Significance: U = 3113.5, p <0.05				Significance: U = 2653, p <0.05				Significance = Chi-square = 8.807, p <0.05					
A	48.20	21.30	56.57	23.24	43.10	18.29	62.38	22.66	53.60	21.84	27.89	11.96	52.66	22.33
	Significance: U = 3330, p <0.05				Significance: U = 2161, p <0.05				Significance: Chi-square = 8.605, p <0.05					

	Monthly Family Income											
	Below P6000		P6001-25000		P25001-50000		P50001-100000		P100000 +		Don't know	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
SP	47.05	19.92	55.71	21.52	66.81	15.78	74.03	18.69	65.97	25.96	49.89	25.19
	Significance: Chi-square = 27.242, p < 0.05											
A	42.86	26.13	45.89	19.52	61.70	18.95	68.37	21.14	57.65	25.42	45.51	20.47
	Significance: Chi-square = 28.010, p < 0.05											

	Language Spoken at Home								Countries Visited							
	Filipino		English		English & Filipino		Others		None		1		2-3		3+	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
SP	47.48	22.08	79.09	16.96	66.69	20.38	58.68	21.77	54.89	21.95	65.09	24.73	73.18	22.91	73.33	22.98
	Significance: Chi-square = 31.684, p <0.05								Significance: Chi-square = 13.841, p < 0.05							
A	47.17	22.31	63.69	15.96	55.83	22.74	50	18.5	48.27	22.19	60.95	22.11	64.58	17.24	68.1	16.52
	Significance: Chi-square = 6.936, p = 0.074								Significance: Chi-square 16.304, p < 0.05							

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

Is there a difference between the self-perceived and actual grammatical competence in English of Filipino Grade 12 students? The results showed that the respondents perceived themselves highly competent in their English linguistic abilities, but actual test results showed that more than half of the respondents had low scores in speaking and writing. Almost half had average scores in listening and more than half had average scores in reading. Relevant findings indicated that female respondents had higher mean scores than male respondents both in the self-perceived survey and actual tests. The highest mean scores for both the self-perceived survey and actual tests were recorded for respondents with monthly family income of more than P50,000. Respondents from private schools had higher mean scores than those from public school for both the self-perceived and actual tests. The higher mean scores were also found for respondents who preferred English movies and those who

spoke predominantly English at home compared to those who preferred Filipino movies and those who spoke predominantly Filipino at home. The mean scores also increased as the number of foreign countries increased. The results of running Wilcoxon signed rank test showed that the students' actual English grammatical competence did not necessarily match their self-perceived abilities. Self-perceived scores tended to be higher than actual test scores. This indicated that the respondents see themselves as having better English skills than they actually possess. It is interesting to note that generally higher self-perceived English grammatical abilities were linked to correspondingly higher actual abilities suggesting that confidence in one's ability in using a language is a positive element in building communication skills.

Assessing the current levels of English grammatical competence of Filipino students is one important step towards achieving teaching-learning effectiveness in both private and public schools in the country. Assessments aim to promote understanding of how well-equipped students are for their future lives and to measure their performance against that of their peers in other countries.

As the Philippines finds itself lagging behind with the dismal performance of Filipinos in international assessment tests, the most urgent task of the government and policy makers now is to reverse the current declining trend in basic education performance indicators. Nevertheless, my study doesn't claim that English language proficiency is in itself sufficient to make our graduates globally competitive nor does it claim that using English as the medium of instruction is the best means to create students with good English skills. The results of my study showed that the actual level of grammatical competence in English of Grade 12 students is low, so it needs to be addressed. The relevant findings of my study could provide a basis in launching an enhancement program from primary up to secondary, and even tertiary levels, or another restructuring of the K-12 program.

I strongly recommend that the Department of Education develop a new curriculum to enhance the students' grammatical competence in English by increasing the number of hours in the teaching of Language and Reading; create excellent learning materials; provide a speech laboratory in every school where students can practice and master their English listening and speaking skills; and adopt a policy on No Code Switching. It is also important to note that the competence of teachers in teaching English as a second language is an important factor in the development of the students' grammatical competence, so regular proficiency training should be provided to equip the teachers with the necessary skills to teach and communicate in English. Other researchers can administer the TOEIC and self-perceived survey to English teachers to assess their grammatical competence in English as basis for the proficiency training.

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Design and Evaluation of an Online Workplace Promotion Decision Analysis Training Game With Provided Simulation Context

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Appropriate appraisal methods and promotion conditions are one of the most important issues that companies must face in their sustainable development. The promotion decision team also faces the problem of different audit experiences and decision-making. This study designed a highly realistic remote educational game to simulate the promotion of a company manager as the theme of the game, and the learning activity is for learners to take on the role of a promotion decision team and complete the task of recommending candidates for promotion in the case company. *Gather Town* is used to design the simulation company scenario, and learners can use *Google Form* to explore and interact with the scenario, including interviewing colleagues from various departments to understand the information of each candidate, allowing learners to explore the simulation company scenario and finally do consensus analysis and discussion on decision making. The learners in this preliminary study were six adults in Taiwan, and the study was conducted to measure learning flow, anxiety, and motivation. According to the results, the learners' mean was significantly higher than the median 3 of the five-point Likert scale in all nine dimensions of flow. The mean on the two dimensions of clear goals and concentration was higher than 4.50, the mean for overall motivation was higher than 4.00 and the mean for overall anxiety was lower than 2.00. The preliminary results show that: the mechanism does not generate anxiety and enhances learners' flow, has a high concentration, and maintain high motivation to learn.

Keywords: Educational Game, Situated Learning, Scaffolding, Decision Analysis, Contextual, Online Distance Learning

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Introduction

Promotion within a company is often considered an effective way to manage the organization and motivate employees, so performance appraisal is most often the main basis for promotion reviews (Dries et al., 2008). Laurence Peter's "Peter's Principle" (1969) states, in an organization, every employee will be promoted to a position he is not qualified for. This means that when you use promotion as an incentive, this incompetence will occur. So the important goal of promotion is to make the most effective allocation of human resources and to put the right people in the right positions. Therefore, in recent years, personal potential and characteristics have been included by enterprises in the promotion assessment conditions as important indicators. This study designed the *Google Form* with an interactive mechanism, and potential assessment decision-making tool and proposed a new online digital game "*Who is the successor*" for the promotion decision-making analysis training in a simulation workplace situation. In terms of the company's environment simulation effect, the *Gather Town* platform is used to present the environment of various departments in the office on the second floor, including President Office, HR Manager Office, Business Department, Vice President Office, Conference Room, Lounge, and Promotion Conference Room. This game imports the relevant information of promotion candidates into the *Google Form* framework, and design scripted interactive dialogues to provide the simulation situational clues as scaffolding. The goal of this situational game is to enable learners to improve their decision-making analysis skills after learning through games. By players' visiting different departments, this game guide learners to organize scaffolding information into decision-making tools to achieve more organized decision-making thinking analysis, and then through peer discussions in the decision-making promotion group to achieve critical thinking and peer collaborative learning.

Methods

This study was initially tested by a pilot analysis. The participants were 6 adults over the age of 20 in Taiwan. They were free to form teams and sign up online, with 3 people on each team. Before the test, none of the participants had taken relevant courses using a similar online interactive game. The Gather Town game platform was used for the learners in the operation of the event to freely explore various simulated departments to collect reference materials for manager candidates. The task of the first-stage learners should complete the independent decision-making analysis, as shown in Figure 1, and the task of the second-stage learners needed to complete the collaborative analysis using the provided performance potential matrix (Traynor, Wellens, & Krishnamoorthy, 2021), as shown in Figure 2. After the completion, the two-stage decision analysis, peer collaborative learning, and critical thinking learning then be completed. Finally, a post-test questionnaire is administered, including questionnaires such as learning flow, learning anxiety, and learning motivation.



Figure 1. Players conducted information collection and decision analysis in the Gather Town -based game “Who is the successor”

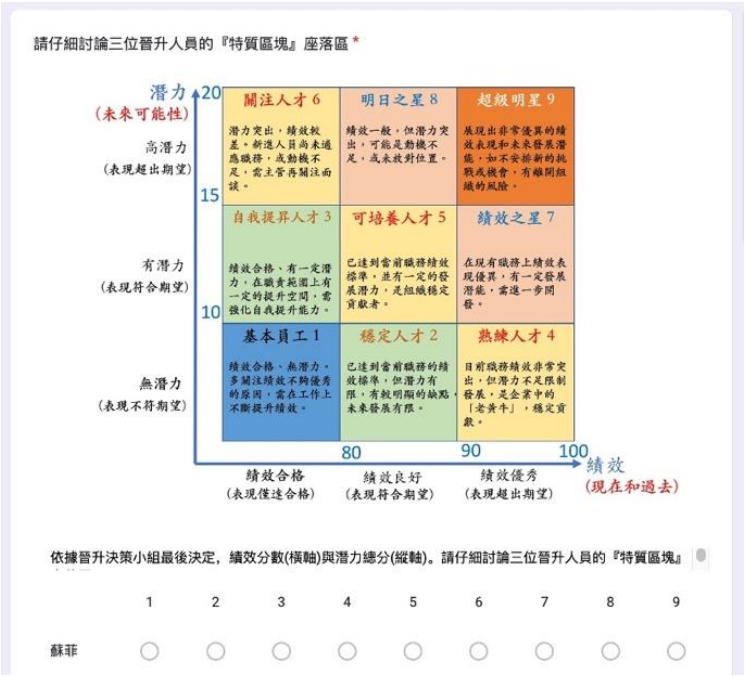


Figure 2. Collaborative Analysis using the Performance Potential Matrix

Results and Discussions

In this study, nonparametric statistics analysis was carried out for each dimension, and the results of the Mann-Whitney U-test are presented in Table 1, which was the descriptive statistical analysis of the flow state of the learners after completing the two-stage tasks. Overall flow (M=4.18, SD=0.31) was significantly higher than the median of the scale (i.e., 3). Flow antecedents (M=4.27, SD=0.33), flow experience (M=4.11, SD=0.43), and the mean values of flow in all dimensions were all higher than the median of the scale (i.e., 3). Among them, the average value of the three dimensions of clear goals, sense of self-control, and concentration are as high as 4.50 or more. The overall game design that represents the scripted Google Form interactive mechanism allowed learners to be more aware of the goals of the activity and have a high sense of self-control, resulting in a high flow experience (Cross & Edmonds, 2003), and actively participated in the completion of game tasks. Thereby improving the goal of online learning concentration. Table 2 is the descriptive statistical analysis of learners' anxiety performance and learning motivation. The overall learning anxiety (M=1.98, SD=0.44) was significantly lower than the median of the scale (i.e., 3). Overall learning motivation (M=4.33, SD=0.52) was significantly higher than 3.

Appropriate low anxiety and high learning motivation are important indicators of sustained flow in game activities.

Table 1. *The mean and standard deviation of learners' flow*
(n=6)

Dimension	*M*	*SD*	*Z*	Sig.
Overall Flow	4.18	0.31	2.20*	0.028
Flow antecedents	4.27	0.33	2.20*	0.028
Challenge-skill balance	4.17	0.52	2.23*	0.026
Goals of an activity	4.67	0.41	2.23*	0.026
Unambiguous Feedback	3.67	0.41	2.07*	0.038
Control	4.50	0.45	2.22*	0.026
Action–awareness merging	4.33	0.52	2.23*	0.026
Flow experience	4.11	0.43	2.21*	0.027
Concentration	4.50	0.57	2.23*	0.026
Time distortion	3.92	0.74	2.03*	0.042
Autotelic experience	4.17	0.68	2.21*	0.027
Loss of self-consciousness	3.83	0.52	2.06*	0.039

*$p < 0.05$

Table 2. *The mean and standard deviation of learners' anxiety and motivation*
(n=6)

	M	*SD*	*Z*	Sig.
learning anxiety	1.98	0.44	-2.20*	0.028
learning motivation	4.33	0.52	2.21*	0.030

*$p < 0.05$

Conclusions and Limitations

This study developed a simulated workplace promotion decision-making training online digital game "*Who is the successor*" with the theme of the company's annual personnel promotion. Use the scripted *Google Form* interactive mechanism to simulate the dialogue and exploration between members of the "promotion decision-making group" and colleagues in various departments and conduct decision-making analysis and make decision-making consensus. Based on the above initial data analysis, there were significant differences in flow performance, learning motivation, and learning anxiety scores with the medium of the scale (i.e., 3). Preliminary results show that this research uses experiential learning in a simulation situation, and the introduction of the scripted *Google Form* interactive mechanism could maintain a high level of learning motivation, reduce learning anxiety, and improve the flow of online learners in the learning process, so as to help learners develop more high-level decision-making thinking skills (Anwar & Abdullah, 2021). More sample sizes can be added for future studies. It is also suggested for in-depth analysis of the effectiveness of scaffolding, game fidelity, the usefulness of the game, and critical thinking process on the online learning of scripted *Google Form* interactive mechanism.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the projects from the US Air Force Office of Scientific Research (AFOSR) project (20IOA038) and Ministry of Science and Technology, Republic of China, under contract number MOST-110-2511-H-011-004-MY3, MOST-108-2511-H-011-003-MY3.

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Design and Evaluation of an Online Educational Game for the Development of Communication and Response Skills in the Service Industry

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The service industry has the closest contact with people, and frontline service personnel usually need to face all customer's problems. In response to the post-epidemic learning trend, many service industry training has started using distance learning. Online learning is more challenging to create a sense of the context of a real situation to arouse learners' motivation. This study used Gather Town to build a virtual learning space for a travel agency, combines the interaction mechanism of Google Form to simulate the communication and interaction in the service process, and designs an educational game called "Difficult Customers" The game integrates realistic interaction and video guidance, and learners can solve travelers' problems step by step through video situations and menu choices. In this study, 8 participants were recruited openly, and a preliminary empirical study was conducted to investigate the flow state, anxiety, and game acceptance of learners in the game. According to the analysis of the study, the overall anxiety of the learners averaged 1.91, which was significantly lower than 3 (the median of the five-point Likert scale), indicating that this game mechanism did not cause anxiety in the learners. And the overall flow of the learners after the game reached 4.15, which was significantly higher than 3. This indicates that the game design mechanism can effectively improve the flow of the learners. Furthermore, the learner's acceptance of the game was above 4, indicating that the learner agrees that the game mechanism can help the service industry train communication skills and adaptability.

Keywords: Online Educational Game, Communication and Response Skills, Adaptability, Game Acceptance

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Introduction

As learning styles change in the post-pandemic era, many training courses are being conducted online teaching. As a result, educational institutions are constantly looking for ways to improve students' ability to acquire knowledge (Mackavey & Cron, 2019). The ability to create an authentic learning experience environment is one of the critical factors in online teaching and learning (Serfozo et at., 2022). In addition, previous studies found that easy-to-use and easy-to-learn tools or learning platforms increase learners' motivation and engagement (Maskun et at., 2020; Domina et at., 2021). This research uses Gather Town and Google Forms to design an online educational game that builds communication and responsiveness in the service industry; allowing learners to have a realistic simulated spatial environment and use their familiar online forms to learn reduces their learning anxiety and increases their learning effectiveness and engagement. Whitton and Langan (2019) indicated that gamification is an engaging teaching method that reduces learners' learning anxiety and facilitates learning experience and knowledge acquisition. Gamification may increase learners' motivation and engagement, reduce anxiety, and generate flow, thus improving learning effectiveness. The prerequisite for success in the service industry is communication and response skills. This game uses the online meeting software Gather Town to design a scenario of a travel agency office, including the reception room, group department, ticket department, general manager room, and conference room. Learners are exposed to the process and objectives of the activity in the activity explanation and find clues in the travel agency scene. Learners then look for various tips in different departments. Through different prompts, learners can learn the service industry's communication and response skills, watch the conversations with NPCs to collect relevant information, interact with customers and resolve customer complaints in Google Forms. The learning objectives of this research are to acquire knowledge of communication and response skills through traveler's feedback and NPCs problem-solving and to develop communication and response skills and situational analysis skills through problem-solving contexts.

Research purposes and questions

This study designed "Difficult Customers", a contextual game design using Gather Town and Google Form interactive mechanism, to allow participants to solve travelers' problems through a dramatic context in a realistic travel agency environment, using realistic online games to reduce learning anxiety and increase learning flow to enhance learning. The research purpose is: To investigate the use of realistic online games to reduce learning anxiety, increase learning flow and improve learning effectiveness. The research question was: What were the learning flow, learning anxiety, and game acceptance of the online service industry communication and response skills game designed in a realistic context?

Method

The learners in this study were eight adults (three males and five females) aged 20 years or older in Taiwan through a preliminary case study. Each learner used a personal computer and participated in the " Difficult Customers " activity in their own separate space. This activity uses the Gather Town game platform to set up a realistic travel agency, allowing learners to explore and complete three tasks in the learning space. First, the activity was conducted after informing learners of the activity flow and rules (10 minutes). Then learners were allowed to explore the learning space, observe conversations between NPCs and information provided by various departments, go to the meeting room, talk to customers in the form and complete

the game tasks (40 minutes), as shown in Figure 1. Finally, after completing a task, learners proceeded to the next office, where they could observe the interactive dialogue between the NPCs to analyze the travelers' questions, as shown in Figure 2.

The study refers to the present reference to the flow scale revised by Kiili (2006) and translated by Hou and Li (2014), with 22 questions. The flow scales include two dimensions: flow antecedents and flow experiences. All scales were scored on a five-point Likert scale. The Cronbach's alpha for the internal consistency of the flow scale was 0.801, indicating a high degree of reliability. In terms of assessing learners' game acceptance, this study used Davis' (1989) technology acceptance scale with two dimensions: perceived usefulness and perceived ease-of-use, using a five-point Likert scale. In evaluating learner anxiety, we refer to the Affective Filter Hypothesis developed by Krashen (1981; 1987), the Chinese version of which was adapted by Hong (2001) as the "Learning Experience Scale" and embellished to make the narrative more consistent with this study. The Cronbach's alpha for the internal consistency of the learning anxiety scale was 0.817, indicating that the questionnaire is highly reliable.



Figure 1. Learners use Google Forms to complete tasks in the Gather Town conference room.

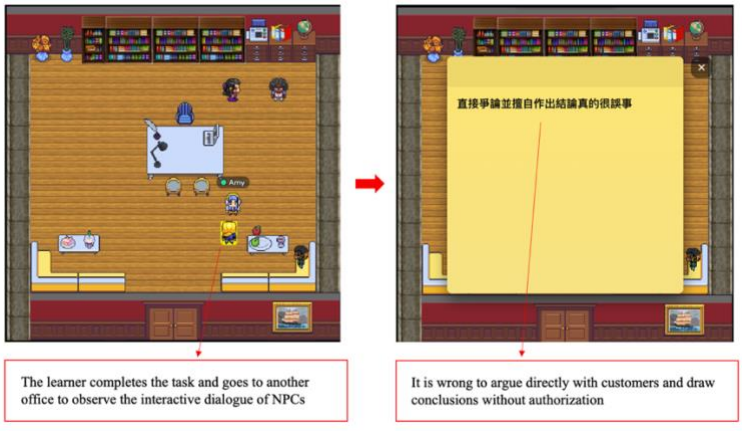


Figure 2. Learners complete the task and go to the office to watch the interactive dialogue of NPCs explaining the task problem.

Results and Discussions

In this study, nonparametric statistics analysis was carried out for each dimension. The results of the Mann-Whitney U-test are presented in Table 1, which was overall flow (M=4.15, SD=0.24) was significantly higher than median 3 on a five-point scale. The mean value of

each dimension in flow antecedents (*M*=4.15, *SD*=0.22) and flow experiences (*M*=4.15, *SD*=0.29) is higher than the median of 3 on the five-point scale. This indicates that the overall game design mechanism, so that learners can clearly understand the purpose of the activity, actively invest in the game and work hard to complete the task, achieve a high degree of flow experience, and then improve the effectiveness of online learning.

Table 1. ***Descriptive Analysis of Flow***

Dimension	*M*	*SD*	*Z*	*Sig.*
Overall Flow	4.15	0.24	2.52*	0.012
Flow antecedents	4.15	0.22	2.53*	0.012
Challenge-skill balance	3.81	0.37	2.57**	0.010
Goals of an activity	4.25	0.46	2.55*	0.011
Unambiguous feedback	4.25	0.27	2.59**	0.010
Sense of control	4.06	0.32	2.59**	0.010
Action–awareness merging	4.38	0.35	2.57**	0.010
Flow experiences	4.15	0.29	2.53*	0.012
Concentration	4.28	0.51	2.54*	0.011
Time distortion	4.00	0.46	2.46*	0.014
Autotelic experience	4.31	0.32	2.54*	0.011
Loss of self-consciousness	3.69	0.26	2.60**	0.009

*p <0.05, **p <0.01

Table 2 is the descriptive analysis of game acceptance and learning anxiety. We can know the learners‘ overall acceptance of the game (*M*=4.19, *SD*=0.63); perceived usefulness (*M*=4.28, *SD*=0.41), and perceived ease-of-use (*M*=4.34, *SD*=0.47) were all higher than the median of 3 in the five-point scale. Furthermore, the overall learning anxiety (*M*=1.91, *SD*=0.53) was lower than the median of 3 on the five-point scale. The results show that the design of this game will not cause learners' learning anxiety, and learners have a high degree of acceptance of this game design. This game is easy to play and helps learners' communication and response skills in the service industry.

Table 2. ***Descriptive Analysis of Game Acceptance and Anxiety***

Dimension	*M*	*SD*	*Z*	*Sig.*
Overall Acceptance	4.19	0.33	2.53*	0.012
Perceived Usefulness	4.28	0.41	2.59**	0.010
Perceived Ease-of-use	4.34	0.47	2.55*	0.011
Overall Learning Anxiety	1.91	0.53	-2.53*	0.012

*p <0.05, **p <0.01

Conclusions

This study developed a realistic online functional training game, "Difficult Customers" to cultivate the communication and response skills of the service industry. It applied the interactive mechanism of Gather Town and Google Form to design a situational simulation

game so that learners can experience real-life situations. In the travel agency situation, students played the role of the service staff of the travel agency. The learners used the computer to participate in the online game; however, they felt they were facing travelers and solving travelers' problems by simulating the information provided by a travel agency and the conversations between NPCs.

Based on the above data analysis of the above data, the learners' flow performance and game acceptance were significantly higher than the scale median. At the same time, their learning anxiety was lower than the median of the scale. It shows that this research uses the online realistic plot design, which can reduce learners' learning anxiety and improve the online learning flow during the learning process. It also shows that learners highly agree with the help of this game in learning communication and response skills knowledge in the service industry. In the future, this study will conduct a quasi-experimental design and increase the study's sample size and compare it with the control group to continue investigating the cognitive scaffolding, game elements, and learning effectiveness of this online game for different learners.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the projects from the US Air Force Office of Scientific Research (AFOSR) project (20IOA038) and Ministry of Science and Technology, Republic of China, under contract number MOST-107-2511-H-011-003-MY3, MOST-108-2511-H-011-003 -MY3.

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Design an Online Escape Game on Gather Town to Foster Electrical Troubleshooting Skills

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Online learning has become increasingly important and widespread in the post-epidemic era. However, in the absence of adequate interaction, learners may lose motivation, attention, and experience anxiety, thus reducing learning efficiency. Game-based learning can improve student motivation and attention, and the integration of real-world scenarios and tasks into games is believed to promote learner engagement and induce learning transfer. Meanwhile, past research has revealed that integrating cognitive scaffolding into games can help learners engage in higher level thinking and problem-solving skills. This study presents a game-based learning approach that utilizes simulation and cognitive scaffolding as design to enhance learners' physics knowledge and troubleshooting skills through an online educational escape game named *"Electrician"*. The game is themed on an electrician maintaining a building's circuit system, and it includes a realistic setting created on Gather Town as well as a Google form integrated to offer NPC interaction and cognitive scaffolding. In this study, flow and anxiety were measured in six persons who were publicly recruited as participants. The descriptive statistics showed that learners scored above the median of 3 on each of the nine sub-dimensions of flow, with the mean scores for concentration, time distortion and loss of self-consciousness being higher than 4.00. The anxiety score of 3.15 was close to the median of 3.00, indicating that learners had moderate anxiety while playing. The preliminary findings indicate that the mechanism developed in this study is beneficial in enhancing learners' flow, high concentration levels, and moderate anxiety in learning, making it a valuable reference for distant education in STEM.

Keywords: Online Educational Escape Game, Troubleshooting Skills, Scaffolding

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Introduction

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, educational institutions offer remote learning in subjects that were formerly taught face-to-face and through hands-on practice, including science. This sudden shift in the remote learning environment causes numerous challenges for students' education and makes it even more important to ensure efficient transfer of essential skills (Farros et al., 2020). According to Moorhouse et al. (2021), the physical separation and sense of presence between teachers and students distinguish synchronous online classrooms from traditional classroom settings. One of the reasons for the lack of motivation and engagement may also be because online learning is less likely to involve interaction with peers and teachers (Lakhal et al., 2017) and is often challenging to keep up with the pace (Almaiah & Almulhem, 2018; Al-Araibi et al., 2019).

Several studies have shown that incorporating collaborative problem solving and game-based learning into instructional activities can be an effective teaching strategy for science education (Bressler & Bodzin, 2016; Sung & Hwang, 2013) The findings of Wang et.al (2022) suggest that digital games are a promising teaching strategy in STEM education that can significantly increase student learning. In order to create a simulated real-life game environment on Gather Town for the *"Electrician"* online escape room educational game, this study used Google Form to design an interactive dialogue mechanism upon the game's non-player characters (NPCs). Realistic scenarios enable learners to focus more intently and become more immersed in problem-solving, which can significantly improve learning motivation and learning transfer (Catalano & Mortara, 2014; MeLellan, 1996). Additionally, research has shown that adding scaffolding to games can help players reduce their anxiety (Lin & Hou, 2022).

This game is themed on an electrician rectifying an electrical problem in a building and provides cognitive scaffolding as a clue in the Gather Town setting, such as the building circuit layouts, diagrams, logbooks, or by manipulating light bulb simulator to obtain implicit information. The goal of the game is for players to gain knowledge of electrical concepts (e.g., parallel and series circuit, Ohm's Law, electrical power, etc.) through dialogue with NPCs and scene exploration, and to use the information gathered in the game to discuss with peers, identify circuit problems, and propose solutions in order to develop learners' physics and troubleshooting skills.

Research Purposes And Questions

This study integrates Google Form to develop an interactive dialogue mechanism for NPCs and Gather Town to replicate the setting of an electrician detecting electrical problems in a building, to design an online escape room educational game named *"Electrician"* so that learners can improve their flow experience and lessen their anxiety when learning online.

Research Question：What are the flow experiences and anxiety of learners who use *"Electrician"* for online game-based learning?

Method

A total of six adults aged 20 years and above were recruited online to participate in this study. Participants were required to use a personal computer and play the game in an isolated space. The game uses Gather Town as a platform (Figure 1) for players to take on the role as an

electrician trainee, assisted by instructor Mark (the game's main NPC), in detecting and repairing electrical problems in the MEG building (the game's scene). The game is divided into three levels, and the player has 60 minutes to explore the scenes, including the electrical layout of the building, a light simulator, a weekly power consumption metre, and information provided by the game's NPCs as a cognitive scaffold, to detect the cause of the problem in each level (e.g. power outage, low brightness, high electricity bill).

When the learner believes that they have diagnosed the problem, they can always report their findings to instructor Mark. If the investigation is successful, Mark will provide immediate feedback as well as a pass code to guide the learner to the next level (Figure 2). The task level become challenging as the level progresses, facilitating collaboration between learners to solve all problems within the time limit. At the beginning of the experiment, the facilitator explained the process and rules of the game to the participants (10 minutes) and played the game (60 minutes). Participants answer a questionnaire on flow and learning anxiety at the end of the session (15 minutes).

In this study, the Chinese version of Kiili's (2006) Flow Scale, as translated by Hou & Li (2014), was used to assess participant flow experience. On a 5-point Likert scale, this scale contains 22 items, including flow antecedents and flow experiences. The questionnaire's reliability (Cronbach's alpha = 0.945) showed a high level of internal consistency. The Affective Filter Hypothesis created by Krashen (1981; 1987) was used to assess participant anxiety, and the Chinese version was adapted from the Learning Experience Scale by Hung (2001) to better fit the context of this study. The 8-item scale is based on a 5-point Likert scale. The internal consistency of the scale (Cronbach's alpha=0.748) was found to have a good level of reliability.

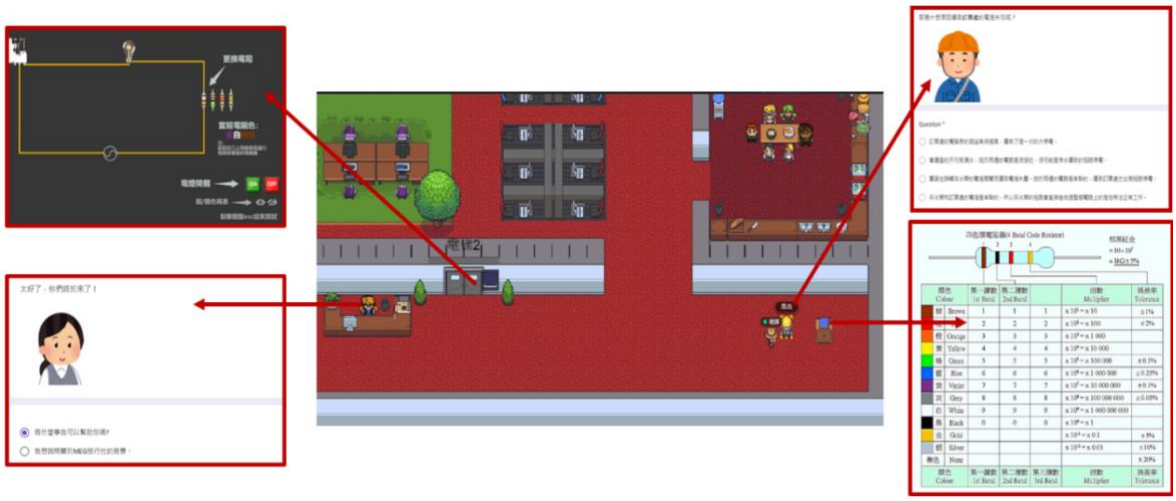


Figure 1. *Leaners explore the game's scene with cognitive scaffoldings in Gather Town*

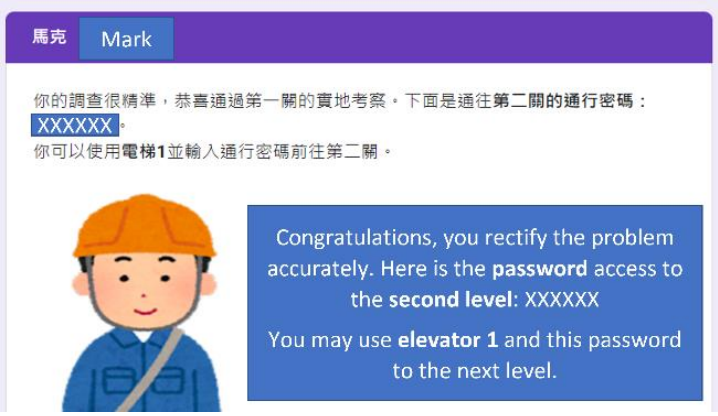


Figure 2. *Mark, the instructor, provides learners with immediate feedback and guidance*

Results and Discussions

"Electrician" is a room escape game in which players need to explore the scenes and interact with NPCs in order to detect electrical problems and build their understanding of physics and troubleshooting skills. Table 1 shows a Mann-Whitney U test of the flow experience of the learners after completing the game. The overall flow (M=3.80, SD=1.20) , the mean values for Flow Antecedents (M=3.42, SD=1.48), Flow Experience (M=4.13, SD=1.04), and all other dimensions were greater than the median of the scale (i.e.,3), with Concentration, Time Distortion, and Loss of Self-Consciousness significantly greater than the median of 3. This suggests that the game helps learners to remain engaged in the game's tasks while forgetting about the passage of time and self-awareness, resulting in a certain level of flow experience, which in turn improves learner concentration for online learning.

Table 1. ***The mean and standard deviation of learners' flow***

(n = 6)

Dimension	*M*	*SD*	*Z*	*Sig.*
Overall Flow	3.80	1.20	1.47	0.141
Flow antecedents	3.42	1.48	0.74	0.461
Challenge-skill balance	3.33	1.72	0.53	0.596
Goals of an activity	3.42	1.59	0.84	0.399
Unambiguous feedback	3.75	1.17	1.36	0.174
Sense of control	3.58	1.43	1.23	0.221
Action–awareness merging	3.00	1.90	0.00	1.000
Flow experiences	4.13	1.04	1.78	0.075
Concentration	4.29	1.07	2.00	0.045*
Time distortion	4.33	0.82	2.07	0.038*
Autotelic experience	3.67	1.69	1.19	0.234
Loss of self-consciousness	4.50	0.84	2.12	0.034*

$^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$

The Mann-Whitney U test of learners' anxiety are shown in Table 2. The overall anxiety (M=3.15, SD=1.21) was not significant from the median of the scale (i.e., 3). Wang et al. (2015) suggest that a moderate level of anxiety increases learners' attention and motivation, indicating that this game generates a moderate level of anxiety for learning and is an important indicator of sustained flow experience.

Table 2. ***The mean and standard deviation of learners' anxiety***

(n = 6)

Dimension	*M*	*SD*	*Z*	*Sig.*
Learning Anxiety	3.15	1.21	0.53	0.596

$^{*}p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$

Conclusions

"Electrician" is an online escape game based on the physics concept of electricity. The game incorporates cognitive scaffolding in the game scenes, simulations, and information provided by NPCs to enhance physics knowledge and troubleshooting skills. The above data show that the flow is higher than the scale's median (i.e. 3) and anxiety is not significantly different from the median of the scale. Preliminarily, the game design of this study increase the flow of learners and achieve moderate anxiety during the online learning process, assisting learners in developing relevant physic knowledge and troubleshooting skills. For future studies, more sample sizes can be included, as well as a more in-depth comparative analysis of ARCS, learning effectiveness, the usefulness of the game scaffolding, and game fidelity.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by the projects from the US Air Force Office of Scientific Research (AFOSR) project (20IOA038) and Ministry of Science and Technology, Republic of China, under contract number MOST- 107-2511-H-011 -003 -MY3, MOST-108-2511-H-011 -003 -MY3.

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The Faceless Learners, the Perplexed Instructors, and the Dilemma of Webcams: A Survey of Instructors at Two Bahraini Universities

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The Southeast Asian Conference of Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
After more than two years of teaching remotely in an emergency mode due to the Covid-19 pandemic (between March 2020 and October 2022), the interaction between university students and instructors in Bahrain has shifted tremendously due to the lack of social, visual, and physical presence associated with the more traditional face-to-face teaching practice. This paper offers therefore a case study of two local universities in Bahrain. Its aim is to explore the new situation of teaching and learning online in order to assess its impact on instructors. The researchers involved have conducted an anonymous online survey among 28 instructors through the use of Microsoft Forms. In addition, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were adopted, the objective being to provide an understanding of the many challenges that instructors have encountered while teaching learners whom they could not see. More specifically, a number of issues have been addressed by the study, among them the following: a) Instructors' views and perspectives on webcam use in the conduct of synchronous virtual classes; b) Learners' lack of visual presence, its impact on the teaching experience itself and the broader teaching practice; c) An assessment of the hurdles to effective communication during synchronous virtual classes as already identified by the case study and ways of resolving them; and d) recommendations for future action.

Keywords: Online Communication, Online Presence, Synchronous Virtual Classes, Visual Interaction, Webcams

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Introduction

With the Covid-19 pandemic almost coming to an end, and the fact that education will probably never go back to how it used to be pre-pandemic (Goh & Sandars, 2020; Kaur & Bhatt, 2020; Luthra & Mackenzie, 2020; Tartavulea et al., 2020; Winthrop, 2020), this research is an attempt to dive deeper into instructors' overall perception and concerns about webcam use during synchronous virtual classes.

Globally, the pandemic has reshaped education and forced universities to implement emergency remote teaching (ERT) in record time (Hodges et al., 2020; Rice 2020; Trust & Whalen, 2020). Universities in Bahrain, like other universities worldwide, had to adapt their traditional face-to-face courses to suit online delivery less than three weeks after the first case of Covid-19 was reported in February 2020 (Alandijany et al., 2020; Bensaid & Brahimi, 2021; Taufiq-Hail et al., 2021). To proceed with remote teaching, instructors were given a crash course on how to create live online sessions (i.e., synchronous virtual classes) and share teaching material with their students using the educational platforms available. "There was an embedded assumption that if both instructors and students had access to the nominated digital platform, a reliable internet connection, and a suitable home environment, things would go smoothly" (Al Mahadin & Hallak, 2021). For most instructors, however, the culture of teaching remotely was unfamiliar territory and entailed a whole new set of challenges (Hodges et al., 2020; Rapanta et al., 2020). One of the biggest challenges was that instructors found themselves engaged in a monologue rather than a dialogue. This new virtual experience kept students and instructors apart mainly because of the lack of proper engagement, communication and social presence usually found in traditional face-to-face classroom settings. The students' reluctance to turn on their webcams further aggravated the problem; thus, a world of faceless learners and invisible teachers was created (Kaur & Bhatt, 2020). Instructors would "log on to see black screens instead of boisterous smiles: usernames instead of learners" (Colucci, 2020) or just "a bunch of unanimated squares" (Fagell, 2020).

Numerous studies have been conducted on how the sudden transition to online teaching has affected interaction and communication between students and instructors, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic. The studies have addressed key issues such as student and instructor self-presentation (Hosszu et al., 2022; Neuwirth et al., 2020); the dilemma and efficacy of webcam use (Castelli & Sarvary, 2020); socio-economic factors that could interfere with online communication such as connectivity and privacy issues (Neuwirth et al., 2020); students' tendency to multitask by engaging in multiple activities during online classes (Lepp et al., 2019); and the rules of netiquette during the pandemic (Mali & Lim, 2021).

Any form of communication has its dynamics. In both face-to-face and synchronous virtual classes, instructors as message communicators try to increase their impact to ensure students as receivers not only understand but also engage with the message conveyed. Being actively engaged is a very important aspect of the teaching learning environment.

An analogy can be created between Shannon and Weaver's (1949) linear communication model and synchronous virtual classes. During synchronous virtual classes, teachers "encode" a message by sharing remotely with students a verbal or textual material. This message is sent through the "channel" or the technology that is involved, i.e., the educational platforms. Then the students as receivers "decode" the message by listening to it or seeing it appear on their computer screens. At that point in the process, communication has occurred.

However, the sudden shift to online delivery that happened in the wake of the pandemic has imposed some limitations to this model of communication. This issue may be attributed to factors that have probably nothing to do with the sender, message, channel or receiver, yet could have interfered with the process of message decoding. The nature of synchronous virtual classes allows students to be exposed to more distractions than in a face-to-face classroom environment (i.e., context-dependent conditioning) (Lynch et al., 2006). The many distractions, the sudden change in the learning environment for which neither the students nor the instructors were ready, and the absence of physical, visual, and social presence has exacerbated the problems of decoding. This left instructors as message senders wondering if students paid any attention to the lesson, understood the material presented and whether they needed more help and clarification. This process was experienced as a rather stressful one by instructors and made class delivery more demanding. (Müller et al., 2021).

Whereas Face-to-face traditional classes, seem to adopt a non-linear Transactional Model (Kobiruzzaman, 2022) where instructors and students are both senders and receivers. They are sending messages to each other both ways. When students do not respond, remain silent or deliberately do not communicate with their teachers whether verbally or non-verbally, that still constitutes a response. This silent type of response could help instructors determine whether the message is decoded appropriately. Physical, visual, and social presence are immediately available since the students and instructors share one familiar environment. There are no tangible barriers. Instructors also have the ability to multitask. In other words, they can explain the material in detail, quiz students, while being able to recognize from the non-verbal cues given by students whether they are assimilating any parts of the lesson. Eye contact, facial expressions and body language are among the non-verbal cues that act as the silent response within traditional classroom settings.

The sudden shift to emergency remote teaching has deprived instructors of all of this and created many barriers between them and their students. When the focus is mainly on the material shared online, “it is obviously not possible to have a classroom experience” as effective as the one allowed by traditional face-to-face teaching (de Vries, 2021). Physical, visual, and social presence have been replaced by virtual presence. A related issue that contributed to increasing existing challenges is that neither the students nor the instructors, in their majority, were ready or willing to be on camera during synchronous virtual classes.

The purpose of this study is to look into the issue of visual interaction in online classes within the Bahraini context, and the impact of its absence on the overall teaching environment. Researchers examined how instructors perceive the use of webcams during synchronous virtual classes; the role it possibly plays, if any, in assessing and monitoring student engagement; the limitations it may have; and the teaching methods instructors may have adopted to compensate for students’ unwillingness to turn on their webcams.

Methodology

This research was initiated to address and better understand how the absence of visual presence during virtual synchronous classes could affect instructors at two major Bahraini universities. In this study, a mixed methodology comprising primary and secondary research tools was used to analyze in-depth the challenges instructors encountered when students did not turn on their webcams.

The secondary research tool is a review of the literature on the dynamics of communication between students and instructors in online classes, especially post-pandemic. Numerous previous studies on webcams and virtual online delivery are reviewed to shed some light on any previous research outcomes that are central to the topic investigated in this paper.

The primary research tool is an inductive empirical survey-based method (Pyrczak, 2014; Tan, 2017), suitable for generalizations from a specific observation (Collins, 2010; Read et al., 2016). The survey questionnaire contains both qualitative and quantitative questions. Creswell (2009) says that a mixed research method allows researchers to collect and analyze data by incorporating both quantitative and qualitative methods. Utilizing both techniques support the research investigation. In addition, it highlights possible discrepancies between participants' qualitative and quantitative answers by allowing them to voice their opinions and share their experiences using their own words. By merging results, utilizing a mixed method approach can provide better analysis and conclusions.

Data relevant to the research objectives is collected and set into categories. Statistical analysis is conducted to investigate and discover patterns and correlations and examine instructors' perspectives.

To get the best feedback, the instructors were asked a variety of questions. In addition to a gender survey question (male/female) in Section (1), the survey is divided into five more sections. Section (2) includes three closed-ended questions on whether instructors have ever turned their webcams on during virtual synchronous classes, whether they prefer to teach with or without webcams, and whether they had any experience with online teaching pre-pandemic. They were expected to answer with Yes/No/or Sometimes for the first question and Yes/No for the second and third questions. Section (3) includes one question where multiple answers could be selected (up to 12) about reasons for instructors not turning on their webcams; Section (4) includes a total of 14 closed-ended questions with a scale of five options ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"; Section (5) includes one question where multiple answers could be selected (up to 8) about what kind of information they would be able to obtain when students turned on their webcams during synchronous virtual classes, including the option of "Other" to provide additional reasons that were not listed; and Section (6) includes two optional open-ended questions with no predetermined options to select from, and where survey participants can respond by using their own words. In this section, the participants were asked to list the types of methods they used to keep their students engaged, and if they wanted to provide additional comments, respectively.

Research Sample

For this study, an anonymous online survey was distributed using Microsoft Forms to collect data from instructors on webcam use during synchronous virtual classes and its impact on both instructors and student performance. A total of 28 faculty members from two local universities in Bahrain took the survey.

The design of the survey questions aimed at investigating instructors' attitudes towards webcam use, and the implications visual presence or absence may have on the teaching process and student performance. All survey questions, except the first one, address matters related to webcam use during online classes.

The present research is not about gender differences. However, whenever gender differences were observed in participants' answers, these were highlighted throughout the paper.

Results

As mentioned above, the survey consists of six sections. The results of Sections 1, 2, and 3 are shown in Table 1, the results of Section 4 are shown in Table 2, the results of Section 5 are shown in Table 3, the results of the first part of Section 6 are shown in Table 4. As for the second part of Section 6, the results were analysed according to the instructors' comments.

Section 1

A total of 28 university instructors took the survey, divided into 18 females and 10 males, 64% and 36%, respectively (see Table 1).

Section 2

When instructors were asked if they turned on their webcams during synchronous virtual classes, 32% chose Yes, 46.5% chose No, and 21.5% chose Sometimes. In terms of gender, 78% of total female participants and 22% of total male participants always turned on their webcams. As for whether they preferred to teach with their webcams turned on, 32% of total participants chose Yes of which 78% were females and 22% were males. When asked whether they had ever tried online teaching prior to the pandemic, all participants chose No (see Table 1).

Section 3

In this section (see Table 1), the instructors were asked to identify reasons for not turning on their webcams. They were given 12 reasons to choose from including "Not Applicable – I always have my camera on." The most frequently selected reason was that students did not usually turn on their webcams (N=19, 68%), divided into 12 females (63%) and 7 males (37%). The second most selected reason was feeling self-conscious (N=12, 43%) divided into 7 females (58%) and 5 males (42%). The third most selected reason was fear of an unauthorized use of a screenshot their image (N=10, 35%), divided into 7 females (70%) and 3 males (30%). The fourth most selected reason was "Not applicable – I always have my camera on." 8 instructors or 28.5% selected this option, of which 6 were females (75%) and 2 were males (25%). The fifth and sixth most selected reasons were not being dressed appropriately to be on camera and being seen doing something else on their computers (N=6, 21.5%). The first option was chosen by 5 females (83.5%) and 1 male (16.5%), and the second option was equally chosen by 3 males and 3 females (50% each). The seventh and eighth most selected reasons were having poor Internet connection at home, or not having sufficient Internet data and being seen eating or drinking (N=5, 18%). 4 males (80%) and 1 female (20%) selected the first option and 3 females (60%) and 2 males (40%) selected the second option. The nineth and tenth most selected reasons were not having privacy in their home environment and fear of being noticed by everyone (N= 3, 11%). 2 males (67%) and 1 female (33%) selected the first option and 3 females (100%) and zero males selected the second option. The two least selected reasons were being seen walking away from their computers and not having a webcam. Both were selected by one male only (3.5%).

Section 1			
Gender	All	Male	Female
	28	36%	64%
Section 2			
Do you turn your webcam on during synchronous virtual classes?	%	%	%
	All	Male	Female
Yes	32	22	78
No	46.5	46	54
Sometimes	21.5	33.5	66.5
I prefer to teach with my webcam	%	%	%
	All	Male	Female
Turned on	43	33.5	66.5
Turned off	57	37.5	62.5
Have you ever tried online teaching prior to the pandemic?	%	%	%
Yes	0	0	0
No	28	36	64
Section 3			
Reasons that could prevent you from turning on your webcam (you may choose more than one):			
	% All	% Male	% Female
• I am not dressed appropriately to be on camera	21.5	16.5	83.5
• I do not have privacy in my home environment	11	67	33
• I have poor internet connection at home, or I do not have sufficient internet data	18	80	20
• Students do not usually turn on their webcams	46.5	37	63
• I do not want to be noticed by everyone	11	0	100
• I do not want to be seen walking away from my computer	3.5	100	0
• I do not want to be seen doing something else on my computer	21.5	50	50
• I do not want to be seen eating or drinking	18	40	60
• I do not have a webcam, or it is broken	3.5	100	0
• I feel self-conscious turning on my webcam	43	42	58
• I am concerned of an unauthorized use of a screenshot of my image	36	30	70
• Not applicable - I always have my camera on	28.5	25	75

Table 1. Survey Results of Sections 1 to 3.

Section 4

In this section, we used Likert-type rating scales to measure instructors' views on webcam use. The survey included a total of 14 closed-ended questions with a scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" (see Table 2). The results were as follows:

1. "I feel a sense of community is created when both instructors and students turn on their webcams": 43% strongly agreed; 32% agreed; 14% were undecided; and 11% disagreed.
2. "I feel a sense of community is created among students when they turn on their webcams: 50% strongly agreed; 28.5% agreed; 14.5% disagreed; and 7% were undecided.
3. "I feel I could monitor students' engagement better when they turn their webcams on": 53.5% strongly agreed; 21.5% were undecided; 18% agreed; and 7% disagreed.
4. "When students turn on their webcams, it positively affects their performance": 36% were undecided; 32% strongly agreed; 25% agreed; and 7% disagreed.
5. "When students turn on their webcams, it improves their learning experience": 43% strongly agreed; 25% were undecided; 18% disagreed; and 14% agreed.
6. "When students turn on their webcams, it makes the teaching process easier and less stressful": 28.5% strongly agreed; agreed and undecided had the same percentage of 25%; 18% disagreed; and 3.5% strongly disagreed.
7. "I feel isolated because students keep their webcams turned off": 39.5% strongly agreed; 28.5% agreed; 18% were undecided; and 7% either disagreed or strongly disagreed.
8. "Absence of non-verbal cues makes online teaching more demanding": 46.5% agreed; 28.5% strongly agreed; 18% were undecided; and 7% disagreed.
9. "Absence of non-verbal cues makes it difficult to determine if the students understand the material discussed": 43% strongly agreed; 32% agreed; 21.5% were undecided; and 3.5% disagreed.
10. "I think the university should make turning on webcams obligatory": 32% strongly agreed; 21.5% agreed; undecided or disagreed had the same percentage of 14.25%; and 18% strongly disagreed.
11. "When students do not turn on their webcams, it negatively affects their performance": 28.5% agreed; undecided or disagreed had the same percentage of 25%; 14.5% strongly agreed; and 7% strongly disagreed.
12. "Some subjects require that both instructors and students turn their webcams on more than other subjects": 60.5% agreed; strongly agreed and disagreed had the same percentage of 14.25%; and 11% were undecided.
13. "Making turning the webcams on compulsory could discourage some students from attending virtual classes": 43% disagreed; 21.5% were undecided; 18% agreed; 14% strongly agreed; and 3.5% strongly disagreed.
14. "To ensure students are present and engaged when they do not turn on their webcams, I use various teaching methods": 68% agreed; 28.5% strongly agreed; 3.5% disagreed.

Section 4		**Strongly agree**	**Agree**	**Undecided**	**Disagree**	**Strongly disagree**
1. I feel a sense of community is created when both instructors and students turn on their webcams.	**%**	43	32	14	11	0
2. I feel a sense of community is created among the students when they turn on their webcams.	**%**	50	28.5	14.5	7	0
3. I feel I could monitor students' engagement better when they turn on their webcams.	**%**	53.5	18	21.5	7	0
4. When students turn on their webcams, it positively affects their performance.	**%**	32	25	36	7	0
5. When students turn on their webcams, it improves their learning experience.	**%**	43	14	25	18	0
6. When students turn on their webcams, it makes the teaching process easier and less stressful.	**%**	28.5	25	25	18	3.5
7. I feel isolated because students keep their webcams turned off.	**%**	39.5	28.5	18	7	7
8. Absence of non-verbal cues makes online teaching more demanding.	**%**	28.5	46.5	18	7	0
9. Absence of non-verbal cues makes it difficult to determine if the students understand the material discussed.	**%**	43	32	21.5	3.5	0
10. I think the university should make turning on webcams obligatory.	**%**	32	21.5	14.25	14.25	18
11. When students do not turn on their webcams, it negatively affects their performance.	**%**	14.5	28.5	25	25	7
12. Some subjects require that both instructors and students turn their webcams on more than other subjects.	**%**	14.25	60.5	11	14.25	0
13. Making turning the webcams on compulsory could discourage some students' from attending virtual classes?	**%**	14	18	21.5	43	3.5
14. To ensure students are present and engaged when they do not turn on their webcams, I use various teaching methods.	**%**	28.5	68	0	3.5	0

Table 2. Instructor Survey Results of Section 4

Section 5

In this section, the instructors were asked what they would be able to know when students turned on their webcams. Multiple answers could be selected from a list of 8 possible options including "Other" where instructors could provide an answer that was not listed (see Table 3). The most frequently selected answer was that the instructors would know that the students were present and attentive (N=24, 86%). The second most frequently selected answer was that they would not feel as if were talking to themselves (N=22, 78.5%). The third most selected answer was that they would know that the students were not doing something else (N=19, 68%). The fourth most selected answer was that they would be able to see when students had this confused look of not understanding the shared material (N=17, 61%); The fifth most selected two answers were they would be able to know that the students understood the material discussed and that they were not bored (N=15, 53.5%). The least selected answer was "Not applicable – I don't feel it affects the teaching process at all" (N=2, 7%). Three instructors (11%) selected the "Other" option to elaborate, commenting:

> *Despite the fact that the cam shows them physically present, I cannot gauge their understanding of the taught material, especially in large classes.*
>
> *Some of my students complained that they couldn't concentrate when the camera was on.*
>
> *Nothing because on camera all you can see is someone's face but not their entire physical presence.*

Section 5		
When students turn on their webcams, I will be able to know that (You may choose more than one):		
• They are present and attentive.	%	86
• They understand the material discussed.	%	53.5
• They are not doing something else.	%	68
• They are not bored.	%	53.5
• They have this confused look of not understanding the shared material.	%	61
• I am not talking to myself.	%	78.5
• Not Applicable – I do not feel it affects the teaching and learning process at all.	%	7
• Other.	%	11

Table 3. Instructor Survey Results of Section 5

Section 6

The survey included two optional open-ended questions with no predetermined options to select from, to which survey participants could respond by using their own words. The first question was "List the types of methods you use to keep your students engaged" (optional). 78.5% of survey respondents (22 of the 28 surveyed) provided answers to this question. Based on the instructors' comments, this section is divided into the following four categories (see Table 4):

1. Participation: 100% said they randomly selected students to answer questions using the available audio feature, 32% used breakout rooms, and 23% used the chat box.
2. Attendance: 18% kept regular track of attendance.
3. Online Assessment: An equal percentage of respondents (13.5%) used discussion boards, asked students to do an oral presentation, or/and gave students online exercises. 9% also administered online quizzes.
4. Activities: 13.5% asked students to play online games and 4.5% shared videos with their students.

Section (6)		
1. Participation:		
a. Randomly selecting students to answer questions using the audio feature	%	100
b. Breakout rooms	%	32
c. Using the chatbox	%	23
2. Attendance record keeping	%	18
3. Online assessment:		
a. Discussion boards	%	13.5
b. Exercises	%	13.5
c. Presentations (feedback and comments)	%	13.5
d. Quizzes	%	9
4. Activities:		
a. Playing games	%	13.5
b. Sharing videos with students	%	4.5

Table 4. Instructor Survey Results of Section 6

The second optional open-ended question was “If you have any additional comments, please feel free to share them with us (optional).” 10 instructors out of 28 provided answers for this question; 36% of total participants. The following is a summary of the instructors’ comments:

1. 40% said that students were easily distracted in online classes when they kept their webcams off.
2. 30% said that turning on their webcams made them, and their students feel exposed.
3. 20% said that turning on webcams must be obligatory when doing exams to minimize cheating.
4. 10% said they felt isolated when students did not turn on their webcams.
5. 10% said that turning on webcams should depend on the nature of the online course and the number of students enrolled.
6. 10% said that the university should make turning on webcams obligatory for both students and instructors.
7. 10% said that the interface of the educational platforms used was not supportive of too many webcams to be viewed on one page, and that the Internet connection might become poor.

Findings

The survey highlighted a number of significant points, including:

1. *A general reluctance among instructors to use webcams during virtual synchronous classes*. Only 32% of total participants always turned on their webcams and 68% preferred to teach with their webcams turned off (see Table 1). Many reasons contribute to this reluctance, among them the fact that most students do not turn on their webcams (68%); the self-consciousness felt by many instructors (43%); and instructors' own concerns about issues of privacy concerning the unauthorized use of a screenshot of their images (36%) (see Table 1). One instructor commented:

> *I am always worried students might take a screenshot of my picture and post it online. I feel too exposed when I turn the camera on.*

> *Self-consciousness about the physical visibility and exposure allowed by camera use was felt more by female instructors than their male counterparts*. In section 3, which gives instructors a list of options on why they did not turn on their webcams, more females than males chose the options of not being dressed appropriately to be on camera (83% to 16%), fear of being noticed by everyone (100% to 0%) and being concerned of the unauthorized use of a screenshot of their images (70% to 30%) (see Table 1).

2. *Instructors' paradoxical stand towards webcams recognizing their value in judging learners' interaction, attentiveness and level of understanding while being reluctant in making use of them.* Most instructors agreed that they could monitor students' engagement better when they had their webcams on (71%). The majority also agreed (75%) that the absence of non-verbal cues made teaching more demanding, and it was difficult to determine if students understood the material discussed (see Table 2). 57% of survey respondents agreed that turning on webcams improved the students' learning experience; the same percentage also agreed that it positively affected student performance, and 43% agreed that not turning webcams on can negatively affect student performance (see Table 2). It should be emphasized that the survey participants were asked the same question twice using different words, yet the same point was reiterated, that is, webcams contribute to students' learning experience (see Questions 4 & 11 in Table 2). Of the options instructors selected in Section 5 above, the four most selected answers also emphasize the role webcams play in determining whether the students are present and attentive (86%), instructors are not just talking to themselves (78.5%), students are not doing something else (68%) or having a confused look of not understanding (61%) (see Table 3). In the "any additional comments" optional open-ended question at the end of the survey, 40% of instructors who answered this question said that students were easily distracted in online classes when they kept their webcams off.

3. *Instructors' general feelings of detachment and isolation in the absence of visual interaction and communication with learners.* Most instructors agreed that a sense of community was created among students (78.5%) and between students and instructors (75%) when webcams were turned on. Almost two-thirds of instructors felt isolated (68%) when students did not turn on their webcams (see Table 2). One instructor wrote:

> *"The silence accompanying online teaching can be so frustrating and isolating. In face-to-face classes, just the students' presence makes the experience more enjoyable and less lonely."*

4. *Instructors had to find ways to compensate for the absence of visual, physical and interactive presence associated with traditional face-to-face teaching.* 95.5% agreed that they had to introduce new teaching methods and employ certain tools to ensure students were present, attentive and understood the material discussed (see Tables 2 & 4).

The above findings seem to reveal that there is a degree of confusion within instructors' attitudes towards the issue of webcam use. Interestingly, their attitudes have thus revealed that their underlying concern is not so much webcam use itself, but rather their ability to manage the new virtual learning environment. This fear is motivated by two major considerations:

1) *The new learning environment has led to what could be termed as distracted learning*. Students tend to be easily distracted by numerous online and offline activities while attending their virtual classes. They could be talking to their family members, surfing the net, watching television, or even eating. With the sudden transition to online delivery, students found themselves, in the comfort of their homes, rushed into a culture of virtual learning that was completely foreign to them. "Many educators are grieving the loss of their known and familiar educational environments, both personally and professionally. With this grieving may come a sense of loss of control, which can cause educators to seek ways to control as much as possible" (Steeves, 2021). Instructors' feelings maybe summed up in the words of the following instructors:

   > *Most of the time I feel like I am talking to myself, wondering if the students are paying attention at all. Staring at small black screens can be so frustrating. Sometimes I am even surprised at how loud my voice is, as if raising my voice would make them concentrate more on the material I am explaining.*
   >
   > *Sometimes I feel like a radio! Students keep me in the background playing and do something else.*

2) *Distracted learning has thus emerged as the biggest challenge for instructors*. Learners' attitudes, the need for them to be self-disciplined and focused have not been properly addressed during the early stages of the pandemic. The stress was rather on the need to ensure education continues uninterrupted. Therefore, students and instructors were not trained to use webcams.

Conclusion

The teaching process can still be effective even in cases when neither students nor instructors turn on their webcams. The non-physical presence of participants and their verbal cues has led instructors to depend less on webcams and to focus more on the use of various teaching methods as part of their synchronous virtual classes. This process slowly and gradually developed through trial and error.

As it turns out, audio participation seems to have a more significant impact on synchronous virtual classes than webcam use alone (See Section 6 above). Although different educational

platforms make use of various display settings, the material displayed by the instructor would dominate the screen space. As a result, the size of the student photo thumbnail is automatically reduced and does not allow the instructor to monitor students' non-verbal cues or actions. And the larger the class, the smaller the images. As instructors get to share course material with learners on screen, they focus on class delivery while scrolling up and down. In this case, it is not easy to keep check of the chatbox or students' faces for non-verbal cues. Students who feel the need to address their instructor would be able to do so using their mics.

Recommendations

The research findings and conclusions regarding webcam use have revealed that instructors' perception of webcam efficacy in online classes are deeply rooted in their attempt to ensure they have better management and more control over the virtual environment, particularly when it comes to the fact that students can be easily distracted. The idea of faceless learners hiding behind their computer screens, being present virtually but not mentally, as well as instructors' assumptions regarding students lack of of commitment and seriousness have somehow led instructors to come up with ways to ensure that the students are learning.

Despite proving its resilience during the pandemic, higher education in Bahrain, as elsewhere, now stands at a crossroads (Schwenck & Pryor, 2021). If universities decide to continue incorporating online teaching into their curricula post-pandemic or opt for some form of hybrid teaching, matters related to students' readiness should be properly addressed. The following steps could help achieve that:

1. Integrating effective online communication into preparatory training sessions to increase students' attentiveness, commitment, and respect for the online learning environment by addressing key issues such as online etiquette and the profile of a good learner. "Clearly, students need assistance and guidance to apprise them of the ways in which they are depriving themselves of the quality of their education. It is incumbent on us, as faculty, to design strategies that will help them to navigate these difficulties in order to optimise their distance learning given the evolving COVID-19 situation." (Neuwirth et al., 2020).

2. Offering specialized training sessions for online teachers on topics such as using the proper tone of voice, an engaging style of delivery, and the right microphones and cameras.

3. Protecting both students and instructors from online privacy violations by establishing clear rules and regulations. Feeling safe and secure online would make it easier to utilize online courses to their fullest potential and would also help overcome self-consciousness.

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Learners' Perceptions of Difficulties in Orally Producing English Sentences

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Japanese English learners struggle to speak English as they have few opportunities to use it in a truly immersive setting. We attempted to develop a new system for English-speaking practice to address this challenge. Our research suggests that Japanese students feel challenged when using English words and phrases orally, even if they know them. This study examines their perceived difficulties in the oral production of English sentences to identify the specific language items posing challenges. To ascertain the subjective difficulty levels of 60 English sentences, we administer pre- and post-practice questionnaires to 71 Japanese university students. The study's results indicate that after practice, the average difficulty scores of 43 sentences are significantly lower, 14 sentences show no significant differences, and the average scores of the remaining three sentences slightly increase. These results suggest that short sentences, familiar content, and expressing sentences in chronological order are recommended strategies when learning unknown or unfamiliar words and phrases. The results also indicate that students need oral practice to fluently use inanimate subject sentences, causative verbs, phrasal verbs, relative pronouns, and sentences leaving out object pronouns. Additionally, using adverbs, such as "completely" is difficult for Japanese learners. Although further investigations are required, learners' subjective perceptions of difficulty in the pre- and post-practice questionnaires clarify which language items are easier to handle. Furthermore, we aim to clarify the role of subjective evaluation of learner difficulties in spoken English by focusing on specific grammar and constructions, as well as controlling the length of target sentences.

Keywords: Difficulty Perception of Japanese Learners of English, Foreign Language Use, Foreign Language Learning System, English-Speaking Practice

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Introduction

As part of the country's significant efforts toward globalization, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT, 2015) has developed an English proficiency promotion plan to develop English communication skills among Japanese students. With the introduction of a new course of study, English education has become compulsory in elementary schools since 2020 (MEXT, 2019). Between the third and fourth grades, English becomes a "foreign language activity." In the fifth and sixth grades, English is adopted as a subject called "foreign language." Such reforms are expected to produce significant changes in English education.

Given that Japanese students have limited opportunities to practice English in their everyday life outside language classes, they lack confidence when speaking English (Kashiwagi, Kang, & Ohtsuki, 2018). Specifically, Japanese students experience difficulties speaking English even while knowing the correct words and phrases.

Therefore, a suitable English-speaking environment is necessary for Japanese learners to develop oral proficiency. We have been developing a prototype system for practicing English-speaking (Kashiwagi, Kang, & Ohtsuki, 2020). To promote English-speaking practices in our system, we believe that learners' self-reflective evaluations of learning items may play a crucial role.

Reflection is an essential skill that learners are expected to acquire (OECD, 2005) and a key to learning (Waguri, 2010). Therefore, considerable research has been conducted on successfully promoting reflection (Mori, Amioka, Egi, & Ozawa, 2018; Onoda & Shinogaya, 2014). For example, Chang (2019) promoted reflective learning by identifying foundational features of reflection in learning. While self-reflection may sometimes be unreliable, failing to reflect the learner's actual performance (Todd, 2002), it can raise learners' awareness of language use and develop learner responsibility and autonomy (Janulevičienė & Kavaliauskienė, 2007). Thus, this study attempted to incorporate subjective difficulty ratings to improve English-speaking practice.

To this end, we administered pre- and post-practice questionnaires to ascertain the subjective difficulty levels of various English sentences among Japanese university students. While acknowledging that some sentences may never be produced smoothly, we conducted pre- and post-practice assessments to observe detailed changes in the perceived difficulty of the sentences after practice. This would allow for identifying specific items students find particularly challenging during language use. We investigated the following research questions:

RQ1. Are there any English sentences in which students' perception of difficulty decreases after practice? What characteristics can be observed in these sentences?
RQ2. Are there any English sentences in which students' perception of difficulty does not change after practice? What characteristics can be observed in these sentences?
RQ3. Could incorporating subjective difficulty ratings in the language learning system help further develop English-speaking practice?

RQ1 and RQ2 aim to identify which language items provide more difficulties for learners in spoken English. RQ3 investigates whether learners' subjective difficulty ratings in pre- and post-practice questionnaires can help improve English-speaking practices.

Methods

Participants

This study recruited 71 first-year students in three classes at a university in Japan (29 in the Engineering class, 20 in the Global Human Sciences class, and 22 in the Letters class). Table 1 reports the number of students and their majors. Students were informed of the study's purpose, and their informed consent to participate was obtained. They were further informed that their data would remain confidential.

Class	Grade	Major Field	Number of Students
A	1st year	Engineering	29
B	1st year	Global Human Sciences	20
C	1st year	Letters	22

Table 1: Number of participants and their major.

Data collection and analysis

We administered two self-reflective questionnaires to gather responses from the students regarding their difficulty ratings for the 60 sentences listed in Table 2. These sentences are expressions related to daily life, including "School Life," "At the Office," and "Illness and Injury." We administered 60 sentences in three blocks of 20 sentences each.

Review quiz	Sentence No.	Sentences	Number of words
	1	You always wait until the last minute before you leave.	10
	2	(Responding to "Did you do your math homework?") I've got it all done today.	6
	3	What material will the test cover?	6
	4	The mock exam uses a computer-scored answer sheet.	8
	5	(Responding to "Did you study for your exams?") I only studied for one night.	6
	6	(Responding to "How did you do on the exam?") I guessed right about what would be on the exam.	10
	7	(Responding to "How did you do on the exam?") I had no idea there would be questions like that on the exam.	13
	8	If I flunk/fail this class, I'll have to repeat a year.	11
	9	(Responding to "Have you seen the department bulletin board?") It listed canceled and extra classes.	6

1	10	(Responding to “Is your job search coming along well?”) Things are pretty tough, you know.	6
	11	(Responding to “I’m going to the library to check out some books.”) You can check out up to five books at any one time.	12
	12	The lending period is two weeks, but this book is currently checked out.	13
	13	This book is not available to be checked out, so you’re welcome to use it in the library.	18
	14	(Responding to “Did you find the book you were looking for last week?”) I had them retrieve the book from the stacks.	9
	15	I used a fire extinguisher during a fire drill last year.	11
	16	I completely forgot that today was the due date for these library books.	13
	17	(Responding to “Did you find your library card?”) No, I had them reissue my library card.	8
	18	To run for the Vice President position in the student council, she will give a campaign speech at a school assembly.	21
	19	(Responding to “We wanted to win, but we weren’t ready for the game.”) The opposing team had a substantial physical advantage, so we should have come up with (devised) a game plan to make up for it.	23
	20	When I was a university student, I was a member of a student circle. We set up a yakisoba booth at the school/annual festival.	24
	21	In the end, I went back to sleep.	8
	22	I take a shower.	4
	23	The mirror is fogged up.	5
	24	My hair is sticking out.	5
	25	My face is slightly swollen.	5
	26	My face looks awful.	4
	27	My skin feels nice and smooth.	6
	28	My mouth feels refreshed.	4
	29	I clear the breakfast dishes.	5
2	30	I put the garbage into the plastic trash bag.	9
	31	I take the garbage bags to the drop-off site.	9
	32	There was a flame war on his blog.	8
	33	If you receive junk/spam emails, you can block the email addresses you don’t want to receive messages from.	18
	34	My computer is broken. I’ll get it fixed. (I’ll have it repaired.)	8

	35	I got 10 likes.	4
	36	The battery runs out.	4
	37	I charge/recharge my smartphone.	4
	38	I make three copies of contracts on A4 paper.	9
	39	Could you enlarge this document from A4 to A3?	9
	40	This copier often gets jammed.	5
	41	It's not your fault.	4
	42	Don't push yourself too hard.	5
	43	Your snoring disturbed my sleep.	5
	44	You grind your teeth so loudly.	6
	45	I toss and turn a lot in my sleep.	9
	46	Zoning out is the best way to get rid of stress.	11
	47	I want to fix my stooped shoulders.	7
	48	He has bad breath.	5
	49	He is nerdy.	3
3	50	She dresses neatly.	3
	51	My eyes are itchy.	4
	52	I'd like to get a vaccination for the flu.	9
	53	It's a throbbing pain.	4
	54	I strained my back. It hurts so much.	8
	55	He might be depressed.	4
	56	Can you prescribe a Chinese herbal medicine?	7
	57	Do you have medicine for hay fever?	7
	58	Please give me a compress for my sprain.	8
	59	I have terribly stiff shoulders.	5
	60	My eyes are a bit irritated.	6

Table 2: 60 English sentences provided in the self-reflective questionnaires.

First, participants orally translated 20 sentences from Japanese to English during their English language class. We then asked them to rate the difficulty level of the sentences on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., "1" for *Easy*, "2" for *Relatively Easy*, "3" for *Neutral*, "4" for *Relatively Difficult*, and "5" for *Difficult*).

Next, we gave students the same Japanese sentences and their English translations for a review quiz. Students were given two weeks to practice speaking in English without looking at the text, after which they took the quiz. A doctoral student verified students' answers using our proposed system (Kashiwagi et al., 2020). After the quiz, students were again asked to rate the difficulty of the sentences. The above practice cycle was conducted three times for the 60 sentences.

Then, using a Wilcoxon signed-rank test, we investigated whether any statistical differences existed among the difficulty ratings of the pre- and post-practice questionnaires.

Results and Discussion

Figures 1–6 illustrate the average difficulty ratings of the 60 sentences in the pre- and post-practice questionnaires across the three classes. The dotted red line indicates neutral difficulty values. The results show that the average values of the difficulty ratings across the three classes were similar in the pre- and post-practice questionnaires. As expected, the average scores of 57 of the 60 sentences (95%) decreased from the pre-practice to the post-practice questionnaire, although the average scores of the remaining three sentences increased. We examine the detailed results of the respective sentences in the following subsections.

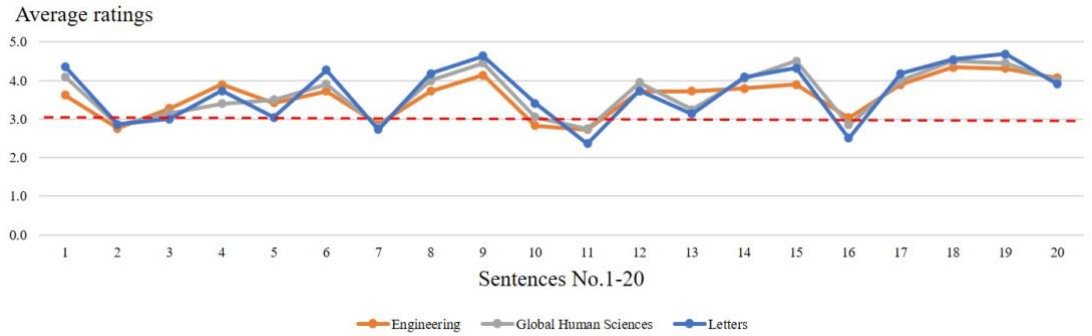


Figure 1: Average difficulty ratings of sentences no. 1–20 in the pre-practice questionnaire.

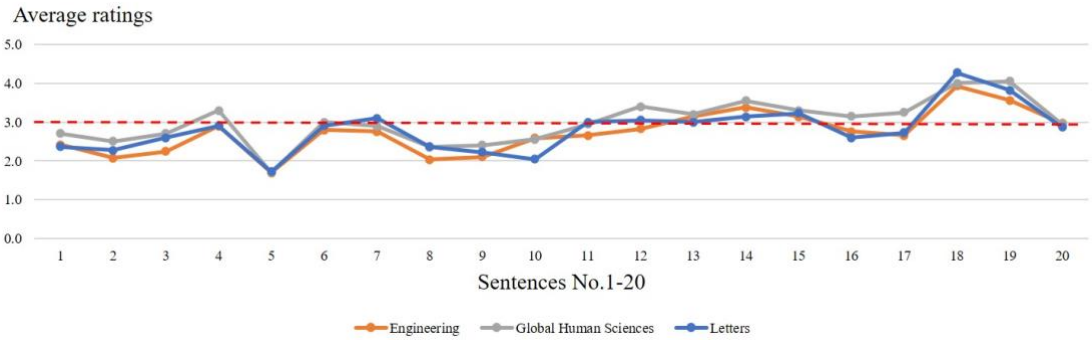


Figure 2: Average difficulty ratings of sentences no. 1–20 in the post-practice questionnaire.

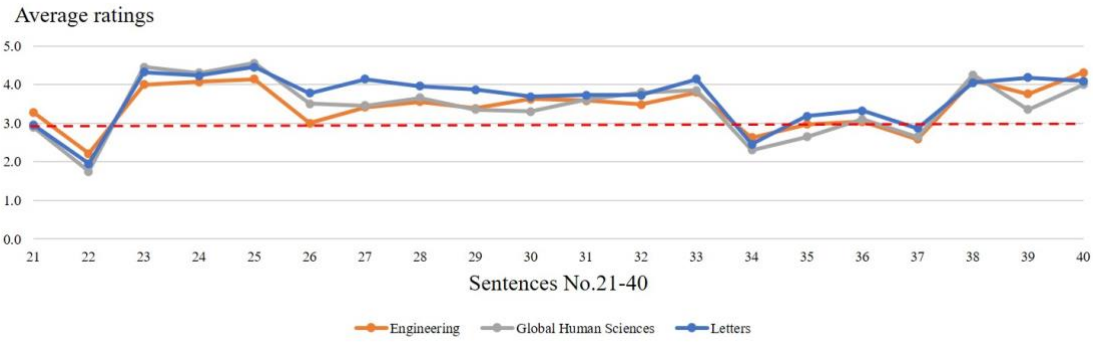


Figure 3: Average difficulty ratings of sentences no. 21–40 in the pre-practice questionnaire.

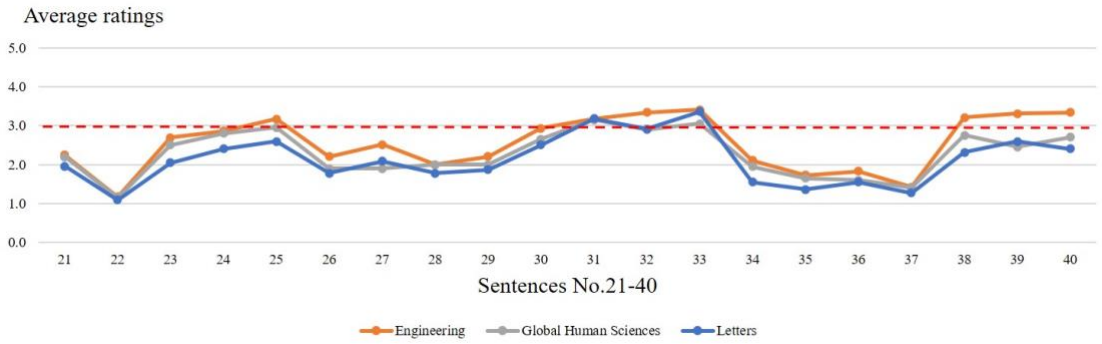


Figure 4: Average difficulty ratings of sentences no. 21–40 in the post-practice questionnaire.

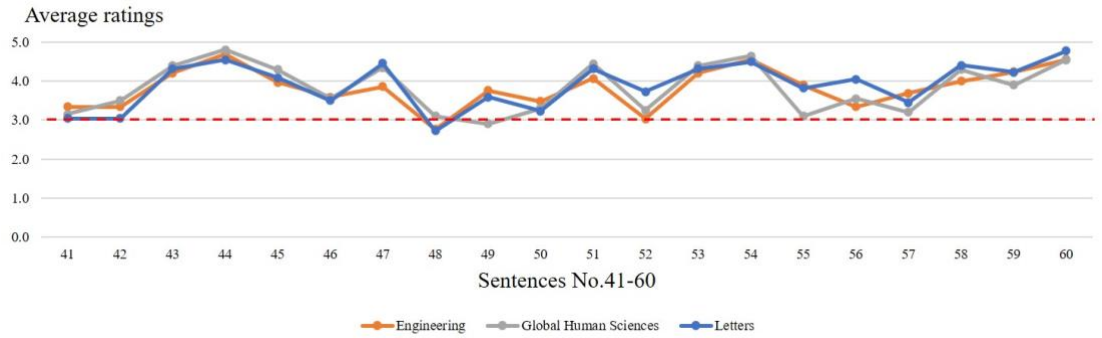


Figure 5: Average difficulty ratings of sentences no. 41–60 in the pre-practice questionnaire.

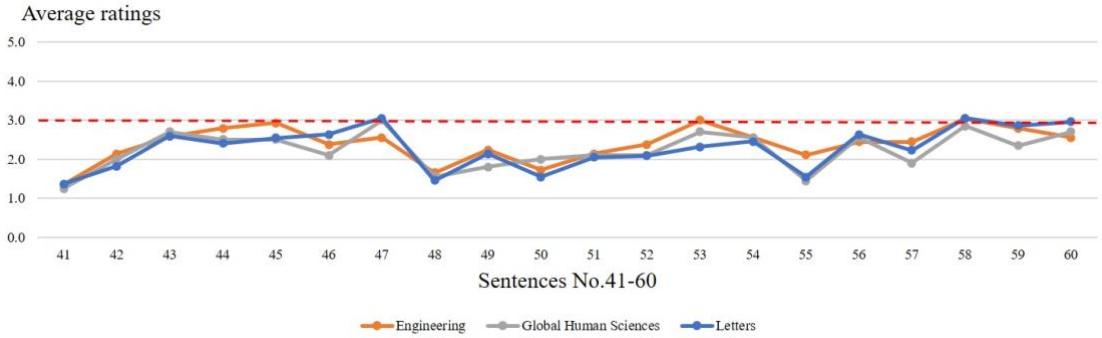


Figure 6: Average difficulty ratings of sentences no. 41–60 in the post-practice questionnaire.

Research Question 1: Are there any English sentences in which students' perception of difficulty decreases after practice? What characteristics can be observed in these sentences?

We used the Wilcoxon signed-rank test to analyze whether any statistically significant differences existed among the difficulty ratings of the pre- and post-practice questionnaires at a 5% significance level. Furthermore, we examined the characteristics of the proposed English sentences.

Sentences with Significantly Lower Average Difficulty Scores. Table 3 indicates that of the 57 sentences with lower scores after practice, the average scores of 43 sentences were significantly different between the pre- and post-practice questionnaires. We observe that the average difficulty scores of all short sentences consisting of three to five words (highlighted in yellow in Table 3) were significantly lower than those of the pre-practice questionnaire.

Although these sentences contained words unknown or unfamiliar to the students, such as "nerdy," "itchy," "throbbing," and "fogged up," they are very short. As students can easily focus on unknown or unfamiliar words, concise sentences are easy for them to learn. These results suggest that short sentences are recommended when using unknown words.

		Average difficulty ratings on a five-point Likert scale								
		Engineering			Global Human Sciences			Letters		
Sentence No.	Number of words	pre-practice	post-practice	statistical differences	pre-practice	post-practice	statistical differences	pre-practice	post-practice	statistical differences
49	3	3.8	2.2	*	2.9	1.8	*	3.6	2.1	*
50	3	3.5	1.7	*	3.3	2.0	*	3.2	1.5	*
22	4	2.2	1.2	*	1.8	1.2	*	2.0	1.1	*
26	4	3.0	2.2	*	3.5	1.9	*	3.8	1.8	*
28	4	3.6	2.0	*	3.7	2.0	*	4.0	1.8	*
35	4	3.0	1.7	*	2.7	1.7	*	3.2	1.4	*
36	4	3.0	1.8	*	3.1	1.6	*	3.3	1.5	*
37	4	2.6	1.4	*	2.7	1.4	*	2.9	1.3	*
41	4	3.3	1.3	*	3.2	1.3	*	3.0	1.4	*
51	4	4.1	2.1	*	4.5	2.1	*	4.3	2.0	*
53	4	4.2	3.0	*	4.4	2.7	*	4.3	2.3	*
55	4	3.9	2.1	*	3.1	1.5	*	3.8	1.5	*
23	5	4.0	2.7	*	4.5	2.5	*	4.3	2.0	*
24	5	4.1	2.9	*	4.3	2.8	*	4.2	2.4	*
25	5	4.1	3.2	*	4.6	3.0	*	4.5	2.6	*
29	5	3.4	2.2	*	3.4	2.0	*	3.9	1.9	*
40	5	4.3	3.3	*	4.0	2.7	*	4.1	2.4	*
42	5	3.3	2.1	*	3.5	2.0	*	3.0	1.8	*
43	5	4.2	2.6	*	4.4	2.7	*	4.3	2.6	*
48	5	2.8	1.7	*	3.1	1.6	*	2.7	1.5	*
59	5	4.2	2.8	*	3.9	2.4	*	4.2	2.9	*
5	6	3.4	1.7	*	3.5	1.7	*	3.0	1.7	*
9	6	4.1	2.1	*	4.5	2.4	*	4.6	2.2	*
27	6	3.4	2.5	*	3.5	1.9	*	4.1	2.1	*
44	6	4.7	2.8	*	4.8	2.5	*	4.5	2.4	*
60	6	4.6	2.6	*	4.6	2.7	*	4.8	3.0	*
47	7	3.9	2.6	*	4.4	3.0	*	4.5	3.0	*
56	7	3.3	2.4	*	3.6	2.6	*	4.0	2.6	*
57	7	3.7	2.4	*	3.2	1.9	*	3.5	2.2	*
17	8	3.9	2.7	*	4	3.3	*	4.2	2.7	*
21	8	3.3	2.2	*	2.9	2.2	*	3.0	2.0	*
54	8	4.6	2.6	*	4.7	2.6	*	4.5	2.5	*
58	8	4.0	3.0	*	4.3	2.9	*	4.4	3.0	*
30	9	3.6	2.9	*	3.3	2.7	*	3.7	2.5	*
38	9	4.1	3.2	*	4.3	2.8	*	4.0	2.3	*
45	9	4.0	2.9	*	4.3	2.5	*	4.1	2.5	*
52	9	3.0	2.4	*	3.3	2.1	*	3.7	2.1	*
1	10	3.6	2.4	*	4.1	2.7	*	4.4	2.4	*
6	10	3.7	2.8	*	3.9	3	*	4.3	2.9	*
8	11	3.7	2.0	*	4	2.4	*	4.2	2.4	*
15	11	3.9	3.1	*	4.5	3.3	*	4.3	3.2	*
46	11	3.6	2.4	*	3.6	2.1	*	3.5	2.6	*
20	24	4.1	3.0	*	4	3.0	*	3.9	2.9	*

Table 3: Sentences with significantly reduced average difficulty scores.

Second, the longest sentence consisted of 24 words (Sentence no. 20: "When I was a university student, I was a member of a student circle. We set up a yakisoba booth at the school/annual festival."). Its score significantly decreased from the pre-to-post-practice

questionnaire, suggesting that students did not find it difficult after self-study despite its length. In Japanese, there is a tendency to describe situations chronologically. As Sentence no. 20 is written in chronological order, using this sentence orally was not challenging.

Third, the difficulty scores of sentences in the form "get" + the past participle form of the verb (Sentence no. 40: "This copier often gets jammed.") and "have" as a causative verb (Sentence no. 17: "No, I had them reissue my library card.") significantly decreased after practice. While such sentences are not easy for Japanese students, since the target sentences were short with familiar content, they had no difficulty using them orally after self-study.

These results suggest that short sentences, sentences in chronological order, and familiar content even in the form of "get" + the past participle form of the verb and of "have" as a causative verb are recommended strategies for Japanese students learning unknown or unfamiliar words and phrases.

Sentences with Lower but not Significant Average Difficulty Scores. Table 4 reports the average difficulty scores of the remaining 14 of the 57 sentences with reduced average scores. These sentences do not show significant differences between the pre- and post-practice questionnaires. The sentences highlighted in green in Table 4 have reduced but not significantly different difficulty scores.

		Average difficulty ratings on a five-point Likert scale								
	Number	Engineering			Global Human Sciences			Letters		
Sentence No.	of words	pre-practice	post-practice	statistical differences	pre-practice	post-practice	statistical differences	pre-practice	post-practice	statistical differences
2	6	2.8	2.1	*	2.9	2.5		2.9	2.3	
3	6	3.3	2.2	*	3.2	2.7		3.0	2.6	
4	8	3.9	2.9	*	3.4	3.3		3.7	2.9	
10	6	2.8	2.6		3.1	2.6		3.4	2.0	*
12	13	3.7	2.8	*	4.0	3.4		3.7	3.0	
13	18	3.7	3.1	*	3.3	3.2		3.1	3.0	
14	9	3.8	3.4		4.1	3.6		4.1	3.1	*
18	21	4.3	3.9		4.5	4		4.5	4.3	
19	23	4.3	3.6	*	4.5	4.1		4.7	3.8	*
31	9	3.6	3.2		3.6	3.2		3.7	3.2	
32	8	3.5	3.3		3.8	2.9	*	3.7	2.9	*
33	18	3.8	3.4		3.9	3.1	*	4.1	3.4	*
34	8	2.6	2.1		2.3	2.0		2.5	1.5	*
39	9	3.8	3.3		3.4	2.5	*	4.2	2.6	*

Table 4: Sentences with lower but not significantly different average difficulty scores.

When we analyzed the characteristics of these 14 sentences, the following observations were noted. First, the average difficulty scores of the inanimate subject sentences, such as "What material will the test cover?" (Sentence no. 3), "The mock exam uses a computer-scored answer sheet" (Sentence no. 4), and "Things are pretty tough" (Sentence no. 10) decrease, but without significant differences in two classes. The inanimate subject sentence is a unique linguistic phenomenon in English and may be challenging for Japanese learners. Hence, students did not find it easy to translate these sentences orally, even after self-study.

Second, the difficulty scores of sentences using the structure "get" or "have" + object + past participle form of the verb (Sentence no. 2: "I've got it all done today" and Sentence no. 34: "My computer is broken. I'll get it fixed. (I'll have it repaired)"), and the structure of "have" + object + infinitive of the verb (Sentence no. 14: "I had them retrieve the book from the

stacks.") are not significantly lower in two classes. We assume that Japanese students know how to use the verbs "have" and "get" as basic verbs. However, in the case of the structure "get" or "have" + object + past participle form of the verb and of the structure "have" + object + infinitive of the verb, they may struggle to use them orally in English, even after self-study.

Third, we observe that students do not use phrasal verbs. For example, the difficulty score of Sentence no. 18, which includes "run for" ("To run for the Vice President position in the student council, she will give a campaign speech at a school assembly.") is not significantly lower in all three classes. The difficulty score of Sentence no. 12, which includes "check out" ("The lending period is two weeks, but this book is currently checked out."), is not significantly lower in two classes. Additionally, the difficulty score of Sentence no. 19, which includes "come up with" and "make up for" ("The opposing team had a substantial physical advantage, so we should have come up with a game plan to make up for it."), is not significantly lower only in one class. These sentences are rather long, and the length of the sentence may determine students' difficulties. In addition, using these phrasal verbs may be hard for them, whereas native English speakers often use them. Previous research (Ishii, 2018) has found that the phrasal verbs used by EFL (English as a foreign language) learners differ from those used by native English speakers. These results suggest that further consideration must be given to teaching phrasal verbs.

Finally, the difficulty score of sentences with relative pronouns or the omission of relative pronouns, such as "You can block the email addresses you don't want to receive messages from" (Sentence no. 33), is not significantly lower only in one class. Object relative pronouns are often left out in relative clauses. Japanese students have lesser proficiency in using relative clauses, even as teaching methods for addressing this issue have been explored (Nakamori, 2002). As such, they do not find it easy to use them orally in English, even after self-study.

These results suggest that students must learn to use inanimate subject sentences, the structure of "get" or "have" + object + past participle form of the verb, and that of "have" + object + infinitive of the verb, phrasal verbs, relative pronouns, and sentences that leave out object pronouns.

Research Question 2: Are there any English sentences in which students' perception of difficulty does not change after practice? What characteristics can be observed in these sentences?

The results in Table 5 indicate that the average difficulty scores of three sentences slightly increase after practice in both Class B (Faculty of Global Human Sciences) and Class C (Faculty of Letters). The sentences highlighted in orange in Table 5 are those with higher but not significantly different after-practice average scores in the two classes. We analyzed the characteristics of these three sentences.

		Average difficulty ratings on a five-point Likert scale								
	Number	Engineering			Global Human Sciences			Letters		
Sentence No.	of words	pre-practice	post-practice	statistical differences	pre-practice	post-practice	statistical differences	pre-practice	post-practice	statistical differences
7	13	2.9	2.8		2.8	2.9		2.7	3.1	
11	12	2.7	2.7		2.8	3.0		2.4	3.0	
16	13	3.0	2.8		2.9	3.2		2.5	2.6	

Table 5: Sentences with slightly higher average difficulty scores after practice.

First, the lengths of the three sentences are 12 or 13 words (moderately long), which may generate difficulties in producing sentences.

Regarding Sentence no. 7 ("I had no idea there would be questions like that on the exam."), the phrases "I have no idea" and "like that" appear to be perceived as challenging. In Sentence no. 11 ("You can check out up to five books at any one time."), the expressions "check out," "up to," and "at any one time" are included in one sentence, and students do not seem to be accustomed to these idiom expressions. Sentence no. 16 ("I completely forgot that today was the due date for these library books.") contains the adverb "completely." For Japanese learners, using adverbs is challenging, and an efficient way to teach adverbs has been proposed (Kumagai & Kumagai, 2016). Additionally, the sentence includes the expression "the due date," which may be unfamiliar to most students.

In the pre-practice questionnaire, students do not find it challenging to produce these sentences in English orally; however, they seem to find it challenging after self-study. We assume that these sentences are unexpectedly tricky for them to produce.

Research Question 3: Could incorporating subjective difficulty ratings in the language learning system help further develop English-speaking practice?

In investigating whether learners' subjective difficulty ratings could help develop the proposed system of English-speaking practice, it was found that students perceived most proposed sentences as easier after practice. However, their difficulty ratings of some sentences did not reduce, as expected, or slightly increased after practice. These sentences were not produced smoothly, although the students knew the words and phrases.

Subjective difficulty ratings may help identify specific language items that students have problems with. In addition, learners' self-reflective evaluations of detailed learning items play a meaningful role in observing real perceptions of language use. While self-reflective evaluation is not an objective test, it allows us to observe how students perceive the difficulty of producing certain words and phrases.

By incorporating subjective difficulty ratings in the proposed system, we may gain a deeper understanding and knowledge of which language items are unfamiliar on an individual basis. In turn, our system of English-speaking practice can be improved by incorporating these items to improve individual learning.

Findings

Although the study of the role of learners' perceived difficulty is still in progress, this preliminary study provides some meaningful implications.

For example, students may more easily focus on unknown or unfamiliar words in short sentences with familiar content, which is recommended when learning new words. Another recommended strategy for learning unknown or unfamiliar words and phrases is expressing sentences chronologically.

Japanese students find it challenging to produce sentences using inanimate subjects. The questionnaire results suggest that students find it hard to use the structure "get" or "have" + past participle form of the verb and "have" as a causative verb. However, if these expressions are introduced in short target sentences, they may be easier to learn. Furthermore, it was found that Japanese students do not use phrasal verbs such as "make up for" but instead tend to use one longer word, such as "compensate." Therefore, Japanese learners need to become familiar with using phrasal verbs. Similarly, they need to be accustomed to using adverbs, which are also difficult for Japanese learners. Finally, the results indicate the importance of practicing producing sentences with relative clauses, especially wherein the objective relative pronoun is omitted.

In all these cases, learners' subjective perceptions of difficulty may help determine which language items are particularly challenging for them.

Conclusions

To improve the proposed English-speaking practice system, we examined learners' perceived difficulty in producing English sentences. We administered pre- and post-practice questionnaires among 71 Japanese university students to ascertain the subjective difficulty levels of 60 English sentences. The results suggest that short sentences, familiar content, and expressing sentences in chronological order are useful strategies when learning unknown or unfamiliar words and phrases. Moreover, students should practice using inanimate subject sentences, causative verbs, phrasal verbs, relative pronouns, and sentences leaving out object pronouns.

It was also observed that Japanese learners had trouble with expressions such as "I have no idea," idiom expressions such as "check out," "up to," and "at any one time," and with adverbs. These should hence be made more familiar to them.

Finally, assessing the learner's subjective perception of difficulty may help identify particularly problematic language items.

Despite its contributions, the current study has some limitations. For instance, it does not control the target sentences' grammar, syntax, or length, all of which are important and should be examined in future research. Moreover, objective evaluations, such as review quizzes, are needed to measure learners' ability to use English orally. In addition, as this study only addresses three classes, the results may not be easy to generalize. Further studies targeting larger numbers of students should thus be conducted.

As a continuation of this study, we hope to investigate the role of learners' perceptions of difficulty in oral English production by focusing on specific target grammar and syntax, as well as controlling the length of the target sentences.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by JSPS Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (No. JP18K02822).

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Surviving Distance Learning Calculus: Students' Perspective, Practices, Experience and Performance on a Modular Instruction Class

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The absence of in-person classes due to COVID-19 compelled the teacher-researcher to deviate from the traditional face-to face class and lecture instruction delivery. This cycle 2 of an action research study using the Plan-Do-Study-Act (PDSA) model determined the students' perspective, practices, and performance on a fully modular calculus class. Survey questionnaires, reflective journals, and focus group discussion were used for the qualitative part while pretest and posttest scores were used to assess calculus performance using a two-tailed paired t-test at $\alpha=0.05$. Descriptive and thematic analyses revealed that students viewed modules as printed materials which cover everything and modular instruction as entailing a lot of reading and self-study. Students' practices to survive the modular instruction included reading of the modules several times a week, engaging in group studies, watching You Tube videos, and asking questions to the teacher. Using Jamovi 2.3.13, results revealed that the participants' calculus performance increased significantly $(p < 0.001, d=1.89)$ which is largely attributed to the use of the self-learning modules. Modular instruction appears to be a viable mode for calculus agency during remote learning.

Keywords: Distance Learning, Modular Instruction, Self-Learning Modules, Calculus Agency, Surviving Calculus

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Introduction

Physical learning disruption caused by the global health pandemic due to COVID 19 posed formidable challenges to educators. The predicament is more stimulating to teachers of domains requiring knowledge of both declarative-propositional (knowledge) and procedural (skill) like mathematics. It is expected to be even more demanding for teachers and learners of calculus, because concepts are abstract and complicated (Zachariades et al., 2007).

The choice of calculus instruction delivery amidst the pandemic considering inadequate online learning gadgets and internet connectivity issues in a state university serves as the subject of this paper. How does one provide an effective calculus instruction during remote learning with the aforementioned considerations? A completely modular form of instruction seems to be a viable option for the teacher-researcher and through action research the students' perspective, practices, experiences and performance were determined.

Why Action Research. Elliot (1991) as cited by Young et al. (2010) defined actions research (AR) as a process in which teachers collaborate with peers to jointly evaluate their practice; raise awareness of their personal theory; express a shared conception of values; honing new strategies so that practice and educational values they espouse are consistent; ensure recording of their work in a manner which can be understood by their peers and make them readily available; and thus develop a shared theory of teaching by research practice. AR enables researchers to develop a systematic, inquiring approach toward their own practices orienting towards effecting positive change in this practice (Hine, 2013; Holter & Frabutt, 2012). The belief that one can know through doing, exemplified by pragmatists, reinforces these practices of action researchers (Brydon-Miller et al., 2003).

The adoption of an action research design to explore the perspective, practices, experiences and performance of students in a fully modular instruction calculus class finds underpinnings in the aforementioned.

On Distance Learning. Students may be separated geographically from their campus, teachers, and institution services through distance learning (Lentel, 2012). Many researchers have applied distance education and distance learning interchangeably to a variety of programs, audience, and media (Sherry, 1995). It can take different forms and be supported by various systems and applications (Zarzycka et al., 2021) with the common feature of delivery being remote (Means et al., 2010). Distance education describes education delivered to distant or remote locations via print, audio, video (live or pre-recorded) and/or computer technologies, including both synchronous and asynchronous instruction (Cain, et al. 2007 as cited by Owens, et al. 2009).

Modular Instruction. As early as 1972, Goldschmid & Goldschmid have explained that a modular instruction is one which either partly or entirely uses a module which is a self-contained, independent unit of a planned series of learning activities designed to help the students accomplish certain well-defined objectives. The main objective of the modules is to provide resources to instructors that will allow them to transform their classrooms into active, student-centered learning environment (Sadiq & Zamir, 2014). Rakova et al. (2018) considered a module to be a set of learning opportunities which are organized around a well-defined topic which contains elements of instruction, specific objectives, learning activities and self-assessment and evaluation using criteria-referenced measurement. To have control over their learning while accepting greater responsibility for learning as well (Dejene &

Chen, 2019) has been greatly encouraged by the modular approach which is an alternative instructional design that uses developed instructional materials which are based on the needs of the students (Nardo, 2017).

Calculus Agency. Calculus has a critical role and varied goals across different contexts (Biza et al., 2022) Calculus courses are considered to be a vital gate keeper in various academic and professional paths (Bressoud et al., Thompson & Harel, 2021) and calculus is widely known as a critical stage in many transition processes including transition from secondary mathematics to tertiary mathematics, transition within and across university courses, or more importantly the transition from university to the workplace (Hocmuth et al., 2021). Though the importance of calculus is widely accepted, ample evidence shows that students around the world struggle in their calculus courses and the rates of failure in these courses are relatively high (Artigue et al., 2007; Faulkner et al., 2019). As many components of calculus depend on reasoning with visual representation (Sorby et al., 2013) it would really be a tremendous challenge to teach calculus in the absence of a face-to-face class and trying to provide calculus instruction in online distance learning via a fully modular instruction mode while taking into consideration mobile learning gadget limitations, signal and internet connectivity problems.

Methodology

The study involving 40 BSCS students, employed an action research design and adopted the Plan-Do-Study-Act (PDSA) model. What is presented hereon is the result of Cycle 2 of the PDSA.

Design and Development of Modules. With the aid of available offline and online resources and aptly guided by an approved Math 2 (Calculus) syllabus, 15 self-learning modules (SLM) for differential calculus were developed. The SLM provided lessons on limits, continuity, the derivatives, rules on differentiation, implicit differentiation, higher-order derivatives, and problem solving involving the derivatives including related rates, finding extrema, and optimization. Each module contains an introduction of the topic lesson and a brief discussion of requisite concepts, objectives, instruction to users/learners, pretest (and answer to pretest), lesson proper, activity, posttest (and answer to posttest), and self-assessment (Fig 1). The alpha version was given to selected sections of education and computer engineering students for student validation and for cycle 1 of the action research study. Errors such as typographical ones were reported by students and were corrected accordingly; text boxes with brief explanations in the vernacular (Tagalog) were also included. These measures were undertaken to allay confusion among learners, make the SLM more learners' friendly and hopefully address their reading literacy problems.

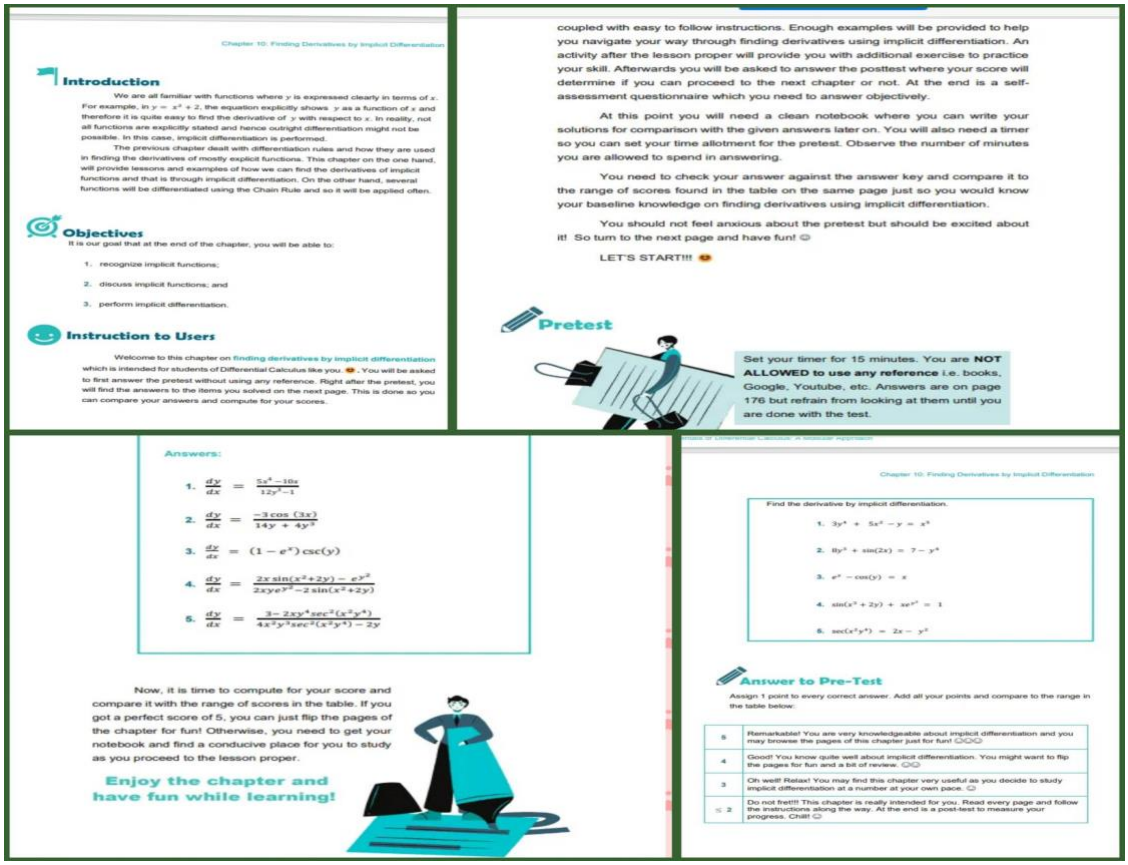


Figure 1. Different parts of the topic module

Implementation of the Modules. The self-learning modules were uploaded in the Google Classroom at the start of the semester. The students were instructed to read the SLM during asynchronous class and have a group meet whenever necessary. During synchronous class, students were allowed to raise questions, concerns, and problems about the topic module; this was done to clarify lessons and discuss solutions to problems encountered. When students have no question, the teacher-researcher then will be the one to ask questions about concepts and applications of that particular topic module. As a requirement, the students have to submit weekly outputs of pretest, activity, posttest, reflection, and self-assessment.

Exploring Students' Views, Practices and Experiences on a Modular Instruction Class.

To determine the students' views, practices, and experiences on a fully modular instruction calculus class, reflective journals, survey questionnaire, and focus group discussion were utilized.

Reflective journals. The potential of reflective practices to engender lasting and effective changes in students' lives is widely recognized (Denton, 2018). It is common practice to encourage higher education students to engage in reflective practices as a preparation for their future professional experiences (Adie and Tangen, 2015). Journaling, along with other writing activities was seen to be an effective supplement to traditional lecture mathematics for it complements the critical and logical identity of mathematics and this blend creates a unique learning culture (Domingo, 2019). This underpins the use of reflective journal as a source of information for students' perspective, practices, and experiences during remote learning under the fully modular form of instruction. At the end of each module, students

were tasked to make a reflection of their learning/understanding of that topic/lesson and to contextualize the lesson.

Survey questionnaire. According to Mathers et al, (2009), survey is a flexible research approach used to investigate a wide range of topics. A self-made questionnaire using a 4-point Likert-scale with 1- never, 2 – sometimes, 3- often, and 4-always was employed to describe the students' experience on MI. It was composed of 17 experience descriptors which were gleaned from the students' written reflections and comments through question and answer during synchronous classes. The descriptors included: have access to the lessons anytime, study calculus remotely, study calculus with flexibility, experience independent-learning, be focused in my learning, be inspired to do my best, understand my own learning (metacognition), experience challenges in reading the lessons, exercise critical thinking while studying, learn without relying on sophisticated gadgets, have difficulty understanding the lessons, have feedback on my progress/performance, be confident in my performance, exercise creativity in my learning, be anxious while studying, communicate for help when the need arises (and extend help when warranted), and appreciate calculus and its use in the real world. A check mark was used to indicate the frequency of experience of the descriptors from never (1) to always (4). At the end of the survey, the students were asked to write their comments/suggestion on the use of modules.

Focus Group Discussion. Before the semester ended, 8 students were randomly selected for a focus group discussion which was done virtually via Google Meet. Each of them, in random order, was asked to answer the prepared questions. They have to answer one at a time until all 8 were able to answer. The questions for FGD included: what is your understanding of a module; what is your understanding of a modular instruction; what are your practices during asynchronous classes, what are the opportunities and challenges encountered during the fully modular form of instruction in the calculus class? The students were allowed to answer in the vernacular (Tagalog).

Pretest and Posttest. Each of the self-learning modules has a pretest and a posttest (Fig. 2). After the introduction, objectives, and instruction to users, the pretest is done where final answers are indicated for self-check. A table of scores is provided so the students have an idea of what to do next. Usually, a student gets very low scores and are directed to continue to the lesson proper where the topic is lengthily discussed and explained. An activity follows the lesson proper and the student has to finish where their solutions and scores are compared to the solution and answers given for the activity. If they get at least 70% correct answer then they are directed to proceed in answering the posttest which is identical to the pretest. In this part, solution to the problems were explained unlike in the pretest where only the final answers were provided. All in all, the students performed 15 pretests and posttest corresponding to the 15 modules.

Paired sample t-test using Jamovi 2.3.13 was utilized to determine if significant difference exists between the mean scores of the pretest and the posttest.

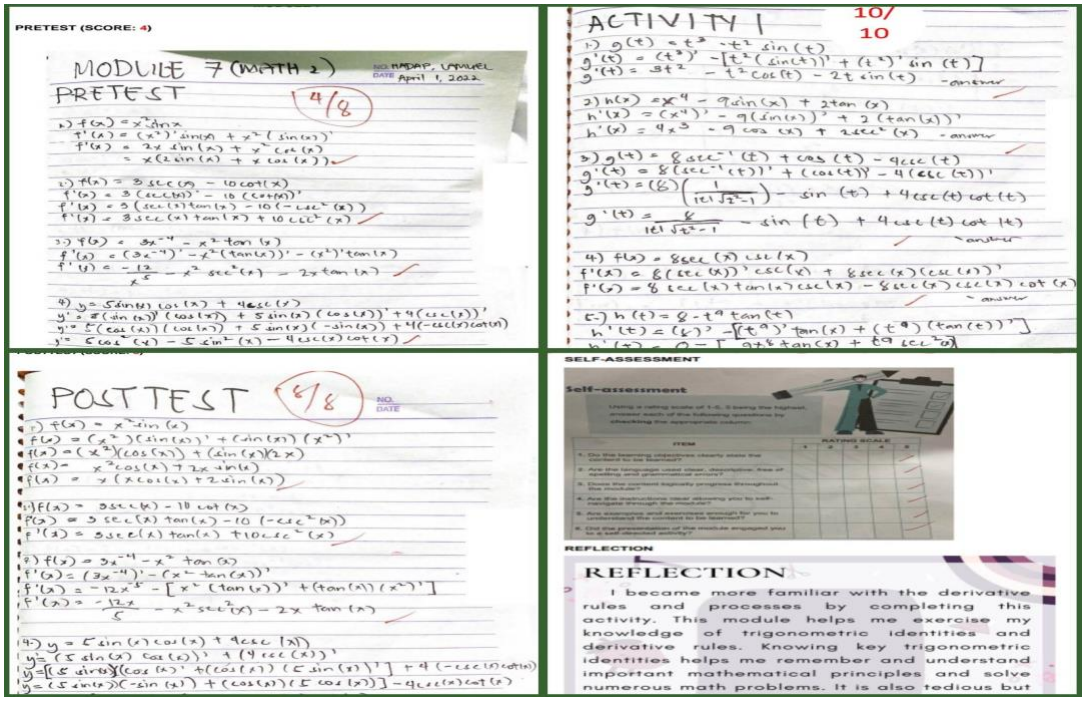


Figure 2. Sample of an answered pretest, activity, and posttest

Findings and Discussion

Students' Perspective, Practices, and Experiences on the Modular Form of Instruction

Using descriptive and thematic analysis, the data collected revealed that students viewed modules as printed materials where everything about the lesson can be found and the modular instruction as something which entails a lot of reading and self-study. This is in consonance with the study of Dejene (2018) which mentioned that modular approach to teaching enables the learner to have control over their learning and accepts greater responsibility for learning. He asserted that modular instruction demands greater maturity on the part of the learners and modules is more appropriate for mature students. This demand led to the development of various practices among the student participants for them to cope. They shared common practices in learning calculus through modular instruction which included: allotting schedule in reading the modules several times a week, engaging in group studies, watching Youtube videos when still confused, and asking the teacher questions if there are still unclear items. Reading (including module reading) is a cognitively complex activity which requires that one fully comprehends the message expressed, interprets between and beyond the lines of text, and constructs personal meaning with the text (Shea & Ceprano, 2017). This leads to the need of modular instruction students to spend time with the modules not just once a week but several times a week. To fully comprehend the calculus lesson, repeated exposure to the modules is imperative. The need for group studies, on the other hand, is supported by Chiriac (2013) who claimed a strong scientific support for the benefits of students learning and working in groups. She posited that when working interactively with others, as common in group studies, students learn to inquire, share ideas, clarify differences, problem-solve, and construct new understandings. The study of Cihangir and Coklar (2021) supports the practice of students in a modular instruction to watch video lessons particularly at Youtube which is considered as a video learning tool with expected benefits due to its popularity and easy access. The availability of self-learning modules and accessible video lessons does not lessen the importance of teacher's presence in virtual classes. Teachers play a crucial role in

synchronous discussions and the quality of interaction in a virtual classroom is determined by the instructor and not by technology (Tyrvainen et al., 2021). In the case of the student participants to the study at hand, they felt the need for confirmation of their own understanding of the lessons as well as learnings from youtube videos; finality and confirmation can be found from the teacher's answers to their questions, thus, the most common practice of asking questions during synchronous classes was observed.

The results revealed that about 97% of the students often or always experienced having access to the module anytime, being able to exercise creativity in learning, communicating for help when needed, and appreciating calculus better. Veletsianos and Houlden in 2019 espoused the flexibility quality of distance education like the modular distance learning as affording anytime, anyplace learning However, because of reading literacy issues, 57% experienced difficulty in understanding some of the lessons. A study on students' reading difficulty in modular learning (Libre III and Decano, 2021) revealed comprehension difficulty as a challenge which results to boredom because they cannot understand what they are reading. Seventy percent said they were often anxious while studying which is supported by the study of Ajmal and Ahmad (2019). They found out the students were anxious during modular distance learning because they are unable to discuss or share problems with their instructors on a daily basis. The result of the accomplished survey was in consonance with the findings of Goldschimd & Goldschimd (1972) that modular learning offers flexibility and cooperation which was manifested with the need for group studies among the learners.

Students' Performance Under the Modular Form of Instruction

Employing Jamovi 2.3.13, the pretest and posttest mean scores were collected and checked for normality using Shapiro-Wilk ($p > 0.05$). Since normality is established, a two-tailed paired-sample t-test was done at $\alpha = 0.05$. The table below shows that a significant difference exists between the mean scores of the pretest and posttest (perfect score of 160). The measured effect size using Cohen's d is 1.83 indicative of mean scores difference of almost two standard deviations away. This reveals that the significant difference is largely attributed to the use of the self-learning modules, in particular, the lesson proper which contained the activity. A study conducted in 2018 (Cramer et al.) suggested that a significant association existed between module receipt and improved performance. Apparently, students are able to have a firm grasp and take responsibility of their own learning and become active participants of their own learning. This was observed among many of the students in calculus under modular form of instruction who often experienced better understanding of their own learning, and thus, better metacognition (Domingo, 2023). One of the more common practices of participants of the fully modular calculus class is to conduct group studies to discuss concerns, questions, queries for a particular topic module. The discussion allowed collaboration among the learners as they shared problems encountered and how these problems were solved and asking other group members for possible solutions if the problems remain unsolved. The group members practiced collaboration which is a philosophy of interaction where individuals are responsible for their actions, including learning and respect the abilities and contributions of their peers (Laal et al., 2012). The modular approach helps to maximize the chances of students' participation to fulfill the given tasks at the spot, so the students feel free to learn in their own style (Sadiq and Zamir, 2014). Despite having to collaborate with peers in their group study, the use of self-learning modules allows learners to work independently and without faculty supervision and is beneficial in self-directed learning (Tohidi et al., 2019).

N = 40	Mean	Standard deviation	Sig (2-tailed, α = 0.05)	Cohen's d	Remark
Pretest	61.4	28.2	$p < 0.001$	1.83	**Significant difference exists** (largely attributed to the use of SLM)
Posttest	128	22.8			

Table 1. Students' performance in terms of pretest and posttest scores

Conclusion

Students view modules as printed materials which provides everything about the lessons and the modular instruction as mode of instruction delivery which entails a lot of reading and self-study. This perspective warrants various practices to enable distance learning calculus survival: read the modules several times a week, engage in group studies, watch related Youtube videos and finally ask the teacher for clarity. These practices seem to work well for this led to more calculus engagement resulting to a better understanding of the lessons. The modular form of instruction notwithstanding reading literacy issues provided positive experiences and significantly improve calculus academic performance without trivializing teacher's presence.

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Promoting Learner Autonomy Through Extensive Reading

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study focused on 165 Japanese medical university students who engaged in extensive reading (ER) activities outside the classroom for two semesters. It aimed to see if ER could enhance their capacity to become more autonomous learners. This was because ER was designed as an activity to be done outside the classroom and primarily left to the learners, although the amount of reading was part of the grade in the reading class. The study also investigated the change in reading attitude and motivation to reading English through the ER activities. First, students' post-course reflective reports were examined quantitively with Co-occurrence Network Analysis (CNA), providing a graphic visualization of potential relationships between entities represented within written material by the KH Coder. Secondly, to see how the keywords extracted by CNA in their reports were presented, the contexts were examined carefully line by line. By doing so, prominent keywords such as 'fun' and 'not good at' related to ER were revealed. The result shows that perception of the activity with emotion could lead to improved motivation for reading English materials and a change in their attitudes to reading in English. In addition, some learners demonstrated increased autonomy when writing about their reading strategies and perceptions of the ER activities. These findings support the claim that ER is an effective way to promote learner autonomy and motivation for university students learning English.

Keywords: Extensive Reading (ER), Learner Autonomy, Motivation, English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

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Introduction

The aim of this study is to investigate the effects of extensive reading (ER) on the learner autonomy and motivation of 165 Japanese medical university students in an English reading course. ER is an approach to language learning in which learners read large amounts of self-selected materials at a comprehensible reading level. In contrast to intensive reading, ER focuses on reading for pleasure and meaning rather than learning unknown language. Some of the claimed benefits of extensive reading include that it can improve learner motivation and reading attitudes (Day & Bamford, 1998; Lake, 2014; Lake & Holster, 2014; Mikami, 2020, Shin & Ahn, 2006; Takase, 2012, Yamashita, 2013), be effective for vocabulary learning (Nation, 2015; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006), and enhance learner autonomy (Chanthap & Wasanasomsithi, 2019; Takahashi & Umino, 2020).

Learner autonomy has been defined as the learner's capacity to take control over their own learning (Benson, 2011). According to Little (2006, p. 2), it is important because autonomy is a basic human need which "is nourished by, and in turn nourishes our intrinsic motivation" thus explaining "how learner autonomy solves the problem of learner motivation: autonomous learners draw on their intrinsic motivation when they accept responsibility for their own learning and commit themselves to develop the skills of reflective self-management in learning: and success in learning strengthens their intrinsic motivation". As Japanese educational contexts typically have not emphasized learner autonomy, many learners have few opportunities to develop these skills. Given that ER has been advocated as an effective way of enhancing learner autonomy in several language learning contexts we decided to explore whether out-of-class ER would influence the learner autonomy and motivation of university students in a Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context.

Literature Review

Extensive reading and learner autonomy

As Benson notes, learner autonomy is "not a method of learning, but an attribute of the learner's approach to the learning process" (2011, p. 2). As ER programs in theory give learners a lot of freedom over their learning, they should be ideal for enabling learners to develop this attribute. Andreano & Wolfe (2019) state that ER programs should provide opportunities to develop learner autonomy and ensure that instructors know about various autonomy supporting strategies and actions. In practice, this involves having challenging yet attainable reading goals, student independence and control over reading choices with little direct decision making by instructors, and a wide range of reading options. Finally, they argue it is better for the ER program to be longer rather than shorter to provide adequate time for continual student growth to occur within this supportive framework (Andreano & Wolfe, 2019).

The influence of ER on language learner autonomy has been explored in several studies. In a study with Thai second-year undergraduate students, Channuan & Wasanasomsithi (2012) used pre- and post-ER learner autonomy questionnaires and semi-structured interviews to investigate the effects of ER integrated with a learner autonomy training strategy framework. The findings indicated frequent learner use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in ER and improved attitudes to second language (L2) reading and learner autonomy. In another study with Thai EFL undergraduate learners, Chanthap & Wasanasomsithi (2019) reported a statistically significant increase of learner autonomy after implementing a blended learning

and extensive reading instructional model. The results showed that learners developed reading planning ability, including the establishment of reading objectives, selection of appropriate reading strategies prior to reading, and control of their own reading processes. This study also demonstrated the influence of their strengthened intrinsic motivation in the voluntary use of these reading strategies by learners outside of the classroom (Chanthap & Wasanasomsithi, 2019).

Mede, İnceçay, & İnceçay (2014) used oral book reports in an ER program to foster learner autonomy. The findings, collected through reflection papers and semi-structured interviews with students and teachers, showed "a clear-cut positive effect … on language learners' autonomy" (Mede, İnceçay, & İnceçay, p. 24). Canh (2021) investigated the effects of ER on learner autonomy with 25 Vietnamese EFL learners. It was found that completing book reports on ER books they had read enhanced learners' autonomy and fostered a more positive attitude. Finally, Takahashi & Umino (2020) explored the effects of out-of-class ER on learner autonomy in a Japanese as a second language course. It was found that ER could enhance learner autonomy, with some learners continuing to read autonomously after completing the course. Takahashi & Umino (2020) conclude that out-of-class ER can contribute to the development of learner autonomy as "it is a 'learner-friendly' framework, providing each learner with a customized way to read extensively" (p. 62).

Extensive reading and motivation

Motivation concerns the choice of a specific action and the persistence and effort expended on pursuing it (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). As Dörnyei (2001, p. 7) puts it, "motivation explains *why* people decide to do something, *how hard* they are going to pursue it and *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity." Improving and maintaining the motivation to read is crucial as reading in an L2 "requires a lot of time, effort, and perseverance" (Komiyama, 2009, p. 37).

Several studies in Asian EFL contexts have shown that extensive reading can positively affect learners' L2 reading motivation. Shin & Ahn (2006), in a quantitative, pre-posttest questionnaire study with Korean high school students, found that participants developed a more positive attitude and increased their motivation through doing ER. Yang, Chu & Tseng (2021) studied the effects of ER on the reading comprehension and reading motivation of vocational high school students in Taiwan. They found that students reading ER materials at a level slightly above their capacity enhanced their overall reading motivation and self-efficacy.

In Japan, Takase (2012) explored the effects of extensive reading on the motivation of unmotivated Japanese university EFL learners in a repeater course. It was found that students of varying English proficiencies benefited with almost all learners seeing improvements in their English reading motivation. Lake (2014) studied the effects of ER on the motivation and reading fluency of 244 first-year female students in a Japanese university. He describes the benefits of developing reader motivation and shows how ER can lead to improvements in reading fluency, motivation, and a positive L2 self. Specifically, this study showed increases in L2 reading interest, reading self-efficacy, and reading speed for learners in classes reading one book or more a week (Lake, 2014). Iwata (2018) explored the effects of ER on developing the motivation of Japanese college-level EFL students and found that more students reported liking reading English and most learners either perceived reading in English as less difficult or became accustomed to it through doing ER.

Research has also shown that ER has positive effects on reading attitude and intrinsic motivation. Yamashita (2013) researched the effects of ER on reading attitude, a central component of reading motivation, and found that it positively affected L2 reading attitude. Yamashita argues the results imply that ER has an effect on aspects of reading attitude that affect intrinsic motivation, such as positive feelings and intellectual satisfaction, more than those related to extrinsic motivation. She concludes that the positive feelings enhanced by ER may increase the motivation to read. Similarly, Mikami (2020, p. 32) claims that pleasurable feelings and "a sense of accomplishment in ER can motivate students to continue reading". However, Mikami (2020), linking learning autonomy with motivation, also warns that negative experiences of ER due to not being able to find interesting or appropriate books autonomously may decrease learners' motivation to read more. Her study, which explored the effects of goal setting on learner motivation for extensive reading, found that setting, committing to, and attaining goals in an ER program was crucial to enhancing intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy (Mikami, 2020). The implications of these findings are that self-regulated learners who are effective at goal setting and produce a positive influence on their motivation may develop a virtuous cycle toward new learning goals (Mikami, 2020).

Research questions

Based on these research findings and theoretical claims on the possible positive effects of ER on enhancing both learner autonomy and motivation, we wanted to explore if similar effects could be seen in our context when students were given opportunities to read extensively out-of-class.

Specifically, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. What effects does out-of-class ER have on participants' learner autonomy?
2. What effects does out-of-class ER have on participants' L2 reading motivation?

Methodology

Participants

The participants were first-year Japanese undergraduates in nursing and pharmaceutical departments and took reading classes for two semesters in 2021. One hundred sixty-five students: nursing 93 and pharmaceutical 72 took the reading course as a mandatory subject. In the first semester, reading classes focused on general topic articles such as culture and globalisation, human relationships and healthy life. On the other hand, the second class dealt with broad medical backgrounds and specific medical technologists. Their English proficiency varied from beginner to intermediate levels. Each reading class consists of between 40 and 50 students. Their main interest was not learning English since they entered the university and passed the national exam to become professional healthcare workers. Our challenge was to make the students studying in the large group interested in English and autonomous learners. To do so, we introduced the extensive reading activity into the class.

Design

ER was a part of the class grade: when the learners read 30,000 words per semester, they could get 20% of the whole rate. Online software, Mreader, tracked how many words they read. It enables them to check their reading comprehension and visualise their progress

individually. After reading a book, Mreader gave the student quiz, and if the response rate was above 60%, credited them the number of words they read. ER was designed as an activity outside the class and could give them the freedom to choose their books and allow them to progress at their own pace. The only advice from the instructor was to select the book they were interested in and put it back on the shelf if they found four or five words they could not understand on each page. By doing so, we believed ER would increase their interest in reading English books and promote learner autonomy.

After the ER activity, we asked them to submit reflective reports about ER. One hundred thirty-eight students (nursing 78 and pharmaceutical 60) cooperated in offering them since it was optional. The reports were analysed with KH coder, free software for quantitative content analysis, to see how they reflect their learning experience. Using it, Co-occurrence Network Analysis (CNA), a data analysis method used to identify patterns of association between different entities in the data, was conducted. In this study, CNA can show us how the frequently used words are related to each other in the students' reflective reports. In addition to the CNA, line-by-line analysis of the reflective reports was done by the researchers to further identify common themes in learners' responses.

Results and Discussion

The reflective reports contain 20,248 tokens and 7.999 types and comprise of 618 sentences and 196 paragraphs. According to the CNA on this data, four major groups: Group 1 (I, Think, Can read. Read, and Book), Group 2 (Vocabulary, Many, Content, and Comprehension), Group 3 (English, Not good at, First, and Agreement), Group 4 (A little, Activity, and Extensive reading) were nominated. Each group consisted of words used more than 60 times in writing data, and they appeared together. In addition, two frequently appearing words, 'feel' and 'fun', are related to several groups. (see Figure 1) Groups 1, 2, and 4 include unmarked words such as 'vocabulary', 'read' and 'extensive reading', which are naturally related to English reading activity. Group 3, however, had marked words such as 'English', 'not good at', 'first' and 'awareness'.

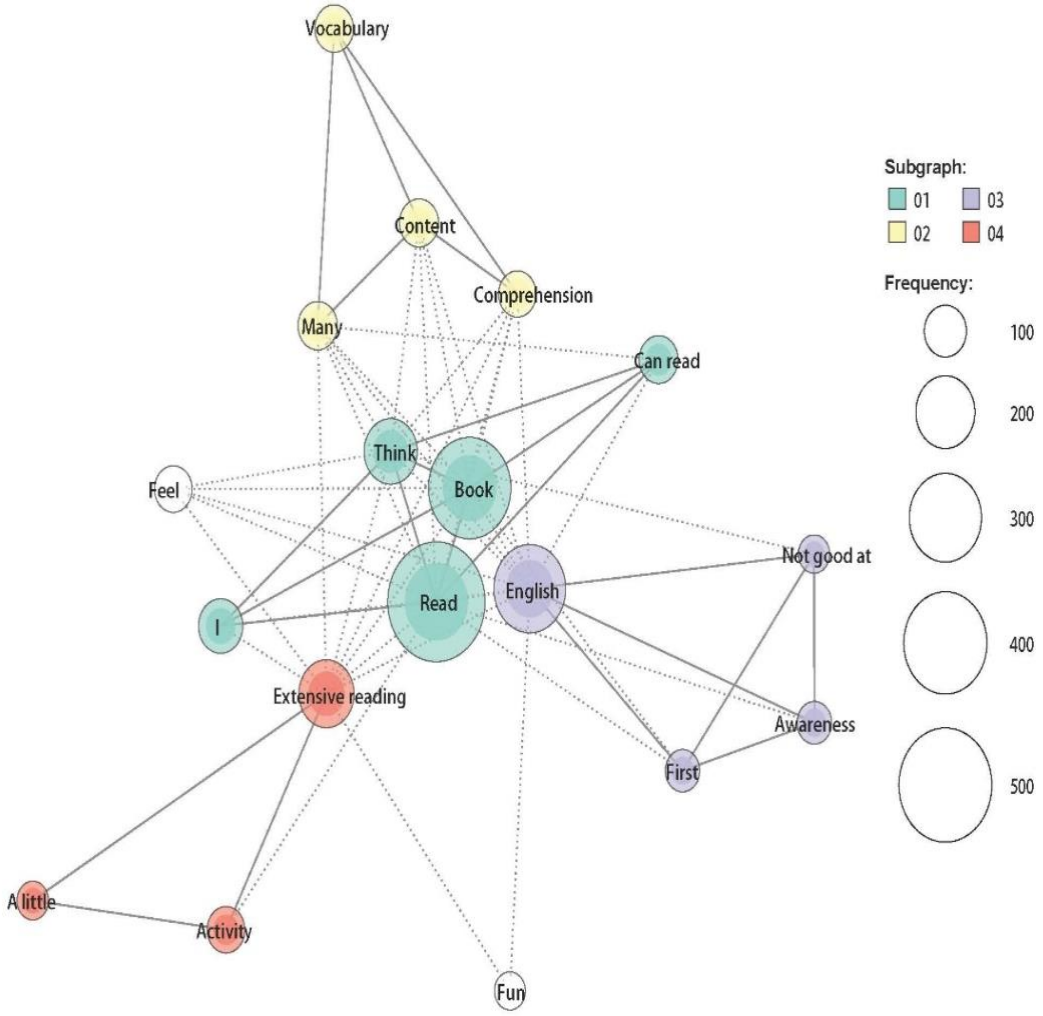


Figure 1: Co-occurrence Network Analysis result

The contents where these words appeared together were extracted to examine the Group 3 words and the words 'feel' and 'fun' in the participants' reports. The sample reports are shown below:

Sample A

*When I started extensive reading, I **was not good at English**, so I read a lot of books with few words. The more books I read, the more I could understand the content. I **was aware** that I had to look up the dictionary less often and read faster than I did **at first**. Now I try to read books with around 2000 words. I have also started looking for books I want to read by looking at the book's title. I have found it **fun** to read books in English. I am conscious of my speed so that I can read as fast as possible and I would like to continue reading English books to improve my vocabulary.*

Sample B

***At first,** I **was not very good at English**, so when I saw English books with a lot of words, I lost motivation and chose books with fewer words or books I knew. I read by looking up words I didn't understand or by judging from the pictures. Because of this, I didn't have the content completely in my head, and when answering questions, I narrowed it down to two, but I made mistakes there, and I couldn't answer with confidence. However, as I read more*

and more, the number of words I could understand increased, and I was able to read more easily without having to look up every single word, so I started to try books with slightly more words and fewer pictures. In the beginning, I could read, but often the questions were not correct, but gradually the percentage of correct answers increased and I ***felt*** *a sense of achievement. Thanks to the reading, I* ***enjoy*** *reading English now, and I am less afraid of English.*

Samples A and B show that participants were not good at English at first but developed their reading strategies and finally felt ER fun through reflecting on ER activity. The results of the CNA and qualitative analysis indicate how the students changed their reading attitude in English and found a way through trial and error to be fond of English. The sense of achievement increased confidence and positive emotion, which led to motivation for learning English and learner autonomy.

In summary, ER can promote learner autonomy in several ways. Firstly, ER encourages learners to take responsibility for their own learning. When learners engage in ER, they are often given the freedom to choose their own reading materials and set their own pace. This allows learners to take ownership of their learning and develop their own interests and preferences.

Secondly, ER can improve learners' self-efficacy and motivation. When learners are able to read materials at their own level and pace, they are more likely to feel successful and confident in their abilities. This can motivate them to continue reading and to take on more challenging materials. This positive synergy could lead to learner autonomy.

Conclusion

The findings from the linguistic analyses in this study have shown that extensive reading can be effective in developing EFL learner autonomy and motivation. The findings concur with previous relevant quantitative research in showing that by doing ER learners improved their learner autonomy, for example, by independently planning and implementing their own reading strategies. In addition, learners strengthened their intrinsic motivation by developing more positive feelings about reading in English. As previous researchers have noted (e.g., Mikami, 2020, Yamashita, 2013) if the right learning conditions are provided, ER can enhance the interactive relationship between learner autonomy and intrinsic motivation, in turn leading to a virtuous reading cycle in which learners will continue reading. Research has shown that these learning conditions should include providing a wide variety of reading materials of various levels for learners to self-select from, having challenging but attainable reading targets, and running the ER program long enough to allow learners sufficient time to develop their autonomy and motivation within this supportive framework.

Regarding future research directions, as this study found that linguistic analysis of reflective reports was a useful approach to revealing changes in learner motivation and autonomy, future research could consider employing such an approach in addition to quantitative questionnaire-based methods which have typically been used to explore the effects of ER on learner autonomy and motivation.

Acknowledgements

This research was partially supported by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture, Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C), 21K00690.

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Investigating Pre-service Secondary Mathematics Teachers' Mathematics Proficiency and Critical Citizenship in the Design of Social-Issue-Themed Mathematics Online Lessons

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Conditions that recently threatened the breakdown of social order led the authors to question the role of mathematics in addressing these conditions. In the light of these conditions, this study aimed to explore the tension between the need for pre-service secondary mathematics teachers (PSMTs) to be mathematically proficient and society's expectations of them to develop skills for critical citizenship. Twenty randomly selected PSMTs from an intact class in a Philippine university participated in three researcher-designed online mathematics lessons covering descriptive statistics, logic and reasoning, and linear functions that addressed the country's issues which include the government-declared war on drugs, proliferation of fake news, and armed conflicts, respectively. Drawing on online ethnographic practitioner research approach, both quantitative and qualitative data-gathering methods were employed. In the quantitative phase, pre-test-and-post-test single-group design was employed to determine the effectiveness of the lessons in improving PSMTs' mathematical proficiency. In the qualitative phase, deductive qualitative content analysis was used to determine and categorize the PSMTs' skills for critical citizenship before and after exposure to the lessons and determine if there was a difference in their skills. Seven categories of critical citizenship were theoretically deduced, though only five were pertinent, to consider PSMTs' communication of critical citizenship. The findings showed a significant difference in the PSMTs' mathematical proficiency score before and after the lessons. Moreover, improvement of PSMTs' skills for critical citizenship were shown. The activities created a communicative space that helped PSMTs develop their critical citizenship without sacrificing their mathematical proficiency.

Keywords: Critical Citizenship, Mathematics Proficiency, Pre-service Secondary Mathematics Teachers

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Introduction

History has shown that problems of social order arise from difficulties like environmental disasters, plagues and pandemics. Problems of social order are exhibited by the following: (1) resistance to measures from authorities (Reicher & Stott, 2020) and (2) emergence of open conflict resulting in threats to security, to property and even to life itself (Jamrozik & Nocella, 2011). These problems have been seen to appear during certain periods. In the Philippines, for example, problems of social order (or unrest) came about during the Martial Law era.

Problems of social order became prevalent once more in recent years, most especially during the Covid 19 pandemic which exacerbated the situation. An example of a situation that posed problems of social order to the Filipino public was the government-led war-on-drugs initiated by Rodrigo Duterte when he assumed office as the Philippine president on June 30, 2016 (Warburg & Jensen, 2020). Another equally alarming situation was the widespread fake news, particularly through social media. Disinformation has been problematic in the Philippines with social media playing a critical role in influencing discourse ranging from politics to health, beliefs, religion, current events, and others (Bringula et al., 2022). Armed conflicts have been regularly problematic. An example is the Marawi Siege which was a five-month-long armed conflict in Mindanao, Philippines, between government security forces and militants affiliated with the Islamic State (IS), including the Maute and Abu Sayyaf groups (Sandongdong et al., 2020).

In the light of these situations that threaten the breakdown of social order, we question how mathematics could become an instrument for developing students' understanding of the social degradation that is happening in the country and in the world. In this study, our goal was two-fold. We wanted to first, challenge the persisting view of mathematics that is objective, value-free, decontextualized, and non-political and argue that mathematics has a role to play in maintaining an orderly society and, second, find ways to develop "critical" and engaged citizens who are motivated to change and improve society. These dual goals are in line with Skovsmose's (1994) principle regarding mathematics education. According to him, "The purpose of mathematical education should be to enable students to realize, understand, judge, utilize and also to perform the application of mathematics in society, in particular in situations which are of significance to their private, social and professional life" (p.55).

To realize the dual goals, this study focused on investigating pre-service secondary mathematics teachers' (PSMTs') development of mathematics proficiency and skills for critical citizenship. A number of scholars have argued for PSMTs to strengthen their mathematics proficiency while they are still students in a teacher-training institution (e.g., Bosica et al., 2021). However, the development of PSMTs' mathematics proficiency should never be independent from their development of critical citizenship (Freire, 2000).

Theoretical Perspectives

This study was anchored on the theories of Kilpatrick et al.'s (2001) mathematics proficiency and Skovsmose's (1992) critical citizenship.

Kilpatrick et al's. (2001) mathematical proficiency consists of five intertwined and overlapping strands: conceptual understanding, procedural fluency, strategic competence, adaptive reasoning, and productive disposition. Conceptual understanding refers to the

comprehension of mathematical concepts, operations and relations. Procedural fluency covers the skills in carrying out procedures flexibly, accurately, efficiently and appropriately. Strategic competence is the ability to formulate, represent, and solve mathematical problems. Adaptive reasoning is the capacity for logical thought, reflection, explanation and justification. Productive disposition is the habitual inclination to see mathematics as sensible, useful, and worthwhile.

A number of mathematical assessments both local and international have included mathematical tasks that measure various strands of mathematical proficiency due to their usefulness in leveraging students' mathematics learning (Kepner & Huinker, 2012, p. 28 as cited in Groves, 2012). Many studies have designed and administered mathematics proficiency tests to students assessing only three strands, namely, procedural fluency, conceptual understanding, and strategic competence (e.g., Khairani & Nordin, 2011; Groves, 2012; Usman, 2020) as these have been identified in the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) as the main strands in developing students' procedural knowledge, conceptual knowledge and problem-solving skills – mathematical abilities students needed to be mathematically proficient (Al-Mutawah et al., 2019). Thus, the present study focused only on the three strands.

Skovmose (1992) defined critical citizenship as a quality of thought that supports one "to be critical citizens who can challenge and believe that their actions will make differences in society" (p. 2) According to him, critical citizenship is needed to promote democratic ideals. He wrote, "Democracy can be destroyed if a critical citizenship cannot be brought to life." (p.5) Furthermore, he elucidated that "being critical" involves "(1) investigation of conditions for obtaining knowledge, (2) identification of social problems and evaluation making, and (3) a reaction to problematic social situations" (p. 37).

Research Questions

In this paper, we sought to determine if there was a significant difference in the PSMTs' mathematical proficiency score before and after going through the social-issue-themed mathematics online lessons, and how prevalent and to what extent critical citizenship was evident in the PSMTs articulation about critical citizenship before and after going through the social-issue-themed mathematics online lessons.

Methodology

The study used online ethnographic practitioner research employing both quantitative and qualitative data-gathering methods (Barton, T.D., 2008; Skageby, 2011; Eisenhart, 1988). In the quantitative phase, pre-test-and-post-test single-group design was employed to determine PSMTs' level of mathematics proficiency. In the qualitative phase, deductive qualitative content analysis (Bikner-Ahsbahs et al., 2015) was used to determine the prevalence and extent of PSMTs' skills for critical citizenship.

The research subjects were 20 PSMTs who were 3rd Year Bachelor of Secondary Education major in Mathematics (BSEd-Math) students at a university in Mindanao during 1st semester of SY 2022-2023.Random sampling technique was used in determining the participants.

In this study, three lessons covering different mathematics contents incorporating different Philippine issues as themes were developed by the first author (See Table 1).

Lesson No.	Mathematics Content	Theme
1	Organization and Presentation of Data & Measures of Central Tendency and Variation	Drug-related Fatalities/ Human Rights Violations
2	Logic and Reasoning	Fake News/Leadership and Governance
3	Linear Function and Simple Linear Regression Analysis (SLRA)	Safety and Security/ Civil Conflict

Table 1 The Three Social-Issue-Themed Lessons

The social issue themes were chosen based on Skovsmose's (1985) two criteria: They must be closely connected to the experiences or interest of students and they must be closely related to existing social problems. The first author of the article played dual roles as researcher-instructor. The researcher-instructor implemented the lessons following the *Launch-Explore-Summarize* (LES) instructional model (Schroyer & Fitzgerald, 1986) that emphasizes dialogic teaching and learning. It consists of forms of interactions in the classroom where both teacher and students are involved in the co-creation of knowledge. During the *Launch* phase, the researcher-instructor uploaded mathematics content reviewers and links to a relevant social issue, and introduced the social issue. During the *Explore* stage, students performed the group task in self-selected groups of 4 to 5 members per group. They were given real-life data with instructions to express their thoughts and questions about the issue, apply the mathematics content in addressing the issue, and finally propose some actions that will address the issue. During the *Summarize* stage, the PSMTs identified and discussed their common mistakes, challenges, and difficulties in a whole-class discussion facilitated by the researcher-instructor.

In this study, data collected were the pre-test and post-test scores in the Mathematics Proficiency Test (MPT) and the prevalence and extent of PSMTs' Critical Citizenship as reflected in their Critical Citizenship Test (CCT) administered before and after the lessons.

The MPT is a 14 - item, 42-point, open-ended, and researcher-developed test which PSMTs were required to answer individually for 2 hours. The test was validated by a pool of 5 expert raters composed of 4 PhD Mathematics Education and 1 MA Education major in Mathematics degree holders. The choice of 5 expert raters for content validation is the minimum acceptable number (Ayre & Scally, 2013) for this type of study. The MPT covered descriptive statistics, logic and reasoning, and linear functions. A 3-point scale was used to score each item in the MPT (Refer to Table 2). The scoring guide was a modification based on the works of Usman (2020) and Cartwright (2020). The score of each PSMT from the MPT was obtained by adding all the points obtained from the 14 items in the test. The lowest possible score is 0 and the highest possible score is 42. The PSMTs' MPT scores in the pre-test and post-test were then analyzed using paired samples t-test.

Point	Procedural Fluency	Conceptual Understanding	Strategic Competence
3	Procedures are used accurately and efficiently; Correct formulas and calculations	Explanation exhibits complete knowledge and understanding of the concepts or relationships taken into consideration	Able to solve problem with accurate details, shows knowledge and understanding of concepts and relationships and process, and complete solutions
2	Minor mistake in procedure due to carelessness; minor error due to lack of understanding	Minor mistakes in the explanation; explanation lack minor supporting details	Acceptable strategy for solving a problem; shows knowledge and understanding of concepts and relationships, but lacking accuracy in the details/solutions due to carelessness; not able to solve the problem
1	Major mistake in procedure due to carelessness; major error due to lack of understanding	Major errors in explanation due to lack of knowledge or understanding	Acceptable choice of strategy, exhibit some knowledge and understanding with some errors and misconceptions; unable to solve the problem
0	Inappropriate/ wrong procedures due to lack of knowledge/ understanding of concepts; inappropriate formula used, or no response.	Inappropriate explanation; explanation does not connect/ correspond to the concept or relationships discussed; Not following instruction; No explanation.	Inappropriate choice of strategy for solving a problem; major mistakes in the process, or wrong process; unable to solve the problem

Table 2. Scoring Guide for Mathematics Proficiency Test

The CCT is a three-item, open-ended, researcher-developed test which PSMTs were required to answer individually for 20 minutes. The test asked PSMTs to draw out their feelings and thoughts about each of the three social-order related issues in the Philippines and to share how they could address these issues as Filipino citizens. The test was also validated by a pool of 5 expert raters composed of 2 high school Social Studies teachers, 1 university instructor with a degree in Sociology and 2 university instructors with a degree in Political Science.

In the study, deductive qualitative content analysis (QCA) (Bikner-Ahsbahs et al., 2015) was used by employing predetermined structures to organize narrative data in categories. Seven categories of critical citizenship were deduced from Skovsmose's notion of critique (see Table 3).

Category	Definition
Critical Competence	Ability to critique traditional notion that teacher is always in control of educational process (Skovsmose, 1985)
Critical Distance	Ability to critique the applicability of subject matter (Skovsmose, 1985)
Critical Engagement	Ability to critique the applicability of the problem selected (Skovsmose, 1985)
Knowledge of the Social Issue	Ability to articulate ideas concerning the causes, processes, and expected outcomes of the social issue (Hong, 2018).
Application of the Social Issue to Broader Context	Expanding of one's understanding of the social issue by connecting it to broader social issue (Hong, 2018; Oh & Kwon, 2014)
Taking Personal Stance (Passive Stance)	Ability to express personal stance and feelings for the social issue (Hong, 2018; Oh & Kwon, 2014)
Taking Active Stance via Collective Social Action for Social Change	Ability to suggest community engagement that allows individual role to become active contributor and participant of individual community beyond observing passively (Hong, 2018; Oh & Kwon, 2014)

Table 3. Seven Categories of Critical Citizenship and Corresponding Definitions

However, in this study, only five were pertinent in taking into account the PSMTs' communication of critical citizenship. These were all the categories except *critical competence* and *critical engagement*.

All text components of the PSMTs' responses in each of the three social issues in the CCT during the pre-test that fit into each of the five categories were extracted and coded. A text component ranged from a string of words to a sequence of sentences. Each PSMT was coded at most once per category. If two or more text components belonging to the same PSMT fit into one category of critical citizenship, then the PSMT was given a single code only in that category. However, a text component was coded as one or more categories if deemed applicable. The same procedure was done for the PSMTs' responses in each of the three social issues in the CCT during the post-test.

Results

Figure 1 shows the distribution of the scores of 20 PSMTs' pre-test and post-test scores in the MPT. The graph indicates an increasing trend of the scores of the PSMTs from pre-test to post-test.

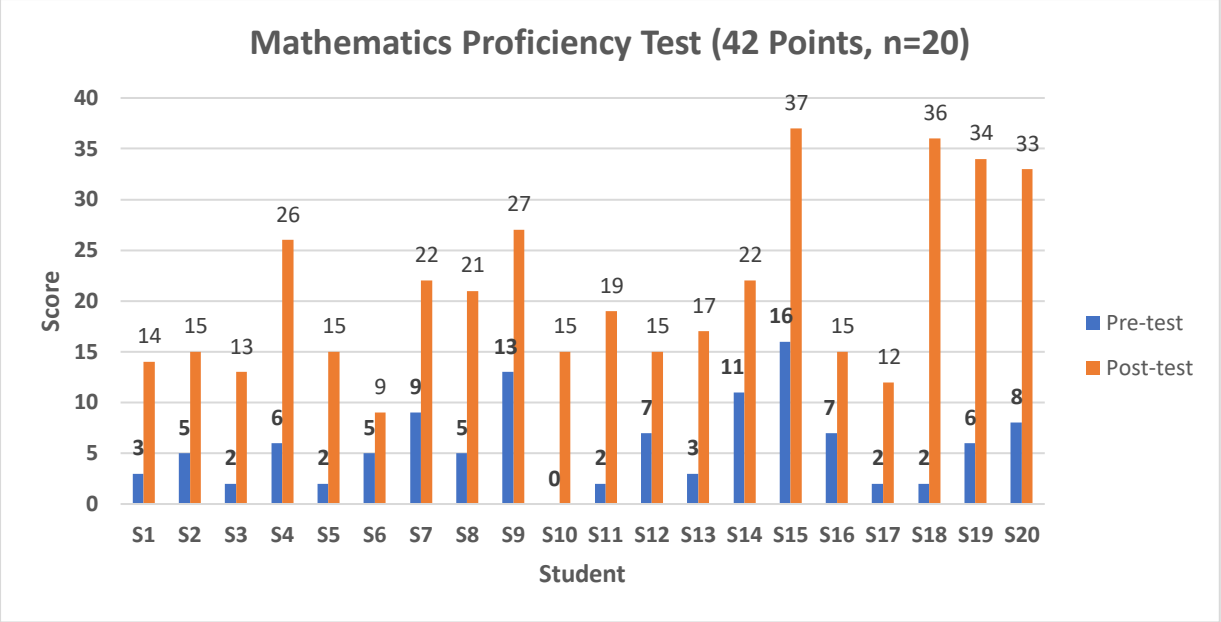


Figure 1: Distribution of PMSTs' Mathematics Proficiency Test Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores

Table 4 shows the scores of the PSMTs in the MPT before and after exposure to the lessons. Their pre-test mean score, 5.70 with a standard deviation of 4.13, was interpreted as low test performance. Their post-test mean score, 20.85 with a standard deviation of 8.57, was interpreted as average test performance. The paired samples t-test revealed a critical value of 9.236 with 19 degrees of freedom (t (19) = 9.236, p <0.05) indicating a significant difference of 15.15 between the pre-test and post-test means. Such differential effect was large (Cohen's d = 2.07).

Group	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	SD Difference	t	df	p-Value
Pre-Test	5.7	4.13	15.15	7.336	9.236	19	0.000*
Post-Test	20.85	8.57					

*: Significant at p < 0.05

Table 4. Test of Difference in the Mathematics Proficiency Test Mean Scores

Figure 2 shows the prevalence and extent of PSMTs' critical citizenship with respect to the war-on-drugs issue in the CCT before and after the implementation of the lessons as reflected in their pre-test and post-test results, respectively.

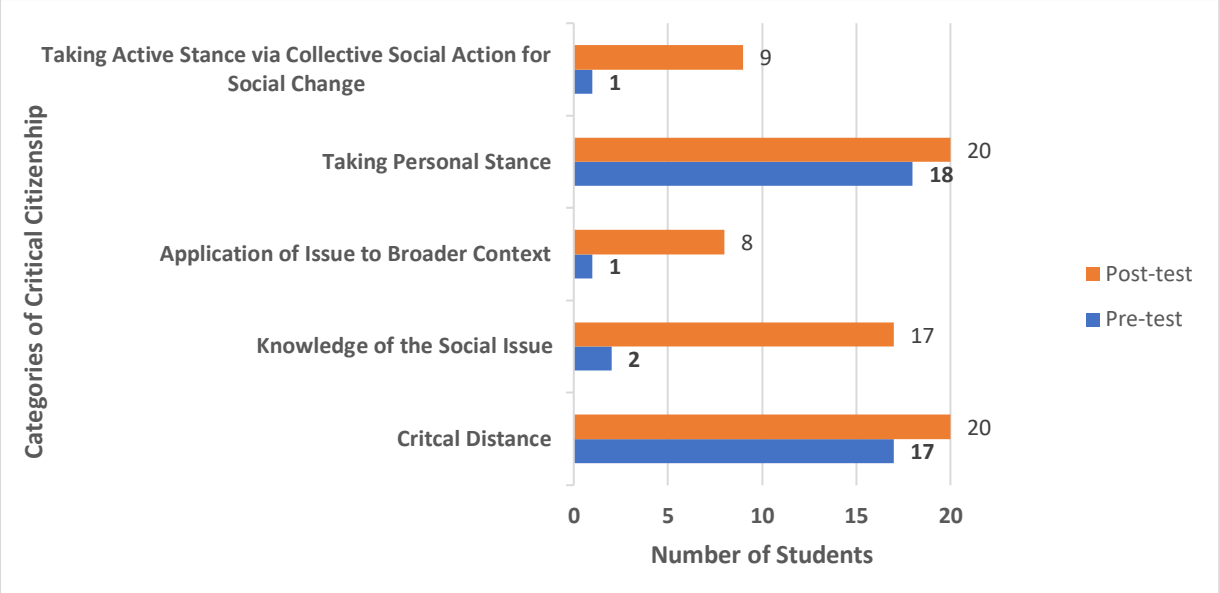


Figure 2: Prevalence and Extent of Critical Citizenship in Issue #1: War on Drugs

In the pre-test, most of the PSMTs gave statements categorized as *taking personal stance* (18 out of 20). In general, the PSMTs expressed concern about the high cases of prohibited drug use in the country and the effect of drug use in the safety of the citizens. They urged the government to conduct awareness programs, campaigns, education and strict implementation of the law prohibiting drug use. There were 17 out of 20 PSMTs whose statements fall under the *critical distance* category. They stated the use of statistics, data-gathering techniques, and graphs as appropriate tools to promote understanding of the issue. There were also a few who mentioned the applicability of calculus. There were only two out of 20 PSMTs who articulated ideas indicating *knowledge of the social issue*. One mentioned that most of the crime suspects usually use illegal drugs. Another stated that through the implementation of the war-on-drugs in the country, there were now fewer drug addicts and crime offenders. Only one PSMT spoke about the issue that indicated as *application of the issue to a broader context* citing the effect of drug use towards health, emotion and mental well-being. Also, only one PSMT gave statements that indicated *taking active stance via collective social action for social change* advocating the need to create activities that can help raise awareness of the consequences of using illegal drugs.

The post-test showed an increase in the number of PSMTs articulating each category in the CCT. Also, in general, the PSMTs were more expressive of their thoughts, ideas and feelings in the post-test. In the *taking personal stance* category, all 20 PSMTs resonated with the need to be concerned like those in the pre-test. But there were some PSMTs who showed concern about the alarming number of deaths although decreasing, the extrajudicial killings and the need to strengthen the country's law and justice system. In the *critical distance* category, all 20 PSMTs expressed appreciation for descriptive statistics as a tool in addressing the issue which was the same as in their pre-test. However, in the post-test many more were able to explain further how descriptive statistics can be used. In the *knowledge of social issue* category (17 out of 20), most PSMTs have expressed more ideas about the issue compared to the pre-test. Some mentioned the President Duterte's successful implementation of the campaign to lessen drug problem in the county. Others mentioned the weak judicial system of our country and the prevalence of injustices. Many admitted that the use of statistics has promoted better understanding of the scale the issue has taken. In the *application of the issue to a broader context* category (8 out of 20 PSMTs), some PSMTs expressed the need to abide

by the law, to be good and responsible citizens. Others emphasized the need to strengthen the human rights advocacy, the discipline from authorities and the country's justice system. In the *taking active stance via collective social action for social change* (9 out of 20) category, there were more PSMTs who showed increased knowledge on how to act with regards to the issue. They mentioned the need for them to participate in activities to raise awareness in the social media using mathematics to justify the scale of the issue.

Figure 3 shows the prevalence and extent of PSMTs' critical citizenship with respect to the issue of fake news in the CCT pre-test and post-test.

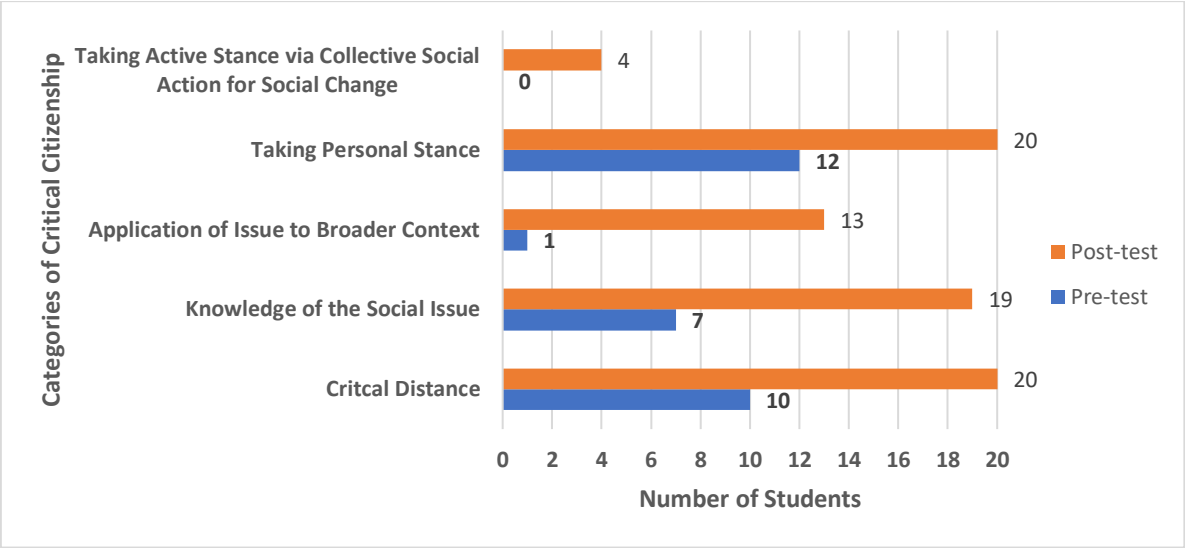


Figure 3: Prevalence and Extent of Critical Citizenship in Issue #2: Fake News

In the pre-test result, most of the PSMTs (12 out of 20) gave statements consistent with the *taking personal stance* category. A number of PSMTs expressed the need to be concerned about the injustices, abuses and atrocities that took place during the Martial Law era, to learn from history, and to make sure this part of our history will not repeat. However, there were some PSMTs who cited some "benefits" of President Ferdinand Marcos, Sr.'s Martial Law, such as maintaining order during that era as imposed by the government. Others argued to leave the negativities behind since these do not affect their future or they were not yet born during that time. There were 10 out of 20 PSMTs who maintained *critical distance*. Generally, they stated the use of statistics and data-gathering to promote understanding of the issue. Some mentioned the applicability of other mathematics contents like arithmetic, algebra and calculus. There were few who thought that mathematics cannot be applied. There were 7 out of 20 PSMTs who manifested *knowledge of the social issue*. Most of them argued that there were legitimate documents proving Ferdinand Marcos Sr's Martial Law was full of police atrocities. Others argued that only those against the government were punished and that the posts in social media showing negative views about Martial Law only wanted to create pressure on media to make people mad at the government. Only one PSMT exhibited *application of the issue to a broader context* by mentioning the need to be knowledgeable about fake news and to spread only authentic information on social media.

In the post-test, most of the PSMTs gave statements consistent with both the *taking personal stance* and *critical distance* categories (all PSMTs). In the *taking personal stance* category, those who had positive views about martial law during the pre-test expressed the same in the post-test. However, in the post-test, more PSMTs articulated the need to be concerned

because there are still injustices happening at present and that they or their loved ones are not immune to these injustices. More PSMTs also mentioned the need to protect themselves from fake news, misinformation and disinformation especially on social media, as well as the need to know the truth. In the *critical distance* category, the PSMTs realized the applicability of logic and reasoning in evaluating the veracity of information especially on social media. The use of statistics was also mentioned by a number of PSMTs to promote better understanding of the issue. There were 13 PSMTs who gave statements within the category of *application of the issue to broader context*. More PSMTs argued for the need to value human rights, to be critical about the information on social media, to be informed about fake news, misinformation and disinformation and to participate in spreading the truth. There were also some who stressed the need to be responsible citizens and to follow the government to avoid punishments. Lastly, there were four PSMTs who expressed *taking active stance via collective social action for social change.* More PSMTs advocated the need for them to help spread awareness about the issue of fake news, misinformation and disinformation through social media. The need to share factual information to friends and family about Martial Law was also mentioned.

Figure 4 shows the prevalence and extent of PSMTs' critical citizenship with respect to the issue of civil conflict in the CCT pre-test and post-test.

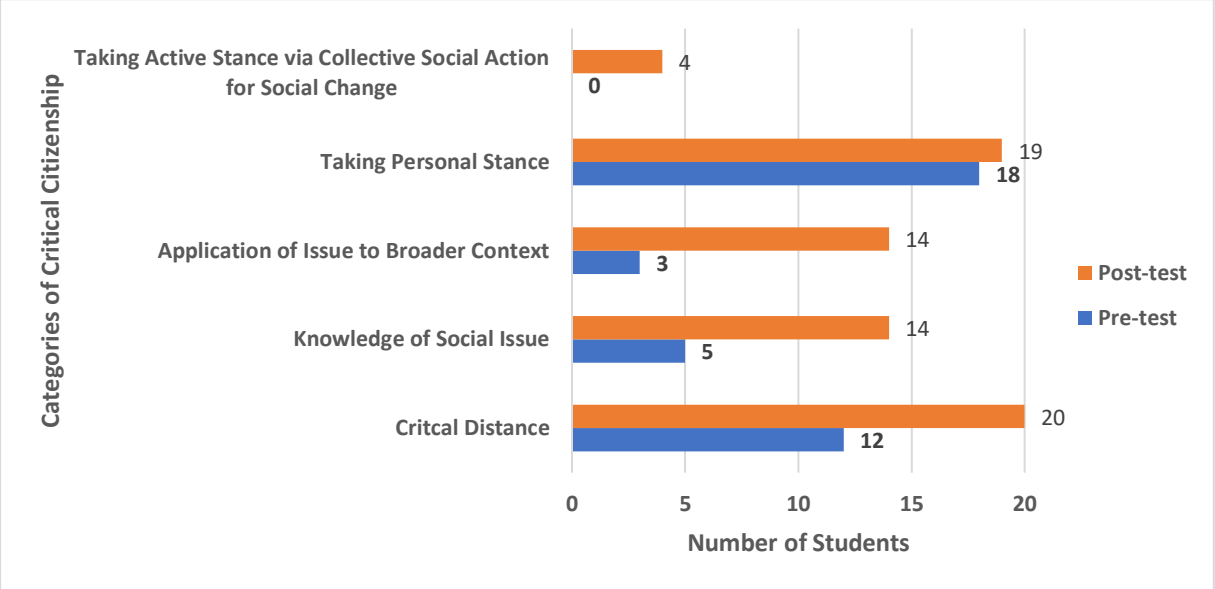


Figure 4: Prevalence and Extent of Critical Citizenship in Issue #3: Civil Conflict

In the pre-test result, 18 of the PSMTs gave statements consistent with the *taking personal stance* category. In general, the PSMTs expressed concern about the need to maintain peace, safety, and security for the welfare of everyone, their loved ones and fellow citizens. They indicated the need for everyone to show concern about what is happening and be involved in finding solutions. They also mentioned the need for the government to step up and eradicate acts of violence and terrorism. There were 12 PSMTs who demonstrated a *critical distance*. Many of them stated the relevance of mathematics to address the issue like using arithmetic, calculus, and descriptive statistics. However, there were some who mentioned that mathematics cannot be used to address the issue. There were only five PSMTs who articulated *knowledge of the social issue*. These PSMTs noted that the existence of terrorists in some parts of the country can really affect the country's progress. They acknowledged the effort of the government and articulated the need to continue the peace talks. Only three

PSMTs exhibited *application of the issue to a broader context* stating the importance of being a law-abiding citizen.

In the post-test result, all 20 PSMTs articulated the *critical distance* category. They emphasized the relevance of mathematics to address the issue of armed conflict. Many realized the applicability of linear functions, simple linear regression analysis and correlation analysis to address this. Nineteen PSMTs articulated the *taking personal stance*. In generally, the PSMTs expressed the same concerns as in the pre-test. They specified the need for the government to make safety and security a top priority. There were 14 PSMTs who expressed *knowledge of the social issue* and the *application of the issue to a broader context*. The sentiments expressed by the PSMTs were just the same as the ones they mentioned in the pre-test. There were four PSMTs who articulated *taking active stance via collective social action for social change* unlike in the pre-test where there was none. The PSMTs argued for the need to raise awareness through social media.

Discussion

The findings of the study showed an improvement in the PSMTs' mathematical proficiency after the PSMTs went through the social-issue-themed mathematics online lessons. The findings also showed increase of the number of PSMTs expressing each category of critical citizenship about the three social issues, namely, government-led war on drugs, widespread fake news, and civil conflicts, after going through the social-issue-themed mathematics online lessons. Before and after being exposed in the lessons, it was found that most PSMTs were comfortable in expressing thoughts which resonated with *critical distance* and *taking personal stance (passive stance)* categories of critical citizenship in each of the social issues.

Most PSMTs expressed critical distance in both CCT pre-test and post-test. Their expressions suggest appreciation and seeing a positive view of mathematics contents such as descriptive statistics, logic and reasoning, and linear functions when used as a tool to address social issues. This corroborates with the finding across studies in the literature. Previous studies showed positive change in most students' perceptions of the utility of mathematics when they have engaged in social inquiry with mathematics in the classroom (e.g., Brelias, 2015; Goodson-Espy et al., 2016; Turner et al., 2009; Verzosa, 2015).

In terms of *knowledge of the social issues*, the PSMTs realized that they were more knowledgeable about the issues and more appreciative of mathematics as a tool to promote understanding of the issues than before being exposed to the lessons. However, they all agreed also that there is still more to learn. Their communications of feelings about the issues suggested only some limited awareness. Hong (2018) argued that awareness of social problems, requires one to be able to exhibit knowledge and skills to understand causes, processes, and expected outcomes of the social issues and create solutions for them. Furthermore, in order for PSMTs to *apply an issue to broader contexts*, they must be at least knowledgeable about the issue at hand. According to Oh and Kwon (2014), one must imbibe a certain depth of understanding of the issue under scrutiny to be able to expand and comment to broader ones such as issues related to fairness, inequality, human rights, poverty, and/or social justice, to name a few.

Findings showed that the PSMTs were, generally, least confident in expressing thoughts which resonated with *taking active stance via collective social action for social change* category of the critical citizenship. Perhaps the PSMTs' sociocultural background could be

one of the factors that limit the possible avenues for the development of critical citizenship. In their study, Oh and Kwon (2014) pointed out that PSMTs must understand the prerequisite conditions to develop critical citizenship and believe in the need for the development of critical citizenship. In the present study, the PSMTs expressed their values, feelings, and emotions regarding problems of social order. Some PSMTs expressed thoughts about social-order issues applied in broader contexts of justice and the need for discipline. However, in general, few PSMTs took active stance about their individual role in implementing social change. Participants did not have a common position on social problems, and their awareness were varied. Also, PSMTs are in an environment where participation in social movements is discouraged. For example, some confessed that their parents disallow them from joining street protests.

Conclusion

To conclude, our analysis showed that the view of mathematics as objective, value-free, decontextualized, and non-political can no longer hold. Mathematics has a role to play in maintaining an orderly society. This role is to provide and ensure the acquisition of needed mathematical skills and proficiencies that enable learners to process numerical data associated with problems of social order. Moreover, social-issue-themed mathematics lessons are ways that can help develop "critical" citizens who are motivated to address some of these problems that threaten the breakdown of social order.

Acknowledgment

The lead author would like to thank the Capacity Building Program for Science and Mathematics Education (CBPSME) of the Philippine Department of Science and Technology – Science Education Institute (DOST-SEI) for the funding support of this research study.

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Development of Multimedia for Improving English Listening Comprehension Skill for Grade-2 Students

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The research objectives were to 1) develop quality multimedia for improving English listening comprehension (ELC) skills for Grade students. 2) compare the learning achievement scores of students Pre-Post-Listening Test. 3) study the effectiveness index (EI) of learning achievement scores, and 4) study the students' satisfaction after using multimedia for improving ELC skills. The population consisted of 30 Grade-2 students of Plearnpattana School. A suitable teaching technique based on the student's level and multimedia and instructional videos (I-VDOs) were used for students' listening comprehension. The statistics used to analyze and interpret the data included mean ($\bar{X}$), Standard Deviation (S. D), Dependent t-test, and Effectiveness index (EI). The study found that after using multimedia with instructional videos to develop ELC skills for Prathom Suksa (Grade) 2 students, 1) The quality of Multimedia by experts achieved an overall mean score of 4.7, and the standard deviation is 0.35. 2) the post-test learning achievement score was higher than the pre-test score level at a statistically significant level of .05. 3) The effectiveness index was .733; in other words, students had higher post-test scores of 73.33%. 4) Student satisfaction found that 1) 90% of students liked the English lesson with multimedia at the end of this study. 2) Multimedia created Assurance of students and better performance in class.

Keywords: Multimedia, English Listening Comprehension (ELC), Instructional Videos (I-VDOs), Effectiveness Index (EI), Learning Achievement

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Introduction

Background of Statement

Education plays an important role in the personality development of an individual. Individual personality development further leads to the development of a society. The growth of a society or a country is not possible without education. Mahatma Gandhi once said, "By education, I mean an all-around drawing out of the best in the child and man." The world today has more knowledge than ever before, but not everyone can benefit from it. Quality education is the foundation of sustainability. English as a secondary language (ESL) is an important medium of language around the world because of its worldwide acceptance and use. Therefore, the understanding and correct use of ESL is an important aspect of the present education system. From the four basic language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) of any language worldwide, listening is the first skill all humans react to and use other skills for language development. At Plearnpattana school, we as teachers, constantly focus on the development of students and the curriculum. English being the second language in Thailand, is not widely spoken in daily life as well as in Thai schools, including Plearnpattana School. The main problem I would like to address from the above is "English Listening Comprehension (ELC) in the classroom."

Every problem arises because of some reasons. Some students need help understanding English in the class and Thai translation. They need help to understand instructions. It has affected the students' understanding of English in the class which results in the lack of confidence and participation in the class. As a result, the students are not able to perform the tasks or activities in the class. The students around the world who use ESL also face a similar problem because English is not their mother language. A researcher, Khalid I. Al-Nafisah (2019) asserted that the listening competency of students can be enhanced by several new techniques and students need to focus on listening instructions in class**.** Rost M. (2005) pointed out that listening is a complex cognitive process that requires the tasks of hearing the spoken texts correctly, constructing the perceptually distinct units of sounds into words and sentences, and explaining the speaker's anticipated intention. Listening, lets one understand the world around us and is one of the necessary elements in establishing effective communication. The emergence of COVID 19 has changed education for ever. There is a rise in online learning or e-learning but it is harder for those without reliable internet access and struggle to participate in digital learning than school-based learning. Cathy Li and Farah Lalani (2020) at the World Economic Forum highlighted that the unplanned and rapid move to online learning with no training, insufficient bandwidth, and little preparation with result in a poor experience that is unconducive to sustained growth in education. The online learning has brought in many challenges for the teachers and students. The Grade 2 students are not left behind with the challenge to understand the instructions in English. The ELC in the Online Classroom has become more challenging, because of many reasons such as students' ability in understanding and comprehension of instructions, the pace of teachers' speaking in the class or in an online class, network issues, etc. In an article published on UKEssays (2018), the author discussed the learning difficulties encountered by EFL students in English listening comprehension such as lack of control over the speed at which speakers speak, not being able to get things repeated, listener's limited vocabulary, established learning habits, or listeners tend to stop listening when they hear unfamiliar words. As a result, many learners, particularly in the early stages of learning language learning, panic and lose their concentration.

Purpose

The main focus of this study is to develop and use multimedia including I-VDOs to improve their ELC skills that is suitable for students in the ESL classroom as well as online. Patel C. (2013) analyzed the necessity of multimedia technology to cultivate students' interest, to promote students' communication, to improve teaching effect, to improve the interaction between the teacher and students, to create a context for language teaching, and to provide flexibility to course content. Dwi Heriyanto (2018), mentioned that using Videos/YouTube in language learning and teaching can be considered as a valuable learning tool. The researcher would like to focus on the following research questions:

1. *How effective will be the multimedia that I develop for improving students' ESL listening skills?*
2. *How effective will be the comparison of the students' learning achievement scores?*
3. *What will be the students' satisfaction level after using the multimedia?*

Research Objectives

1. Develop quality multimedia for improving English listening comprehension skills for Grade students.
2. Compare the learning achievement scores of students between the Pre-Listening and Post-Listening Test for improving English listening comprehension skills.
3. Study the effectiveness index of learning achievement scores of the Pre-Listening and Post-Listening Test.
4. Study the satisfaction after using multimedia for improving English listening comprehension skills.

Conceptual Framework

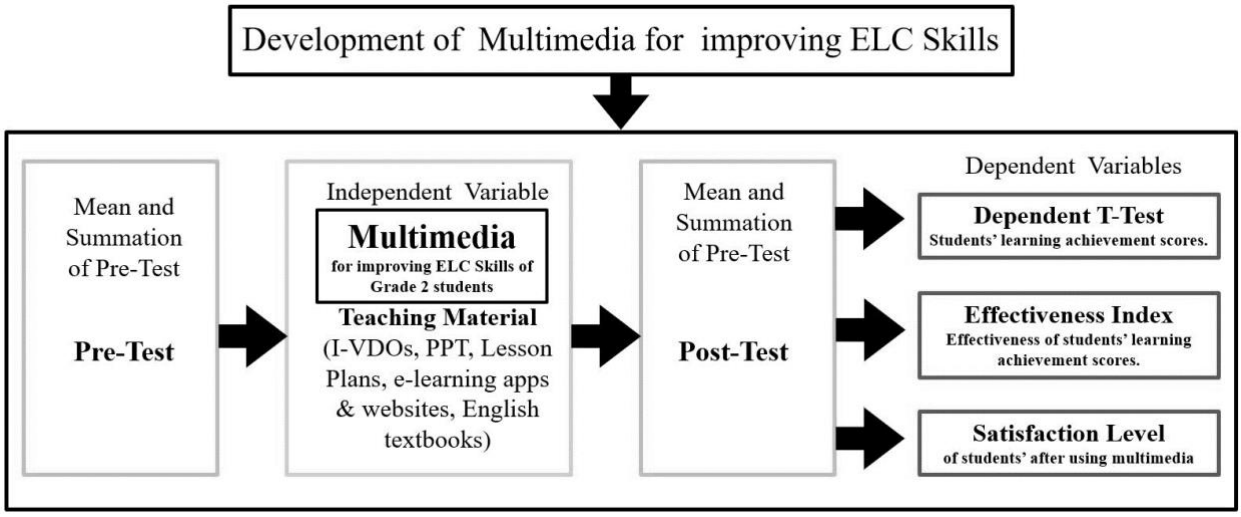


Figure 1- Research framework for the improvement of ELC Skills of G-2 students

Scope of the Study

The importance of multimedia I-VDOs is that it determines how successful students will learn. Students will always understand and be able to do the activity as expected by the teacher. I-VDOs can determine whether a lesson succeeds or fails. The scope or benefits of this study can be achieved even if English is taught as a second language as long as s suitable

multimedia, I-VDOs with simple and clear instructions is implied in the classroom at the right level, better lesson plans, multimedia, materials, and curriculum are developed. The main challenges of using English as a medium of instruction are lack of students' proficiency in the English language, a lack of parental involvement, and a lack of English usage in daily life. The lack of students' understanding of English instructions can be narrowed down by using multimedia through simple, easy, and clear instructions through I-VDOs at the right level. The communication gap between teachers and students can also be brought down with the help of I-VDOs.

Literature Review

There is no spoken language without listening. Students feel lost if they do not comprehend the conversation. This is the reason why language learners lose their confidence, and request constantly for frequent repetitions of the spoken text. Khalid I. Al-Nafisah (2019) also reviewed the study done by Richards and Schmidt (2010) who defined listening comprehension as the process of understanding speech in the first or second language. that students must be furnished with proper learning resources and activities through which they can be trained how to listen and comprehend the English language. ELC is necessary to understand is being said and what is to be needed further. ELC skills need to be developed at younger age when students are in primary school. The earlier they are exposed to ELC, the better they will be. Picard. M and Velautham. L. (2016), concluded in their research that explicit instructions and careful linking of the activities to their experience are necessary to engage the learners. It will ensure that the learners can apply ELC skills daily.

Multimedia brings a series of benefits for educational institutions, educators and learners and is worth trying. With multimedia, teachers can better bridge the knowledge gap and help learners reach their maximum potential. Sejdiu S. (2017), claimed the use of multimedia as effective and authentic in helping learners listening skills in real-life context. He has further supported the use of multimedia tools as a matter of urgency for the teachers today. Erizar, Syahputra A., Hidayati T. (2019), findings have indicated that multimedia was useful and effective in making students understand English easily and it was convenient for teachers to use multimedia in English classes. Ogay M. (2020), has stressed on the use of multimedia in English classes because it improves the negative attitude towards learning ESL among young learners. As summarized by Tiedemann K.M (2020), students in today's classrooms are different than previous generations in how they learn, but educators do have the tools to meet the needs of today's students. We need to convert our traditional teaching material into digitals form using Google Classroom, Zoom, MS-Teams, Google Meet, Youtube, etc. and deliver it to the students over the Internet. We have also to keep it mind we are still using technology and creating boredom for the students. A good balance between online learning and on-sight learning is the need of the hour.

Research Methodology

The learners were Grade 2, 30 students. It consisted of Students' Achievement Test for comparison of students' Pre-Post Listening Test, multimedia to improve the ELC skills of Grade-2 students, and Students' Satisfaction levels through students' AAR feedback form. The students' achievement scores and satisfaction levels were presented using X-Bar graphs on MS-Excel.

The learners' summative data, Pre- Listening Test in Term 1-Week1 and then their formative data, Learners' AAR data was collected for lesson plans in next consecutive five weeks, week 2 to week 8. Finally, another summative data in week 10, Post- Listening Test was conducted. The researcher conducted the study in the first semester of Thai, Academic Year 2022, overall, about 10 weeks.

The independent Variable consisted of Learning through the use of multimedia including I-VDOs with simple instructions, Power Point Presentation, Online websites or apps, etc. The multimedia was developed, validated by experts and used every week, consecutively for 10 weeks. For the content of my study, I have focused on developing multimedia that includes I-VDOs, PPTs, audios, flashcards, etc.**,** a Constructive-Metacognitive Learning (CML) lesson plan as they will equip students with necessary vocabs, listening, and speaking skills that they use in their daily life. It will further help them to improve their ELC. The main highlight of the ESL classes for simplified instructions is I-VDOs. The following are the simplified instructions that were used in the class as well as in the I-VDOs:

> *Look and point / Point and say/ Ask and answer / Look at the pictures and match / Look and check / Guess and stick / Read and look / Look and read / Read, look and write / Read and underline / Read, write and circle / Look and write / Listen and say / Listen and point / Listen and choose / Listen and colour / Listen and circle / Listen and read / Listen and stick / Listen and number the pictures / Listen, read and sing / Listen to the song / Listen and draw lines /Listen and do / Listen and draw / Listen and compare / Talk and stick / Work in pairs / Work with a partner / Work in groups / Play a game / Take turns.*

The quality of the multimedia content was calculated using Index of Item Objectives Congruence (IOC). The Pre-Post Listening Test was conducted in the first and the tenth week of the first term. And then summative, Dependent T-Test, comparison assessments were done to reflect the improvement. After collecting the summative data, I have organized it systematically according to the occurrence of events. The summative data from learners' Pre-Post Listening Test, which was of 10 points, was summarized on the scale of 1 to 4 points as follows:

1 point (understand the least)	=	5 (50%) or less out of 10.
2 points (understand a little)	=	6 (60%) out of 10.
3 points (moderately understand)	=	7 (70%) out of 10.
4 points (strongly understand)	=	8 (80%) or above out of 10.

An effectiveness index of learning achievement scores, a dependent variable was analyzed. The formula used to calculate Effectiveness Index (EI) to see the increase in the achievement score is the following:

$$EI = \frac{\text{Summary of Post-Test (P2)} - \text{Summary of Pre-Test(P1)}}{(\text{Number of students x Max. Score}) - \text{P1}}$$

Another dependent variable, Students' Satisfaction Survey was are required to be filled up after each lesson with multimedia to record their feedback. The evidence was collected for 10 weeks in the first term which highlights if students can understand the instructions/lesson. The students' feedback was prepared on the basis of Likert Scale, developed by renowned psychologist Rensis Likert (Wikipedia, 2022), which is a type of scale used to measure the learners' opinion towards a particular, here in it is s understanding of learners' ELC skills. I

have utilized four-point Likert Scale because I would like to force my students to form an opinion, either way without being neutral on the topic.



Figure 2- Grade 2 Students' understanding and satisfaction level feedback

I have used the learners' feedback in figure 2 with four choices, a very happy face: understand instructions the most, a happy face: *understand instructions well*, OK face: *understand instructions a bit*, a sad face: *do not understand at all*. The formative data from learners' AAR was also summarized on the same scale of 1 to 4 points which is as below:

1 point	=	strongly dislike/understand the least
2 points	=	moderately dislike/understand a little
3 points	=	moderately like/moderately understand
4 points	=	strongly like/ strongly understand

After encoding the scores of collected data in MS- Excel, I prepared a bar graph, clearly showing the percentage of learners' data in four colours as mentioned below:

Blue-1 point	=	strongly dislike/ understand the least
Red-2 points	=	moderately dislike/ understand a little
Green-3 points	=	moderately like/moderately understand
Purple-4 points	=	strongly like/ strongly understand

Research results

The results of the implementation of the action are presented as the following:
1. Independent Variable: The quality of the multimedia and its English content was assessed and validated by the experts were calculated using Index of Item Objectives Congruence (IOC). As seen in the figure-3 below, the overall mean percentage rating of the six experts was at 94.67% who strongly agreed that the multimedia and English content was suitable for the Grade-2 students. The mean score was 4.73 from the maximum of 5. It suggests that the developed media is of good quality and the content was suitable for Grade-2 students.

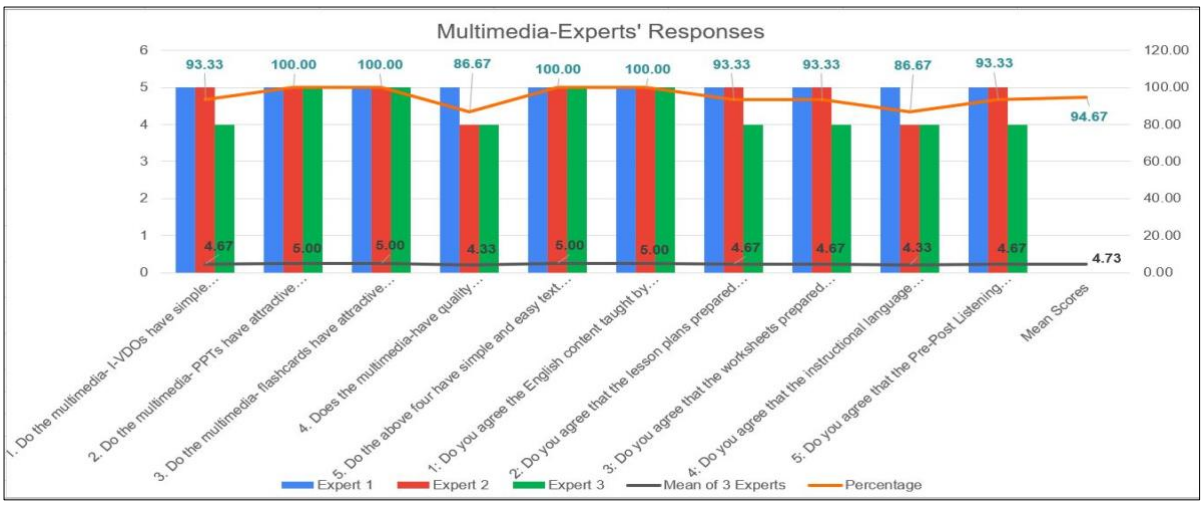


Figure 3: Individual expert rating showing the mean scores and percentage

The following Table-1 represents the raw scores of each expert, their mean score, mean percentage, and standard deviation. The overall mean score of 6 experts is 4.73, mean percentage is at 94.67, and the mean standard deviation is 0.35. All experts strongly agreed that the developed multimedia (PPTs & flashcards) has attractive pictures, simple and easy text for the grade- 2 students and give the highest rating of 5, mean 5, mean percentage 100, and standard deviation zero which mean all agreed, for item 2, 3, and 5. They also agreed that I-VDOs or audios have simple instructions, mean 4.67, mean percentage 93.33, and standard deviation 0.58 for item 1, and good quality audios and videos, mean 4.33, mean percentage 86.67, and standard deviation at 0.58 level.

The feedback about the English content achieved high rating of 4.67 as well. They give highest score of 5, item 6, for the English content is academically suitable for the grade-2 students. They all agreed that lesson plans (item 7), worksheets (item 8), and pre-posttest (item10) were highly suitable for the grade-2 students. Their mean percentage was 93.33, each, and standard deviation was 0.58. The instructional language used in preparing various multimedia is simple and clear to understand by the grade-2 students (item 9) achieved the rating of 4.33, 86.67%, standard deviation 0.58.

Experts Evaluation Feedback

Multimedia Content	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3	Mean of 3 Experts	Percentage %	Std. Dev.
1. Do the multimedia- I-VDOs have simple instructions to understand?	5	5	4	4.67	**93.33**	**0.58**
2. Do the multimedia- PPTs have attractive pictures and text for the students?	5	5	5	**5.00**	**100.00**	**0.00**
3. Do the multimedia- flashcards have attractive pictures and text for the students?	5	5	5	**5.00**	**100.00**	**0.00**
4. Does the multimedia-have quality audios/videos?	5	4	4	**4.33**	**86.67**	**0.58**
5. Do the above four have simple and easy text for the students?	5	5	5	**5.00**	**100.00**	**0.00**
English Content	Expert 1	Expert 2	Expert 3			
6: Do you agree the English content taught by the researcher is academically suitable for the target audience-Grade-2?	*5*	*5*	*5*	***5.00***	***100.00***	**0.00**
7: Do you agree that the lesson plans prepared by the researcher are suitable for the target audience-Grade-2?	*5*	*5*	*4*	***4.67***	***93.33***	**0.58**
8: Do you agree that the worksheets prepared by the researcher are suitable for the target audience -Grade-2?	*5*	*5*	*4*	***4.67***	***93.33***	**0.58**
9: Do you agree that the instructional language used by the researcher in worksheets, PPTs, I-VDOs, other online apps is simple and clear to understand by the target audience-Grade-2?	*5*	*4*	*4*	***4.33***	***86.67***	**0.58**
10: Do you agree that the Pre-Post Listening Test used by the researcher is academically suitable for the target audience?	*5*	*5*	*4*	***4.67***	***93.33***	**0.58**
Mean Scores of 6 experts				**4.73**	**94.67**	**0.35**

Table 1: Individual Expert rating table showing the mean scores and percentage

2. Dependent Variables: The dependent variables used in this study are Dependent T-Test, Effectiveness Index, and Satisfaction Index.

Dependent T-Test: An achievement score comparison to reflect the improvement has been presented in the figure below.

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 post - pre	1.46667	1.85199	.33813	.77512	2.15821	4.338	29	.000

*p=.05

Table 2: The comparison table of pre-test - post-test by using multimedia for improving ELC

The table 2 shows the result of the comparison between the pretest and the post-test found that after using multimedia for improving ELC skills for grade 2 students, the post-test achievement score was higher than the pre-test score level at a statistically significant level of .05. Therefore, I would like to say that there was a significant difference between the pre-test and the post-test of the Grade-2 students. The new strategy of using multimedia did significant increase in the post-test scores of the students.

To further support it, a statistical analysis was also done and presented in the form of a bar graph as the following.

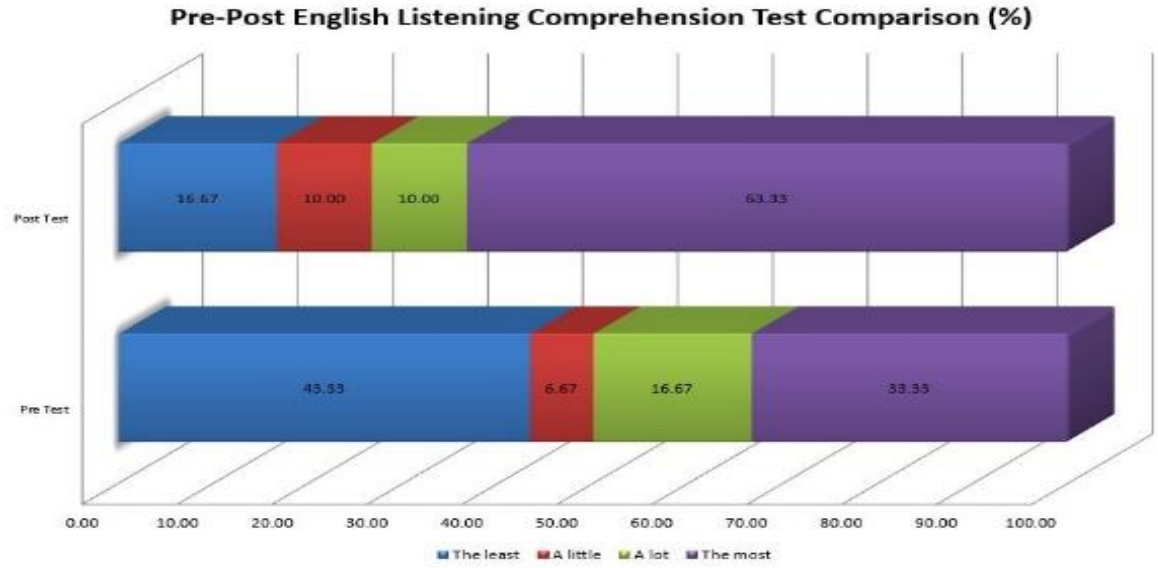


Figure 4 - Bar graph showing comparison of Pre-Post ELC Test (%)

The above graph is of Grade 2 which has 30 students. In the pre-test, the ELC skill of the class was at 50% (16.67+33.33) which shows understanding as good and 50% (43.33+6.67) shows not good. After the implementation of action step by step, the understanding of students' listening comprehension improved to 73.33% (10+63.33) as good and 26.67% (16.67+10) below good. It clearly showed the improvement of 23.33% from 50% to 73.33% in the students' ELC. The mean score of the Post-Test was at 7.6 as compared to the mean score of 6.2 in the pre-Test. It improved by 1.4 points.

Effectiveness Index: An effectiveness of the learning achievement scores using the Effectiveness Index (EI) was at 0.38 which is 38%. The figure-5 below shows the individual scores of 30 students. It reflects the total score of the Post-Test has increased to 229 as compared to 185 in the Pre-Test. The standard deviation of the Post-Test shows that the variation of scores has reduced to 2.41 as compared to 2.60 in the Pre-Test. It shows an improvement.

Pre-Post Test Scores		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Total	SD
1	Pre Test Scores	8	7	8	9	7	9	10	6	3	4	6	7	8	8	5	4	7	10	10	5	5	2	4	2	4	3	6	1	10	7	**185**	**2.60**
2	Post Test Scores	9	9	9	10	7	9	10	8	3	6	9	10	10	9	10	8	10	7	10	6	8	7	3	5	8	2	6	3	10	8	**229**	**2.41**

Figure 5- Pre-Post Test Scores

Similarly, when the Pre-Post test scores were compared on the basis of Likert Scale of 1 to 4. The results showed improvement as seen in the figure-6 below. The mean of Post-Test has increased to 3.2 from maximum of 4 as compared to the mean 2.4 in the Pre-Test. The

standard deviation has improved as well as their variation of scores has reduced to 1.2 in the Post-Test than 1.4 in the Pre-Test, in figure 6.

	Type 1, 2, 3 or 4 (4 = Strongly understand 3 = moderately understand 2 = understand a little 1 = understand the least)																													
Grade 2- Pre-Post Listening Result	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Mean	SD
1 Pre Test	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	1	1	1	2	3	4	4	1	1	3	4	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	4	3	2.4	1.4
2 Post Test	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	1	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	2	4	3	1	1	4	1	2	1	4	4	3.2	1.2

Figure 6- Pre-Post Test Scores on Likert scale of 1 to 4

Satisfaction Index: Students' Satisfaction Survey based on Likert Scale about their ELC comprehension skills for each plan is shown in figure-7 below.

Grade 2- Satisfaction Survey	Type 1, 2, 3 or 4 (4 = Strongly understand 3 = moderately understand 2 = understand a little 1 = understand the least)																													
Understand the ESL lesson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Mean	Mean %	SD
1 Plan 1	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	1	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	1	4	4	3	4	2	3	4	4	4	3	**3.50**	87.50	**0.86**
2 Plan 2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	3	4	4	4	1	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	4	4	**3.63**	90.83	**0.72**
3 Plan 3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	1	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	**3.63**	90.83	**0.67**
4 Plan 4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	**3.80**	95.00	**0.41**
5 Plan 5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	**3.80**	95.00	**0.41**
6 Plan 6	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	**3.83**	95.83	**0.38**
7 Plan 7	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	**3.87**	96.67	**0.35**
8 Plan 8	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	**3.80**	95.00	**0.41**
9 Plan 9	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	**3.83**	95.83	**0.46**
10 Plan 10	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	**3.87**	96.67	**0.35**
Average Mean, mean %, SD																															**3.76**	**93.92**	**0.50**

Figure 7- Grade 2 Students' satisfaction scores about their understanding ELC

It shows that the students' understanding in each plan is between moderately understand and strongly understand after using the multimedia. The mean score of students' understanding in plan 1 is 3.50, mean percentage 87.50, and standard deviation is 0.86. The mean score eventually increased in each plan and the variation in the students' feedback about their understanding decreased as well, which means more students understand the lessons and started giving higher ratings and thus less variation in their feedback. The mean score of 10 plans is 3.76, mean percentage 93.92, and standard deviation is 0.50. It represents the developed multimedia has assisted students to understand lessons and improve their ELC.

Furthermore, the bar graph in figure-8 is about the students' understanding of the ESL lessons.

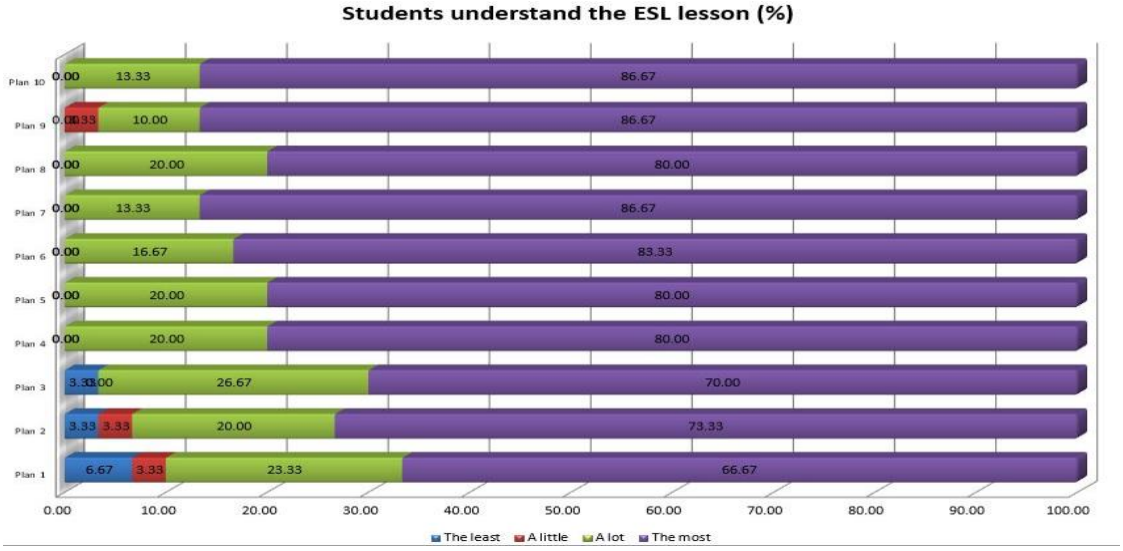


Figure 8- Grade 2 Students' level of understanding ELC Skills

As seen in the figure-8, in Plan-1, there were 66.67% students who could strongly understand English instructions and tasks in class, 23.33% could moderately understand, 3.33% could understand a little, and 6.67% could understand the least. As the action plan continued with the implementation of multimedia in the English class, students understanding of ELC gradually improved along with the passing weeks. The mean percentage score of students' understanding English lessons with the use of multimedia for 10 weeks was at 93.92%, strong understand as compared to 6.08% who understood a little or the least.

Similarly, figure-9 shows that the students' liking in each plan is between moderately like and strongly like after using the multimedia. The mean score of students' liking is 3.55, mean percentage 88.75, and standard deviation is 0.76. The mean score was always higher than 3 in each plan suggesting that students liking was higher than moderately like. It represents the developed multimedia and its use in the classroom has increased students liking.

	Type 1, 2, 3 or 4 (4 = Strongly like 3= moderately like 2=moderately dislike 1= strong dislike)																														
	Like the ESL Lesson	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	Mean	Mean %	SD
1	Plan 1	3	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	1	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	2	2	3	4	4	4	4	3.47	86.67	0.82
2	Plan 2	4	3	4	2	4	4	4	4	2	3	4	1	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	2	4	3	4	4	4	4	3.50	87.50	0.82
3	Plan 3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	1	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	3.63	90.83	0.72
4	Plan 4	3	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	3	4	4	4	3	3.67	91.67	0.61
5	Plan 5	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	2	4	1	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	2	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	3.43	85.83	0.77
6	Plan 6	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	3	4	4	4	3	3.67	91.67	0.61
7	Plan 7	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	1	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	1	3	4	1	3	3	4	4	4	3	3.43	85.83	0.94
8	Plan 8	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	1	3	4	1	3	4	4	4	4	3	3.53	88.33	0.86
9	Plan 9	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	2	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	1	4	3	4	4	3	4	3.57	89.17	0.73
10	Plan 10	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	2	4	4	1	3	3	4	4	4	3	3.60	90.00	0.77
	Average Mean, mean %, SD																															3.55	88.75	0.76

Figure 9- Grade 2 Students' satisfaction scores about their liking ESL

To explain it furthermore, the bar graph below is about the students' liking of the ESL lessons incorporated with multimedia.

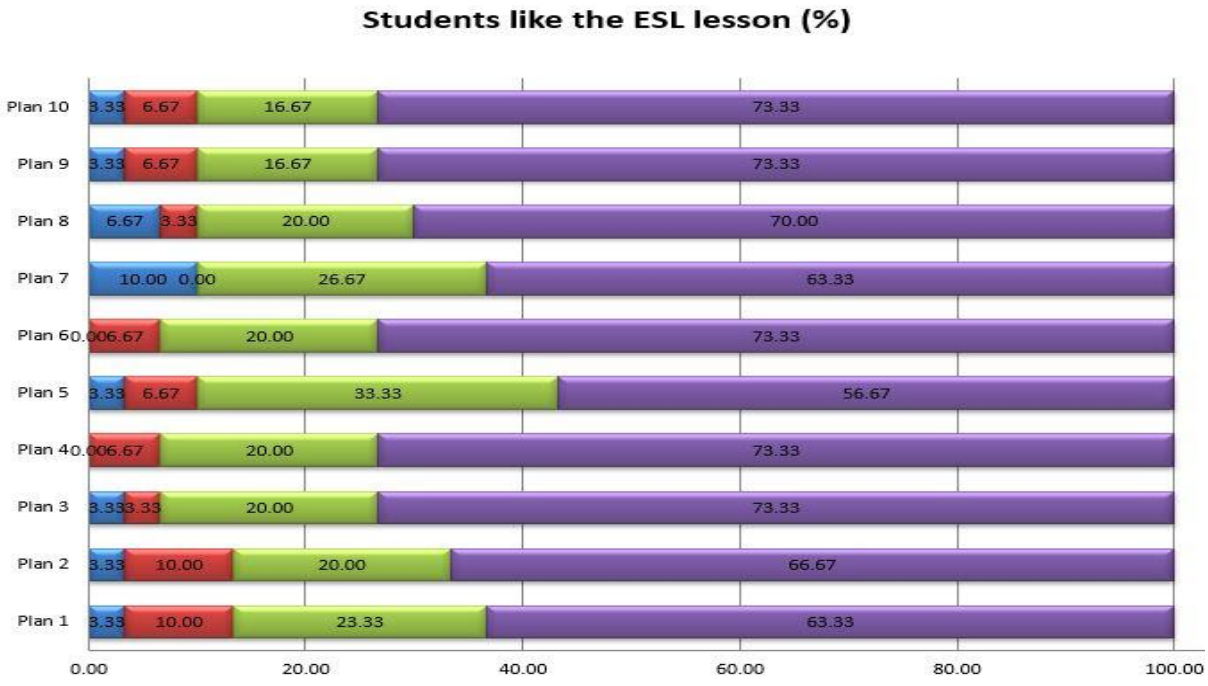


Figure 10- Grade 2 Students' satisfaction level of liking English lessons

The mean proportion of students' satisfaction data obtained who strongly liked English lesson with multimedia was 90% (16.67%+73.33), with 10% (3.33+6.67) liked a little or the least. It indicates a high degree of liking ESL lessons with multimedia. The point to be noted in the above graph is that the students who strongly liked the used of multimedia or the English lessons has increased to 73.33% in the tenth week as compared to 63.33% in the first week. It reflected a high level of liking multimedia in the English lessons.

Discussion and recommendation

In previous studies by Patel, Chirag. (2013), Sejdiu S. (2017), Dwi Heriyanto. (2018), Erizar, Syahputra A., Hidayati T. (2019), Rachman B. (2020), Ogay M. (2020), it has been proven and suggested that the use of multimedia provides greater incentives, inspires students' positive thinking and ELC skills. It also makes the lessons lively, interesting, and assists in better understanding of English lessons. Their studies were conducted with university or high school graduates and recommended to conduct further studies.

This study has highlighted the same and supported the previous studies that the use of multimedia does improve students understanding, and ELC skills. It has a positive impact on the students learning. The researcher would like to mention that the effectiveness of students' learning achievement also depends on the environment they are surrounded, the amount of English that they use in their daily life, the vocabulary that students know at their age level, etc. If these factors can be taken care of, the effectiveness of students' learning would have better results.

The researcher would like to recommend to the teachers that the teacher must be able to choose a suitable teaching technique based on the level of students and use multimedia with simplified instructions, I-VDOs and more listening-based tasks that can help the students in comprehending the text that they listened to. The teachers must try to use listening texts/activities from the textbooks or some other online resources as much as possible according to the needs of the students' improvement. The teachers must clearly understand and make sure that they are not overly dependent on technology. There must be a healthy blend of technology and traditional teaching, online teaching or offline teaching. I would say we must focus on creating a balanced Blended Learning Management System that fits teachers as well as students. The students should also be aware that listening is one of the skills that must be mastered. They must use it in daily life as much as possible to improve their listening skills.

The study can be additional supportive evidence for those who would like to conduct further action research related to the use of multimedia with simple instructions or I-VDOs in the ESL classroom. This study does not end the problem related to listening and comprehending. However, if has been proved that multimedia along with simple instructions or I-VDOs at an early age do help students' understanding and listening comprehension. It has assisted me to improve my students' ELC skills to a great extent. It can be useful for new inexperienced teachers to know which set or simple instructions they can use in the classroom or in the I-VDOs while developing multimedia to make students understand the teacher and how to do the tasks in the class. The researcher has successfully tried and tested this study at primary level. I suggest that ESL teachers conduct further such studies at higher or higher secondary, and university students to support and validate my findings.

Conclusion

I would like to mention that there are several findings that are exposed during this research. When I agreed to continue this research with Grade-2 students, I had a feeling that whether the development and use of multimedia would work well in improving students' ELC skills as other previous researchers or not because the situation was a bit different this year. Students were often ON or OFF this year compared to the previous situation. Many students had a hard time listening to the teacher's instructions or any other text in English given by the teacher, which has resulted in a lack of understanding, confidence, and participation in the class. Online teaching with technical errors has made teaching even harder. After addressing these issues with proper planning and implementation consistently through multimedia, simplified instructions, instructional videos/audios, and listening-based tasks in the classes with an overall of 30 students, I have received immense pleasure and satisfaction from the results of improvement.

The multimedia rating of the six experts was at 94.67% who strongly agreed that the multimedia and English content was suitable for the Grade-2 students. They all agreed and suggested that the quality multimedia would really assist students to learn better and improve their ELC skill. The improvement of the students' ELC skills showed good progress. They were able to listen and understand the English lessons with multimedia, simplified instructions and listening text better each time.

The post-test learning achievement score was higher than the pre-test score level at a statistically significant level of .05. The results of the Pre-Post listening test clearly showed improvement at 73.33% in the post-listening test who could strong understand and improve ELC as compared to 50% in the pre-listening test. The improvement in students' learning achievement scores has thus proved that multimedia somehow grabs students' attention, increases their liking and understanding in English lessons which results in better ELC skills.

The effectiveness of learning achievement scores using the Effectiveness Index (EI) was 38%, meaning the Post Test scores were 38% better than the Pre-Test scores. When considered Covid 19 situation, blended learning environment, students getting sick, and missing classes for their quarantine period, the course of 10 weeks has shown satisfactory results. As represented in the chapter 4, the mean of Post-Test has increased to 3.2 from maximum of 4 as compared to the mean 2.4 in the Pre-Test. The standard deviation has improved and the variation of scores has reduced to 1.2 in the Post-Test and 1.4 in the Pre-Test. Without these conditions, the effective of learning achievement scores would have been much better.

The improvement is also backed by the timely students' satisfaction surveys which were conducted by me, the researcher, for 10 weeks. According to the Students' satisfaction survey, the students' understanding and liking has improved with the use of multimedia in the English lessons. The essential item to note is that the mean proportion of students who can grasp simple English teaching and strongly understand has increased from 66.67% percent in Plan 1, Week 1 to 86.67% in Plan 10, Week 10. The strong or high level of students' liking confirmed my belief that multimedia with straightforward instructions in class or via I-VDOs significantly help students grasp knowledge better, students feel more confident, and participative in the class.

In my study, I was able to achieve all research objectives and satisfied with the results. Based on the results, it has been proved that if multimedia is implemented correctly in a systematic manner with simplified instructions in class or with I-VDOs online and listening-based tasks, re-using them in routine teaching boost up students' understanding and improvement in ELC skills.

Acknowledgement

I am in a state of euphoria and full of appreciation towards the RMUTT E-CUBE-I Scholarship for providing me an opportunity to be a part of a wonderful university and enhance my academic and professional skills in the field of education.

I would also like to express my gratitude from the bottom of my heart to my advisor for his valuable advice, Plearnpattana School for allowing me to conduct my research and the teams of experts for their valuable assistance and advice. I would also like to thank my buddy teachers, who assisted me in developing effective multimedia. Their support is appreciable. Finally, most important, without them, my research would not have any value, my lovely Grade-2 students of the Academic Year 2022 at Plearnpattana School and the researchers whose studies have assisted me in gaining more knowledge and proceeding on with my own research.

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Subject Site Usability to Student Well-Being and Burnout–Understanding the Pathway

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
A considerable amount of research has been conducted to learn about various factors contributing to student well-being and burnout, but there have been few studies that considered both individual and external factors together in understanding these in the context of online and blended learning. A moderated mediation model is used to understand the relationship between usability of E-learning sites with burnout and wellbeing through self-control (SC), conscientiousness (C), and self-efficacy (SE) across learning modes- online and blended, among a sample of university students (N = 142). The participants completed an online survey hosted on Qualtrics and completed Conscientious subscales of the Big Five Inventory, Brief Self-Control Scale (B-SCS), General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE), E-Learning Usability Scale for Higher Education (ELUSH), Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) and Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI-student version), which provides scores on two scales, “exhaustion” and “disengagement”. Overall usability of E-learning sites was significantly associated with disengagement but not exhaustion. The mediation effect of self-control on association between site usability and two indicators of burnout (exhaustion and disengagement) was moderated by conscientiousness. No significant differences were observed for burnout and well-being scores across different learning modes. The study highlights the importance of usability of subject sites in preventing burnout thereby increasing learner well-being and has implications for the learning and teaching processes in schools and institutions.

Keywords: Burnout, Self-Control, Self-Efficacy, Conscientiousness, Moderated Mediation

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Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic drastically changed the education sector as schools and universities had to adapt to the social distancing policies and other health protocols that governments implemented in order to curb the spread of the COVID-19 virus (Adedoyin & Soykan, 2020). The closure of schools as one of the necessary measures to prevent the transmission of COVID-19 compelled schools to transition to remote learning platforms and change their pedagogical approach to accommodate this transition (Sandhu & de Wolf, 2020). As such, the utilization of pedagogical approaches that implement online learning, distance and continuing education has now become a necessity for educators, given that the traditional face-to-face setup is no longer feasible in the current global health situation (Pokhrel & Chhetri, 2021). It must be noted that online learning has been used by educational institutions prior to the pandemic, but it has never been institutionalized as a formal teaching approach until the education sector saw no other alternative learning design (Khan et al., 2020). As the world adapts to the "new normal", it seems that online learning is here to stay as an increasing number of institutions have adopted a blended approach toward the dissemination of course content.

Students' academic performance, well-being, burnout, and student engagement are some of the essential outcomes that need examination as indicators of students' successful transition to these new modes of learning. Individual factors too are important aspects that must be included. Though there have been many works examining factors contributing to student well-being and burnout, limited studies have actually considered both individual and external factors together. In addition, studies in the context of online and blended learning are limited, as these learning environments gained prominence only during the COVID-19 pandemic. Thus, a research gap exists in understanding how individual factors interact with these learning environments to influence student well-being and burnout levels.

Modes of Learning

To distinguish online learning from blended learning, it is important to define the two approaches and identify the key components that comprise each respective model. The blended learning model is the integration of traditional face-to-face teaching and online learning (Senturk,2020). Traditional face-to-face teaching occurs synchronously in a physical classroom with an instructor directing and taking charge of the class, whereas online lessons are typically asynchronous, with students going through lesson materials at their own pace and schedule (Bonk et al., 2006). In this respect, online learning refers to a learning environment that utilizes technological tools, the Internet and other electronic devices to facilitate both synchronous and asynchronous instructional delivery (Huang, 2019).

Usability of E-learning site

Usability is defined as the degree to which specific users in a specified context can use a system or a product to achieve defined goals in an efficient, effective and satisfactory manner (Jokela et al.,2003). For our study usability refers to the ease-of-use of online courses. Online and blended learning both require student engagement with online content. When clear guidance and instructions were given on websites to support their online learning, students put in more effort to tasks (Mamun et al., 2016). A well-designed site with navigation support thus is critical for interaction with the content and acquisition of knowledge through it. Evaluation of usability in E-learning environments should consider both technical and

pedagogical criteria of usability (Sandoval, 2016). While technological criteria ensure a good user-experience while navigating through the course site, the pedagogical aspects support students' learning journey through the course (Dringus & Cohen, 2005; Granić& Ćukušić, 2011; Khan et al., 2010; Zaharias, 2009). A well-designed E-learning Site should support active participation by users, encourage self-critical thinking, and offer avenues for formation of community of learners where students express and share with their peers what they are learning, as well as gather feedback, reflect, and develop confidence by practicing (Boud & Prosser, 2002; Sandoval, 2016). Site content utilizing elements such as font, size, italics, highlight, etc., site interactivity that allows interactions with course, peers, and the instructor, learner-centric instructional design, a course design that is easy to navigate through and instructor presence that plays a critical role in facilitation and guiding students' learning, all contribute to high usability of E-learning sites (Ballard , 2010; Fisher & Wright, 2010; Jones, 2011; Zaharias & Koutsabasis, 2012). The online learning experience of students is enhanced by factors like stimulation, attractiveness, innovation and dependability, which prevent learner frustration, hence increasing student satisfaction (Agyeeiwaah et. al, 2022; Heidig et al., 2015; Malamed, 2015; Meiselwitz & Sadera, 2008; Nyang'or et al., 2013; Plass et al., 2013). E-learning sites with high usability can give students support to manage their academic burden. It is assumed that students will then be less exhausted and more engaged with the learning process. Better usability of online learning environment improves their online learning experience and leads to better learning outcomes for them (Meiselwitz & Sadera, 2008). Regularly disciplined interactions with the subject site can contribute to their self-efficacy for that system (Al-Azawei & Lundqvist , 2015). With a positive learning experience, they could be energetic, happy and more successful in their learning path (Schaufeli et al., 2002). The impact of usability on learning outcomes and better learning experience is presented in Figure 1.

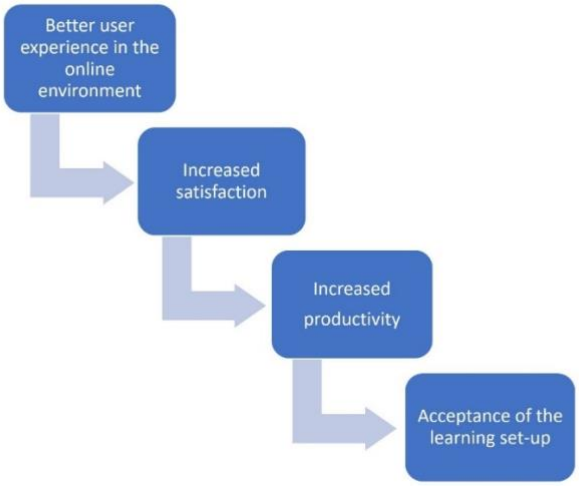


Figure 1: Impact of enhanced site usability on Learning

Student Well-being

The importance of well-being in higher education has been emphasized by many (Elwick & Cannizzaro, 2017; Kern et al., 2014). Two of the most common conceptualizations of well-being include subjective well-being and psychological well-being (Diener,1984 ; Ryff and Singer , 2008). While subjective well-being is a measure of an individual's personal experience and perception of events in their lives (Diener & Suh, 1997), psychological well-being, goes beyond life satisfaction (Ryff and Singer, 2008). Seligman (2011) argues that

well-being is an essential prerequisite for an overall positive learning experience from which students may reap maximal benefits and acquire new knowledge. Delivering curriculum in a way such that it allows students to flourish can help them maximize their potential to perform in school.

Academic Burnout

Burnout is a mental health state which is caused by work-related distress that involves incessant bodily reactions to repeatedly occurring interpersonal stressors (Mheidly et al., 2020). It is operationalized using three dimensions - emotional exhaustion, feelings of cynicism and inefficacy (Schaufeli et al., 1996). Academic burnout has become increasingly prevalent among university students as a result of competitiveness and increasing demands in higher education and has been associated with lower learning motivation and are major predictors of students' attrition from school (Aguayo et al., 2019; Cazan, 2015). From a student's perspective, burnout refers to "feeling exhausted because of study demands, having a cynical and detached attitude toward one's study and feeling incompetent as a student"(Schaufeli et al., 2002, p. 465). Burnout is significantly correlated with lower self-esteem and higher presence of depressive symptoms among students, which are general indicators of poor well- being (Tuominen-Soini & Salmela-Aro, 2014).

Academic Burnout, Well-being and Learning mode

When it comes to online learning, students might experience higher levels of study demands since they are expected to study independently. Absence or reduced direct interactions with teachers and peers, that facilitate their learning, could decrease their study resources. Thus, high demand of their personal resources and reduction in social interactions, could potentially lead to feelings of exhaustion and disengagement from school among students, resulting in academic burnout (Alam et al., 2021). Keramidas' (2012) findings also showed that online students find it more challenging to manage their time and meet school deadlines compared to their counterparts who have traditional face-to-face classes. Prolonged use of technological devices and consistent checking of e-mails for updates while studying in online mode can also contribute to burnout (Estevez-Mujica & Quintane, 2016). However, the convenience and ease offered by online learning can reduce the experience of burnout among students (Bolatov et al., 2020). Students could learn from the comfort of home and more time could be used for productive learning and achieving a better school-life balance instead of travelling to and from campus. This also has implications for student well-being.

In face-to-face learning mode too, research shows contradictory findings regarding experience of academic burnout. If on one hand, traditional teaching has shown positive impact due to the strong social relations between teachers and students fostered in physical classroom environment (Tomás-Miquel et al., 2016), studies also draw attention to its negative impact due to its rigidity (for both time and location) that makes it difficult for students to learn at their own pace or repeat learning activities (McCutcheon et al, 2015). Considering these conflicting findings for both online learning and traditional learning, it is difficult to decide which approach is can protect students from possible exhaustion and disengagement and improve their well-being (Lyndon et al., 2017).

One can then turn to blended learning which offers best of both approaches by optimizing the instructional strategies of the two above discussed approaches. According to Worley (2011), instructors can make learning more engaging by linking lesson materials to real-world

scenarios, making use of new technologies and multimedia to keep students stimulated, and encouraging inquiry-based learning. In blended learning, students have higher levels of engagement as exhibited through their school performance and interaction within the classes (Adams et al., 2020).

Individual differences

Factors contributing to academic burnout and student well-being also include individual factors such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, optimism, conscientiousness etc. (Alarcon et al., 2009). Self-efficacy is defined by Albert Bandura as one's beliefs in their capabilities to exert control over events and accomplish tasks (Bandura, 1977). Self-efficacy has been linked to higher learner engagement and predicted less burnout in students (Bulfone et al., 2016). Enhancement of self-efficacy has also been shown to improve learner engagement (Bresó et al., 2011). Ouweneel et al. (2011) posit that self-efficacy leads to higher study engagement due to a willingness to exert additional effort in accomplishing requirements. Maricuțoiu and Sulea (2019) found that self-efficacy beliefs can increase learner engagement, with results suggesting that increased self-efficacy can reduce the risk of student burnout. Higher self-efficacy is also associated with positive or better well-being (Armaou & Antoniou, 2018; Othman et al., 2019; Siddiqul, 2015). In contrast, lower self-efficacy may lead to lower levels of subjective well-being (Barlow et al., 2002; Bandura et al., 2003; Caprara, 2002) and increased symptoms of anxiety and depression (Faure & Loxton, 2003; Kashdan & Roberts, 2004; Shnek et al., 2001). Research shows that students with higher self-efficacy adapt well to new learning environments and have better academic success (Hodges, 2008; Zimmerman & Kulikowich, 2016). Self-efficacy also helps with managing stress (Villada et al., 2017), which could potentially be useful for when managing the stressors due to the changed learning environments.

Self-control is defined as the ability to delay the instantaneous satisfaction of a smaller reward with the expectation of receiving a larger reward at a later point in time (Ainslie, 1975; Mischel et al., 1989; Kirby & Herrnstein, 1995). In the academic context, self-control becomes necessary due to the long-term value of academic work over the short-term gratification of distractions (Duckworth et al., 2019). Research has revealed that self-control is positively related to whether students do well in online and blended learning environments, resulting in positive learning outcomes such as better grades and achievement of goals (Gorbunovs et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2016). Seibert et al. (2016) found that, generally, there was a negative correlation between self-control and burnout, suggesting that low self-control could result in high levels of burnout. Those with higher self-control also seem to be happier and experience higher life satisfaction (Hofmann et al., 2014; Hussain et al., 2020).

Conscientiousness, which is defined as "individual differences in the propensity to be self-controlled, responsible to others, hardworking, orderly, and rule abiding", (Roberts et al., 2014, p. 1315), can be an important factor influencing student learning experience across the different modes. Conscientiousness includes areas of self-control, industriousness, and order, which manifests in one's thoughts, feelings, and behaviours (Roberts, 2009). Individuals with higher levels of conscientiousness show discipline by persisting in their goals, an inherent motivation for accomplishment, make use of adaptive learning strategies and are more likely to succeed on tasks (Bidjerano & Dai, 2007; Chen et al., 2001; Costa et al., 1991; Poropat, 2009). Research has established that conscientiousness does positively influence self-control (Mao et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). Hence, with regards to learning, students who score higher on conscientiousness could work hard and persevere in different subjects and courses

and potentially would do better in their studies. Furthermore, individuals with higher conscientiousness tended to have higher life satisfaction (Heller et al., 2004) and higher psychological well-being (Carter et al., 2016). Conscientiousness was reported as being negatively associated with burnout (Azeem, 2013). Studies show that conscientiousness is positively related with online engagement and online learning outcomes (Quigley et al., 2022; Yu, 2021). Thus, students with higher conscientiousness would be more likely to have a positive learning experience in the changed learning environments like online or blended modes.

The Present Study

In summary, the present study aimed to find if students studying across the three modes of learning had different burnout and well-being scores. Firstly, we wanted to see if students studying across the three modes of learning had different burnout and well-being scores by testing the below hypothesis.

H1- *students across the three modes of learning (e.g., 1. Fully asynchronous online 2. asynchronous online + synchronous online class 3. asynchronous online + synchronous F2F class) would differ in their scores for exhaustion, disengagement and well-being.*

Secondly, it was of interest to understand the relationship between site usability and academic burnout and student well-being. Past research has shown the explanatory power of self-efficacy (e.g., Hejazi et al., 2009; Llorca et al., 2017), and self-control (Duckworth et al., 2019), thus authors aimed to examine the mediating effects of academic self-efficacy and self-control on the relationship between site usability and academic burnout and student well-being. Thirdly, we wanted to examine the moderating role of personality trait conscientiousness on relationship among variables. Prior studies indicate that since persons with higher levels of conscientiousness show discipline by persisting in their goals and have an inherent motivation for accomplishment, they would be more likely to have a positive learning experience across all study modes (e.g., Poropat, 2009; Quigley et al., 2022). Following hypotheses were tested:

H2a- *Indirect effect of site usability on disengagement through self-control will be moderated by conscientiousness*
H2b- *Indirect effect of site usability on disengagement through self-efficacy will be moderated by conscientiousness*
H3a – *Indirect effect of site usability on exhaustion through self-control will be moderated by conscientiousness.*
H3b– *Indirect effect of site usability on exhaustion through self -efficacy will be moderated by conscientiousness.*
H4a- *Indirect effect of site on well-being through self-control will be moderated by conscientiousness*
H4b- *Indirect effect of site usability on well-being through self-efficacy will be moderated by conscientiousness*
H5a- *Conscientiousness will moderate the relationship between site usability and exhaustion,*
H5b- *Conscientiousness will moderate the relationship between site and disengagement*
H5c - *Conscientiousness will moderate the relationship between site usability and well-being*
The conceptual diagram is presented in Figure 2.

Method

The present study utilised a correlational design. A mediation analysis was employed to examine the mediating effect of academic self-efficacy and self-control (i.e., mediating variables) on the relationship between site usability (independent variable) and academic burnout (i.e., exhaustion and disengagement) and well-being (dependent variables). Conscientiousness was examined as a potential moderator influencing these relationships.

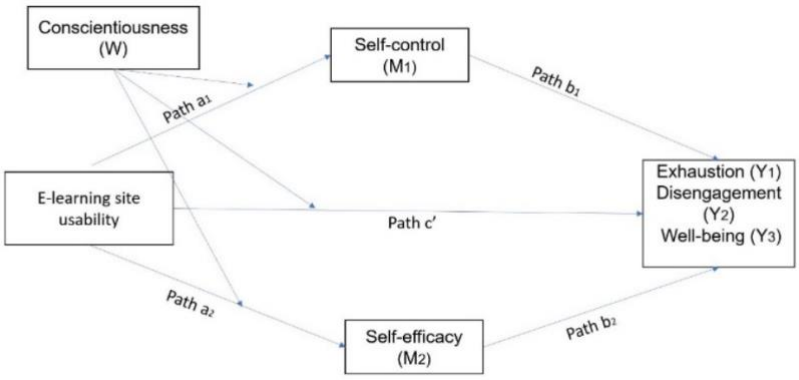


Figure 2: Proposed model for the study

Measures used in the study

Demographic Form – The demographic form requested for participants' gender, age, academic discipline, course, year of study, and learning mode.

E-Learning Usability Scale for Higher Education (Sandoval, 2016) – This scale has 27 items in total measuring 4 dimensions- content, interactivity, instructor role and course design. Examples of these items include *"The course uses interactive tools and strategies to gain my attention and maintain my interest"* and "*Graphics used in the course are of high quality (not blurry)"*. Each item is scored using a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). A "not applicable" option was included for those items that did not apply to a participant. Higher scores indicate higher site usability. Hasibuan et al. (2019) reported a Cronbach alpha of .92 for the Indonesian version of the scale. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.97 in the present study.

General Self-Efficacy Scale (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995) – The General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE) is a 10-item self-report measure of self-efficacy It is a single dimension scale, and each item is scored using a 4-point Likert scale (from 1 = not at all to 4 = exactly true) with higher score indicating higher self-efficacy. GSE has shown to have good internal consistency, with alpha scores of between .76 and .90 (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1995). There is also good construct reliability of .91 and good convergent validity of .51 (Freire et al., 2020). For the present study Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.88.

Conscientiousness subscale of the Big Five Inventory (John et al., 1991) – This is a 9-item subscale of the Big Five Inventory and assesses one's conscientiousness Items are rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Internal consistency of this subscale was good, with alpha score of .82. For this study the Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.76.

Brief Self-Control Scale (Tangney et al., 2004) – The Brief Self-Control Scale (B-SCS) is a 13-item self-report scale, and each item was rated on a 5-point Likert scale (from 1 = not at all like me to 5 = very much like me). High scores indicate higher self-control. The Cronbach's alpha was 0.85 in the present study.

Oldenburg Burnout Inventory – Student Version (Reis et al., 2015) – The Oldenburg Burnout Inventory – Student Version (OLBI-S) is a 16-item questionnaire designed to specifically measure academic burnout in students (Reis et al., 2015). OLBI-S is adapted from the Oldenburg Burnout Inventory (OLBI; Demerouti et al, 2003) and it comprises two scales, disengagement and exhaustion. Participants responded to each statement on a 4-point Likert scale (from 1 = strongly agree to 4 = strongly disagree). Higher scores on the disengagement and exhaustion scales indicated greater disengagement and exhaustion respectively. In an English-speaking population, the OLBI-S had Cronbach's alphas ranging from .74 to .97 (Halbesleben & Demerouti, 2005). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale in the present study was 0.78.

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985) – This five-item self-report measure assesses one's satisfaction with life as a whole. Items are rated from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) on a Likert scale. Scores for each item were summed to obtain a total score of this scale, with higher scores indicating higher perceived life satisfaction. Internal consistency was high, with alpha score of .87 and good test-retest reliability of .82 (Magyar-Moe, 2009. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was 0.86 in the present study.

Participants

To participate in the study, participants were required to be a student taking at least one subject in an online or blended mode at the time of participation. A total of 142 participants (34 Males and 106 Females 2 Others), aged between 18 and 49 years old (Mean Age =22.7 yrs.) contributed to the data for the study. Participants were recruited using James Cook University (JCU)'s SONA recruitment system, through social media platforms as well as via convenience and snowball sampling. Participants who required course credits in partial fulfillment of module requirements were awarded 2 SONA credit points and no incentives were given to the other participants.

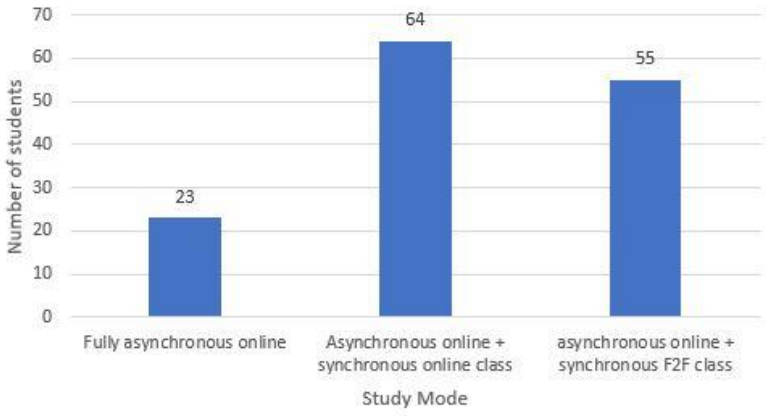


Figure 3: Breakdown of participants across different study modes

Procedure

Ethics approval was received from the university ethics committee before commencement. Data was collected online via Qualtrics. Participants accessed the URL for the study which was shared with them via poster. Once participants gave their consent after reading through the information sheet, first question checked for the participant eligibility. Only participants who acknowledged taking at least one module in online or blended mode at the time of the participation were presented with rest of the survey. They were asked indicate module name and its delivery mode. All the subsequent questions were with reference to that specific module. The questionnaires were presented in random order to manage the order effect. At the end of the survey, participants were thanked for their time spent in participating in the study.

Results

Data Screening

Participant data (N = 158) was screened and invalid response and cases with less than two questionnaires completed were removed (n = 14). Next, outliers (n = 2) were identified and removed. Following data screening, the remaining responses (n = 142) were used for analyses.

Age as a covariate

Research shows that age can influence student's level of academic burnout, with academic exhaustion being more prevalent among students between 20 and 24 years old (de Silva et al., 2018). Correlation analysis showed that age was not significantly associated with any of the study variables and thus was not included as a covariate.

Relationship among Variables

A preliminary analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the key Variables (Table 1). The results indicated that well-being had a moderate, negative, and significant correlation between exhaustion ($r=-.41$, $p<.001$) and a weak, negative and significant relationship with disengagement ($r=-.28$, $p<.0010$). Conscientiousness had moderate, negative and significant correlation with exhaustion ($r=-.49$, $p<.001$) and disengagement ($r=-.43$, $p<.001$). It showed weak, positive but significant relationship with self-efficacy ($r=.35$, $p<.001$) and significantly strong and positive correlation with self-control ($r=.76$, $p<.001$). Self-efficacy also showed significant, moderate and negative association with both exhaustion ($r=-.35$, $p<.001$) and disengagement ($r=-.43$, $p<.001$). Similarly, self-control had moderate, negative and significant correlation with exhaustion ($r=-.52$, $p<.001$) as well as disengagement ($r=-.45$, $p<.001$). On the other had well-being showed weak, positive and significant relationship with conscientiousness ($r=.30$, $p<.001$), self-efficacy ($r=.30$, $p<.001$) and self-control ($r=.22$, $p<.001$). Additionally, total usability of E-learning site showed a moderate, negative, and significant correlation with disengagement ($r=-.33$, $p<.001$) but not with exhaustion and well-being.

Differences across study modes

A one-way ANOVA was run to compute the differences in scores for student burnout and well-being across different study modes. The results showed no significant differences in scores across the three study modes indicating rejection of H1.

Variables	1	2	3	4	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	5	6
1. Exhaustion										
2. Disengagement	.510**									
3. Well-being	**-.408****	**-.275****								
4. Total Usability	-.132	**-.327****	.116							
4.1 Content usability	**-.194***	**-.351****	.122	.905**						
4.2 Interaction usability	**-.200***	**-.361****	.141	.888**	.809**					
4.3 Design Usability	-.043	**-.233***	.110	.897**	.747**	.682**				
4.4 Instructor presence usability	-.012	**-.198***	.031	.846**	.635**	.608**	.775**			
5. Conscientiousness	**-.486****	**-.431****	**.304****	**.189***	.169*	.225**	.130	.133		
6. Self-efficacy	**-.353****	**-.427****	**.297****	**.386****	.289**	.335**	.374**	.370**	**.350****	
7. Self-control	**-.524****	**-.451****	**.220****	**.256****	.250**	.301**	.145	.190*	**.761****	**.330****

Note. ** P<0.01 level, * p<0.05.

Table1: The Pearson Correlation Analysis Table

Site Usability to Burnout and Well-being

Before running the analysis, data was checked for assumption violation. All assumptions for multiple regression were satisfied. Hayes' (2018) PROCESS macro for SPSS Models 7 and 8 were used to test the hypotheses. A moderated mediation analysis was performed to test the moderating role of conscientiousness and mediating roles of self-efficacy and self-control.

H2a and H2b

Results showed that the indirect effect of site usability on disengagement through self - control was moderated by conscientiousness. Higher self-control was associated with lower disengagement. The conditional indirect effect was strongest in those high in Conscientiousness (1 SD above the mean). H2a was supported by index of moderated mediation (index= -.037,95% CI= (-.070/-.007) which was significant since the 95% CI did not include zero. H2b was not supported (Figure 4).

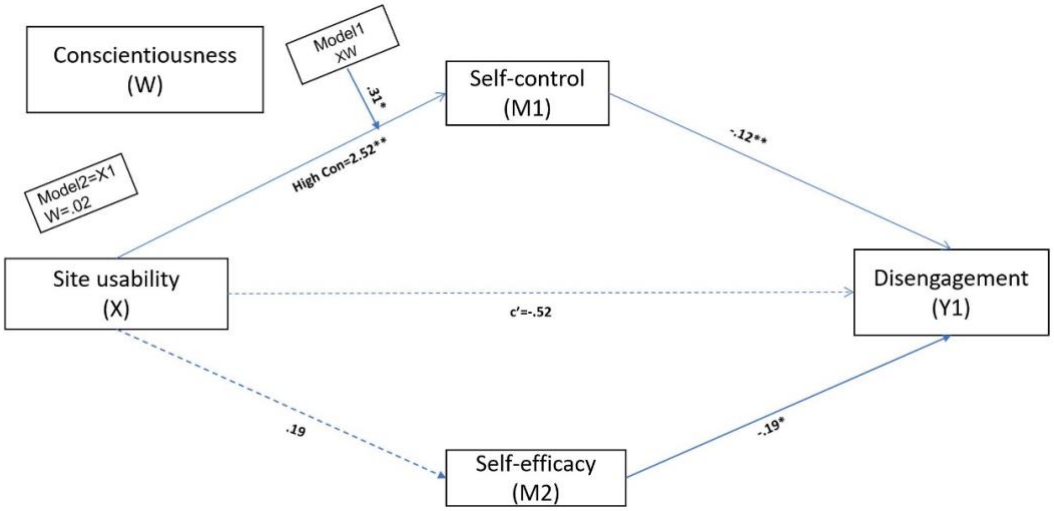


Figure 4: Outcome of moderated mediation analysis for site usability on disengagement through self-control and self-efficacy moderated by conscientiousness

H3a and H3b

H3a was supported as results showed that the indirect effect of site usability on exhaustion through self-control was moderated by conscientiousness. Higher self-control was associated with reduced exhaustion. Conditional indirect effect was strongest in those high in Conscientiousness (1 SD above the mean).H3a was supported by index of moderated mediation (index= -.056,95% CI= (-.095/-.011) which was significant since the 95% CI did not include zero. H3b was not supported (figure 5).

Analysis further revealed that H4a, H4b, H5a, H5b and H5c are not supported. Thus, site usability has implications for levels of academic burnout vias self-control, but not for student well-being.

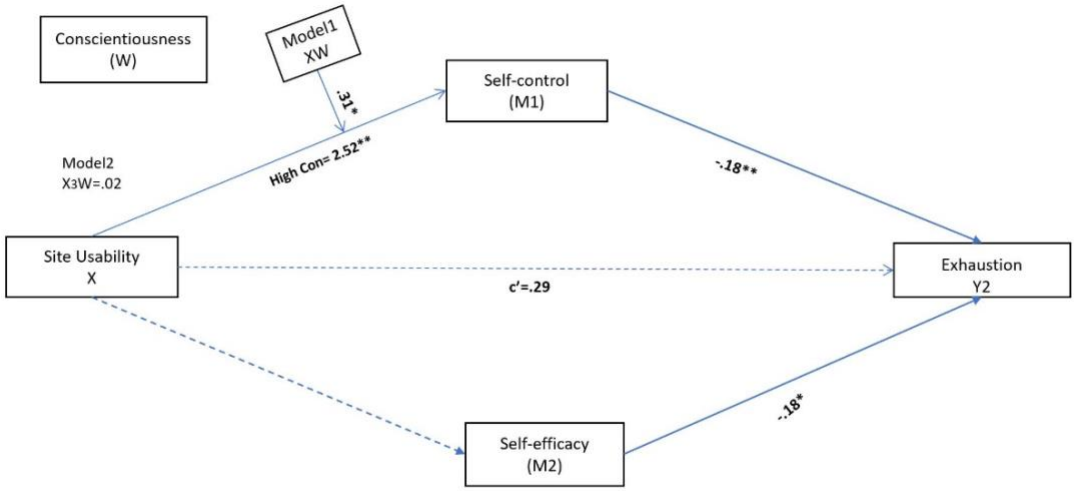


Figure 5: Outcome of moderated mediation analysis for site usability on exhaustion through self-control and self-efficacy moderated by conscientiousness

Discussion

The aim of this study was to see how usability of E-learning sites contributes to burnout and well-being in online and blended mode. Significant individual differences emerged that affected relationship between site usability and student experience.

Conscientiousness emerged as a significant moderator on relationship between site usability and self-control. Specifically, those with high level of conscientiousness showed high levels of self-control. This is aligned with earlier research outcomes where conscientiousness was shown to positively influence self-control (e.g., Mao et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). However, conscientiousness was not a significant moderator for pathway from usability to self-efficacy and usability to burnout and well-being, thus hypotheses H5a, 5b and 5c are rejected.

The study results show support for H2a and H3a, since the indirect effect of site usability on both disengagement and exhaustion, through self -control was moderated by conscientiousness. This is not surprising since those with high conscientious personality are more likely use technology that will allow them to be more efficient and optimize their performance (Punnoose, 2012) which in turn will encouraging them to increase their interactions with the E-learning systems (Devaraj et al.,2008). Through consistent effort and practice learners might realize that the online learning systems are easy to navigate and supportive of their learning (Bismala et al.2022). Since E-learning requires a high level of student motivation and self-discipline (Sandybayev, 2020), it is not surprising that self-control emerged as a significant mediator between site usability and burnout. A well-designed E-learning subject site with high usability would support student engagement. To students it would appear attractive and innovative, thereby keeping them stimulated and engaged (Agyeeiwaah et. al, 2022). This in turn would protect them against cognitive fatigue and tiredness which significantly contribute to burnout.

Hypothesis H2b and H3b, are not supported in our study. Though academic self-efficacy has played in significant mediating role in academic-related behaviors (Hejazi et al., 2009), it was not a significant mediator in the present study. There could be many reasons for it. Usability of E-learning site by itself does not automatically contribute to self-efficacy (Chahal & Rani ,2022). Individual experience of the learner and the maturity of a specific technology contributes to one's beliefs in their capabilities to exert control over events. A student has to interact with the system, continuously, regularly and in a disciplined manner to get its benefits, which would then develop their self-efficacy for that system (Al-Azawei & Lundqvist ,2015). In context of higher education, E-learning subject sites are fairly new phenomenon, it might take some time for student to feel comfortable with technology. Punnoose (2012) found conscientiousness to be the only personality variable that exerted a direct effect on students' belief regarding usefulness of an eLearning system. Since in our study, conscientiousness showed weak but positive correlation with self-efficacy and was not its significant moderator, this potentially affected the relationship between E-learning site usability and self-efficacy. It could be that individual difference in this personality trait influenced formation of certain beliefs about learning technologies which in turn affected how they engaged with E-learning subject sites (Punnoose, 2012). Self-efficacy did emerge as a significant, negative predictor of disengagement which is in line with past research (e.g., Bulfone et al., 2016).

For the present study, well-being had a moderate, negative, and significant correlation

with exhaustion but a weak, negative and significant relationship with disengagement indicating that exhaustion experienced by students contributes significantly more to their life-satisfaction and well-being than disengagement. The direct effect of E-learning site usability on student well-being was non-significant as were the mediating effects of self-efficacy and self-control which resulted in rejection of H4a and H4b. Self-efficacy predicted student well-being which is similar to past findings (e.g., Armaou & Antoniou, 2018; Othman et al., 2019).

Our study did not reveal any differences in burnout and well-being scores for participants across different study modes thus H1 is rejected. The non-significant ANOVA results could be due to the unequal distribution of the 3 learning design groups as there was a much larger proportion of students doing blended learning. Nonetheless, certain trends were observed. Exhaustion appeared to be the lowest for the group doing blended learning with face-to-face sessions. This could be interpreted as the fact that this particular learning design provides students the opportunity to switch between two kinds of learning environment – online and on-campus which possibly helps to break the monotonous experience of learning only in online mediums all the time. With face-to-face sessions, students can get more "breaks" from the monotony and receive more stimulation from interactions with their instructors and peers. Surprisingly, disengagement was found to be the lowest for the group doing blended learning with online synchronous sessions, which contrasted with past studies showing how students were better engaged in face-to-face classes (Tomlinson et al., 2013). A possible explanation could be that perhaps students could focus better without distractions from classmates and the surroundings and also get attention from the teacher when they reach out.

Limitations

This study is not without limitations. Firstly, the current research is cross-sectional, and data were only gathered at a specific point in time, which makes it hard to determine cause-and-effect relationships over an extended period. Secondly, unequal distributions of participants across different study modes could have contributed to non-significant results. A larger and more evenly distributed sample size should be used in future research. Given that majority of participants in this study were Psychology undergraduate students, future research can also look to compare and examine the differences across other levels of study and disciplines.

Conclusion

The study highlights importance developing subject sites which are usable, that follow best practice instructional design principles so that students are not frustrated while trying to navigate the site. Regular and disciplined interaction with subject site is supportive of student engagement and can prevent academic burnout. Since the study mode and gender did not account for any differences in participant burnout and well-being, it focuses our attention on E-learning site features such as - site content, site interactivity, instructor role and course design - which are significant contributing factors in a student's learning experience.

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Learning From the Ground: How Mathematics Teachers View Collaboration Through the Learning Action Cell Program

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Teacher professional development is as important as the education of students in schools. The Professional Learning Community (PLC) is one of the effective bottom-up strategies for professional development as it gives teachers opportunities to collaborate and share experiences and expertise, rather than merely receive knowledge from an expert outsider. The Learning Action Cell (LAC) is the Philippines' version of the PLC and it highlights the teachers' best practices and real-life classroom experience as their source of knowledge. This paper presents mathematics teachers' conceptions about the professional development strategy which was introduced concurrently with the K to 12 curriculum last 2016. In the study, 53 secondary school mathematics teachers articulated what they perceived as benefits of the strategy, which include gaining new knowledge, learning about innovations, and developing uniform classroom materials. Mathematics teachers also valued some intangible benefits such as the act of sharing experiences and having others work with them collaboratively on problems. The paper discusses these within the broader concept of teacher collaboration and uses the perspective of dialogic relations to identify challenges for school leaders and teachers. Moreover, several issues regarding enforcement of the new program have emerged, such as the lack of awareness of some teachers about the program and their reluctance to participate in the LAC. This study aimed to unveil the potential of the LAC to improve the professional development landscape of the country as well as identify possible solutions to issues related to implementation that have surfaced.

Keywords: Professional Learning Communities, Learning Action Cell, Bottom-Up Approach, K to 12 Curriculum

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Introduction

It has been almost a decade since the new K to 12 Program was first introduced by the Philippine Department of Education (DepEd), beginning with its implementation of the universal Kindergarten in school year 2011-2012, the rollout of the new curricula for Grades 1 and 7 in school year 2012-2013, and finally with the introduction of the two additional grades (11 and 12) in school year 2016-2017. Formally called *Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013*, the Philippine K to 12 Program has a few vital features - the addition of Grades 11 and 12 as part of the compulsory pre-university education for all Filipino students, the implementation of the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education in Grades K to 3 and the introduction of specialized educational tracks in Grade 11. It is "arguably the most comprehensive basic education reform initiative ever done in the country since the establishment of the public education system more than a century ago" (Message from the DepEd, SEAMEO INNOTECH, 2012).

As with any educational reform that involves a major curriculum innovation, one of the most important concerns about the Philippine K to 12 Program is teacher preparation and professional development. In their analysis of opportunities for mathematics teachers' professional development and growth in the Philippines, Verzosa, Tulao-Fernando and Vistro-Yu (2017) found that the existing annual in-service program for teachers (INSET) is severely limited when it comes to helping mathematics teachers develop their teaching skills. For one, since the INSETs are intended for teachers of all subjects, the content focuses are assorted and do not concern mathematics teaching directly. Hence, mathematics teachers feel a great dissonance between the INSET and their specific needs.

DepEd recently institutionalized a new professional development program for school teachers in support of the K to 12 Program. The *Learning Action Cell* (LAC) is a school-based continuing professional development strategy aimed to help teachers develop new skills and knowledge needed for improving teaching and learning. It has the potential to become the key professional development program for teachers if implemented correctly because it "primarily functions as a professional learning community for teachers that will help them improve practice and learner achievement" (Department of Education, Order No. 35, s. 2016). DepEd cites the LAC as only one of few bottom-up teacher professional development programs, making it a new alternative to the many top-down teacher professional development programs that have dominated teacher education in the Philippines for the past four decades. More importantly DepEd highlights the collaborative nature of the LAC, stating in its policy that "key aspects … are ongoing collaborative learning or problem solving within a shared domain of professional interest, self-directed learning, reflective practice leading to action and self-evaluation, and collective competence" (Department of Education, Order No. 35, s. 2016, p. 3).

This paper has two goals. First, it discusses the intended nature of the LAC and describes various aspects that make it a potentially key program for teachers, particularly for Junior and Senior High School mathematics teachers. Second, the paper presents mathematics teachers' perspectives of the LAC, focusing on teacher collaboration as a key feature of the LAC strategy and thereby doing right the DepEd claim of the LAC being a bottom-up professional development program. Finally, this paper identifies a specific challenge for both DepEd and its teachers for a successful implementation of the DepEd Order in as far as what the authors have unearthed from their initial study.

Professional Development for Teachers

The professional development of teachers is as important as the education of students in schools. As teaching is an intelligent, knowledge-based activity and yet, diverse, and complex (Hegarty, 2000), continuous professional development for teachers must be well-placed alongside any educational reform or innovation. Certainly, teachers are the key to students' learning of mathematics. The quality of their knowledge and skills impact on their students' learning, performance, and achievement. Teachers' professional development activities, though of uneven quality, are meant to help teachers learn more, keep abreast of new knowledge and developments in their field and improve their skills in handling students, among many other concerns.

What Knowledge Do Mathematics Teachers Need?

One of the common goals of professional development programs for teachers is to help them gain more knowledge in order to become better in their teaching. But, what kind of knowledge do teachers really need? In mathematics, attempts to describe and capture the kinds of knowledge that teachers bring into the classroom have been made, beginning with Shulman's (1986) pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), Mishra and Koehler's (2006) technological pedagogical content knowledge and Ball, Hill and Bass' (2005) mathematical knowledge for teaching. The knowledge components organized under each of these labels reflect a composite of various educators' and researchers' understandings of the aspects of mathematics teaching that have been observed to positively influence students' learning of mathematics.

Locally, the Philippine Council of Mathematics Teacher Educators, Inc. (MATHTED) has also lent its hand in formulating a framework that could help redirect mathematics teacher education efforts in the Philippines. MATHTED envisioned the following to comprise mathematics teachers' knowledge and skills for teaching: mathematical content knowledge, mathematical pedagogical knowledge, general pedagogy and management skills and mathematical disposition and professional development (SEI-DOST and MATHTED, 2011). For MATHTED (2011), a fully competent mathematics teacher is someone who "possesses a strong mathematical content knowledge, is armed with mathematical pedagogical knowledge as well as general pedagogical knowledge and management skills, displays an appropriate mathematical disposition and values one's own professional development" (p. 11). Subsequent teacher education programs and professional development initiatives in the country have more or less worked within this framework.

How Do Teachers Validate and Communicate Their Knowledge?

Teachers have a different way of validating what they know and believe about mathematics teaching and learning (Lester and William, 2002, p. 2). Teachers also have varied ways of communicating and engaging in discourse, often relying on personal judgments and social conversations to determine what works for them (Hargreaves, 1998; Lester & William, 2002). These realities might explain why educational research seemingly have minimal impact on teachers' instructional practices. Schwandt (1995, 1996, as cited in Lester & William, 2002) has suggested that while researchers communicate with each other by using arguments to justify claims, teachers tend to communicate from a dialogical perspective, which hinges on "conversational forms of interaction" (Schwandt, 1996 as cited in Lester & Williams, 2002) in developing one's knowledge and practices. It is with these views that

teacher professional development programs must be planned and organized in order to have an impact on teachers' knowledge and practices. This rationalizes the need for valuing teachers' working together to broaden and deepen their knowledge for teaching. Teacher collaboration, indeed, has its place in developing teachers' knowledge about teaching and learning.

The Learning Action Cell

DepEd continually supports the professional development of its teaching personnel through various programs to improve the teaching-learning process. However, most of these efforts are characterized as top-down processes in which curriculum experts, researchers or professors share or transfer knowledge through seminars and workshops. There are few instances of bottom-down professional development where teachers study the pedagogy and content, create a lesson study, or conduct action research as a group (Department of Education, 2016). There is little opportunity for teachers to utilize the rich experiences acquired from their encounter with students and, most especially, the knowledge they create in collaboration with other teachers. The Learning Action Cell (LAC) is a group of teachers working collaboratively to solve shared challenges in the school as facilitated by their school head or a LAC leader. The LAC is DepEd's take on the Professional Learning Communities (PLC) which aids teachers in constructing knowledge about teaching or revising traditional beliefs about teaching, learning, the community, and education to address the present needs of the learners (Little, 2003).

Figure 1 shows the LAC framework. DepEd recognizes that the quality of learning is influenced by the quality of teaching. The framework shows that community of practice or LAC supports teachers in collaborative activities -- planning, problem solving and action implementation -- that will lead to an improvement in their knowledge which hopefully will translate to better student learning and development (Department of Education, 2016).

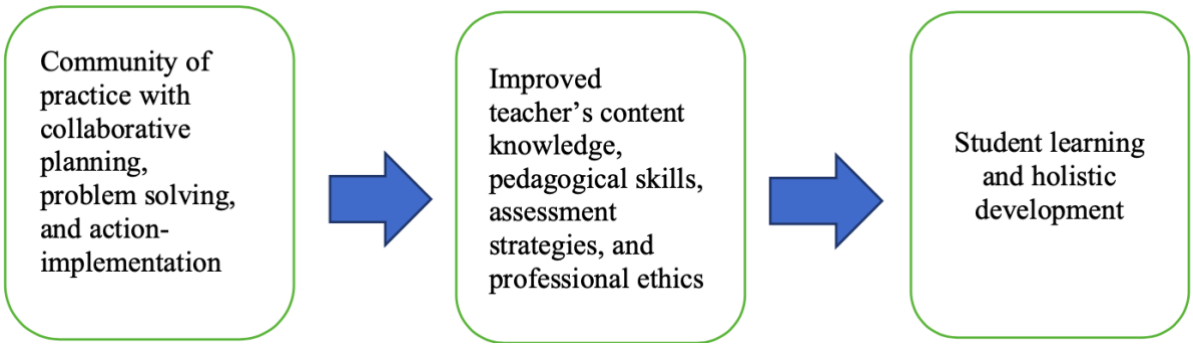


Figure 1: The Learning Action Cell Framework

The LAC process starts with the assessment of needs or the identification of the problem to be addressed. These may be captured through diagnostic tests, classroom observations, critical reflections, student assessments, and other forms. This information guide the LAC leaders in determining the topics for the LAC according to the following broad categories: 1. Learner Diversity and Inclusion; 2. Content and Pedagogy of the K to 12 Basic Education Program; 3. Assessment and Reporting in the K to 12 Basic Education Program; 4. Twenty-first Century Skills and ICT Integration in Instruction and Assessment, and; 5. Content Contextualization, Localization and Indigenization. These topics are also the main thrusts of the new K to 12 curricula.

After assessing the needs, the members of the LAC are identified. The role of the school head or the school principal as the LAC leader and facilitator is vital in its implementation since s/he is tasked to ensure that the conduct of the LAC is established, maintained, and sustained. S/he also takes the lead in evaluating the effect of the LAC in schools. One LAC could be composed of five to fifteen members. Once the composition of the LAC is determined, human and material resources are procured and set up. The priorities set out by the LAC are implemented using a variety of activities such as lectures, practicum, workshops, and development of instructional materials followed by a collaborative discussion by the members on what to implement in their classrooms. When the intended activity is completed, the LAC members evaluate and prepare reports, citing in particular any improvements made by their students.

Mathematics Teachers' Perspectives

In order to learn more about how the LAC is currently being implemented, secondary school mathematics teachers from one of the more active and progressive School Divisions in Metro Manila were surveyed about their knowledge and participation in collaborative activities in general and in the LAC in particular. This division consists of 10 public secondary schools. A total of 140 public school teachers were sent letters of invitation to participate, of whom 99 agreed to participate in the study by submitting the accomplished survey forms that included their implied consent. Incomplete forms were discarded resulting in only 53 teachers as participants for this initial study. Forty of the 53 teachers are between 30 and 50 years of age and 30 teachers have pursued further studies beyond their bachelor's degrees. All of them except for seven teachers indicated involvement in academic or professional activities outside of their academic classes. Of the 53 participants, 29 of them are female.

Teachers' Ideas of Collaboration

In general, mathematics teachers see the importance of teacher collaboration in improving instruction and increasing student learning. Their ideas on teacher collaboration are categorized into three themes: purpose of teacher collaboration, aspects of a teacher's work, and the intangibles.

Purpose of teacher collaboration. Mathematics teachers recognize the need to collaborate in order to gain new knowledge and skills, as well as to enhance existing ones, as collaboration facilitates the sharing of ideas, experiences and expertise. They find the seminars and trainings incorporated in the collaborative activities to be helpful in developing their content knowledge and improving their teaching skills, particularly in "getting more ideas or strategies in teaching specific concepts". Through collaboration, teachers are able to help one another "in promoting academic excellence in teaching and learning mathematics."

Collaboration also allows mathematics teachers to work together in accomplishing the tasks needed to achieve their goals, such as improving students' achievement and school performance through effective instruction and efficient carrying out of tasks as teachers. Tasks can be delegated to several teachers to maximize time and effort in order to produce quality outputs. For instance, the collaborative development of lesson plans and assessments allows them to discuss common lesson goals, how to achieve these goals in terms of learning strategies and assessments, and ways to optimize their varied abilities and expertise in accomplishing the tasks required of them.

Aspects of a teacher's work. Mathematics teachers find collaboration important in different aspects of their work: lesson planning, classroom management, technology integration, improving content knowledge, and differentiating instruction for varied student ability levels. Meeting with colleagues regularly to discuss the pacing of the lessons and appropriate activities facilitates the development of lesson plans, of which teachers are required to submit weekly to their supervisors.

Learning new ways of integrating technology in instruction can best be facilitated through the sharing of knowledge and expertise during collaborative activities. According to one participant, "young/new teachers can share the latest and innovative technologies that will help seasoned teachers in teaching mathematics to millennial students." Teachers also learn from one another how technology may be used to maximize student engagement.

Several mathematics teachers expressed the advantage of collaboration in improving their content knowledge and skills, such as problem solving and integrating different learning areas within mathematics or mathematics with other subject areas. Difficulties encountered related to content may also be addressed through activities where teachers share their expertise and experiences.

One important concern of many teachers is how to teach a class of varying ability levels and/or learning styles. Note that class sizes of Philippine public schools are large, with each class consisting of at least 40 students and could have as many as 70 students. Classroom management and teaching students of different ability levels and learning styles have been very challenging to teachers. Collaborating with fellow teachers to learn how to deal with such challenges becomes very important. Sharing strategies and learnings from other teachers on "how to deal with student behavior" and on how to "teach mathematics to at-risk students or below average students" is welcomed by most, if not all, teachers.

Intangibles. The mathematics teachers expressed other ideas on the importance of collaboration that are worthy of discussion, ideas that they value as a result of the collaborative processes that they have experienced. The most commonly mentioned idea is the act of sharing experiences, strategies and techniques that teachers find valuable in their professional development. There are "ideas that are best shared and known" and cannot be kept to one's self. Also, it is not just from the sharing of others that one gains but also from the sharing of one's own experiences that one develops professionally and personally. Working with fellow teachers is another highly-valued process that teachers consider to be important in their development. Seven teachers cited the common idea that "two or more heads are better than one". This illustrates the importance that teachers place on collaboration as a means to achieve their goals either in the classroom or of their professional and personal development.

Teacher's Perspectives of the LAC

The mathematics teachers' awareness and involvement in the Learning Action Cell (LAC) were surveyed and identified. Twenty-seven of the 53 teachers indicated that they are aware of the LAC, as mandated by the Department of Education. Of the 27 teachers who know about the program, 24 have been involved taking on various roles: three teachers have taken on the role of leader, one teacher has served as recorder, and the rest have been participants. The teachers come from 10 different schools, seven of which have at least one teacher

involved in the LAC while the teachers from the remaining three schools had no knowledge of it.

Of the 26 teachers who were not aware of the LAC, 14 teachers expressed their interest in wanting to know more about it. Only 11 teachers would like to involve themselves in the LAC. Six of the 14 teachers who wish to know more about it do not want to be involved.

All 24 teachers who have been involved in the LAC expressed that they benefitted from their participation in the program. Learning new strategies and developing their content knowledge, as well as updating themselves of new innovations in instruction and the use of technology, were among the frequently mentioned benefits. Teachers found the interaction during LAC sessions very fruitful because they were able to gain new ideas on how to improve their teaching and to become familiar with recent developments in the use of ICT platforms that can be specifically applied in the mathematics classroom. Teachers who are new in the profession also benefited much from the experiences and expertise of the more experienced teachers.

The collaborative nature of the LAC allowed teachers to discuss issues and problems encountered in the classrooms, particularly on the varied student learning styles and abilities, and to share strategies that helped them resolve these issues. Teachers were able to "discover new teaching strategies suited for the needs of my students". The LAC also "gave me more opportunities to adjust my teaching styles" to cater to different student ability levels and interests.

Teachers also found that their efficiency and productivity have improved through the development of a unified daily lesson log (DLL), "uniform" lesson plans, and "parallel" tests, performance tasks and projects. By collaboratively working on their lesson plans and assessments, teachers are able to manage their time and effort towards other important responsibilities, such as taking care of their students. The LAC sessions also helped to remind them of the pacing of their lessons in order to abide by the curriculum objectives and schedule. According to one teacher, involvement in the LAC program "encourages critical reflection amongst teachers and increases their understanding and knowledge of the curriculum and classroom practices."

Conclusion

DepEd identified the LAC to be a bottom-up professional development strategy for teachers, yet only about half of the participants are aware of it. This result begs the questions of how efficiently this order was disseminated and how much groundwork was done to initiate and push for its implementation to be answered. It also appears that there are other challenging realities that teachers face, prompting a few of them to outrightly indicate that they do not want to get involved in the LAC. One wonders what supporting mechanisms are provided to encourage and enable teachers to form their own learning cells.

It makes full sense to hear from teachers, in this case secondary school mathematics teachers, and to find out their views and perspectives of this initiative. One of the major complaints by the sample of mathematics teachers in the study by Verzosa, Tulao-Fernando and Vistro-Yu (2017) of the INSET was that they did not have any input on the design and organization of the INSET activities. As a result, there were many incongruities between the content of the activities and the specific needs of the teachers for their classroom practices. The DepEd

Order was released in 2016 and as far as the authors have gathered, not all school divisions have active learning cells. Teachers' views on this mandated strategies are important to note so that school division heads and subject supervisors may be guided in their implementation of the LAC. DepEd will do right by hearing from the teachers at this juncture, while it is still 'early', as they are the direct beneficiaries of the LAC. Teachers have to be given a voice to express their thoughts and perspectives on this novel initiative. The shortcomings of past DepEd programs must never be repeated.

The mathematics teachers' responses indicate a positive view of the LAC. The benefits that were mentioned, though quite general at this point, are important to note. Acquiring new knowledge (pedagogical content knowledge, content knowledge, technological pedagogical content knowledge – in that order), learning innovations and producing uniform learning materials appear to be the most important. Secondary to this, but perhaps, equally as crucial if not more, is hearing about other teachers' practices and experiences. The LAC provides mathematics teachers with a way to validate and communicate their knowledge of teaching and learning through the acts of sharing experiences and working together with fellow teachers as opposed to having an 'expert impart knowledge to them', which is the usual mode of top-down professional development programs. Teachers value these acts that stem from their actual involvement in the educative process, as well as in their professional development. This is consistent with Schwandt's (1995, 1996, as cited in Lester & William, 2002) suggestion that teachers tend to communicate through conversations, which help them build knowledge of practices. It is not just knowing what or knowing how that teachers look for, but as well, knowing from their fellow teachers who have the same struggles in teaching mathematics to students as they do (Shotter, 1993 as cited in Lester & William, 2002).

The collaborative nature of the LAC allows for social relationships to flourish, from which practical knowledge that only teachers understand could emerge. Collaboration in the LAC then has to be nurtured and kept healthy. This is a challenge for both DepEd leaders and the teacher participants of the LAC. DepEd leaders must ensure that wholesome professional and social relationships are maintained and supported by providing safe work spaces, appropriate materials and efficient, non-threatening monitoring mechanisms. Teachers, on the other hand, need to contribute their own wealth of ideas and experiences with fellow teachers in order to strengthen the bonds amongst themselves.

The success of any major educational reform relies heavily on the support structures that are built around it. These structures include development programs for all personnel, physical infrastructures, mechanisms for acquiring new materials and technologies, and policies and directives from the governing bodies. While these structures may be in place, however, there must be sustained efforts to keep these structures together by those both from within the educational community as well as from other stakeholders outside of the said community.

The LAC is a worthy program because it is school-based and not separate from the teachers' realities but, more importantly because it encourages collaboration among teacher participants. The LAC strategy needs the proper support of education leaders, teacher educators and researchers. By recognizing that teachers are not mere objects of research nor simply 'beneficiaries' of programs but the main actors, academic experts would do well to allow the LAC to grow. The LAC could potentially change the teachers' professional development scene in the Philippines for the better.

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Role of Study Abroad in the Path to Teaching English in English Among Japanese Teachers

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Even with the newly issued and adopted Course of Study by the Japanese Ministry of Sports, Education, and Science, and Technology (MEXT), the use of English in junior high and high school English classrooms is far from 100 percent. The current project used individual interviews to investigate the professional development of English teachers at public schools in Okinawa, Japan, using the Trajectory Equifinality Approach (TEA, Valsiner & Sato, 2006). In this paper, the TEA charts of two junior high school teachers and six high school teachers are compared, with an emphasis on the effects of their study abroad experiences on attaining the Teaching English in English (TEE) stage (i.e., equifinality point). The findings revealed that the nature of their overseas experience caused the differences in the acquisition of practical means to pursue TEE. More specifically, majors other than TESL significantly improved the participating teachers' English command. They did not, however, necessarily provide practical ideas for conducting TEE, whereas studying TESL served as a psychological foundation for not abandoning TEE even when the students' proficiency levels were insufficient to understand the teachers' English use. TEE is thought to be important in developing students' classroom proficiency, and study abroad experience for teachers is often thought to be desirable. However, the impact of such experiences must be carefully examined during professional development.

Keywords: Teaching English in English, Trajectory Equifinality Approach, Study Abroad

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Introduction

In Japan, English is one of the junior and senior high school subjects and it is taught as a foreign language. The relatively low proficiency achieved by the national school curriculum has been widely criticized as ineffective, and the Japanese National Curriculum Committee discussed the need for drastic reforms. The most recent change in the Course of Study (CS) can be seen as a reflection of this argument.

The language used as a medium of instruction has been the focus of the debate. In terms of second language acquisition, maximum use of the target language is most desired because it will provide ample opportunities for input, interaction, and output during class time. Therefore, the new CS incorporated the concept of English medium instruction (EMI), or teaching English in English (TEE). The Japanese Ministry of Education, Science, Technology, and Sports (MEXT) issues the CS, which is renewed every 10 years. The almost compulsory use of English in the English classroom was first stated in 2008 for senior high schools (HS; Grades 10–12), and now is reinforced for junior high schools (JHS; Grades 7–9) in the CS issued in March 2019. Although Japanese schools, like any other in the world, were affected by the COVID-19 pandemic and taught with restrictions, the TEE policy went into effect in April 2020 for JHSs. The 2019 CS reform in school English education included lowering the starting age as a subject to 5th grade and maintaining the EMI at the SH level.

Before such changes, the MEXT encouraged Japanese English teachers to achieve a level of proficiency sufficient to conduct TEE. The expected level of proficiency is Eiken STEP Test Grade Pre-1 or TOEIC 730, which is equivalent to CEFR B2. The MEXT conducts an annual survey to confirm the achievement. According to this annual survey, as of December 2021, 74.9% of HS English teachers achieved CEFR B2 while 40.8% of JHSs English teachers did. In contrast, only 46.0% of HS teachers reported using English more than half of the time in class, while 73.4% of JHSs teachers reported using English more than 50% in class. Although the number of HS teachers teaching English majors rises to 81.6%, high proficiency in English does not lead to increased use of the target language in HS. JH teachers, regardless of the low number of B2 achievers, are attempting to use more English in their classrooms; however, those who spoke English more than 75% of the time in their instructions reportedly remained only 15.4%, falling far short of TEE's CS goal. The survey also revealed that teachers' English proficiency was positively related to students' English achievement and that increased use of English by teachers resulted in more English classroom activities, which boosted students' proficiency.

As has other teaching licensing curricula at Japanese universities, the University of the Ryukyus where the author has been engaged in pre-service teacher education has encouraged EMI in our methodology courses and during the teaching practicum. We've also seen a number of our graduates study abroad in their junior to senior years before becoming teachers with strong English communication skills. As a result, the annual survey results were astonishing and contradictory to our observations. What caused the disparity between their university experience and actual school teaching?

Toya (2020a, 2020b, 2021) conducted interviews with local JHS and HS English teachers who had received pre-service teacher training at the University of the Ryukyus to identify the variables influencing their use of English in class. In the semi-structured interviews, the participating teachers were prompted to tell their stories from their university days to the present. Their narratives were evaluated using the Trajectory Equifinality Modeling (TEM)

chart (Sato, 2017; Sato et al., 2006, 2016; Valsiner & Sato, 2006; Yasuda & Sato, 2012; Yasuda et al., 2012). Toya (2020a) discovered that the two interviewed HS teachers were empowered after meeting a mentor teacher who demonstrated a clear model of EMI even in a discouraging situation in Japan. Toya (2020b) compared the other three HS teachers and discovered that (1) their overseas experiences at different points in their trajectories had different effects on achieving the equifinality point (EQ) of EMI, and (2) events such as school transfers, the TEE policy in the CS renewal, and annual MEXT surveys were influential factors in the decision making of the amount of English used in class. In Toya (2021), the trajectories of one HS and two JH teachers revealed a common variable of the Okinawan environment that has historically been influenced by the U.S. It has also been argued that all participants could carry out TEE with zeal because they all had a clear vision of what they wanted to achieve by using more English in class, as well as means to make that vision a reality.

TEM charts analyses allow the researchers to determine the effectiveness of each event in the interviewees' stories. The TEM in the trajectory equifinality approach (TEA) maps out the path to the desired present status or equifinality points (EP) just like the top of the hill by drawing an arrow that indicates an irreversible time. There are numerous routes available if one wishes to climb the hill from the bottom. It can take a long or a short time, and the number of stops varies depending on the climbers. Such stops or events are known as bifurcation points, and they occur where an alternate route could have been taken. The event(s) critical to achieving the goal (EP) are referred to as obligatory passage point (OPP). An OPP is thought to be the most important point that determines the path to the EP. In the TEM chart, there also are upward and downward arrows that affect the path to EP positively or negatively. They are known as social guidance (SD) and social direction (SG) respectively.

Purpose of the study and research questions

The purpose of this paper is to present more focused analyses of the effects of extensive study abroad (SA) experience among Japanese English teachers who use TEA. This is part of a larger project that investigates TEE passages among Japanese English teachers at the elementary and secondary levels (see Toya, 2020c). The overarching question is: What are the reasons for using or not using English as a medium of instruction in Japanese English classrooms? and the specific question in this paper is: If English teachers have SA experience for more than a year, how does the experience lead to more use of English in their language classrooms? Based on the TEM analyses of English teachers in public schools who graduated from our university, we would like to clarify what conditions must be met for an overseas study to lead to TEE.

Methodology

Participants

The study included eight Okinawan English teachers (6 HS, 2 JHS; 4 males, and 4 females). They were part of a larger project that investigated in-service teachers' paths to TEE (see Toya , 2020c). The current participants obtained an English teaching license for JH and/or SH from the University of the Ryukyus, where the author teaches for the license. They have been teaching English in local public schools and all spent more than a year studying abroad in the U.S. Table 1 summarizes the details.

Table 1: Participant Details

Participant	A	B*	C*	D*	E	F	G	H
Enrollment	1998 (junior)	2002	1998	1998	2001	2001	2003	2003
Gender	Female	Female	Female	Female	Male	Male	Male	Male
Years of Teaching	15 years	10 years	15 years	15 years	10 years	10 years	9 years	9 years
School	High S.	High S.	High S.	High S.	High S.	High S.	Junior H.	Junior H.
S.A. length	2 years	2 years	1 year	1 year	1 year	1 year	1 year	1 year
S.A. timing	Graduation →company →non-tenured	Graduation →company	4th year after teaching practicum	4th year after teaching practicum	3rd year before teaching practicum	3rd year before teaching practicum	Graduation →M.A. 2nd year	Graduation →M.A. 2nd year
S.A. program	M.A. in TESOL, assessment (U.S.A.)	M.A. in TESOL (U.S.A.)	Univ. Exchange (U.S.A.)	Univ. Exchange (U.S.A.)	Univ. program, private (U.S.A.)	Univ. program, private (U.S.A.)	Non-degree SLA (U.S.A.)	Non-degree linguistics (U.S.A.)

Notes: Participant B was the same teacher as Participant A in Toya (2020a). Participant B was Participant A, and Participant C was Participant B in Toya (2020b).

Data collection and analyses

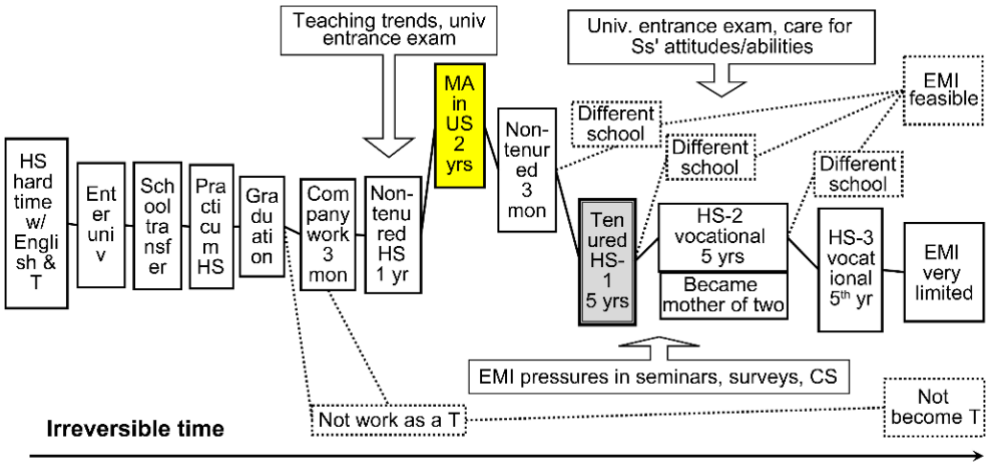
The teachers were interviewed individually with prepared questions. The interviews were conducted one-on-one, face-to-face with the researcher, and lasted between 50 to 90 minutes. Before the interview, each participant was informed about the study and signed the consent form. The discussions were recorded and transcribed, and their TEM charts were mapped. The OPP was calculated for each individual chart. The overlap between the main SA experience and OPPs will be regarded as the significance of such experience in achieving EMI. The following section summarizes the interview results as each participant's stories with some TEM charts.

Results

Participant A's story

Participant A attended a university outside of Okinawa before transferring to our university to obtain an English teaching license. With little work experience, she accepted a one-year non-tenured teaching position. She passed the teaching exam while also receiving a two-year scholarship to study in the U.S. She studied TESOL with an emphasis on assessment. She earned an M.A. and hoped to pursue a Ph.D., but she had to return to Okinawa and work as a teacher. She had high hopes for TEE, but her first school as a tenured student was academically demanding. It made her consider giving up her teaching career, but she persevered thanks to numerous peer supports. She eventually adjusted herself and began to

enjoy students. Since then, she has preferred to be transferred to difficult schools. She recalls how important it was for her to use English in class. Her M.A. experience, as well as the CS-based seminars and surveys, sparked the idea. Nonetheless, her first tenured school had such an impact that her M.A. knowledge and skills went unused and never seemed to be fully recovered. Figure 1 depicts her TEM chart. As shown here, the gray-highlighted OPP occurred after the yellow-highlighted SA experience. They do not overlap, and the OPP only resulted in very limited use of English in EFP class.



Notes: univ = university, ESL = English as a second language, mo = month, HS = high school, T = teaching / teacher, yr = year, yrs = years, US = United States, EMI = English as medium of instruction, MA = Master of Arts, w = week(s), CS = course of study

Figure 1: TEM chart for Participant A.

Participant B's story

Participant B lost confidence in TEE during the teaching practicum during her fourth year in our teaching licensing curriculum. Her mentor scolded her harshly and felt inept as a result of this experience. Therefore, after graduation, she enrolled in a short-term language learning program outside of Japan to improve her English. At the time, she was about to give up teaching and work in a company, but she decided to study TESOL in an M.A. program in the US. As her school focused more on sociolinguistics, she learned about and was fascinated by the concept of autonomous learners. She was resolute to become a teacher when she returned to Okinawa with a Master's degree. She began teaching as a non-tenured instructor, hoping to implement the theories and practices she learned in the US. However, the schools she was assigned to at the time were all academically demanding, which discouraged her greatly. During her first year of tenured teaching, her mentor became a living example of EMI implementation in Japanese high school settings (see also Toya, 2020a).

Participant C's story

Before enrolling in university, Participant C spent one year in Massachusetts as an HS student. During her university years, she also spent a year in Hawaii on our exchange program as a junior. She studied second language studies as a major. She was obsessed with perfecting her pronunciation, and she remembered absorbing more during her first SA experience than during her studies in Hawaii. Our teaching licensing curriculum during her tenure required students to write lesson plans in English and strongly promoted EMI. Thus, she spent a significant amount of time preparing visual materials for TEE during her teaching practicum. However, she stopped using much English in class when she was hired as a

tenured teacher due to the limited time for preparation. Because she has a more structure-oriented learning style, she prefers grammar instruction using Japanese (i.e., L1) to EMI. The OPP was chosen as her third school during her tenure, and the teacher's teamwork was supportive of EMI. The students were also capable of accepting EMI. Around the same time, she participated in several in-service training programs, including a 6-month TESL program in Australia and a three-day British Council workshop, which increased her motivation to use English in class. Then the final push of the active learning seminar took place in her 4th school, which is considered the second OPP. Like other interviewees. The CS and MEXT survey worked as social guidance. (For her TEM chart, please refer to Participant A in Toya, 2020b).

Participant D's story

Participants C and D enrolled in university the same year and completed the teaching licensing curriculum concurrently. Participant D received the same instructions in the university's teaching licensing curriculum as Participant C. As instructed by the methodology course instructions, she tried to speak as much English as she could during her teaching practicum. However, she was too nervous to carry out EMI successfully. Like Participant C, Participant D studied abroad for a year as part of an exchange program after the practicum. She realized while studying in the U.S. that Japanese people were too modest and self-conscious to speak up and persist in their intentions during conversations with native English speakers. This experience made her realize the importance of being more assertive and confident when speaking in English, which served as the foundation for EMI later on. This is considered the first OPP and overlaps with a SA experience.

Nonetheless, she struggled for years to implement TEE because her EMI strategies lacked concrete examples. Because her first three schools, as well as the school where she worked as a non-tenured teacher, were academically difficult, she mostly inserted Japanese translations after her English utterances to ensure that her students understood. Coincidentally, Participant C happened to be her colleague at her 4th school as a tenure. As a result of her former university friend and students' high proficiency, she became more active. The British Council Workshop, which Participant C also attended, provided Participant D with practical ideas for English-only classrooms, prompting her to pursue TEE. However, her private situations such as maternity and family responsibilities made it difficult to thrive more, and her TEE was less in the 5th school. (For her TEM chart, please refer to Participant B in Toya, 2020b).

Participant E's story

Before entering the university, Participant E participated in a one-month exchange program in the US twice: once in Oregon in his 9th grade and again in Massachusetts in the 11th grade. He enrolled in and completed teaching licensing courses in the hopes of becoming an English teacher. He studied in the U.S. during his junior year and completed his HS teaching practicum after returning from SA. The experience enabled him to use a lot of English during his practicum. He had high hopes of continuing EMI as an HS teacher after graduation, but he was discouraged by students' low proficiency and motivation and stopped using English while working as a non-tenured employee. As a tenured teacher at a more proficient high school, he regained motivation to experiment more with the use of English in class. Still, it wasn't until the 3rd tenured school that he felt at ease and confident about EMI. He gained ICT skills and knowledge in the 2nd year and developed the idea for EMI implementation. Specifically, he was chosen as an off-the-job trainee for school ICT use for 6 months, and he

was able to establish effective use of the iPad to minimize the use of Japanese in his teaching. This event should have been the OPP in his trajectory; thus, his SA experience did not serve as an OPP.

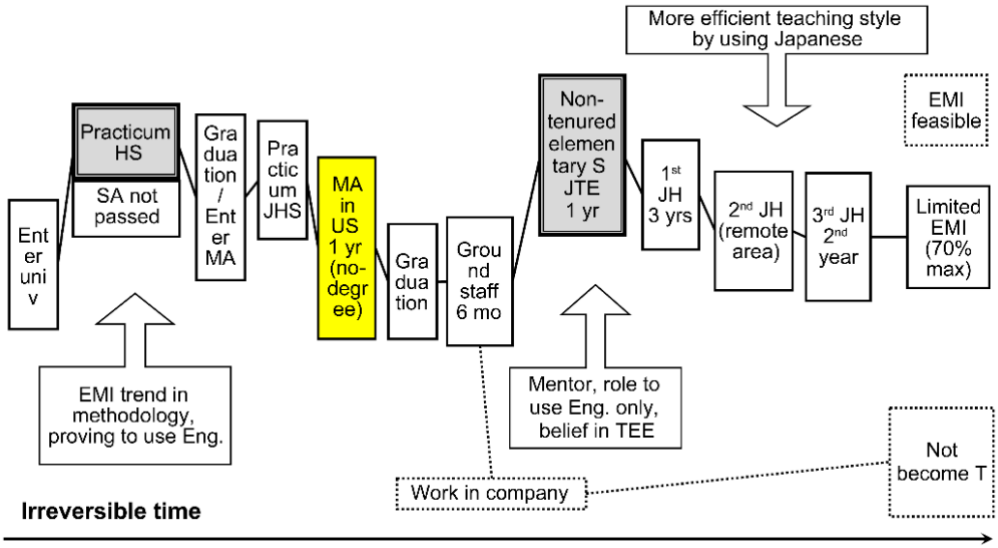
Participant F's story

Participant F was a university coursemate of Participant E. He spent ten months in a university ESL program in California before extending his stay for another two months to learn TESOL. In his JH teaching practicum following his SA experience, he attempted to provide English activities using the target grammar, though he did not intend to teach exclusively in English. Because the schools where he worked after graduation did not encourage TEE, he mostly taught in a traditional manner using the grammar-translation method and/or mimicking what other teachers did. After passing the teaching exam, he was on the waiting list and worked as a non-tenured teacher for 2 years. He taught English in English using the communicative approach in his first year as a tenured professor, as part of his in-service training project. He discovered that his students enjoyed his class and were willing to use English extensively. This means he has reached the OPP, which is the point at which EMI is possible.

However, he withdrew himself from using much English in class or taking a communicative approach after his project was completed. He preferred not to draw attention to himself and was aware that the school system should function as a unit. Based on his learning experience in Japanese classrooms up to HS, he felt that much of what he learned in TESOL in the US did not apply to the situations in Japan. His action research focused on 10^{th} graders, and he did not believe he should apply the same strategy to 11^{th} and 12^{th} graders. With the students who were aiming to pass the university entrance examination, he could not see how EMI could benefit and motivate his students. Therefore, his SA experience served as a resource to try TEE at one time but had no long-lasting-term positive impact.

Participant G's story

An interview with Participant G revealed that he was heavily influenced by the university's teaching methodology course, in which the instructor advised using as much as possible English in class. As a result, he conducted almost all of his teaching practicum in English. He pursued TEE because, around the same time, he failed the interview for the SA university exchange program, which motivated him to prove himself by using English as much as possible. He then enrolled in our university's M.A. program in English Education and was chosen to study in Hawaii as an exchange student for a year, majoring in second language studies. This suggests that his SA experience was a dream come true, but, again, it was not the OPP for achieving TEE.



Notes: univ = university, ESL = English as a second language, mo = month, HS = high school, T = teaching / teacher, yr = year, yrs = years, US = United States, EMI = English as medium of instruction, MA = Master of Arts, w = week(s), CS = course of study

Figure 2: TEM chart for Participant G.

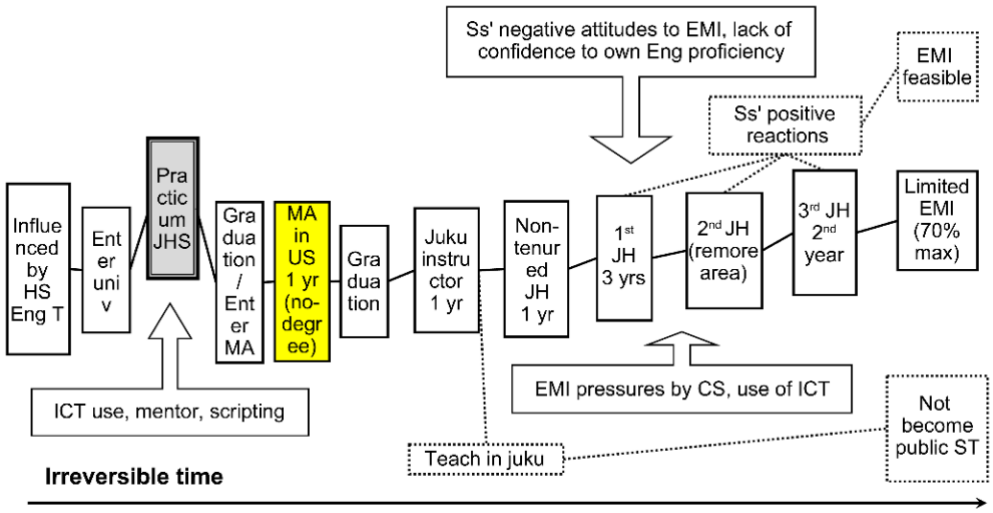
The analyses revealed two OPPs in his TEM (see Figure 2). The first was his teaching practicum in the undergraduate program, where he was convinced of the effectiveness of EMI and implemented it despite some students' negative comments. The second was during his year as a Japanese English Teacher (JTE) at an elementary school. His role as JTE was to collaborate with the Japanese classroom teacher and teach exclusively in English. At first, he struggled a lot but the school had a very skilled teacher who demonstrated how to teach children effectively without using Japanese. He learned a lot from his mentor and then became a tenured JH teacher by passing the teaching exam.

Participant H's story

Participant H became interested in becoming a teacher in his JH days. He met a good English teacher in HS, which prompted him to apply to our program. While taking the teaching methodology course alongside Participant G, he was convinced that TEE was necessary for Japanese classrooms. He used as much English as possible during his teaching practicum at a local JHS, by writing out what he would say as an English teacher, memorizing the script, and acting it out. This practicum served as the OPP that had the greatest impact on him, ultimately leading to EMI. His practicum mentor was able to teach almost entirely in English using original PowerPoint slides. Participant H was taken aback by his mentor's teaching because PowerPoints were still new in JHS classrooms. The impact was so strong that, when he became a tenured teacher, he purchased all of the necessary devices to mimic his mentor's teaching style with ICT. Since then, he has continued to use PowerPoint slides that he created based on the coursebook contents. As a result, we decided to end his teaching practicum as the OPP (see Figure 3).

Under pressure from the CS, which stated that English lessons should be taught primarily in English, he recognized that TEE was the right direction to take; however, he sounded less enthusiastic about actual implementation. He admitted that, despite using ICT, he never felt his English was fluent enough to conduct EMI smoothly, even after his one-year SA in Michigan. He also struggled to keep up when low-proficiency students in class became disoriented because he spoke so much English and ended up using more Japanese. It was

surprising that Participant H was still not unsure about TEE. It should also be noted that he majored in linguistics rather than TESOL, during his SA experience, which may have had a less positive impact on TEE.



Notes: univ = university, ESL = English as a second language, mo = month, HS = high school, T = teaching / teacher, yr = year, yrs = years, US = United States, EMI = English as medium of instruction, MA = Master of Arts, w = week(s), CS = course of study

Figure 3: TEM chart for Participant H.

Discussion and conclusion

Given the stories of the 8 participants, it was discovered that the SA experience generally does not serve as OPPs except for Participant D. It should be mentioned that their SA experience all happened before the actual teaching. Six went to the U.S. when they were in the university, 4 undergraduates and two during their Japanese M.A. programs, all deciding to SA to become teachers. It was also obvious that the other two, i.e., Participants A and B, also studied abroad for a Master's degree with the assumption that the experience and expertise would improve their English and teaching skills immediately after they began their teaching careers.

Although the SA experience surely impacted them positively on their use of English in class; however, further push for visualization of TEE possibility or feasibility was required for the actual EMI implementation. For example, Participant B's OPP was when she found a mentor to serve as a TEE role model. TEE role model teachers were also assigned to participants F and G. Participant B gained practical TEE tools during the in-service workshops and she supported Participant D's direction toward implementation as a peer. Participants E and G could conduct TEE because they discovered an effective use of ICT.

TEE is deemed essential in developing students' proficiency in class and language teachers' SA experience is commonly thought to be desirable. However, the current analyses using TEM mapping indicated that the effect of such experience requires careful examination in the course of professional development. Due to our analyses, pre-service teachers' SA experience may have more chance of resulting in TEE if (1) the study discipline focuses on ESL/TESOL with theories and practical skill training, (2) the experience creates strong beliefs about the positive long-term vision for their student's future, and (3) develops the communicative competence to build confidence in the target language.

For (1), Participant B gained knowledge about autonomy in second language acquisition (SLA), which later became fueled when she met a TEE mentor. However, Participant A's overseas study focused on assessment and she could not recover the concept of EMI in the end. Participant H's TEE resources did not emerge in his SA experience and his major during SA was linguistics. (2) is supplemented by cases of Participants A and F. Even with the positive experience during the SA, they decided not to pursue EMI at the time of the interviews. If they could overlap their students' needs with their positive experience as language learners, they would not have discontinued TEE. The author has seen our pre-service teachers become very fluent and capable of functioning in English; however, there was one participant, Participant H, who struggled when attempting to conduct TEE. When the similar trajectories of Participants H and G were compared, it appeared that Participant G was more competent in English communication even before the SA, and thus seemed more confident using more English in class. The two also differ because, unlike Participant G, Participant H majored in linguistics, which most likely did not provide TEE training during the SA.

The difficulty arises when the teachers are confronted with students' proficiency, motivation, and a short-term goal of passing an entrance examination, as well as peer pressure to continue using the same methodology in the same school. The effects of pre-service SA experience on TEE are found to be rather limited; however, with the appropriate nature of such SA and the events that occur after they become teachers, their chances of reaching TEE could potentially increase.

Acknowledgement

The author would like to thank Enago (www.enago.jp) for the English language review.

This project is supported by Grants in Aid for Scientific Research from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science under project No. 18K00744.

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Coaching and Mentoring Teachers to Accommodate Students With Learning Disabilities in Elementary Inclusive Classrooms

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Research objectives were to investigate 1) teachers' knowledge of coaching and mentoring methods and selecting appropriate teaching accommodation of both Thai language and mathematics in inclusive classrooms and 2) teachers' performance competence, after receiving training, to select and utilize appropriate accommodations and/or modifications for individualized student's lesson plan. The subjects were 10 Thai language and nine mathematics teachers from six selected schools. The research instruments included 1) a questionnaire, 2) two teacher's classroom teaching behavior observation forms, and 3) a focus group. The Data were collected and analyzed using frequency, percentage, and the interpretative analysis. The research findings showed that the knowledge of coaching and mentoring methods and selecting appropriate teaching accommodations of both groups of teachers were rated at moderate level (or 66.7% and 65%), respectively. After they had received learning disabilities intensive training on coaching and mentoring, all participating teachers reported being able to identify different learning characteristics of individual students and employed a variety of appropriate teaching accommodations/modifications, i.e., teaching tools; students' reading materials; assignments; adaptive exercises; and learning activities' kit to meet the needs of students with learning disabilities.

Keywords: Learning Disabilities, Coaching and Mentoring, Accommodations

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Introduction

Learning disability (LD) has been one of the major global education concerns for some time now because of the continually increasing number of students with LD who are integrated into regular classrooms. Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental disorders (APA, 2013) estimates that the prevalence of all learning disorders to be about 5-15% worldwide. In the United States, among the students who received special education services under IDEA during school year 2020–21, the category of disabilities with the largest reported percentage of students was "specific learning disabilities" (National Center for Education Statistics, 2022). In Thailand, the prevalence of learning disabilities among K-12 students is somewhat unclear. In 2009, there was a survey on screening elementary students in 9,828 schools around the country using KUS-SI screening tool that was developed corroboratively by Thai educators, psychiatrists, and other experts. The results of the survey showed that students with potential LD, without diagnosis, was about 15.6% (Sirirutraykha, 2023). In fact, the number of students with LD in elementary classrooms has statistically been reported to be the highest of the nine classifications of disabilities under the two key legislations, i.e., Thailand's National Education Act (B.E. 1999) (or NEA 1999) and The Persons with Disabilities Education Act (B.E. 2551) (or PDEA (2008). Special Education Bureau, The ministry of Education has for many years been challenging schools to accommodate students with LD in their regular classrooms.

Specific learning disorder, which is clinically and legally recognized as learning disabilities (LD) in Thailand, is a biologically based neurodevelopmental disorder that affects a person's ability to take in, process, and/or communicate information (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Students with learning disabilities encounter a variety of academic difficulties including basic skills in reading, writing, and mathematics. LD may co-occur with other disorders of attention; language; behavior; and other associated deficit disorders, including memory, cognitive, or/and metacognition deficit, perceptual differences, motor skills, and coordination problems (Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 2006); and executive functioning deficit (the ability to plan, organize, strategize, remember details, and manage time and space efficiently (Rosenzweig, Krawec, & Montague, 2011). In Thailand, most students who struggle with reading, writing, and calculation learn under the observation of a classroom teacher and receive a screening test by trained teachers. Students who are identified as potential students with LD are then referred to a physician for clinical diagnosis. (Tongsookdee, et al, 2018). In order to serve the needs of these students with LD properly and appropriately, a variety of changes of teachers' roles in classroom teaching are needed to affect students' learning.

In the past 20 years, there have been numerous results of research studies indicating that students with LD need a variety of help to succeed in their academic studies, especially, help from regular classroom and special education teachers. The academic success of these students requires that each of them be helped to attain individual's achievement through specific, directed, individualized, and intensive remedial instructions using various accommodations, including changes in presentation of the lesson, instructional strategies, student response format and procedures, time/scheduling, environment, equipment, and/or assignment structure – paper/pencil work and modification strategies, e.g., instructional level, content/curriculum, performance criteria, and/or assignment structure – paper/pencil work (Hawpe, 2013; Gonzalez-Ledo, 2012; Elbaum, 2007; Mummaw, 2010; Anderson, Yilmaz, and Washburn-Moses, 2004; Terrill, Scruggs, and Mastropieri, 2004; Pyle, 2016) by **experienced teachers** (Storm, 2003; PEAK Parent Center, 2006). It is, therefore, important

to note that in order to better serve the needs of students with LD to become more successful in their learning and future lives, classroom teachers play a significant role to that success.

In general, most Thai elementary school teachers spend approximately 8-9 hours a day in schools, with at least 12 hours spend teaching and at least 8 hours spend performing other school responsibilities each week (Office of the Teacher Civil Service and Educational Personnel Commission, 2021). Therefore, it is very important that these teachers receive proper training on how to identify and accommodate students with LD in their respective classrooms. Majority of teachers who have students with LD in their classrooms do not have a special education degree, but they might have received specific training on screening or writing individualized educational plans from any of the Provincial Special Education Centers or other agencies. At the same time, they do expect to frequently get academic support from education supervisors under Provincial Primary Educational Service Area, who most of the time, might not be readily available due to their very heavy load of supervisory responsibilities covering schools spread across a large area. Consequently, many teachers miss the opportunity of receiving supervision during classroom teaching, and whenever they receive classroom supervision, the duration is only for a very short time, and the discussion and/or feedback provided is most frequently focused on matters not related to effective teaching strategies and methods that would help students with learning disabilities or any other disabilities become successful in their academic studies and other daily life matters (Tongsookdee, at al, 2018; Tongsookdee & Vittayakorn, 2016; Sainark, Tongsookdee, Vittayakorn, & Leosiripong, 2022).

In their previous research study, which was supported by a grant from the National Research Council of Thailand, entitled Teaching Accommodations and Modifications for Students with Learning Disabilities in Elementary Inclusive Classrooms, Tongsookdee & Vittayakorn (2016) found that all participants (n=32) had not earned a special education degree and as such, they lacked the knowledge and skills to accommodate and support students with LD. Furthermore, the participants in that study did specifically request for more training on developing effective teaching strategies and methods to help them to appropriately accommodate students with LD in their Thai language and mathematics classrooms, respectively. In addition, the request of coaching and mentoring from experts on the fields was the top training choice of the teachers participating in that study.

According to MacLennan (2017), Jones (2014), & Parsloe (2009), coaching is a teaching process that enables learning and development to occur and thus performance to improve. It can consist of peer-to-peer discussions that provide the person being coached with objective feedback on their strengths and weaknesses in areas chosen by them. A coach requires knowledge and understanding of process as well as the variety of styles, skills, and techniques that are appropriate to the context in which the coaching takes place. On the other hand, according to Jones (2014), mentoring is a supportive, long-term relationships between an experienced mentor and their less experiences mentee. The idea is that more senior mentor passes on knowledge and guidance as the mentee finds their feet in new role. More importantly, coaching and mentoring is very efficient and effective research-based process (Kirk-Martinez, 2011; Davis, 2011; Roper, 2014; Lee, 2000; Matheson, 1997) and, therefore, it is suitable to use as process to help teachers to be more confident to teach students with LD through accommodations and modifications.

Research Objectives

The objectives of this research study were to examine 1) teachers' knowledge of coaching and mentoring methods and selecting appropriate teaching accommodations of both Thai language and mathematics in inclusive classrooms and 2) teachers' performance ability, after receiving training, to select and utilize appropriate accommodations and/or modifications for individualized lesson plan for students with learning disabilities.

Research Methodology

The researchers contacted selected seven school directors, teachers, and parents who volunteered to be part of the research study. Within these schools, 51 students selected for the study were identified using the official screening test, but they were still on the long waiting list to be diagnosed by psychologists/doctors at their local hospitals. Three additional screening tests were also used to further identify their disability status before being included in the study. They included the Test of Nonverbal Intelligence, third edition (TONI-3); the DTVP-2; and the Dynamic Occupational Therapy Cognitive Assessment for Children (DOTCA-ch). There were 10 students with potential LD in reading and writing and 10 students with potential LD in mathematics. Students with potential LD (n=20) in reading, writing, and mathematics were matched with the appropriate classroom teachers (n=20).

After that, the researchers developed a three-day training curriculum on teaching students with LD, coaching, and mentoring to help teachers succeed in their teaching practice. Twenty teachers received a three-day training on teaching students with LD, writing teaching plans using accommodation and modification strategies, and received coaching and mentoring services. After training, the participating teachers were given a post-test on teaching students with LD and asked to edit existing teaching plans with appropriate accommodation and/or modification strategies for targeted individual students with LD. The teaching plans were evaluated by experts using coaching and mentoring processes. Seven Thai and seven mathematics teachers' teaching behavior was observed twice using the coaching and mentoring processes (three teachers and three students were excluded from the study because they had already relocated to other schools before the completion the study).

The research instruments included 1) an open-ended questionnaire for knowledge and skills, including coaching and mentoring, screening, teaching methods/techniques, and accommodations and modifications, 2) evaluation forms for teaching Thai language and mathematics plans, 3) both Thai language and mathematics teacher's classroom teaching behavior observation form and video recorder, and 4) focus group. The data were analyzed using frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, and the interpretative analysis.

Results of the Study

The research findings showed that the knowledge of coaching and mentoring methods and selecting appropriate teaching accommodations and modifications of both groups of Thai teachers and mathematics teachers were rated at moderate level (or 66.67% and 65 %), respectively as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Teachers' Knowledge of Coaching and Mentoring Methods and Selecting Appropriate Teaching Accommodations and Modifications (n=20)

Knowledge	**Frequency/Percentage**			**Means**	**S.D.**	**Ability**
	1*	**2***	**3***			
1. Accommodations & Modifications in Teaching and Learning	7 (35%)	6 (30%)	7 (35%)	1.95 (65%)	0.858	Moderate
2. Coaching and Mentoring	5 (25%)	11 (55.5%)	4 (20%)	2 (66.7%)	0.686	Moderate
Total	12 (30%)	17 (17%)	11 (27.5%)	1.98 (66%)	0.768	Moderate

3* = directed, covered, corrected answer with clear examples;
2* = Somewhat directed, covered, corrected answer with some clear examples;
1*= unclear answer

After they had received learning disabilities intensive training on coaching and mentoring methods and selecting appropriate teaching accommodations and modifications for students with learning disabilities, all participating teachers reported being able to identify different learning characteristics of targeted individual students with learning disabilities. Both these Thai language and mathematics teachers were also able to employ a variety of appropriate teaching accommodation and modification strategies, i.e., teaching tools, students' reading materials; assignments; adaptive exercises; and learning activities' kit to meet the needs of every individual student with learning disabilities in their respective classrooms. The data depicted on Table 2 and Table 3 were from two classroom observations conducted by two researchers on each occasion, while Table 4 depicts transcribed information from the video recorder.

Table 2. Teaching Behavior of Thai Language Teachers (n=7)

Thai Teachers' Teaching Behavior	**N / %** Showed	**N / %** Not showed
1. Reviewed the main points before starting the new lesson	6 (85.7%)	1 (85.7%)
2. Explained new concepts slowly and clearly	5 (71.4%)	2 (28.6%)
3. When students seemed to be confused, teachers repeated their explanation with short and more precise sentences	4 (57.2%)	3 (42.8%)
4. Waited longer for the students' answers	7 (100%)	-
5. Used various accommodations including pictures, objects, movements, flexible reading materials, exercises, quizzes, and positive reinforcement to enhance students' understanding	4 (57.2%)	3 (42.8%)
6. Reminded students to pay attention when emphasizing important main points	5 (71.4%)	2 (28.6%)
7. Asked more questions to prompt students to develop their own strategies for learning	4 (57.2%)	3 (42.8%)
8. Asked students to rehearse what the teachers assigned them to do	5 (71.4%)	2 (28.6%)
9. Organized the buddy system in the classrooms	5 (71.4%)	2 (28.6%)
10. Provided gentle nonverbal prompting to regain students' attention	7 (100%)	-
11. Verbally reminded students when moving from one activity to another	5 (71.4%)	2 (28.6%)
12. Listed the main points for each lesson, and quizzed or questioned students at the end of the session	4 (57.2%)	3 (42.8%)

As is shown on Table 2, more than 70% of Thai language teachers were able to exhibit 8 out of the 12 appropriate teaching behaviors that encompass accommodation strategies for students with learning disabilities. Among the eight strategies, they include: waiting longer for the students' answers (100%), providing gentle nonverbal prompting to regain students' attention (100%), reviewing the main points before starting the new lesson (85.7%), explaining new concepts slowly and clearly (71.4%), reminding students to pay attention when emphasizing important main points (71.4%), asking more questions to prompt students to develop their own strategies for learning (71.4%), organizing the buddy system in the classrooms (71.4%), and verbally reminding students when moving from one activity to another (71.4%). However, only 57.2% of them used various accommodations.

Table 3. Teaching Behavior of Mathematics Teachers (n=7)

Mathematics Teachers' Teaching Behavior	**N / %** Showed	**N / %** Not showed
1. Reviewed the main points before starting the new lesson	4 (57.2%)	3 (42.8%)
2. Explained new concepts slowly and clearly	7 (100%)	-
3. When students seemed to be confused, teachers repeated their explanation with short and more precise sentences	7 (100%)	-
4. Waited longer for the students' answers	7 (100%)	-
5. Used various accommodations including pictures, objects, movements, flexible reading materials, exercises, quizzes, and positive reinforcement to enhance students' understanding	6 (85.7%)	1 (14.3%)
6. Reminded students to pay attention when emphasizing important main points	1 (14.3%)	6 (85.7%)
7. Asked more questions to prompt students to develop their own strategies for learning	7 (100%)	-
8. Asked students to rehearse what the teachers assigned them to do	7 (100%)	-
9. Organized the buddy system in the classrooms	3 (42.8%)	4 (57.2%)
10. Provided gentle nonverbal prompting to regain students' attention	5 (71.4%)	2 (28.6%)
11. Verbally reminded students when moving from one activity to another	6 (85.7%)	1 (14.3%)
12. Listed the main points for each lesson, and quizzed or questioned students at the end of the session	5 (71.4%)	2 (28.6%)

The data on Table 3 shows that 100% of the mathematics teachers were able to exhibit 5 out of the 12 appropriate teaching behaviors that encompass accommodation strategies for students with learning disabilities. Of these five strategies, they include: 1) explaining new concepts slowly and clearly, 2) repeating their explanation with short and more precise sentences whenever students seemed to be confused, 3) waiting longer for the students' answers, 4) asking more questions to prompt students to develop their own strategies for learning, and 5) asking students to rehearse what the teachers assigned them to do. In addition, more than 70% of mathematics teachers were able to exhibit 4 out of the 12 aforementioned appropriate teaching behaviors that incorporate accommodation strategies to help student with learning disabilities, including 1) using various accommodations including

pictures, objects, movements, flexible reading materials, exercises, quizzes, and positive reinforcement to enhance students' understanding (85.7%), 2) verbally reminding students when moving from one activity to another (85.7%), 3) providing gentle nonverbal prompting to regain students' attention (71.4%), and 4) listing the main points for each lesson, as well as quizzing or asking students questions at the end of the session (71.4%). However, only 14.3% of the participating teachers did remind students to pay attention when emphasizing important main points.

Table 4. Usage of Accommodation Strategies
by Both Thai Language and Mathematics Teachers (n=18)

Accommodations	**Teachers (n)***	**%**
1. One-on-one teaching with explicit instruction and easy to follow	12	67
2. Buddy system	13	72
3. Adjust exercises (make them shorter or less in numbers, less words, colors)	8	44
4. Various teaching media and materials (word cards with or without pictures, pop-up, video, games, short stories)	12	67
5. More time on task	0	0
6. Clear speech and repetition	10	56
7. Group work and collaboration	9	50
8. Activity participation	14	78
9. Positive verbal reinforcement	9	50
10. Non-verbal prompt (e.g., snacks, free time, stickers)	6	33

(n)* answer all that apply

Table 4 depicts the percentage of both Thai language and mathematics teachers who were able to utilize a variety of effective accommodation strategies in their respective classrooms to help students with learning disabilities. The top three most commonly applied accommodation strategies by more than 65 percent of the teachers in both classrooms were as follows: 1) activity participation (78%), 2) Buddy system (72%), and various teaching media and materials (word cards with or without pictures, pop-up, video, games, short stories) (67%). However, the transcribed information from the video recording did not show evidence of teachers in both Thai language and mathematics classrooms utilizing modification strategies in their teaching practice to meet the needs of students with learning disabilities.

Conclusion and Discussion

As the results of this research study show, coaching, mentoring, and teacher development training program on accommodations of students with LD in both Thai language and mathematics classrooms was rather a success in spite of the fact that none of the participants were able to apply modification strategies in their classroom teaching. Withstanding this short coming of teachers' inability to apply appropriate modification strategies in their respective classroom teaching, it is hugely significant to report that all of the 20 teachers participating in the three-day training program were in attendance from the start to the end. Also, they all tried to apply what they had learned from the training regarding teaching students with LD utilizing appropriate accommodation, with the exception of modification

strategies, in their classroom teaching routines and wrote teaching plans that reflected these accommodations and modifications strategies in order to help students become successful in their academic studies and everyday life.

Furthermore, after the completion of the training, the professional knowledge and skills of the participating teachers improved significantly. For example, both Thai language and mathematics teachers were able to demonstrate an understanding of the teaching and learning theories, teaching techniques and methods, teaching modification strategies, and teaching accommodation strategies at a moderate level. These teachers were also able to apply some of the general accommodation strategies in the teaching and learning procedures as part of their classroom teaching and management routines. For example, they made sure that they waited longer for the students with learning disabilities to respond to their questions, provided gentle nonverbal prompting to regain students' attention, reviewed the main points before starting the new lesson, explained new concepts slowly and clearly, reminded students to pay attention when emphasizing important main points, asked more questions to prompt students with learning disabilities to develop their own strategies for learning, organized the buddy system in the classrooms, verbally reminded students when moving from one activity to another.

Obviously, many of the teaching behaviors that the participating teachers learned at the three-day training were not a novelty to them, but the additional information that they learned about how to identify the vital characteristics of students with LD was critically significant because it helped them realize that by applying simple accommodation strategies such as waiting longer for answers, reminding and explaining clearly and slowly, various prompt, or reinforcement can be powerful teaching tools to facilitate learning success of students with learning disabilities. However, to effectively apply them to targeted students with learning disabilities, teachers would need to have a better understanding of special education principles, practices, and courage for a successful integration into their classroom teaching practice. For example, accommodation of extra time for any tasks, quizzes, or tests given to students with LD. Actually, most teachers relate this act of utilizing appropriate accommodation strategies in classroom teaching to fairness being extended to all students. Therefore, coaching and mentoring on accommodations and special education is extremely critical and helpful to ensure that this act of fairness is extended to all inclusive classrooms.

Moreover, a follow-up discussions during focus group with participating teachers revealed that none of the modifications of the learning content materials, the student assessment/measurement, nor the evaluation strategies called for and agreed upon at the training sessions had yet to be implemented at the time this research was being written. One of the reasons was that these teachers were not confident enough to undertake such responsibilities on their own without the support of experts. When the participating teachers in this study were asked to suggest some viable solutions to some of the pressing problems that they were currently experiencing while teaching students with learning and other disabilities in their respective inclusive classrooms, an overwhelming majority of over 90 percent requested the following: 1) to have permanent special education teachers available in schools for relevant consultation matters about accommodation and modification strategies for students with learning disability in their respective inclusive classrooms, 2) to receive continuous staff development and/or coaching and mentoring services that specifically focus on teaching techniques and methods, as well as teaching materials and medias, and 3) to be relieved of some of the school responsibilities in order to devote more quality time to serve the needs of students with LD and their family.

Acknowledgments

The researchers express their great appreciation to all teachers for their professional commitment to help students with LD. Without their contributions, these students would have unpleasant or unsuccessful learning experience. Special appreciation is also extended to the Educational Research Council of Thailand for their generous financial support that made it possible to undertake this research project.

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Qualitative Study on the Problems of Successor Education in General Graduate Schools in Rural Area of Japan - A Perception Gap Between Parents and Children of Family Business

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The purpose of this paper is to examine the problems of general graduate school education in rural areas of Japan from the aspect of successor training in family business. In addition to working for their family business or other companies, some successors seek postgraduate education for succession training. However, some of them have to enter general graduate schools since there are not an adequate number of business schools in Japanese rural areas, which can offer education on business inheritance in family business, academic degrees, and human connections. To deal with this problem, general graduate schools have begun to put effort into recurrent education for working adults. However, few studies examined curriculums and educational problems/effects of general graduate schools from the point of successor education. Based on this background, we set a research question, "what are the problems of successor education of general graduate schools in Japanese rural areas?" and conducted a qualitative study for clarifying it. Semi-structured interviews were conducted on four pairs of parent-child (parents were managers of small businesses and children were their successors) and a modified grounded theory approach analysis was conducted on the obtained interview data. The result revealed several problems, including "general graduate schools are not aware of the importance of acquiring tacit knowledge by working for other companies," "general graduate schools are not aware of a perception gap, which exists between parents and children regarding understanding/expectations of general graduate school education."

Keywords: Successor Training, Graduate School Education, Postgraduate Education, Family Business, Business Succession

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1. Introduction

Some successors of family business in rural areas enter general graduate schools since there are not sufficient number of business schools, which offer education of business succession in family business, degree programs, opportunity of building human network. (Note that 16 of 32 business schools locate in Tokyo (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2023)). In order to cope with the need of business education of working adults, general graduate schools have begun to put effort in recurrent education. However there are few scientific studies examining curricula, educational problems or some other topics of general graduate schools, in which successors study.

Therefore the purpose of this paper is to examine the problems of general graduate school education in rural areas of Japan from the aspect of successor training in family business.

2. Literature Review

2-1. Successor Education in Family Business

Many researchers agree that business succession is the most important problem most family businesses face, its success is largely depends on successor education, and the current managers are responsible for the education. Moreover, if successors have strong personal power on family business, their business succession tends to be smooth (Handler, 1994).

2-2. Successor Education in Universities/Colleges/Graduate Schools

Lloyd and John (2006) pointed that graduate schools teaching family business members were required to prepare curricula for family business different from ones for non-family business.

2-3. Knowledge Spillover from Universities/Colleges/Graduate Schools

It is expected to clarify the kinds of knowledge universities or colleges produce and the heterogeneity in the various spillover mechanisms which companies employ for acquiring knowledge from universities or colleges (Audretsch, Lehmann & Warning, 2017).

3. Research Question

Based on the research purpose and the previous studies explained above, we set a research question of this study as “what are the problems of successor education in general graduate schools in rural areas of Japan.”

4. Methodology

4-1. Interview Survey Methodology

We conducted 30-60 minutes semi-structured face-to-face and online interviews. Online (Zoom) was added owing to COVID-19. Obtained audio data was transcribed into text data, analyzed with M-GTA (Modified Grounded Theory Approach) and formed into process charts. See Table 1 for an interview survey overview.

Interview	Description
Structure	Semi-structured
Duration	30-60minutes
Method	Face-to-face / Online
Analysis	M-GTA

Table 1: Interview Survey Overview

4-2. Interviewee

Interviewees were eight people, four pairs of current managers and their successors studying at graduate schools at that time. Their characteristics are shown in Table 2.

Code	Age	Gender	Education	Previous Employment	Generation	Business Size	Establishment
AP	50s	F	Vocational School	Small/ medium sized Company	1st	Large	1998
BP	70s	M	University /College	Big Company	1st	Small	2001
CP	50s	M	University /College	Big Company	2nd	Small	1953
DP	50s	M	University /College	Big company	2nd	Medium	1980

Code	Age	Gender	School Year	Graduate School	Siblings	Family Business	Will of Succession
AC	20s	M	Research Student	General	None	Not Entered	Has
BC	40s	M	First1[1)]	Professional[2)]	None	Entered	Has
CC	20s	M	Second[1)]	General[3)]	Elder Brother	Not Entered	Has
DC	20s	M	First[1)]	General	Younger Brother	Not Entered	Has

Table 2: Interviewees Overview

A～B: families, P: current manager, C: successor

1) master course, 2) not MBA, 3) not rural area

5. Results

Current managers recognized arduousness of management, and amount and depth of knowledge required for management from their own experience. Moreover, although they had two wishes for their children (to succeed their family businesses and to live stable lives), they also recognized these two were in the relation of trade-off, and it is hard to achieve both of them.

Therefore for business succession, they strongly felt the necessity of a new business, which required strong knowledge absorption capacity of successors. However working at other

companies might not lead to an enhancement of the capacity, thus they expected postgraduate education to complement or substitute it (Figure 1).

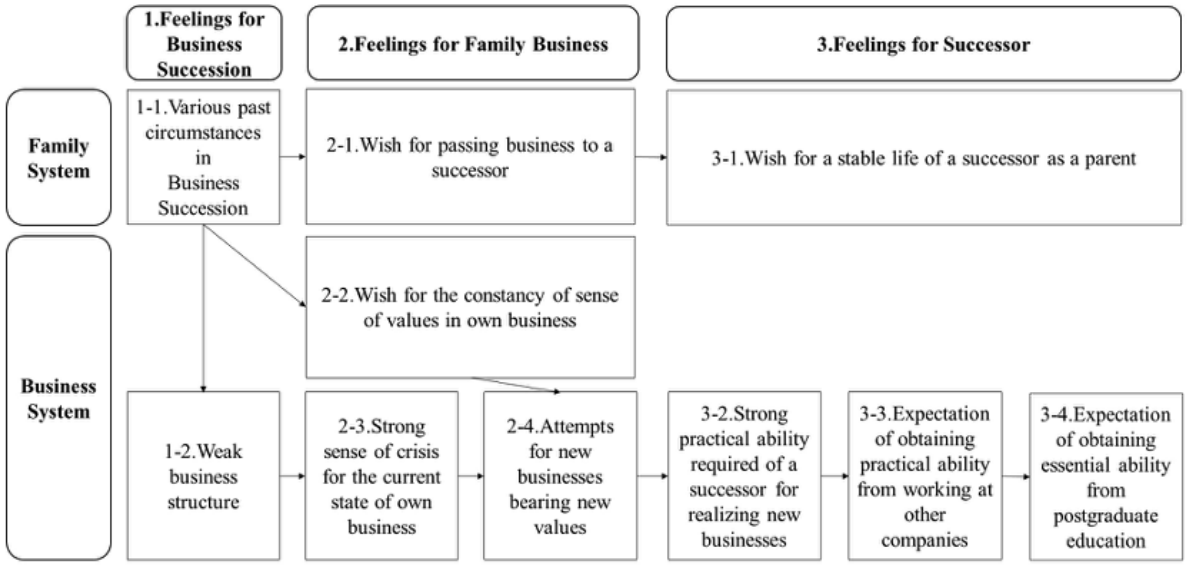


Figure 1: Result of M-GTA (Current Managers)

Although successors felt strong pressure for business succession, they understood the necessity of a new business, and looked for fields where they could acquire necessary tacit knowledge or gain experience. They supposed other companies and graduate schools as appropriate fields, and felt postgraduate education was effective for acquiring explicit knowledge, enhancing knowledge absorption capacity. However, the recognition of effects and necessity of postgraduate education varied among them (Figure 2).

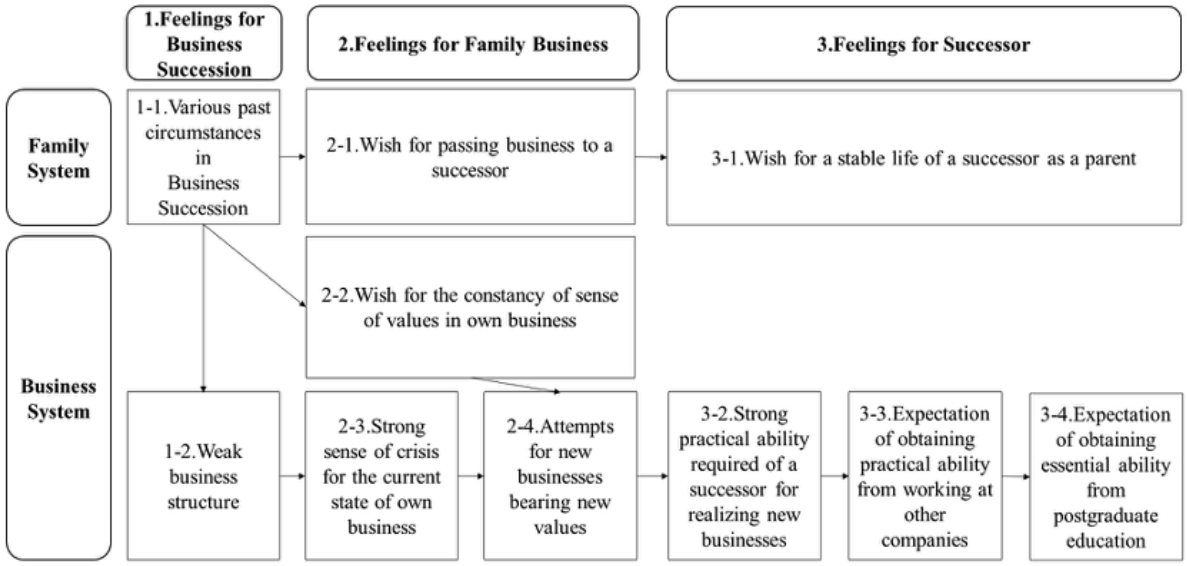


Figure 2: Result of M-GTA (Successors)

6. Conclusion

Japanese postgraduate education offered an opportunity for acquiring explicit knowledge, but not one for tacit knowledge except internship. Although working at other companies for acquiring tacit knowledge was a common expectation (need) of parents and children of family business, its importance was not recognized by graduate schools. In addition to this, there was a gap between current managers and their successors regarding the degrees of understanding and expectation of postgraduate education.

Our answers to the research question of this study, “what are the problems of successor education in general graduate schools in rural areas of Japan” are “general graduate schools are not aware of the importance of acquiring tacit knowledge by working at other companies, and have not taken necessary actions” and “general graduate schools are not aware of a perception gap, which exists between parents and children regarding understanding and expectation of general graduate school education.”

Appendix A. Categories and Concepts Obtained from Interviews of Current Managers

Category		Subcategory		Concept	
1 Feelings for Business Success-ion	Family System	1-1	Various past circumstances in business succession	1	Entering family business through business succession
				2	Starting a business through succession by a non-family member
				3	Entering family business through marriage
				4	Starting a business at hometown
	Business System	1-2	Weak business structure	1	OEM centered business structure
				2	Export centered business
				3	Local community based business
				4	Planning centered business

Category		Subcategory		Concept	
2 Feelings for Family Business	Family System	2-1	Wish for passing business to a successor	1	Strong desire of passing business to a successor
				2	Wish for passing business after overhaul
	Business System	2-2	Wish for the constancy of sense of values in own business	1	Management based on responsibility and ethics
				2	Management based on inherited management philosophy
		2-3	Strong sense of crisis for the current state of own business	1	Current situation foretelling death of own business
				2	Necessity of enhancing attractiveness of own company
				3	Necessity of providing goods selling timely
				4	Low level of family business management
				5	Company not chosen by talented people
		2-4	Attempts for new businesses bearing new values	1	Active attempts for new businesses
				2	Going into other industries
				3	Attempts for development of original brand products
				4	Overhaul of business damaged by COVID-19

Category		Subcategory		Concept	
3 Feelings for a Success-or	Family System	3-1	Wish for a stable life of a successor as a parent	1	Happiness of a successor is more important than work
				2	Consider a way of life and happiness of a successor important
				3	Pleasure of a successor is the best
	Business System	3-2	Strong practical ability required of a successor for realizing new businesses	1	Importance of collecting original information and taking actions
				2	Importance of acquiring basic knowledge and being energetic
		3-3	Expectation of obtaining practical ability from working at other companies	1	Working at other companies effective for business succession
				2	Transfer of knowledge from big companies by working there
		3-4	Expectation of obtaining essential ability from postgraduate education	1	Expectation of enhancing thinking skill at graduate schools
				2	Satisfaction and expectation for postgraduate education

Appendix B. Categories and Concepts Obtained from Interviews of Successors

Category		Subcategory		Concept	
1 Response for Business Succession	Family System	1-1	Strong psychological pressure from business succession	1	Talking with the predecessor about business succession is taboo
				2	Respect for father's ability
				3	A gap in the sense of values between a parent and a child
				4	Business succession is becoming psychological pressure
	Business System	1-2	Recognition of the necessity of a new business	1	No breakthrough during the covid-19 pandemic
				2	Need to build new business core pillars
				3	Need to establish private brands in the future
				4	Recognition of the necessity of addressing business diversification
Category			Subcategory		Concept
2 Overcoming Knowledge Filter	Business System	2-1	Discovery of knowledge/ability he wants to learn	1	Sales techniques or know-how
				2	Basic ability of addressing management or new businesses
				3	Basic knowledge in own business field
				4	Decision making ability based on experience
		2-2	Expectation for a graduate school as a solution	1	A means of winning trust
				2	Self-improvement
				3	Exploiting what he learns for business
				4	Studying own business field
				5	Searching trends of other companies
				6	A feeling of wrongness for obtaining MBA
				7	Securing time for resolving himself for business succession
Category			Subcategory		Concept
3 Enhance Knowledge Absorptive Capacity	Business System	3-1	Expectation for working at other companies	1	Information of other companies in the same business field
				2	Know-how of big companies
				3	Business experience in other companies
		3-2	Effects of postgraduate education	1	Power of observing society
				2	Awareness of the importance of thinking deeply
				3	Perspectives or the way of perceiving things
				4	Practical attempts
				5	Realizing a direction of own business
				6	Mental growth
		3-3	Problems of postgraduate education	1	Individual Difference in the effects of postgraduate education
				2	Individual Difference in the necessity of postgraduate education

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Effects of Involvement Load of the Task on Japanese EFL Learners' Lexical Network Changes

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study investigated the effects of task-induced involvement load (the Involvement Load Hypothesis; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001), *Search* and *Evaluation* in particular, in an extensive reading on a change of lexical network perceived by EFL learners. Fifteen words from a reading material were chosen as target words. Ninety-five Japanese university students were divided into four groups resulting from a multiplication of *Search* (+/-) and *Evaluation* (+/-). *Evaluation* (+) groups were assigned a partial translation task of the passage. *Evaluation* (-) groups were assigned multiple-choice questions about its contents. *Search* (+) groups were allowed to use dictionaries, whereas *Search* (-) groups were not. Participants judged a perceived relation between target words three times, a week before the task, immediately after the task, and three weeks after the task. The results showed that differences of involvement index among the four groups did not affect the perceived relation among target words, though the effect of extensive reading itself (with any accompanying task) was confirmed. Data was also analyzed and visualized by Gephi, a data-visualization platform, to show how participant's lexical network changed through the three tests. As a result, some qualitative features of individual's network change were revealed, which shows the importance of investigating individual differences as well as group data. The present findings raised new research questions; if the task-induced involvement load does not work for the lexical network change of already-known words, and if there are any involvement components other than *Need*, *Search*, and *Evaluation* to be considered.

Keywords: Extensive Reading, Japanese EFL Learner, Lexical Network Change, Task-Induced Involvement Load

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Introduction

There has been much debate about the extent to which extensive reading can contribute to vocabulary acquisition. Krashen (1989), in support of his Input Hypothesis, proposed that extensive reading is sufficient for vocabulary acquisition in the target language, and many studies have been conducted regarding incidental vocabulary learning through extensive reading using a variety of methods. While most of these studies have focused mainly on acquisition of new vocabulary, Horst et al. (1998) argued that extensive reading only plays a limited role in vocabulary acquisition, especially for beginning learners of a second language, but it can increase the knowledge of known vocabulary to build word-to-word networks. Waring & Takaki (2003) stated that editors of graded readers should not be too concerned only with how new vocabulary should be introduced, but should take care to provide a variety of collocation information for previously learned words.

Questions on how we store vocabulary in our mind have also been attracting many researchers in the field of vocabulary acquisition. The conceptual model of the mental lexicon as having a network structure is widely accepted (e.g., Aitchison, 1994). This conceptual model of the mental lexicon is inspired by the fact that our brain is, in fact, composed of a neural network structure, with each lexical item (node) metaphorically mapping a neuron and the links connecting items metaphorically mapping synapses. The increase in vocabulary corresponds to an increase in the number of nodes, and the increase in knowledge of each word corresponds to a creation of new links with other nodes, giving the model a reality of such a phenomenon actually occurring in our brain. In fact, there has been much effort to use such network metaphors for acquiring and retaining semantically related words. However, in many cases, this association is theoretically derived, and there has been little empirical data on how target language users actually associate these words (Wilks & Meara, 2002).

We have been analyzing lexical data from learners using the Asymmetric von Mises Scaling (AMISESCAL; Shojima, 2011, 2012), which enables visualization of network structure, and have accumulated empirical data on how extensive reading deepens and expands the lexical network structure of Japanese learners of English (Aotani et al., 2016, Aotani & Takahashi, 2021). Through the visualization process, we have found that the depth of cognitive processing (processing level) induced by the task assigned to learners with extensive reading is related to the reconstruction of the lexical network structure. The Level of Processing Theory was proposed by Craik & Lockhart (1972), which asserts that the depth of processing of a memorized item influences its retrieval performance. The Involvement Load Hypothesis by Laufer & Hulstijn (2001), which applied the Craik & Lockhart's theory, proposes a measure that predicts the effect of task-induced incidental vocabulary learning due to extensive reading. Although many studies have tested this hypothesis, most have focused primarily on the rate of retention of new words, not the lexical network change of learned words.

In our latest study (Aotani & Takahashi, 2022), we have applied the involvement index proposed by Laufer & Hulstijn (2001), *Need, Search, Evaluation,* to investigate the effects of task-induced involvement load in an extensive reading on a change of the lexical relation that EFL learners perceive. We, however, could not find enough empirical evidence to clarify if different levels of task load result in the difference in the growth of lexical network. Therefore, in the present study, we have made some improvements in the experimental design, increased a number of target words, and employed a data-visualizing tool Gephi, instead of AMISESCAL, to examine participant's lexical network more dynamically.

Methods

Participants

Ninety-five Japanese university students (55 males and 40 females, mean age: 20.0 years old, mean TOEIC score: 377.8) were randomly divided into four groups as shown in Table 1.

Group	*Need*	*Search*	*Evaluation*	Number (M / F)	TOEIC (SD)
MCQ-	+	-	-	23 (16 / 7)	381.7 (67.7)
MCQ+	+	+	-	24 (16 / 8)	381.5 (77.6)
TR-	+	-	+	24 (12 / 12)	369.9 (93.6)
TR+	+	+	+	24 (11 / 13)	378.5 (94.0)

Table 1: Task-induced involvement load and participants in four groups.

Materials

Fifteen target words (*available*, *charge*, *commercial*, *container*, *delivery*, *follow*, *gift*, *include*, *obtain*, *personal*, *send*, *service*, *standard*, *track*, *urgent*) were chosen from a reading material (word types 152, word tokens 306) about the mailing system in India.

Procedure

The experiment consisted of three parts.

Part I: All participants did the lexical relation test (LRT). They were instructed to judge a perceived relation between two target words (105 pairs resulted from a combination of 15 words) on a 4-point scale (0: not related at all, 1: not related strongly, 2: slightly related, 3: strongly related).

Part II: A week later, participants were divided into four groups, that is a multiplication of *Search* (+/-) and *Evaluation* (+/-) of the Involvement Load Hypothesis (see Table 1). MCQ- group was given the reading material and instructed to answer four TOEIC style multiple-choice questions without using dictionaries. MCQ+ group did the same task as MCQ-, but was instructed to use dictionaries actively. TR- group was given the same reading material with partly-translated Japanese, and was instructed to complete the translation without using dictionaries. TR+ group did the same task as TR-, but was instructed to use dictionaries actively. After finishing the assigned task, all participants did the same LRT as in part I.

Part III: Three weeks later, all participants did the same LRT as in parts I and II. Then, they answered ten questions asking about their intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for the task.

Results

Quantitative Analysis

Ratings for the LRT were averaged for each participant and in each test. Figure 1 shows mean LRT score in three tests in each group. Three-way (Test × *Search* × *Evaluation*) ANOVA showed a significant main effect of Test ($F(2,182)=4.447$, $p=.013$, $\eta^2=.047$). Post hoc analysis revealed a significant difference between Test 1 and Test 2. Any interaction

among factors or main effect of *Search* (MCQ-/TR- vs. MCQ+/TR+) and *Evaluation* (MCQ-/MCQ+ vs. TR-/TR+) were not significant.

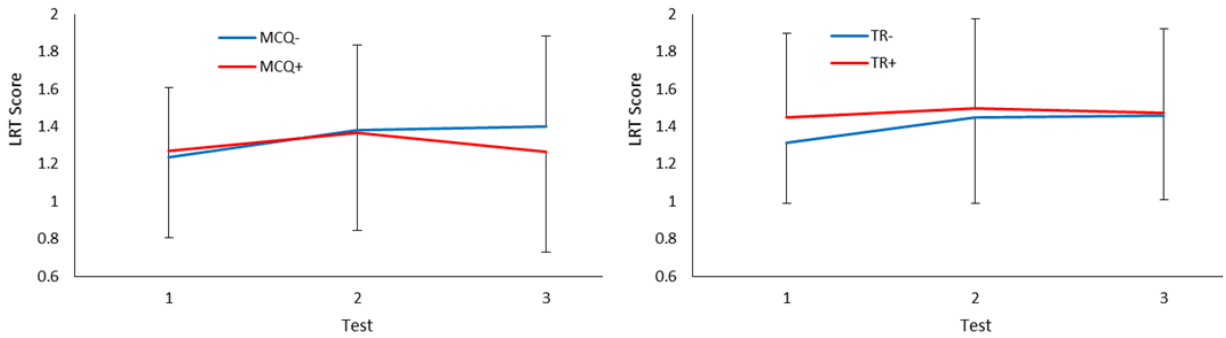
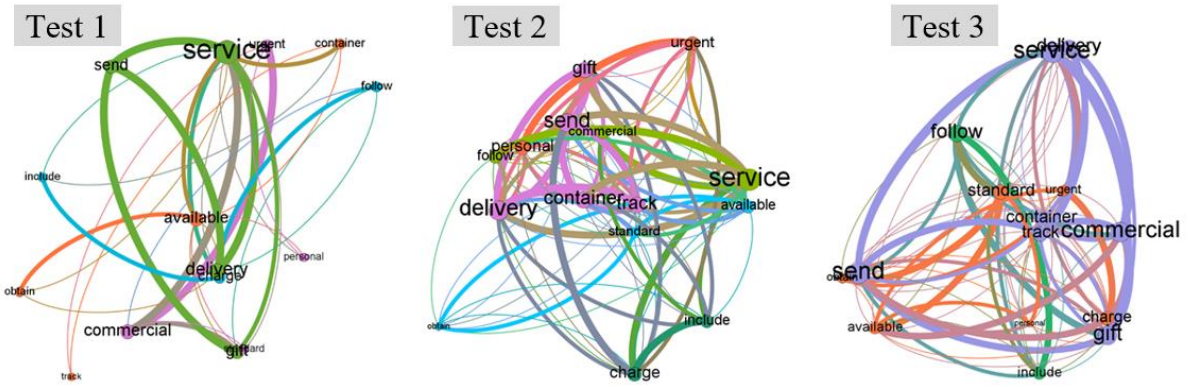


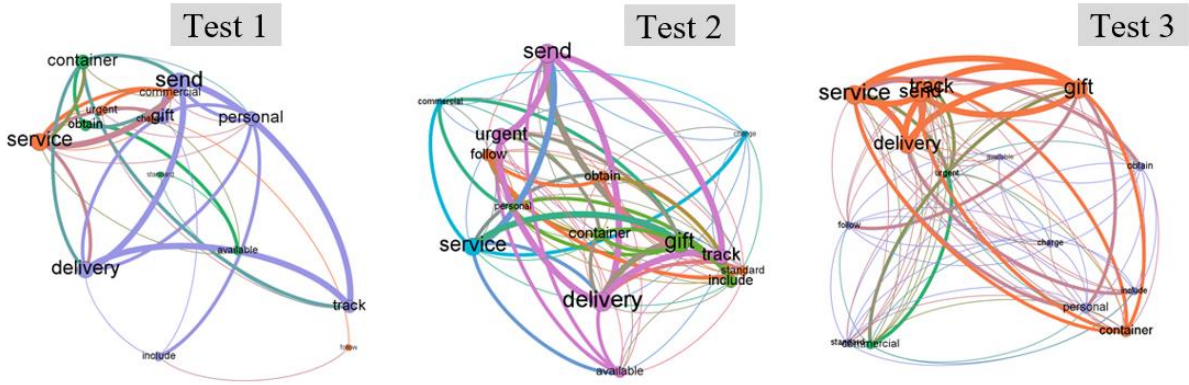
Figure 1: Mean LRT score in three tests in each group.

Qualitative Analysis

The individual LRT score data was analyzed and visualized by Gephi, a data-visualization platform, to show how participant's lexical network among target words changed through three tests. Figure 2 shows two samples.



(a) A female in TR+ group
(TOEIC score 320; LRT score Test 1: 0.51, Test 2: 1.62, Test 3: 1.57)



(b) A female in TR- group
(TOEIC score 445; LRT score Test 1: 0.64, Test 2: 1.29, Test 3: 1.24)

Figure 2: Samples of a visualized lexical network among target words generated by Gephi.

Correlation Analysis

Results of the motivation questionnaire underwent a factor analysis (maximum likelihood method, Promax rotation), which yielded two factors; *positiveness* and *obligation*. Table 2 shows correlation among parameters in all participants. There was no significant correlation between the LRT scores and individual attributes (TOEIC score, *positiveness*, and *obligation*).

		Test 1	Test 2	Test 3	TOEIC	*positiveness*
LRT	Test 1	—				
	Test 2	.599**	—			
	Test 3	.603**	.841**	—		
TOEIC		.038	-.024	-.040	—	
positiveness		.142	.064	-.011	.262*	—
obligation		.075	.033	-.049	.153	.212*

Table 2: Correlation among the LRT scores and individual attributes. ** $p<.01$, *$p<.05$

Discussion

The present study investigated the effects of involvement load of the task on EFL learner's lexical network of already-known words. Especially, a degree of *Search* and *Evaluation* was systematically manipulated by the task requirement according to Laufer & Hulstijn (2001), and a change of participant's understanding of relation among target words was examined through three lexical relation tests (LRTs). Despite such a clear factorial design (see Table 1) and relatively sufficient number of participants, the results did not show any group difference. Considering some of the reasons that lead to these results, the first possibility would be that the effect of extensive reading outweighed that of the tasks. In other words, different tasks in this experiment may not have influenced participant's motivation or a sense of necessity for reading so much, and the effort made by participants toward reading was not very different among groups. In fact, ANOVA revealed a significant difference of LRT score between Test 1 and Test 2 in all groups, demonstrating that participants have deepened their lexical network immediately after the reading regardless of assigned tasks. In order to solve this problem and to make involvement index work more effectively, features of tasks assigned to participants should be more distinguishable from each other.

Other assumed reason for the present results are rather technical problems. As shown in Figure 1, the LTR score in Test 1 is not at equal level among groups; TR+ group is considerably higher than other groups in particular. That means a starting line of four groups was not well-controlled, which can be a critical weakness of the experiment. To improve this, participant's assignment to each group should be done by considering individual LRT score in Test 1. In addition, great individual differences in LRT score, as shown in Figure 1 with error bars indicating SDs, are also problematic for finding the expected effects. In this regard, the method of asking perceived relation of two words (a direct 4-point scale used in this experiment) could be reconsidered.

An analysis of the individual data using Gephi yielded some interesting findings. In a sample shown in Figure 2(a), we can see the words *service*, *send*, *gift*, and *delivery* form a simple network in Test 1. In Test 2, immediately after the task, these key words seem to separate to make unique networks. Finally, in Test 3, these separate networks are reunified into a larger network including new words such as *commercial*, *container*, and *track*. In Figure 2(b),

though chief key words (*service*, *send*, and *delivery*) remain almost unchanged through three tests, the network formed by them becomes more and more complex from Test 1 to Test 3. These figures depict exactly what has occurred in individual's mental lexicon, which could never be revealed when the data was analyzed as a whole. In our future research, we would consider it an important task to investigate a correspondence between visualized network change and individual's subjective impression of the deepening of word linkages.

Conclusion

The results of this study did not support the Involvement Load Hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001), when it was adapted to the deepening of lexical network of already-known words, not the retention of newly-learned words. However, some possible improvements of the experimental procedure were pointed out for further investigation. Moreover, the significance of analyzing and visualizing individual data was presented. It is important to conduct both the quantitative analysis of group data and the qualitative analysis of individual data in the future studies. Finally, new research questions arose from the present findings; (1) if the task-induced involvement load does not work for deepening of the lexical network of already-known words, and (2) if there are any involvement components other than *Need*, *Search*, and *Evaluation* that we have to consider. Further accumulation of data samples and observation for a longer period will be needed to clarify these research questions.

Acknowledgements

This study is supported by Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research (C) (21K00663) from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.

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The Design of a Pedagogical Seminar Course to Prepare Senior High School Students for Science and Technology Project

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Regarding to the issue of building up the STEM workforce to drive Thailand move pass the middle-income trap, STEM school nurturing new generation STEM in high school education level was set. The pedagogy of learning in this school was designed by a backward design including the seminar course. In the first year of Grade 10th, seminar courses are generally provided for students in order to prepare for science and technology's student Project in 11th grade. The learning outcomes are as important as the contents (Academic Comprehension), skills and attitude relevant to the traits and skills of school's curriculum. To clarify, the seminar's learning activity aims to encourage students constructing their knowledge and attitude through the journal reading including discussion and presentation with peers who are interested in the same field. According to the self-evaluation results, most students are able to develop academic contents, skill sets and attitude. The correlation of academic effectiveness of students between the seminar course and science technology projects was at a moderate level (0.52).

Keywords: Seminar Course, Science and Technology Project, Academic Comprehension, Skills

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1. Introduction

STEM education was first introduced in the Unites Stated referring to the integration of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics [1]. The goal of STEM education is to promote students' interest in STEM subjects which could encourage them to continue work in STEM fields. STEM education is now widely implemented in many countries. The goal of STEM education in Thailand is to produce the workforce which aim to help Thailand moves pass the middle-income trap. Project-Based Learning (PBL) is the one tool for supporting STEM education that has proven to be successful encouraging students to learn, apply knowledge and improve their soft skills. Using PBL, students obtain essential skills, such as solving problems, critical thinking, analyzing, and evaluating information, teamwork, and communicating effectively [3].

Project-based learning is a learning process through research activities (Abidin, 2014). In review, Project-Based Learning model that can be used to improve student creativity (Sahtoni et al., 2017). Various studies have shown that scientific-based learning model is very effective in improving students' scientific skills (Fikriyah et al., 2015) and scientific literacy in all students as well as motivate them to pursue careers in science, technology, and engineering [1]. Moreover, Project–Based Learning (PBL) is an approved method that equips learners not only with the 21st century skills (critical-thinking, problem-solving, life–long learning skills, creativity, innovation, collaboration, real-life- setting communication skills), but also has remarkable effectson enhancing learners' English language skills [4].

The subject for preparing students to learn their project is seminar course. The K-12 Engineering Education Programs (KEEP) Seminar Series for high school, College of Engineering, and the Raggio Research Center for Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) Education at the University of Nevada, Reno. From the teacher's point of view, the research seminar class solved various problems that had previously been encountered in working with students conducting investigative projects. The advantages of seminar classes are that students start to know what they are doing and why they are doing it. The multidisciplinary nature of the research seminar course allowed high school students to discover that scientists in different disciplines can work together productively to achieve their goals which are not always reinforced in a traditional classroom situation [8].

2. Review of Related Literature

At The Beacon High School in New York City, all senior science research projects were undertaken and developed through a one-semester course called Senior Science Seminar. The major student outcome for the course is a research paper with an abstract, an introduction, methods, results, and discussion. The condition of the paper was about 10 pages in length. Each student also created a PowerPoint presentation that is relevant to their paper. Students presented their projects to the Science Seminar Class, and to an additional science teacher who was unfamiliar with the students' work during a school-wide project assessment week. In the course, students wrote the literature review early on, teacher comments were made, and students revised this review again to make the final paper [5].

In a children's literature (CL) course in a college of applied sciences in Oman (X-CAS), on students' active engagement in learning. The seminar promotes critical reading and writing skills as participants read a wide range of sources. The course engaged them actively in

critical thinking by raising questions on literary texts, sharing ideas and improving their communication and presentation skills [6]. The seminar in the San Diego, that is unique in the fact that it requires publication by students within the course of the semester. This requirement has meant that so far the options for student research projects have been limited to topics within such a short period of time, such as double star astrometry. The students select a project, write a proposal, collect and analyze data, and write their paper and submit it for publication [7]. The research seminar class is offered to junior and senior students at Cy-Fair High School in Houston, Texas. A multidisciplinary research seminar class offers gifted high school students the opportunity to make a research proposal, conduct an investigation, write a formal research paper, and present results both orally and visually. These highly motivated students are able to do an in-depth study of a topic which interests them while receiving continuous feedback from their classmates and instructors [8].

3. Research Methods

3. 1 Methodology

3.1.1 Participants

The participants of this work were 66 students of the 10th grade in 2022. All students had to attend seminar courses to provide students for preparing them to do science project. All students were required to pass the seminar course before to do Science project.

3.1.2 The seminar course approach

This course aims to train students in a comprehensive presentation of their academic work. Presentation skills, listening skills to capture the essence of academic lectures, learn the science process from academic articles. Reading skills for interpreting academic articles, writing summaries and abstracts. From the learning outcome, the author focused on the essential skills that are categorized into three parts, the first was called comprehension that include reading and academic writing. The second was presentation skills. The last was English comprehension that are reading, writing, listening and communication.

3.1.3 Research Tools

In this research, there were 2 instruments for evaluate this research. First, the soft skills assessments were evaluated by self-assessment by google form. There were three skills to assess which were comprehension, presentation and English proficiency.

Table 1 shows the skills to assess in this research (Journal Comprehension, Presentation skills and English proficiency).

Table 1: The skills to assess in this research

Comprehension	Presentation	English Proficiency
- Interpret the main idea of an academic article - Separate the component of an academic article - Summary of issues in the form of abstracts from reading academic papers.	- Communication skill and exchange and knowledge - Create media to be used in presentation - Academic presentation skills	- Listening - Speaking - Reading - Writing

For comprehension, authors evaluate from the understanding of the article that can show in the reading and writing to abstract form. Communication skills are one essential skill for the 21st century. In this paper, communications skills include media creation to presentation skill, academic presentation skills and answer the questions to audiences. English language proficiency means the full command of language skills, including proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing of the English language.

3.1.4 Learning outcome and activity.

Table 2 shows the activities and the learning outcomes in this research.

Table 2: The activities and the learning outcomes in this research

Activity	Learning Outcome	Activity details
Search for paper	1. To practice literacy skills and English Proficiency.	1. Students choose one subject that they are interested such as Physics, Chemistry, Engineer and Technology etc. 2. Students who are interested in the same subjects are random and work in a group together. 3. Each group searched for the journal publications that they were interested in and read from the database by themselves, and under the adviser's guideline. 4. Then, each group chooses one final paper together in order to comprehend it and advisor guide student about the method to find the journal publication.
Reading and discussion	1. To practice comprehension, academic writing and English Proficiency. 2. To practice collaboration	1. Each group read, comprehended, and discussed the journal article by sharing ideas and brainstorming together. 2. Each group consulted about journal reading comprehension on the topic of correct, reading comprehension with the advisor in order to progress their work. 3. After discussing with the advisor, each group created their abstract in order to assess overall comprehension about the journal paper they read which express to the reading literacy skill. (Genlott, 2013). The abstract was assessed as the reading's literacy outcome. 4. Then, each group created the media for presentation and practiced to present.
Presentation	1. To practice presentation skill.	1. Each group presented a whole journal publication that they read and discuss with peers and the teacher in order that students could construct knowledge from discussing with peers and teacher.

4. Results & Discussion

In this work, the results were divided into two parts. The first assessing from self-assessment to assess Reading Comprehension, English Proficiency and Presentation Skills (Total score = 5) using t-test. The second is comparing the effectiveness of students of Seminar Course (10^{th} grade) and science project (11^{th}grade) by Pearson correlation.

Table 3: The results from self-assessment from Journal Comprehension, Presentation skills, English proficiency and Total scores

Skills	Experiment	n	Mean	SD	t	p
Journal comprehension	before	66	4.13	0.65	-5.389	0.00
	after		4.53	0.49		
Presentation skills	before		4.00	0.67	-3.375	0.01
	after		4.27	0.69		
English Proficient.	before		3.62	0.70	-3.005	0.04
	after		3.90	0.69		
Total 1-3	before		3.89	0.56	-4.573	0.00
	after		4.21	0.53		

Table 3 shows the results from self-assessment of students. It found that the Mean score after seminar course was higher than before course. The significant difference is 0.00, 0.01, 0.04 and 0.00 in journal comprehension, presentation skills, English Proficiency and total respectively. The results shown students improved journal comprehension, presentation skills and English proficiency in seminar course. The mean score of journal comprehension is highest and the mean score of English proficient.

Table 4: The correlation of academic effectiveness of students between the seminar course and science technology projects.

	Seminar	Project
Seminar	1	
Project	0.5217	1

Table 4 shows the correlation of academic effectiveness of students between the seminar course and science technology projects that evaluate from the grade of both courses. The results show the correlation is moderate level (0.52).

5. Conclusions

The seminar aims to train students in academic presentations, covering speaking skills, presentation skills, and listening skills in capturing the essence of academic lectures. Learn the scientific process from academic papers. Reading skills for interpreting academic articles, writing summaries and abstracts. According to the course regulation, this subject focused on learning fundamental skills to continue and prepare the student to create the Science project later. Students were anticipated to gain various skills and attitudes. For instance, reading literacy, discussion, presentation, and answering skills. From the results, seminar courses help students to improve their skills. Moreover, the opinions about seminar course from students that seminar course made them familiar with journal, they like it, but I want English teachers to participate in the assessment, many students like this course because they can share

knowledge in class and encourage them to dare to present in English. Some students like the pair grouping method because it makes friends who like the same subject so that they can work together. However, seminar course is difficult to them because it has to use basic knowledge and English skills. From teacher's opinion, the advisor has an important role to guide and suggest student for learning the seminar course, especially learning the journal's structure, improvising student to self-learning and all students could construct knowledge from each process of learning. For instance, discussing with the advisor, peer-discussion, presentation, and answering.

6. Acknowledgement

We extend our sincere appreciation to the Engineering Science Classroom affiliated with King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (SCiUS Program) and KOSEN KMUTT for their support and assistance throughout this study. Their contributions were invaluable and made this research possible. We are grateful to the teachers, staff, and students for their dedication and enthusiasm in the study of engineering science. Their commitment and inspiration were truly inspiring, and we were privileged to work with them. We also acknowledge our colleagues for their valuable feedback and suggestions throughout the project.

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Webinar Integration Within the Flipped Classroom Instructional Strategies From Learners' Perspectives

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Online videoconferencing has become very popular after the pandemic ravaged the globe. It's exciting to imagine webinars in flipped classes. Webinars contain speeches from experts on many topics. Weekly webinars will be held with a different theme set before the beginning of the semester, encouraging students to share and discuss their experiences with teachers of different majors from faculty. This article recorded a webinar for graduate students in an educational technology subject. Through interviews with participants and classroom observation, the process of course organization and the experience of learners in this case are analyzed. In webinar classes that take the flipped classroom approach, qualitative research methodologies are used to analyse the learner experience and the process of implementing the curriculum. The webinar displays emerging technologies. Before each class, different tasks are assigned to each group. The course model is a blend of flipped classrooms and webinars. It not only encourages several kinds of participation in the course but also promotes a deeper understanding of the course content. The teacher performs a supportive role throughout the entirety of the course and provides a webinar platform for students, a moderator position, a roundtable session, and a poster type of assignment feedback. Participation before and after class exemplifies the implementation of flipped classrooms in higher education best practices.

Keywords: Webinar, Flipped Classroom, Instructional Strategies

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Introduction

The flipped classroom instructional style has received much attention in recent years as a student-centred approach to teaching and learning. This strategy involves offering students with online lectures or other materials to study before class while using class time for application-based, interactive activities. It has been discovered that flipped classrooms increase student involvement, critical thinking, and recall of course knowledge. With the broad acceptance of online learning as a result of the COVID-19 epidemic, there is a rising desire in combining videoconferencing capabilities, like webinars, into the flipped classroom approach.

In this paper, we focus on the integration of webinars within the flipped classroom model from learners' perspectives. Specifically, we examine a practice where students host real lectures and invite guest speakers from different faculties of the university to share their expertise on course topics. Students play the role of interviewers, asking the guests questions and engaging in round-table meetings with them. This approach not only provides students with the opportunity to learn from experts in different fields, but also allows them to develop important skills such as critical thinking, communication, and collaboration.

Through qualitative research methodologies, including interviews with participants and classroom observation, we analyze the process of course organization and the experience of learners in this blended model of flipped classrooms and webinars. Our study aims to provide insights into best practices for integrating webinars in flipped classroom instructional strategies and to offer recommendations for improving student learning outcomes and promoting a more student-centred and active learning experience.

Flipped Classroom Instructional Strategies

The flipped classroom model has emerged as a pedagogical approach that challenges traditional teaching methods and emphasizes active and student-centred learning. In the flipped classroom model, students are required to access learning materials online, outside of the classroom, and use class time to engage in active learning activities, such as discussions, debates, problem-solving, and project-based learning. This approach not only allows students to take control of their learning but also promotes their engagement, participation, and critical thinking (Chen et al., 2019; Kaddoura, 2013).

The flipped classroom model has been found to be effective in promoting students' learning outcomes, such as academic performance, retention, and satisfaction, across different educational settings and disciplines (Al-Samarraie et al., 2020; Strelan et al., 2020). Moreover, the flipped classroom model has been shown to have a positive impact on student's attitudes towards learning, as well as their development of key skills, such as self-regulated learning, collaboration, and communication (Sun et al., 2018).

In the context of the flipped classroom, webinars have emerged as an effective method for presenting recorded or live lectures to students. Webinars enable learners to access course materials from any place and at any time, so enhancing their flexibility and autonomy in learning. Moreover, webinars may give a platform for interactive and engaging lectures, with video, audio, and chat services that allow students to ask questions, provide comments, and engage in conversations with their peers and professors (Leslie, 2020). Overall, the incorporation of webinars into the flipped classroom paradigm offers a potent combination of

student-centred education, active learning, and technology-enhanced learning that can improve students' learning experiences. Nevertheless, the efficacy of this strategy may rely on a number of variables, including the quality and relevance of the learning materials, the pedagogical design of the flipped classroom activities, and the amount of technological and instructional assistance offered to students (Long et al., 2017; Park & Howell, 2015). Consequently, more study is required to examine the ideal circumstances and tactics for incorporating webinars into the flipped classroom paradigm and to assess their influence on the learning outcomes and experiences of students.

Webinar Integration in Flipped Classroom Instructional Strategies

The usage of webinars in the flipped classroom has emerged as a potential strategy for improving student learning outcomes and experiences. Webinars are a form of synchronous or asynchronous internet video conferencing that enables teachers to conduct lectures and interact with students in a virtual environment. This instructional technology has various advantages for educators and students, including enhanced adaptability, accessibility, and involvement (Arkorful & Abaidoo, 2015; Simamora, 2020). In the context of the flipped classroom, webinars may be an effective means for providing lectures that are more interactive and engaging than traditional methods. Webinars can give students the ability to interact with the material and engage in collaborative activities with their peers, therefore enhancing their grasp of the course material and fostering active learning. In addition, webinars may be utilised to give pre-recorded lectures that students can access at their convenience, enhancing their learning flexibility and autonomy (Dailey-Hebert, 2018; Ng et al., 2020).

In addition, live webinars may be utilised to give interactive lectures in which students can ask questions, receive comments, and communicate in real-time with their peers and instructors. This can develop a sense of community and support among students, so enhancing their engagement, motivation, and self-directed learning. In addition, the usage of live webinars can enable instructors to customise their instruction, cater to students' requirements and preferences, and evaluate their learning progress (Altemueller & Lindquist, 2017; Lieser et al., 2018). However, the effective integration of webinars within the flipped classroom model requires careful planning, preparation, and evaluation. Instructors need to ensure that the content and delivery of the webinars align with the learning objectives, the student's needs and preferences, and the pedagogical design of the flipped classroom activities (Marshall & Kostka, 2020). Additionally, instructors need to provide students with clear instructions, expectations, and support for using the webinar platform, as well as opportunities for feedback and reflection on their learning experiences (Gleason et al., 2011).

In conclusion, the incorporation of webinars into the flipped classroom paradigm may provide a potent blend of technology-enhanced learning, student-centred education, and active learning. Webinars may provide professors and students with various advantages, including enhanced flexibility, accessibility, and involvement. Yet, effective use of webinars in the flipped classroom involves careful consideration of the pedagogical design, the requirements and preferences of the students, and the technological and instructional assistance offered. Hence, more study is required to investigate the ideal circumstances and tactics for incorporating webinars into the flipped classroom paradigm and to assess their influence on the learning experiences and results of students.

Benefits of Webinar Integration

Webinars have gained popularity as an instructional tool within the flipped classroom paradigm due to the numerous benefits they provide for students. Flexibility and convenience are two of the most significant benefits of using webinars in this manner. Learners may access course materials at their own pace and from any Internet-connected place via webinars. This characteristic of webinars reduces the requirement for learners to be physically present in a traditional classroom, allowing them to engage from anywhere in the globe. The adaptability and ease of webinars allow students to better manage their calendars and balance academic expectations with personal and professional obligations.

In addition to flexibility and convenience, webinars in the flipped classroom also offer a more engaging and interactive learning experience for learners. The ability to access pre-recorded lectures and live interactive sessions allows learners to engage with the material in a more personalized way, at their own pace and level of comprehension. Moreover, webinars offer various multimedia elements, such as video, audio, and chat features, which promote learner engagement and knowledge retention. The use of multimedia elements in webinars can also accommodate different learning styles, enabling learners to process and understand the material in a way that best suits their needs.

Finally, webinars in the flipped classroom encourage students to work together and share their ideas, creating a more collaborative learning environment. Webinars allow students to interact with one another, share their thoughts on the course material, pose questions, and receive answers in real-time. Webinars, because of their collaborative character, encourage a sense of community and a culture of mutual support among learners, leading to a more rewarding and interesting educational experience overall.

To sum up, webinars are an efficient method of lecture delivery and student engagement within flipped classroom methodologies. Webinars are advantageous for students in many ways due to their adaptability, interactivity, and the possibility of student-teacher interaction. By incorporating webinars into the flipped classroom, teachers may provide their students with a more interactive, customized, and easily accessible learning environment, which in turn increases the likelihood that their students will retain the material presented.

Challenges of Webinar Integration

Webinars have a lot going for them when it comes to flipped classroom tactics, but there are some obstacles to overcome when bringing this technology into the classroom. While trying to include webinars into the curriculum, instructors and students sometimes struggle to find dependable technology and internet connections. It is possible that students in some areas or countries will lack access to the webinars due to a lack of suitable technology or reliable internet service. This could put some students at a severe disadvantage by preventing them from fully engaging with the course material or preventing them from participating fully in class. Moreover, webinars require learners to be self-motivated and disciplined in their learning, which can be a challenge for some learners. The flipped classroom instructional strategies place the responsibility for learning on the learner, requiring them to take ownership of their learning and work independently. In a webinar setting, learners are required to engage with the material, complete assignments, and participate in discussions actively. Without the guidance of an instructor in the classroom, some learners may struggle to stay motivated and disciplined in their learning.

Another challenge of integrating webinars in the flipped classroom instructional strategies is the potential for technical issues. Technical problems, such as poor video quality, unstable internet connectivity, or software compatibility issues, can disrupt the flow of the lesson and interfere with learners' ability to engage with the material fully. These technical challenges can lead to frustration and may affect learners' willingness to participate in future webinars. Integrating webinars into flipped classroom teaching methodologies provides a number of benefits for students, including adaptability, interaction, and a collaborative learning environment. Nevertheless, including webinars within the curriculum presents certain obstacles. Addressing these obstacles, such as access to technology and Internet connectivity, learners' self-motivation and discipline, and technical concerns can assist instructors and students in developing a more effective and engaging learning environment.

Methodology

To find out how students feel about using webinars as part of the flipped classroom teaching style, the present research utilized a qualitative case study method. The primary focus of the research was placed on a single undergraduate course, and interviews were conducted in a semi-structured method with nine individuals who had employed the flipped classroom technique in conjunction with webinar integration. We utilized a strategy called intentional sampling to choose participants who were already familiar with the flipped classroom approach and how to include webinars into their learning. The information gleaned from the interviews was placed through a procedure known as "thematic analysis," which involved examining the information for recurring themes and patterns. The findings of this research assist us to gain a better understanding of how effective webinars may be as a component of the flipped classroom instructional technique when viewed from the perspective of the students.

Analysis

The digital assessment questionnaire provided at the conclusion of each class comprised of both closed- and open-ended questions aimed to collect input on course satisfaction and participation. The closed questions focused on course satisfaction and engagement, while the open-ended questions let participants offer more in-depth feedback.

The findings of the evaluation questionnaire suggest that participant involvement and satisfaction are high. The majority of participants (80%) expressed extreme satisfaction with the course, while only 5% expressed dissatisfaction. These results indicate that the course met the participants' expectations and that they regarded the learning experience to be interesting and enjoyable. In addition, 90% of participants felt interested in the training, while only 2% felt disengaged. Engagement is a crucial determinant of learning outcomes and academic achievement, making this study particularly notable. The participants' high level of involvement shows that the flipped classroom teaching style and the utilization of webinars were beneficial in fostering learning and student engagement. When questioned about certain components of the course, participants cited a number of positives. For instance, 70% of participants deemed the flipped classroom teaching technique to be beneficial, whilst 60% praised the use of webinars as a teaching tool. This conclusion is consistent with earlier studies regarding the efficacy of flipped classrooms and webinars in enhancing student engagement and learning outcomes (Divjak et al., 2022).

Participants in the course expressed their satisfaction with the interactive activities and round-table discussions that were held regularly. These positive responses suggest that the course was successful in promoting active engagement and collaborative learning among the participants. Additionally, the fact that the participants found value in these activities implies that incorporating similar interactive components in future courses may be beneficial for promoting a positive learning experience. Overall, the feedback from the participants highlights the importance of including opportunities for active participation and group discussions in educational settings.

Discussion

This study studied the usage of webinars in a flipped classroom setting, concentrating primarily on the experiences of graduate students in an educational technology course. Our findings show that the use of webinars in this context can facilitate a deeper grasp of course material and stimulate several forms of student interaction. Throughout the course, the instructor provided students with a webinar platform, a moderator position, a roundtable session, and assignment feedback in the form of posters.

These findings are consistent with prior research on flipped classrooms and online learning environments, which suggests that online learning tools such as webinars can increase student engagement and accomplishment (Hew, 2016; Khan et al., 2022). Nevertheless, our study contributes to the literature by highlighting the specific ways webinars may be utilized in a flipped classroom environment, such as by assigning different tasks to each group prior to each session and by combining flipped classrooms with webinars to promote deeper learning. Our findings imply, from a practical standpoint, that teachers and instructional designers may employ webinars in a flipped classroom setting to foster a deeper grasp of course content and to encourage a range of student engagement types. It is crucial to emphasize, however, that there may be obstacles connected with the use of webinars in this context, such as ensuring that all students have access to the required technology and assistance.

One limitation of our study's focus on the experiences of postgraduate students in a certain academic area is a drawback. Future studies should examine the usage of webinars in flipped classrooms with a wider variety of students and subjects. In addition, it would be beneficial to investigate the viewpoints of instructors and instructional designers in this context, as they play a crucial role in the implementation of flipped classroom strategies. In conclusion, this study offers evidence that the use of webinars in a flipped classroom method can enhance students' comprehension of course material and foster a range of student engagement types. These findings have practical implications for the design and execution of flipped classrooms and show that webinar integration may be a valuable strategy for enhancing student engagement and learning.

Conclusion

This study aimed to evaluate the viewpoints of the students about the utilization of webinars as part of the flipped classroom instructional strategy. 9 participants who had prior experience with the flipped classroom with webinar integration provided the data for this study, which was conducted using the qualitative case study technique. The outcomes of this study indicated that the majority of participants believed that using webinars was an excellent way to enhance their learning experience while participating in flipped classroom activities.

Acknowledgements

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to all the participants who generously gave their time and shared their valuable experiences and perspectives for this study. We also extend our thanks to the postgraduate course instructor who allowed us to conduct this study and provided valuable insights into the implementation of the flipped classroom teaching strategy with webinar integration. Additionally, we would like to acknowledge the support and guidance provided by our academic advisors throughout the research process. Their expertise and feedback were invaluable in shaping the design of this study and in analyzing the data.

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A Comparison of Student Self-Assessment in Online and Face-to-Face Learning Environments

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
With the recent migration to online learning due to the global pandemic, the need to foster autonomous learners in English language courses has elicited much attention. Inherent to autonomy is the ability to assess one's process and progress in learning. However, little research in student self-assessments has reviewed how online learning can impact this practice compared to the face-to-face learning environment. This mixed methods study (n=52) investigated the extent to which online and face-to-face learning affected students' self-assessments in a university discussion course. Qualitative and quantitative data were collected through online surveys for four sections (two online, two face-to-face) of an English seminar course at a Japanese university over four semesters, from October 2020 to July 2022. The mean scores of Likert-scale self-assessment items on discussion preparedness, participation and comprehension were compared in the two learning environments, and a text analysis of students' comments in an open-ended item was conducted using grounded theory (GT). The findings from the Likert-scale items show that the online group evaluated themselves as better prepared for discussion while not much difference was found in level of participation and comprehension for both groups. As for survey comments, though both groups attributed positive impressions of their discussions to their level of participation, their group members, or the discussion topic, the face-to-face group were more critical towards their level of preparation and performance. Implications of this study suggest that teachers should give more guidance for self-assessment and reflection practices in language courses according to the learning environment.

Keywords: EFL Self-Assessment, EFL Self-Reflection, Online Learning, Face-to-Face Classes, Autonomous Learning

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Introduction

Across the globe, millions of learners were thrust into a new educational environment with the widespread introduction of online learning due to the COVID-19 pandemic. For the first time in recent history, students of all ages were largely responsible for their own learning, the basic definition of learner autonomy (Little, 2004). Although the concept of autonomous learning in language education precedes today's era by a few decades (Benson, 2001), the shift to the online learning environment did highlight its importance and created the need for a greater understanding of learner autonomy not only from the perspective of teachers, but mainly from that of students (Al Ghazali, 2020). Indeed, considering a broader view of autonomous language learning as "learning that takes place outside the context of formal instruction" (Benson, 2013, p. 840), the shifting from traditional classroom interaction to online learning and back to modified face-to-face settings in language education calls for a look at the impact of these environments on students' autonomous learning.

Despite the convoluted nature of autonomy in language education and the difficulties to define the concept (Everhard, 2016), most definitions frame it as the development of metacognitive strategies and the ability to track one's learning process through self-regulation (Oxford, 2003). A fundamental component of self-regulation is the ability to reflect on this learning process (Benson, 2001). A great deal of research has focused on the development of these strategies in the in-class and online environment separately, but little is known about the impact of these environments on students' metacognitive skills, particularly reflection (Benson, 2001). Thus, the purpose of this exploratory study is to shed light on this issue, offer some practical implications for both online and face-to-face instruction, and propose future directions for research.

Literature Review

The concept of reflection as part of learning dates back many centuries and became more formalized in the 1980s with the formulation of models, such as Schön's Reflective Practitioner Model and Kolb's Experiential Learning Model (as in Huang, 2010). Such models prescribe the act of reflection, that is to think back about one's experience in the learning setting, the effectiveness of the event, and how this analysis can inform one's behavior, as a means to developing essential cognitive skills for learning. Huang (2010) explains that these Vygotskian sociocultural approaches to learning view the "conscious realization" of the experience as necessary for learning to take place, and reflection "as an invaluable tool that helps foster critical thinking, self-assessment, and self-directed learning that can contribute to L2 development" (p. 247). Thus, a reflective learner undertakes the process of thinking back, which may include "recalling/reconstructing, and/or recapturing the events, emotions, failures, and accomplishments of a learning episode" (Huang, 2010, p. 246).

Despite the emphasis on the importance of helping learners develop the metacognitive strategies necessary for self-monitoring and self-assessment (Oxbrow, 2018), empirical evidence on the effectiveness of reflection on academic performance varies (Lew & Schmidt, 2011). Many researchers have looked at student reflection as a means to understand strategy use. Huang (2010) explored reflection practices in varying modalities and reported that, though a wide range of strategies were used across modalities, some may be more effective in oral production than others. She argues, as others have, that though the use of metacognitive strategies has been widely recognized as favorable on performance, the evidence may not hold true for "all learners and learning contexts" (p. 254). In content analysis of students'

reflection journals using text analysis software, Lew and Schmidt (2011) concluded that though students did improve in their ability for self-reflection, this did not translate into improvement in course grades.

Reflection in relation to autonomy is not only situated in the conscious use of cognitive and behavioral processes of the learners (Benson, 2001), but also, as Candy (as in Benson, 2001) explains, in the social interactions with peers or a facilitator. Thus, the learning environment, which may enhance or inhibit the quality of these interactions may potentially affect the process of reflection. This area of research, the relationship between the learning environment and self-reflection has received little attention (Zhan & Mei, 2013). In the online environment, studies have shown written reflections' effectiveness in supporting meta-cognitive skills development (Gummesson & Nordmack, 2012), and helping learners increase learning depth and build structural and social connections (Chang, 2019). In the face-to-face environment, Khongput (2020), through analysis of self-reflective reports, found that self-regulatory strategies appeared to be dependent on the classroom environment due to cooperative learning through group work activities. One of few comparative studies (Zhan & Mei, 2013) investigating differences in the online and face-to-face learning environment found that online students are in need of a stronger social presence through social interaction support.

Thus, in light of the existing literature and learning context of the course described in the following section, this mixed methods exploratory study considers the effects of the learning environment on student reflection and self-assessment. The following research questions were investigated:

1. What effects does the online environment have on students' self-assessments and reflection?
2. Comparatively, what effects does the face-to-face environment have on students' self-assessment and reflection?

Methods

Learning Context and Environment

This study draws on the experience of learners in one university course at a Japanese university focusing on the practice of English discussion and listening skills. The course is composed of undergraduate and graduate students from a diverse range of departments. In fact, one of the core objectives of the course is to introduce students to "current topics from the humanities, social sciences and natural sciences ... from an interdisciplinary perspective" (Kyoto University, 2022). Table 1 gives an overview of the course participants' education level and learning environment for each of the sections. Of the 15 classes in one semester, about half of the classes were spent in small-group discussions whereby students select topics based on their listening practice, prepare discussion questions, and lead discussions with their peers.

Table 1. Participant Description by Section

Course section and Semester	Learning Environment	Educational Level	
		Undergraduate (*n*=27)	Graduate (*n*=26)
Section 1- Fall 2020	Online	3	7
Section 2 - Spring 2021	Online	7	10
Section 3 - Fall 2021	Face-to-face	3	3
Section 4 - Spring 2022	Face-to-face	14	6

Another core component of the course is to raise students' awareness of their personal goals for the course and track their progress throughout the semester, in other words develop autonomous learning by practicing self-regulating strategies. To facilitate the development of these metacognitive skills, learners receive a digital portfolio at the beginning of the semester composed of multiple tabs in a spreadsheet. The portfolio consists of a listening practice log, a Can-Do statement self-assessment (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 2013) to fill at the start of the semester, and note sheets to keep track of the topics prepared for class discussion and reflect upon their progress in the course. In addition, students are asked to fill out a post-discussion survey to help assess their preparation and performance and reflect upon their experience. Data from these surveys were used for analysis.

Data Collection and Analysis

Data were collected via online Google Forms in four sections (two online, two face-to-face) of the discussion course over four semesters, from October 2020 to July 2022. The online group joined class using a synchronous meeting tool (SMT). The face-to-face group attended classes on campus in a classroom which can accommodate approximately 20 to 25 students. An English-language survey was administered and consisted of two sections: the first part was an open-ended writing prompt asking students to comment on their impressions of the discussion, and the latter part was made up of three Likert-scale items measuring students' self-assessment of their discussion preparedness, class participation, and comprehension of their discussions. Students filled out this survey immediately after group discussions, roughly five to ten minutes before the end of class.

Data from the Likert-scale items were analyzed by tallying the mean scores for each and compared in the two learning environments. Students' comments in the open-ended item were analyzed through content analysis using grounded theory (GT) (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). GT is a process of interpreting data whereby, rather than imposing existing theoretical frameworks in coding data, theory is generated by identifying emergent themes from the data (Friedman, 2012). The process begins with open coding, in which the dataset is organized by labeling subsets according to broader categories, followed by axial coding, which consists of finding patterns in the coding and connecting larger categories to subcategories, and finishing with focused coding, or applying initial coding to the whole dataset and refining categories.

For this study, students' comments, which were automatically collected chronologically into a spreadsheet, were divided and labeled based on the subject or focus of reflection. Words or

phrases were highlighted to identify subcategories in each comment type, and each subcategory was further labeled as a positive, neutral, or negative comment when applicable. Data from the two learning environments were compared. Additionally, the average length of the comments was determined by performing a word count average for each group.

Findings

Likert-scale items

The findings from the Likert-scale items show little difference between the online group and face-to-face group in level of participation and comprehension (Figure 1 and 2, respectively). The online group evaluated themselves slightly higher up the scale for discussion preparation, as can be seen in Figure 3.

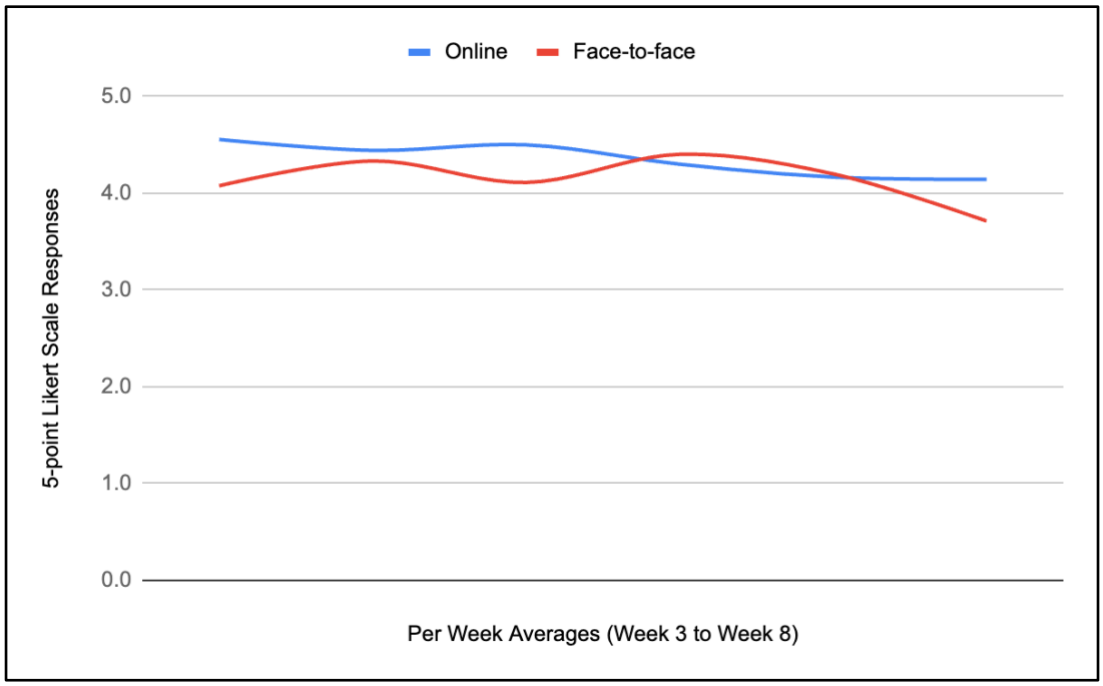


Figure 1: Likert-scale Item for Self-assessment of Discussion Participation

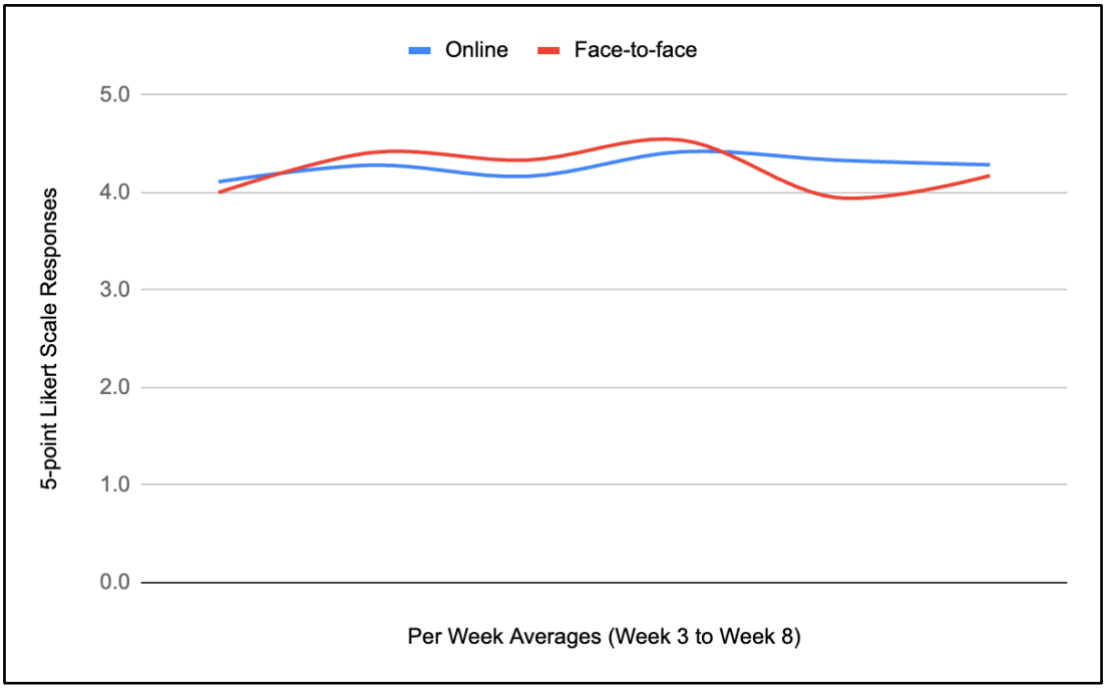


Figure 2: Likert-scale Item for Self-assessment of Discussion Comprehension

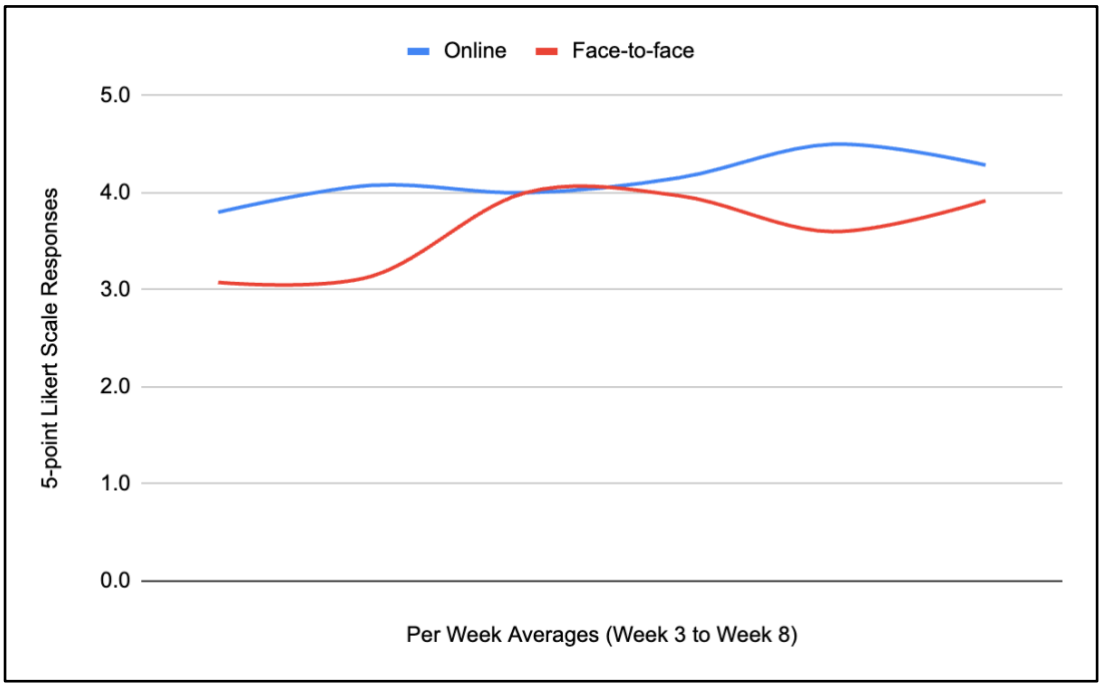


Figure 3: Likert-scale Item for Self-assessment of Discussion Preparation

Open-ended item

Seven main categories were revealed as the object or focus of the survey comments. The categories and examples from the dataset are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Emergent Main Categories in Open Coding of Comments

Main response categories	Example Comments
General / Non-specific comments	● "It was fine" ● "I like this class"
Self-evaluation ('present' self)	● "... but sometimes i [*sic*] feel frustrated because of a lack of my vocabulary"
Self-related ('future' self)	● "I will prepare more specific questions for the next class" ● "And I want to became [*sic*] a good listener during the discussion"
Topic/content related	● "I have never heard circula [*sic*] report. It's interesting information." ● "Today our group's discussion includes medical and economic development …"
Other participant related	● "He majors in medicine so he introduced something about his field" ● "I was impressed by Hiro's description"
Task/group organization related	● "There were 3 people in our group and 30 minutes wasn't enough to discuss all [*sic*] since everyone prepared well" ● "I really like the idea of comparing two different speeches. It is very nice to know how other people combine the two different speeches and create new ideas! …"
Course goal/skills development related	● "I realized 'good question' is difficult" ● "Understanding the main point of speech would be key to make a good paraphrasing"

Note: Pseudonyms are used when applicable.

Table 3 shows a comprehensive table of the categories and subcategories derived from the dataset with the number of comment types labeled under each category and the percentage of each type for the larger categories (in bold) and the percentage for each type within the subcategories. For most of the main categories, the comments showed an evaluative dimension, labeled as either positive, neutral, or negative. The assignment of this value for many of the comments in the category of *Self-evaluation* was attributed to either external factors (e.g., materials, topic, other students) or to internal factors (e.g., skills, strategies, or unspecified). For example, the sample comment in Table 2 , "... but sometimes i [*sic*] feel frustrated because of a lack of my vocabulary," falls under the category of *Self-evaluation*, the attribution of the negative evaluation is placed on the student's shortcomings in vocabulary control, an assessment of one's own skill or ability. By contrast, the comment, "I think I could participate in discussion more than last week" was categorized as a positive evaluation of the 'present' self in comparison to previous classes acknowledging improvement. In other categories, attribution was not delineated as an internal or external

factor, but rather as a descriptive quality. For example, positive comments about the topics were ascribed to having interest for the reasons of either familiarity and novelty, while the same qualities were used to describe negativity towards some topics.

Table 3. Text Analysis of Open-ended Survey Item

	Learning environment	
	Online	Face-to-face
Average word count per entry	46	19
Response category and subcategories	Frequency, *n* (%)	Frequency, *n* (%)
General / Non-specific comments	**14 (10.4)**	**6 (4.1)**
Positive	13 (92.9)	4 (66.7)
Neutral	1 (7.1)	0 (0.0)
Negative	0 (0.0)	2 (33.3)
Self-evaluation ('present' self)	**32 (23.7)**	**51 (34.5)**
Positive - external - materials/topic	0 (0.0)	1 (2.0)
Positive - external - other students/group	2 (6.3)	1 (2.0)
Positive - external - task/organization	3 (9.4)	2 (3.9)
Positive - internal - past comparative/improvement	5 (15.6)	4 (7.8)
Positive - internal - skills/ability	2 (6.3)	0 (0.0)
Positive - internal - strategies/planning	1 (3.1)	2 (3.9)
Positive - internal - unspecified	2 (6.3)	2 (3.9)
Total for positive comments	15 (46.9)	13 (25.5)
Negative - external - materials/topic	3 (9.4)	8 (15.7)
Negative - external - other students/group	1 (3.1)	0 (0.0)
Negative - external - task/organization	4 (12.5)	11 (21.6)
Negative - internal - past comparative/improvement	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Negative - internal - skills/ability	5 (15.6)	9 (17.6)
Negative - internal - strategies/planning	2 (6.3)	8 (15.7)
Negative - internal - unspecified	2 (6.3)	3 (5.9)
Total for negative comments	17 (53.1)	38 (74.5)
Self-related ('future' self)	**17 (12.6)**	**11 (7.4)**

Need for improvement - skill/strategy	7 (41.2)	1 (9.1)
Need for improvement - unspecified	3 (17.6)	4 (36.4)
More participation/practice	2 (11.8)	5 (45.5)
More preparation	5 (29.4)	1 (9.1)
Topic/content related	**37 (27.4)**	**37 (25.0)**
Positive - interest - familiarity	1 (2.7)	1 (2.7)
Positive - interest - novelty	5 (13.5)	3 (8.1)
Positive - interest - unspecified	7 (18.9)	11 (29.7)
Positive - suitability	1 (2.7)	1 (2.7)
Neutral - General summary	10 (27.0)	3 (8.1)
Neutral - Summary - elaboration/exploration	8 (21.6)	0 (0.0)
Reflection - opinion	2 (5.4)	9 (24.3)
Negative - disinterest	1 (2.7)	0 (0.0)
Negative - challenging/unfamiliar	2 (5.4)	9 (24.3)
Other participant related	**9 (6.7)**	**3 (2.0)**
Positive	6 (66.7)	2 (66.7)
Neutral	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Negative	3 (33.3)	1 (33.3)
Task/group organization related	**22 (16.3)**	**37 (25.0)**
Positive - task performance satisfaction	2 (9.1)	8 (21.6)
Positive - group participation	14 (63.6)	16 (43.2)
Neutral - group activity/agreement	1 (4.5)	3 (8.1)
Neutral - teacher involvement	0 (0.0)	1 (2.7)
Negative - task time	4 (18.2)	1 (2.7)
Negative - task difficulty	1 (4.5)	8 (21.6)
Course goal/skills development related	**4 (3.0)**	**4 (3.0)**
Total	**135 (100.0)**	**148 (100.0)**

The percentages of comments by main categories and subcategories show some variation between the two groups. Most noticeable is the larger proportion of comments focusing on self-evaluation in the face-to-face learning environment, particularly those qualified as negative, 74.5% of comments in this category, compared to 53.1% in the online group. In addition, The face-to-face group attributed their negative assessment of their class

participation or performance to external factors, while the online group were more apt to attribute both positive and negative evaluation more evenly across internal and external factors, as is illustrated in Figure 4. Unsurprisingly, the face-to-face group commented more frequently on the task organization or group activity with 25% of categorized comments; however, somewhat surprising is the lower percentage of positive comments towards group participation from the face-to-face group versus that of the online group, with 43.2% and 63.6% respectively. Overall, task and topic difficulty was more commonly reported as an issue for the face-to-face group.

One notable difference between the two learning environments is the average length of entries. The online environment average word count for comments came at 46 words while that of the face-to-face group was at 19 words per entry.

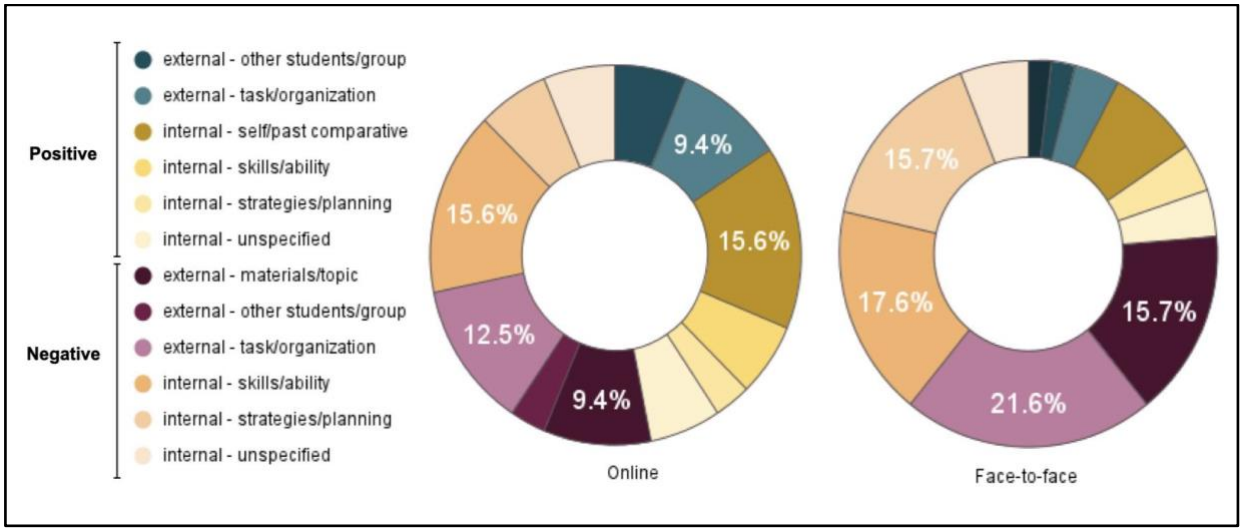


Figure 4: Attribution of Self-evaluation

Discussion

Space and the Learning Environment

To understand the findings from this study, the discussion of space as it relates to the learning environment is necessary. For one, the most distinct feature dividing these two groups of learners is the digital and physical space inhabited while reflection took place (Hobbs & Dofs, 2018). The online group, attending class while remaining in their personal space, were afforded a great deal more freedom during the group discussions and post-discussion self-assessments since they were not being closely monitored by the teacher or other students — only what is visible through the small video layout in the SMT can be observed. In comparison, their face-to-face peers, in a physical classroom, were bound by expectations of a more formal learning environment, and made more aware of the physical presence of other students and the teacher. The impact of others on self-assessment will be more greatly felt when the physical space boundary is immediate, not virtual. Here, self-regulation crosses into the emotional space for the learners, perhaps affecting their ability to reflect and evaluate their experience with the 'noise' of the social interactions in person. In a longitudinal study of online distance students, White (2016, as in Hobbs & Dofs, 2018), investigated the relation between emotion and the process of learning. White explained that emotions play an important role in learners' motivation to engage and persist in the process of learning. The face-to-face learning environment will allow for closer perception of other students' emotions,

including stress due to insecurities due to one's skills or ability in the target language. Schwienhorst (2018), in describing goals to developing autonomy, places reflection as a priority and recognizes the importance of creating opportunities "to experiment with language and learning strategies in a stress-free and stress-reduced environment" (p. 23).

In this study, the higher frequency of negative evaluations for students in the face-to-face environment may be a response to this environment. The course begins with explicit instructions and training of discussion strategies to navigate the group discussion. However, it is possible that students in the physical classroom were impacted by the presence of others in assessing their performance by overly relying on comparison of their group members or other classmates' performance and participation. Particularly, section 4 in the face-to-face group consisted of a majority of undergraduate students (Table 1), so it is feasible to assume that this group of learners felt more intimidated in group discussions with graduate students. Moreover, overall affective factors due to in-person interaction may have influenced face-to-face students' reflection on task difficulty. Therefore, instructors should be aware of the affective factors related to space, how these may sway students' self-assessment and reflection practices, and raise their students' awareness about these issues.

Practicalities of the Technology

The technological advantages of the digital space are most likely responsible for differences in the students' self-assessed level of preparation and length of entries. Similar to differences of modalities, the learning environment matters due to limitations in each context (Huang, 2010). Firstly, the online group were mostly attending class from their home, therefore; commuting time required for in-person class attendance could be used for preparation. As aforementioned, students in the online group may have felt less direct observation from their peers or the teacher, thus giving them the time and space to look up terms and definitions, check their preparation notes (although, this is not discouraged in the face-to-face environment), and use other tools to assist them. In addition, although the post-discussion survey was identical for the two groups, and both groups accessed the form at the same time during the class, the online group could access the survey via a link posted in the chat function of the SMT, while students in the face-to-face group mostly accessed the survey via Quick Response (QR) code. Since the online group most likely used their personal computers to leave comments, unlike the face-to-face group which accessed the survey using their smartphones, this allowed online students to spend more time typing comments, lending to more in-depth reflections, particularly in summarizing the discussion topics. Thus, technological considerations should be made for reflection practices in all learning environments.

Attribution Theory in Reflection

Many comments in the reflection practice were categorized as ascribing reason for a perceived positive experience or negative evaluation as an internal or external construct. This pattern could be explained by Weiner's *attribution theory* (McLoughlin, 2018), in which individuals assign explanations for their successes and failures, which in turn can impact future outcomes in terms of persistence and motivation. Attributions can span a wide range of dimensions, but mainly these can be divided into factors which are controllable or uncontrollable. McLoughlin (2018) explains that motivation is affected by these factors in terms of how the learner perceives the possibility to change future outcomes. Thus, generally people typically look for explanations for their failures rather than successes, and determine

attributions that are controllable, such as effort and preparation, and which can be improved. Considering this theory, students' tendency in both groups to focus on negative aspects in their self-evaluation is in line with this notion. However, looking at the attributes given, it is unclear if students understand the relationship between the reasons given and how this can help their learning. Similarly, Khongput (2020) also observed that "some students emphasized their negative feelings and uncertainties in their learning process at the beginning of the course" (p. 100). She posited that in an engaging learning environment, students may depend less on affective factors in reflection and increase awareness in their strategy use that leads to improvement. Therefore, greater awareness of attribution through a guided process of reflection may help learners foster reflection practices that lead to improved self-regulating strategies.

Practical Implications

Findings from this study can support the explicit teaching of a structured approach to reflection in language learning. One approach might include question prompts as a guided reflection practice. The series of prompts would have students follow a pattern of reflection, assessment, attribution, and resolution. Figure 5 illustrates this proposed guided process.

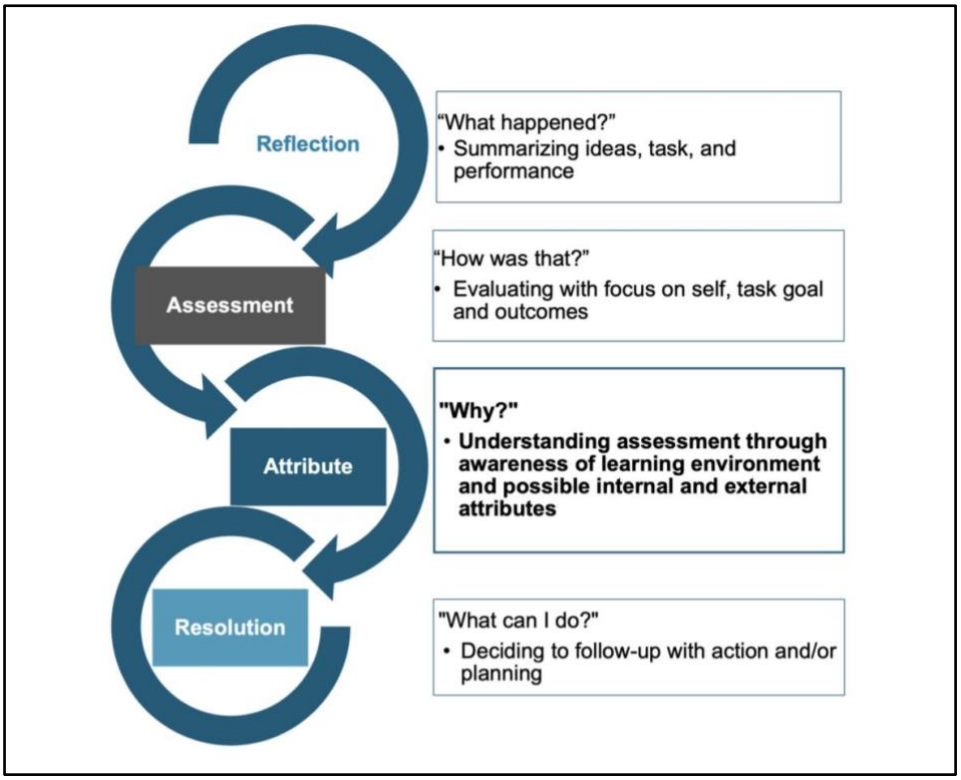


Figure 5: Proposed Guided Reflection Practice

This guided process is supported by other models or frameworks for autonomous learning strategies. Oxford's model of learner autonomy (2003) consists of four perspectives each with a different focus: technical, psychological, sociocultural (I & II), and political-critical. This proposed guided reflection framework would fit under the sociocultural perspective, focusing "on the development of human capacity via interaction" (p. 85). The positioning of reflection firstly in the group interaction, and then repositioning the self within this reflection can provide learners with the context and agency for proper assessment, attribution, and resolution. More specifically, in 1991, Smyth (as in Benson, 2001) proposed a model

categorized as an *emancipatory reflective learning model* by which, as is similarly proposed here, is represented as "a series of moments and questions" (p. 91).

Limitations

This exploratory study is a first step in shedding light on learning environments' impact on students' reflection practices. Many varying factors, such as gender identity, the participants location during online classes, especially in regards to international students attending from their home countries, were not accounted for in the analysis. To address limitations and improve generalizability, issues in data collection (e.g. small n-size) and analysis (e.g. overlap in data interpretation) should be addressed in more robust empirical research. More recent content analyses of student reflection utilizing text analytics (Kovanovic et al., 2018) may improve classification systems of reflection.

Conclusion

This paper investigates the effects of the learning environment on language learners self-assessment and reflection practices. Findings from survey and comment-based data show students' practice of self-assessment and reflection may be influenced by their peers and perception of self in a social setting, particularly in the face-to-face learning environment. Teachers should consider the impact of the learning environment on self-assessment and the possible variation in how learners in the online class and face-to-face class attribute their successes and failures in preparation for and during small group discussions. To help students better understand their learning process, a simple framework for self-reflection is proposed involving a line of questioning about one's experience in group discussion. A more structured approach to self-reflection may allow students to grasp the gist of their discussions, their role and performance in this task, the reasons for their assessment, and how to take action based on their reflection practice. Although more robust research may lend better insights into the link between self-reflection, the development of learner autonomy, and course outcomes, this study attempts to position the learning environment as an influential factor in the student self-regulation strategies.

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What Use a Qualifications Framework? The Impact of Qualifications Frameworks on Innovation for Online Learning in Australia and Malaysia

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
National qualifications frameworks (NQFs) have grown rapidly since the first generation of frameworks were established in the mid-1990s. They are designed for several purposes and uses, and are located amongst a set of other policy, socio-economic, and socio-material contexts, enmeshed in existing ideologies, systems, and practices, which shape what they can and cannot do. But what practical impact, if any, do such frameworks have on student learning? Drawing on recent work designing fully online postgraduate programs with several public and private universities in Australia and Malaysia, this paper explores the impact of their respective NQFs on innovation for online learning. We suggest that these frameworks are useful, and sometimes effective, to establish transparent standards, assure educational quality, and better align higher education to labour market and social needs. But they can also hinder innovation. This is exacerbated in the case of online learning, where new delivery models are disrupting the status quo and regulators are challenged to keep pace with best practices and innovations in both pedagogy and technology. This paper critically reflects on these challenges, exploring how the different characteristics and components of NQFs impact on student learning, and the online learning experience, in both positive and negative, and intended but also unexpected, ways.

Keywords: Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF), Higher Education, Impact, Innovation, Malaysian Qualifications Framework (MQF), National Qualifications Frameworks (NQFs), Online Learning, Quality

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Introduction

The quality of its higher education sector—and the qualifications it awards—is central to a nation's social and economic progress. With the rise of neoliberal ideologies and policies globally over the past four decades, alongside a burgeoning managerialism in higher education institutions, we have experienced an intensifying emphasis on issues and practices of quality assurance and enhancement in higher education, alongside demands for increased efficiency and decreased costs. However, quality is an elusive concept; it is instinctively understood yet difficult to articulate.

Discourses, policies, and practices focused on quality unfold against the backdrop of three defining trends in contemporary higher education: globalisation, massification, and marketisation (Komljenovic & Robertson, 2016; Lewis & Shore, 2019; Marginson, 2013; Robertson & Komljenovic, 2016; Tight, 2019). Marketisation has had an undeniable effect (Marginson, 2013) as many nations face either difficulties or a disinclination to finance the expanding enrolments that come with massification in 'high participation' systems (Marginson, 2016). Universities have turned to online learning as a panacea for issues of increased access, efficiency and scale, often looking to the private sector for support. This has led to the massive growth of public-private partnerships that enable universities to deliver quality online learning efficiently and at scale (Holon IQ, 2021; Morris et al., 2020), causing an incipient unbundling of higher education (Czerniewicz, 2018; McCowan 2017; Lewis & Shore, 2019; Swinnerton et al., 2020). 'Quality' thus becomes an increasingly complex phenomeon in higher education. Here, we conceptualise quality as a set of relational effects engendered between numerous stakeholders within and beyond the traditional boundaries of the university. It is characterised by a continuous re/negotiation and re/iteration of what quality actually *is* (particularly in online learning), who is responsible for defining, implementing, assuring, or enhancing quality, and how best it can be achieved.

National qualifications frameworks (NQFs) are one consequence of this hegemonic neoliberalism and managerialism and are inescapably implicated in these interrelated trends of globalisation, massification, and marketisation. They have grown rapidly since the first generation of frameworks were established in the mid-1990s. They are designed for several purposes and uses, and are located amongst a set of other policy, socio-economic and socio-material contexts, enmeshed in existing ideologies, systems, and practices, which shape what they can and cannot do, and how they are interpreted and used by institutions, faculty, learning designers, and other stakeholders. Drawing on our recent shared experience designing fully online postgraduate programs with several public and private universities across Australia and Malaysia, this paper explores the impact of their respective NQFs on innovation for online learning, as well as the broader discourses and practices of quality assurance and enhancement they engender.

What is the impact of the development and use of these frameworks? And how do they help or hinder innovation, especially for online learning? To begin, we provide some background on the development of NQFs globally and the AQF and MQF specifically. We then analyse the implementation and use of these frameworks in relation to issues of impact and innovation, particularly in the context of the growth of online learning and educational partnerships. To conclude, we offer some thoughts on the future of NQFs as they try to adapt to the changing nature of the higher education sector globally.

Background

A qualifications framework is a policy instrument designed to guide the development, classification, and recognition of the skills, knowledge, and competencies, along a continuum of agreed levels, required to award a qualification. In vocational and higher education, national qualifications frameworks (NQFs) have been expanding and evolving rapidly since the first frameworks were established in the mid-1990s in Scotland, England, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. NQFs may be comprehensive or partial in scope, more or less prescriptive, stronger or weaker in their implementation and enforcement, and some may have a legal basis whereas others may represent a more voluntary consensus view of the stakeholders involved. They share many common characteristics and components, but there is also considerable variety in terms of guiding principles, purposes, and implementation.

NQFs generally aim to standardise and create parity of qualifications across institutions, and the role of the regulating body is then to hold institutions accountable for implementing and assuring these standards. They intend to provide transparency of standards, improve access and accessibility, and should communicate meaningful information to institutions, employers, students, and the public about what these standards are and how to achieve them. Relatedly, they ensure portability of credit and qualifications across institutions; this is increasingly critical in a globalised world, where transferability between national jurisdictions is increasingly necessary and common. They also support workforce mobility, and generally ensure qualifications meet the needs of both graduates and employers, as well as servicing a nation's broader social and economic needs—however those are defined by policymakers, governments, industry and professional bodies, and other stakeholders.

But the broader aim is quality assurance and enhancement, and perhaps above all else risk management: minimising risk to students, to providers, and to the reputation of the higher education sector itself (Baird 2013; Edwards, 2011; Huber, 2009). But we argue that higher education is inherently 'risky'—and should be. The sector has greatly expanded and diversified as it adapts to these trends of globalisation, massification, and marketisation, as well as wider societal and technological changes, and must continue to do so. Institutions have had to innovate to survive, although the common risk-based regulatory approach often leaves us with lagging standards based on normative consensus views of minimum good practice. The question then is how we keep up, not fall behind, due to the inherently conservative nature of NQFs and the risk-averse regulatory regimes charged with their implementation, while assuring and enhancing academic quality and student learning.

Remarkably, there seems to be consensus on the broad characteristics and components of NQFs, regardless of national and local contexts, with multiple attempts made to synthesise these and establish taxonomies that might better to enable comparative research (Allais, 2017; Fernie & Pilcher, 2009; Raffe, 2009; Young, 2009). All frameworks comprise a single definition or set of criteria determining what count as a qualification, arranged in a hierarchy and expressed as a set of levels indicating increasing complexity, each with distinct level descriptors. For example, the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF) has ten levels whereas the Malaysian Qualifications Framework (MQF) has eight, although both cover the same scope from foundational certificates to terminal doctoral degrees. They also all describe qualifications in terms of learning outcomes that are independent of the site, the form of provision, and the curriculum and pedagogy through which they may be achieved. The AQF consists of broad 'characteristics of learning outcomes' for each qualification level, describing the knowledge and skills a person has acquired and is able to demonstrate because

of learning, and these are applicable across all fields of study. On the other hand, the MQF provides a set of five clusters of learning outcomes which can be tailored specifically to the programme, covering: 1) knowledge and understanding; ii) cognitive skills; iii) functional work skills; iv) personal and entrepreneurial skills; and v) ethics and professionalism. But where the two frameworks diverge is in the level of detail and specificity provided by the MQF's accompanying Programme Standards: for each major discipline area, these standards prescribe bodies of knowledge, programme aims and objectives, and learning outcomes, and provide significant guidance on aspects of assessment methods, curriculum design, and teaching delivery. These types of prescriptive standards do not exist in the Australian context.

Crucially, NQFs define all qualifications in terms of elements (or units) and ascribe a volume in terms of notional learning hours expressed as quantifiable credit. Effectively, a student must achieve a given number of credits to gain a qualification. The MQF is quite clear on this, mandating a direct correspondence between credit points and notional learning hours (i.e., 1 credit point should equal 40 hours of student learning time), as well as prescribing 'graduating credit' for all programme levels. For example, a Master's Degree by Coursework requires 40 credit points, which equates to 1600 hours notional learning time across the programme of study. Programme standards also often mandate a percentage range of credit points be allocated to core, elective, specialisation, and dissertation subjects. But the AQF is a lot less specific, or more flexible. It uses the concept of 'volume of learning', considered as a dimension of the complexity of a qualification used to determine the depth and breadth of the learning outcomes of a qualification. Volume of learning identifies the notional duration of all activities required for the achievement of the learning outcomes specified for a particular AQF qualification type, expressed in equivalent full-time study load (EFTSL), which for one academic year equals 1200 hours. However, the volume of learning for a Master's Degree by Coursework varies greatly, between 1200 and 2400 hours, or 1 to 2 full-time academic years, depending on students' prior qualifications. There is also no direct correspondence between credit points and volume of learning, and so our public universities can interpret these requirements in very different ways.

Implementation

Although with varying degrees of strength and prescriptiveness, qualifications frameworks are always underpinned by a regulatory approach, audit procedures, and assessment criteria for accrediting, registering, and reviewing qualifications. They provide some basis for assuring and improving the quality, transparency, and accessibility of qualifications.

The relative autonomy of higher education institutions has been a defining theme of the Australian qualifications system. The first-generation AQF was introduced in 1995, and a revised second edition adopted in 2013; this is currently undergoing review, so a third edition is likely in coming years. Its initial purpose was to provide "a comprehensive, nationally consistent yet flexible framework for all qualifications in post-compulsory education and training" covering both vocational and higher education. The AQF is supported by the Higher Education Standards Framework (Threshold Standards) 2021 used by the regulatory body, the Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency (TEQSA), to accredit higher education providers. Although it does not determine the content of the AQF, TEQSA is responsible for assuring its implementation, ensuring all higher education providers and the courses they deliver meet, and continue to meet, the standards described in the HESF and the AQF, registering and re-registering both public and private providers, and accrediting courses where a provider does not have authority to self-accredit.

TEQSA does not have a direct role in accrediting qualifications or in quality assurance for courses offered by public universities in Australia, although it does accredit and maintain a register of courses offered by private providers. In this sense, when it comes to public universities, the AQF is notoriously weak and "essentially an expression of the dominant tradition of sectoral and institutional autonomy in education and training in Australia" (Keating, 2003, 282). Its impact depends mostly on the willingness of powerful providers to use it as a framework to assure and enhance quality and advance educational reforms. Its primary purpose then seems focused on description and communication, making the existing education and training system more transparent and easier to understand, and making the relationships between existing qualifications explicit, but not really driving quality enhancements or innovation to the existing system.

In contrast, the Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA) plays an increasingly significant role in driving strategic change in higher education cultures in Malaysia, in both public and private universities (Bajunid, 2011; Keating, 2011), and particularly regarding online and distance learning (ODL) programmes. The MQA published the first edition of the MQF in 2007, with their quality assurance system fully implemented by 2011. They introduced the second edition of the MQF in 2017 to stay current with changing practices in the sector. The MQF is supported by a range of other quality assurance documents issued by MQA, such as Code of Practice, Programme Standards, and Guidelines to Good Practices. Collectively, the aim of this suite of documents and guidelines is to monitor standards and ensure processes for quality assurance are implemented and maintained by institutions. But its purpose also extends beyond quality assurance and risk management to proactive educational reform: it aims to improve the existing system in specific ways, enhancing quality, increasing consistency, and increasing accountability. So, the MQF is quite comprehensive, strong, and tight in its prescriptiveness. As described above, it adopts a strong outcomes-based approach, where outcomes are defined and prescribed separately from institutions, which then design programmes based on the provided outcomes, and must meet specific requirements regarding bodies of knowledge, assessment, curriculum design, and teaching delivery.

In Malaysia, all programmes are accredited by MQA until universities earn self-accrediting status. Institutions with self-accrediting status are no longer required to undertake programme accreditation by MQA, but they can self-accredit their programs through its own internal quality system. However, the historical autonomy of Australian universities persists as institutions lead the process of comparing qualifications and making judgements about courses. TEQSA do conduct audits of public universities, but only when obvious and specific issues arise, and this happens rarely. The AQF is embedded in and interpreted through institutions' own policies and procedures of academic governance and quality assurance, and for public universities the role of the regulator focuses much more on providing guidance and advice on minimum good practice, for example in areas such as academic integrity, recognition of prior learning, and more.

Impact

The impact of qualifications frameworks on quality is hard to measure, and the evidence is inconclusive (Pilcher, et al. 2017; Raffe, 2013). The supposed impacts have been less than expected, have often taken many years to appear, and have been negative as well as positive. It is not just in the higher education sector that we see only weak evidence that risk-based regulation improves quality assurance.

Like all NQFs, the AQF and MQF are outcome-based, and outcome-based education (OBE) is generally shown to be effective in improving educational attainment. In this sense, the implementation of OBE in both Australia and Malaysia should have improved academic quality. Certainly in Malaysia it has facilitated a rigorous process of ensuring the alignment of curriculum and assessments with the MQF standards. This has prompted many Malaysian institutions to thoroughly re-evaluate their programmes, ensuring compliance with the three main aspects of OBE: a focus on learning outcomes; the alignment of outcomes with curriculum, instruction, and assessment; and appropriate learning experiences for students' success (Kaliannan & Chandran, 2012). Through its detailed specification of level descriptors and the five clusters of learning outcomes, and the accompanying Programme Standard, the MQF has driven enhancements to the quality of programmes across the board, facilitating (in theory, at least) the large-scale transformation of the higher education system. In contrast to the MQF's highly prescriptive approach, the laissez-faire provider-led implementation of the AQF in Australia's public universities has perhaps had less impact. The autonomy of higher education institutions makes implementation more challenging from the perspective of the regulator, where the internal systems and processes established by powerful providers carry the responsibility for quality assurance rather than the regulator itself.

Since the launch of the AQF in 1995, we've certainly seen a significant improvement in metrics such as student satisfaction, graduate outcomes, and employability outcomes, as measured nationally by the Quality Indicators of Learning and Teaching surveys. But just how much of this is a consequence of the AQF, and other initiatives focused on quality, is hard to say. We suggest that the marketisation of higher education, and the need to not just teach students, but attract and retain them in an increasingly competitive sector, has likely motivated improvements to the quality of learning and teaching in Australian higher education much more than any regulations as such—and perhaps in Malaysia too, although differently, in the way these trends influence the development and implementation of the MQF itself. Moreover, pragmatic concerns such as academic workload allocation models (Gregory & Lodge, 2015) and support (or lack thereof) for academics' professional development perhaps have a far greater on the quality of student learning that any other consideration.

Ultimately, NQFs can only impact quality to the extent that the people 'on the ground' charged with their implementation are willing and able to do so—and are empowered do so effectively. They are dependent on layers of interpretation and translation between policymakers and regulators, institutional systems and processes, and the faculty and supporting 'third-space' professionals (Whitchurch, 2012) who materialise these standards for students. A prescriptive framework such as the MQF leaves less room for interpretation than a looser framework such as the AQF—but a looser framework leaves much more scope for experimentation and innovation.

Innovation

How do NQFs help or hinder innovation in higher education, particularly in relation to online learning? Does regulatory complexity stifle innovation? Complexity tends to hamper implementation, and prescription can deter innovation. These frameworks are useful, and necessary, if only sometimes effective, to establish transparent standards, assure educational quality, and better align higher education to labour market and social needs. But they can also stifle innovation. There are often tensions between strategic goals and objectives of institutions versus those of regulators, and there is also often a failure to accommodate the

diversity of educational providers, qualification types, and delivery models—or to keep pace with best practices in a fast-changing sector, let alone wider-ranging societal and technological changes. The case is especially so for digital and online learning, where new delivery models are disrupting the status quo and regulators are challenged to keep pace with best practices and innovations in assessment, curriculum design, and teaching delivery.

Beyond their 'good practice' guidance, which is mostly about setting normative minimum standards, the AQF does not necessarily encourage innovation; their focus is on risk management, and the devolution of implementation and quality assurance to providers. Experimentation and innovation then are mostly left in the hands of institutions, or more likely faculty themselves. On the other hand, although it imposes more limitations, the MQF encourages innovation in curriculum design by promoting continuous improvement and provides a framework for aligning educational qualifications and competencies with the needs of industry and social needs market demands, ensuring that programmes are relevant and of high-quality. However, faculty are restrained in their innovativeness due to strict compliance to the framework, Programme Standards, and other documents.

And for online learning? The AQF does not differentiate between on-campus and online learning. The accreditation and audit processes are the same, although online learning may draw more attention sometimes due to perceived or actual issues of quality. There is no specific guidance on the design and delivery of fully online degrees, except for generic good practice guides. On the other hand, in Malaysia the MQF and COPPA:ODL help to ensure that online and distance learning programmes meet the same quality standards as their traditional counterparts. This ensures that online students receive a high-quality education and learning experience that is recognised and valued by students and their prospective employers.

Conclusion

While NQFs are clearly essential, there is a need for greater flexibility to consider the diversity of providers, qualification types, and delivery models, and to empower or encourage innovation in the design of qualifications, as well as assessment methods, curriculum and pedagogy, and teaching delivery. Although they do indeed mitigate risks for students, providers, and the sector itself, the counter-risk is that overly complex and prescriptive frameworks place real limitations on pedagogical and technological innovation: faculty and learning designers alike become increasingly cautious to step outside of the box due to this limitation and the need to maintain strict compliance with the framework. Whether administered by the regulator or the provider, the process of making changes to the curriculum, while also assuring and maintaining compliance with standards, and following established procedures, can also be time-consuming and complex, either slowing down or stifling possible innovation.

But perhaps the greater challenge for NQFs relates to their perceived relevance and value. With student perceptions of the value of formal higher educational qualifications changing, and the apparent shift away from formal qualifications towards micro-credentials and other non-award learning, how do NQFs better enable providers to keep up with the evolving needs and demands of both students and employers? This is the big question that will shape the third generation of NQFs and beyond. They will only maintain their value and impact if they can themselves innovate to ensure they remain relevant and useful to a current higher

education's sector that is changing rapidly, and a future higher education sector that we are only just beginning to perceive.

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Designing a Couse for Building Effective Pre-writing Skills of Academic Thesis

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Today, the number of Japanese universities has decreased to less than 70%, requiring students to write a senior thesis as part of the graduation requirements (Kawaijuku, 2017). It may result from the weak motivation toward writing that Japanese students have. That might be because not a small number of students perceive writing a senior thesis challenging when completing a senior thesis is deemed to be the culmination of four years of academic learning. The course was created, based on the student's need for supportive instruction and assistance through the process of writing, with a focus on a pre-writing phase. It aims at students' discovery of their research topic and overview of the senior thesis, which will lead to the fourth-year senior thesis. This paper outlines the key findings from developing a course designed for the pre-writing stage of a senior thesis writing process of students at an English department of a university in Japan. The course is designed to assist third-year students in starting to prepare to write a thesis by thinking critically and logically. Pedagogical approaches were explored, and an active learning course, chiefly in the style of task-based learning, was developed. In three modules, it first focuses on idea generation, then research and outlining, and finally presentation of the overview of the thesis. In addition to the student needs, the background of the course, the educational setting, the characteristic tasks representing each of three modules, complexities, and implications are discussed.

Keywords: Syllabus Design, Pre-writing, Process Writing, Senior Thesis

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Introduction

This research reviews the course design for the pre-writing tasks for juniors who prepare to write senior theses. The senior theses in English need to be a culmination of a student's four-year academic pursuit. Among frameworks of course development (e.g. Richards, 2001; Brown 2007; and others), Graves' (1996) sequential framework of course development provides substantial opportunities for reflective practice at every stage. Furthermore, Bloom's Taxonomy is insightful in providing information on what skills students need to acquire and orchestrate to complete a senior thesis. Based on the goals and objectives, the course is designed in a semester divided into three modules of five weeks each. It highlights some of the most significant tasks and activities of each module which address the student's needs and help students attain their goals. Since acquiring logical thinking and writing skills are necessary goals for completing a senior thesis, the focus is placed on them at different stages throughout the course. The finding argues that Graves' framework can provide a standardized point of view in understanding the sequence of the syllabus design, thereby helping teachers identify the skills that students need to orchestrate for writing a substantial lengthy English essay.

Literature Review

Grave's framework of course development processes (2013) was selected from the past literature reviews of the curriculum design frameworks since it is based on the sequential questions as below that help to clearly understand the situation needed at every stage. By answering these questions in order, important points are highlighted, which guides the teacher to the next stage of the process. This can provide a standardized approach to viewing the sequence of the syllabus design, and also reminds teachers of the questions to ask themselves and the issues to pay attention to at every stage.

1.Needs assessment
What are my students' needs? How can I assess them so that I can address them?
2.Determining goals and objectives
What are the purposes and intended outcomes of the course?
3.Conceptualizing content
What will be the backbone of what I teach? What will I include in my syllabus?
4.Selecting and developing materials and activities
How and what will I teach the course with? What is my role? What are my students' roles?
5.Organization of content and activities
How will I organize the content and activities? What systems will I develop?
6.Evaluation
How will I assess what students have learned? How will I assess the effectiveness of the course?
7.Consideration of resources and constraints
What are the givens of my situation?

Table 1: Framework of component (Graves, 1996, p. 13)

Senior Thesis Positioned as a Culmination of University Study

Since working on and completing a senior thesis in English is considered to be the outcome of four-year academic pursuit, Bloom's Taxonomy theorizes the sequential skills that students need to acquire till they complete a senior thesis.

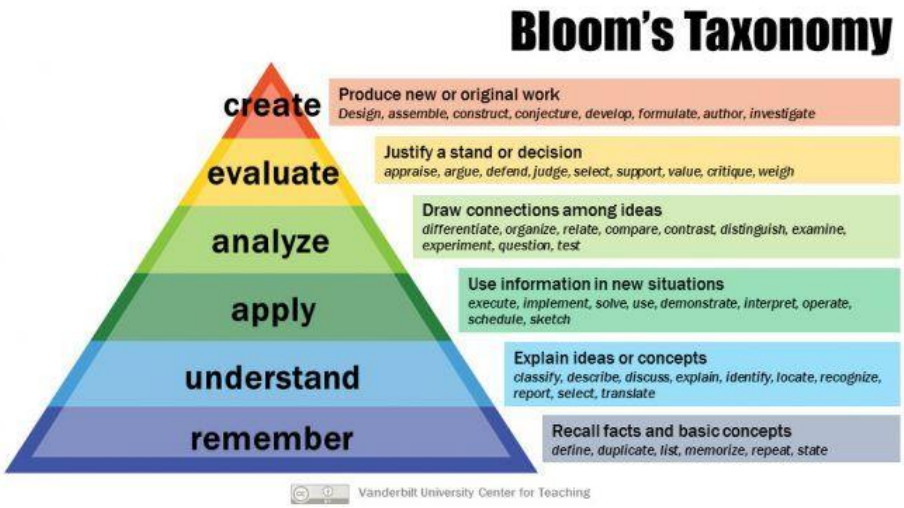


Figure 1: Bloom's Taxonomy
Source: The website of Vanderbilt University Center for Teaching

Japanese students, who have been historically learning passively for most of their student life, have to face the issue of their autonomy, required to take charge of their own learning and writing strategies in the higher order. Since a senior thesis is acknowledged as a culmination of the four years of study, students must actively orchestrate all the skills required for writing a substantial English essay at their discretion abiding by their own decisions. The process necessitates good comprehension of information in English, research skills, and analytical ability with highly logical thinking even before a student reaches the planning stage of process writing. Therefore, it may call for all the knowledge and skills that students have learned at all educational levels in the past. This framework helped the journey of the course design through, and it clarified what skills teachers needed to help students. Furthermore, to enhance the persuasive appeal to students, this framework proved to be quite efficacious. Therefore, as seen in the chart above, students need to utilize the skills at all stages and integrate them to make sense when generating ideas, and composing and finalizing a written essay.

Context of Praxis

The setting of this writing course is within a university where the author teaches, which is a local women's university situated in Japan. It was founded in 1879 and is one of the oldest private schools in Japan, established by a Methodist missionary. Not all students are fluent speakers of English. Therefore, the students are pressured to improve their scores on standardized tests such as TOEIC. The students started paragraph writing in the first year, and in the third year, they have to take this course as compulsory before they start writing a senior thesis in the fourth year. Paradoxically, the students have the liberty to choose to write the senior thesis in English or Japanese. As the result, only 5-20% of the students choose to write a senior thesis in English every year.

Goals and Objectives in Syllabus

Here are the goals and objectives of this course stipulated in the syllabus.

1. To acquire the logical thinking and writing skills necessary to complete a graduation thesis.
2. To be able to determine the topic of the graduation research and organize the arguments related to it.
3. To be able to give a systematic presentation on the topic.

Mainly the goals and objectives are divided into these three. They cover the preparation process in the process writing. The syllabus does not also require students to research for or make an interim presentation in English.

Three Modules in 15 Weeks

One semester of fifteen weeks is divided into three modules of five weeks respectively. This paper presents a few most characteristic tasks and activities of each module. Here is the list of course content for Module I.

Module I

In Module I, students are expected to research and determine the topic for the senior thesis. They need to brainstorm and pick a topic from whatever they have studied and found interesting, but the topic needs to be based on their field, one of three areas of study: either intercultural communication, international business, or teacher development. For instance, in case a student is interested in international business, she needs to choose a topic from the field of international business, and then she possibly researches a few global enterprises and compares and contrasts the operations and company cultures, for example. The area of interest is deemed to be a very good starting point to consider in the senior thesis.

W	Course content
1	Intro, Cultural thought pattern
2	Keyword sharing
3	Brainstorming
4	Concept map
5	Library orientation

Figure 2: Module I

In the first week, cultural thought patterns were considered because writing in Japanese and English is different. Kaplan's framework of cultural thought patterns (1966) was introduced to students. They are classic but still convincing to students. A matching quiz between ethnicities and visual thought patterns was presented.

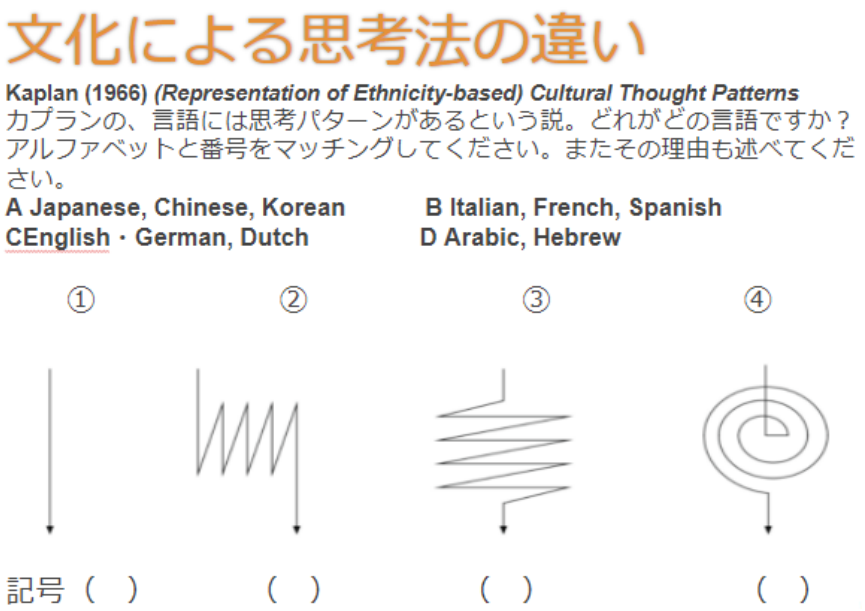


Figure 3: A class slide for Module I
Source: Kaplan's Cultural Thought Patterns (1966)

This finding seemed to be shocking and interesting to the students because they found that the thought pattern that they feel accustomed to was no longer useful but realized that they had to think and write as native speakers of English did. However, the class was successful in emphasizing that straightforward thinking and writing should be focused on from then on.

Module II

Students need to have determined the topic for the senior thesis as the result of brainstorming and come up with a concept map by this stage. Subsequently, an outline will be created after the concept map is converged. Brainstorming a map and creating a concept map is a successive process of divergent thinking and convergent thinking.

W	Course content
6	Converge Concept map
7	Create an outline
8	Make an outline of an academic paper
9	Structure the thesis
10	Submit the topic and overview

Figure 4: Module II

To go through this convergent process, a concept map needs to have at least thirty concepts or more to select a topic (Kiyosawa et. al., 2018). Therefore, students were instructed to select only a few most significant words in the middle as the keywords in the research. They arranged concepts other than the keywords in a visibly related way using a linking line. On the linking lines, they need to come up with the linking words or phrases. Concepts are nouns, and the linking arrow needs to convey the linking phrase. Coming up with linking phrases

needed time generally speaking because that is the connection between the ideas and must be logical and that is where students need to demonstrate logical thinking.

Module III

The main event in this module is the student presentation that summarizes the research about the topic they choose.

W	Course content
11	Prep. For presentation(1)
12	Prep. For presentation(2)
13	Creating References
14	Presentation Day (1)
15	Presentation Day (2)

Figure 5: Module III

Students need to know much about each item they talk about. The presentation has to include a. The reason why the student chose the topic, b. background information, c. learning from literature review, d. thesis statement, e. structure of the thesis. Therefore, the final presentation in Module III functions as an interim information session for the senior thesis. If students can articulate the five items, that information will be the basis for the introduction of the senior thesis.

Findings and Implications

There have been numerous findings, reviewing Graves' framework, out of which two are presented here. There are two significant facts worth considering through the two years since the course was first designed and implemented. The first fact is that quite some students, who took the course in the previous year, adopted a new topic for the thesis when they started writing as a senior, meaning that the original topic did not sustain. It is partly because the students' topics were not approved by the senior thesis supervisors, and students decided to give up and change the topic. There may be a few possible reasons. They just change their moods. Or it seems that the students were not able to make themselves understood by the supervisors. Possibly their research was insufficient or inadequate enough to make them talk about the topic. The students need to train students to research more in-depth and to be able to talk about it persuasively.

Second, another discovered fact was that it was difficult for certain students to overcome the issue of delayed submission. Originally, behind the establishment of this course was the intention of starting the senior thesis project ahead of schedule so that a senior can spend more time hunting for jobs or engaging themselves with self-actualization. To address the issue, there was a demerit method adopted in the grading system. However, task delay remains a significant obstacle that continues to require attention.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this article presents the procedure and the main outcomes of a course design to help Japanese third-year students at the pre-writing stage of their senior thesis writing. The course demonstrates its value for teachers and students to enhance their critical and logical thinking skills, research skills, and writing extended essays. For teachers, although teacher reflection was conducted at every stage, it is not discussed in detail. Future research could explore reflective practice as part of professional reflective practice. For students, the task-based learning approach adopted in the course is appropriate to generate ideas, conduct research, and presenting the overview of the thesis. Based on the needs analysis of the students, this course is designed, the student feedback has been quite positive and it can be concluded that the course design is suitable for helping the students to start engaging in a senior thesis. Although some complexities emerged as further challenges, the outcomes suggest that this course offers opportunities for students to improve their thinking and writing skills. In the future, further research could examine the longitudinal impact of this course on the quality of the senior theses and how it can be adapted to improve student motivation and attitude toward writing.

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English Language and Literature Education as a Tool for Opinion Formation and Influence

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The present world, replete with strong opinions in the form of influencers and media houses, is a difficult place to navigate without the ability to think independently and the confidence to voice ideas. In Ayn Rand's classic The Fountainhead, Ellsworth Toohey demonstrates the might of words that can mould popular opinion and shape history. In the process, he lays bare the fragility of the collective mind that can be herded in any desired direction by an eloquent articulator. This danger inherent in the inability of an individual to form independent, well-reasoned opinions can be effectively alleviated in the English Language and Literature class. Literary exposure provides readers with opportunities to inspect and analyse the work from their unique point of view. This critical appreciation can help them hone their ability to form opinions and influence listeners using relevant textual evidence. The current study is the result of the observation that despite sufficient exposure to literary texts, learners at secondary and senior secondary levels in India frequently need the teacher's help in decoding and analysing literary texts. As a result, they become the teacher's echo instead of an individual voice. This qualitative study used Active Learning techniques to read Literature with different groups of Grade IX learners. It aims to demonstrate that an active engagement with the reading process can help learners become independent readers who can form individual opinions and influence listeners by expressing their ideas using relevant textual evidence.

Keywords: Active Reading, English Literature, Textual Interpretation, Opinion Formation, Textual Evidence

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INTRODUCTION

Curriculum Framework and Status of English language in India

English language is "an integral part of the Indian multilingual repertoire," and acts as a "passport to social mobility, higher education and better job opportunities" (NCERT). This has important implications for teaching and curriculum planning as English language introduction "is today being demanded by everyone at the very initial stage of schooling" (NCERT, 2006).

Place of Literature in English L2 Curriculum

The syllabus exposes learners to literature as the curriculum architects believe that "literature should play a pivotal role at the secondary stage of education" (NCERT).

Hence, in India, learners have ample opportunities to read age and level-appropriate prose, verse and drama texts. By the time they reach Middle School, they have received at least six years of instruction in the language and gained exposure to literary works.

Expected Learning Outcomes

The NEP 2020 recognises that learners should "think critically" to be able to thrive in the rapidly changing knowledge landscape in a world with dramatic scientific and technological advances. The document voices the need to empower learners through discovery, analysis and exploration (Ministry of HRD, 2020).

To facilitate this aim, schools are expected to encourage learners to:

- explore concepts, analyse and organize information… and express their ideas (NCERT, 2019).
- At the same time, learners are expected to:
- read with comprehension and not merely decode,
- construct meaning by drawing inferences and relating the texts with previous knowledge,
- express their thoughts effortlessly, confidently and in an organized manner,
- and develop imagination, creativity and aesthetic sensibility, and appreciation (NCERT, 2019).

Role of the English Class

The English class can facilitate these goals by helping learners read "literature from different perspectives and engage in activities for developing communicative competence" (CBSE, 2022-23). Through exposure to literature, which is but a mirror to society, the language and literature class can hone learners' critical thinking, interpretation, and opinion formation. Through nurturing their higher–order thinking skills, the English class can instil the confidence to share their opinion and justify their stance.

Need of the Hour

These expectations are perfectly in sync with the need of the current times. In the 21st century, when the world is inundated with information from sources like the internet and AI,

and teeming with myriad views in the form of electronic media and social media influencers, our learners need to be able to form individual opinions, justify their stance, and convey their ideas confidently.

A failure to do so might make it difficult for them to hold their own around people with differing views.

The Classroom Reality

The challenge, however, is that the classroom reality is quite different. Despite exposure to literature in the form of stories, poems and plays, quite often, learners require teacher intervention to help in decoding the meaning, identifying and appreciating figurative devices, forming an independent opinion, and sharing their opinion on the literary value of a text.

In the context of EFL, appreciating English Literature can be challenging for learners due to various reasons.

1. **Knowledge testing:** Generally, during classroom discussions and exams, teachers ask a greater percentage of knowledge-based questions, rather than inference-based, or analytical questions. Loban highlighted that learners are asked to look for "trivial information," while there is a need to emphasize reading beyond simply "what happened in the story" (Loban, 1954). Though critical to testing understanding, such fact-based questions can stem the development of learners' analytical abilities.

2. **Washback:** This focus on facts rather than analysis could probably be a result of the washback (also known as 'backwash') effect as knowledge of facts generally helps learners perform satisfactorily in examinations. A case in point can be the 2022 CBSE English question paper in which the questions, according to teachers and students were, "direct, rather than being based on extrapolatory perspective," and based on "basic comprehension of the plot and theme" (Indian Express, 2022).

3. **Transactional methods used by teachers**: Teachers in India frequently resort to antiquated teaching methods such as translating texts, providing word meanings (Kalia, 2017), and delivering simplistic explanations of texts rather than inviting discussions. In such a learning environment, Learners begin to "accept the aesthetic judgements of their teachers" (Loban, 1954) rather than engaging with the text. Additionally, they influence learners with their own interpretation of the text (Woodruff & Griffin, 2017) which makes the learners get the incorrect impression that there is only one correct interpretation.

4. **Class Strength and Available time**: Schools in India generally have more than thirty, even as many as fifty-five students in a class. With teacher–student ratio as a concern (Rao, 2018), it is an uphill task to motivate everyone to participate in discussions in the available time of 40 – 50 minutes. As a result, the teaching of literature is robbed of discussion and ends up becoming a lecture where learners don't get the opportunity to brainstorm.

5. **Different Learner Ability:** Owing to a wide range of geographical, cultural, economic, and educational contexts in India, there is a lack of a uniform policy governing the introduction stage (Rao, 2018) and content coverage in the teaching of

English. Due to "a diversity of schools and linguistic environments" (NCERT, 2006) the teaching contexts in schools vary substantially in India. In addition to the type of school, learner exposure to the language also depends on opportunities provided by their home and society.

Due to this diversity, learners are poised at widely different proficiency levels and owing to changes in schools or shifting cities, learners with wide variations in their language proficiency are frequently found together in the same class. Hence, it is difficult for teachers to cater to these differences.

6. **Denotative Vs Connotative Use of Language**: Literary texts pose an additional level of complexity because of the figurative use of language. For an Indian student, who is still in the process of unlocking the potential of the language, it becomes challenging to decode the connotative layer of meaning.

As a result, unless we find a way to nurture independent readers who can form their own opinion regarding texts, learners will continue to depend on the teacher to handhold them through the reading and interpretation process.

Consequences of Teacher-Dependence

The famed Russian filmmaker Andrei Tarkovsky aptly said, "A book read by a thousand different people is a thousand different books." However, when learners wait for the teacher or the support material to act as the fount of knowledge, their voice is stifled. This hampers the development of a vital 21st-century skill, critical thinking, which is reflected in the ability to "effectively analyse and evaluate evidence, arguments, claims and beliefs" (U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

The inability to think critically adversely impacts the formation and voicing of individual ideas. As a result, learners start looking up to the teacher to provide direction to their thought process. They need the teacher to decode the meaning and critically analyse texts. A lack of confidence in their own views and interpretation hinders the development of their individual voice and they become an echo of the teacher's ideas.

In addition to the immediate effect of shaking their confidence in reading independently, this leads to the long-term impact of making them lose interest in extensive reading. The importance of extensive reading in second language development is well established. The English class must instil the confidence to approach literary texts independently and inspire them to read extensively.

Failure to address this at the school level might also have dangerous implications in the real world replete with opinionated people and influencers. If learners do not develop the skill of forming individual views and using relevant supporting details to convince others of the merit of their ideas, they might not be able to convince people with differing viewpoints.

Aim of the Study

Hence, in this study, I aim to establish the utility and importance of Active Learning, specifically, Active Reading, to hone learners' critical thinking and nurture their ability to

independently analyse literary texts, form an individual opinion, and use textual evidence to share their ideas and influence the listener.

LITERATURE REVIEW

What is Active Learning

Active Learning draws upon the theory of constructivism which proposes that learning is a process where new information is added to the foundation of prior knowledge (Feder, 2022). Simply put, it is the opposite of passive learning where instead of sitting listening to teachers and accepting their explanations and interpretations, learners engage with the text to make meaning. It "involves students in doing things and thinking about the things they are doing" (Bonwell & Eison, 1991). In addition to making the learning process immensely interesting and productive, Active Learning can make learners powerful thinkers and better at arguing their points (Bean & Melzer, 2021).

Reading: An Active Process

Instead of being a passive recipient of the ideas presented by the teacher, an ideal reader is an active participant in the meaning-making process, drawing upon their own experiences to generate meaning. Rosenblatt explains it through the term, 'transaction', where "the meaning is being built up through the back-and-forth relationship between reader and text during a reading event" (Rosenblatt & Karolides, 1999).

This transaction exemplifies Tarkovski's assertion stated above because readers sometimes bring "very different assumptions about people and society to the reading" (Rosenblatt & Karolides, 1999).

Active engagement with texts through tasks that make learners think helps the development of critical thinking skills (Haggard, 1988) and nurtures their ability to develop an independent opinion.

Previous Studies

A 1996 study established the importance of "The Use of Critical Thinking Skills in Literary Analysis" on college freshmen and demonstrated that the use of critical thinking skills in literary analysis can help students struggling to form well-reasoned arguments (Esplugas & Landwehr, 2008).

Current Study

This study, centred around the secondary and higher secondary levels, argues that the first steps towards the ability to analyse texts independently should be taken at the school level as not all school students will go on to focus on literary studies in college. Irrespective of the choice of subject in college, the ability to read a text, form an opinion or response, and communicate individual ideas is an important life skill. Hence, it should be nurtured at the school level.

To this effect, the present study aims to demonstrate that the use of active reading can hone learners' critical thinking, opinion formation and expression, which are core skills that everyone must possess to be able to navigate the world confidently.

METHODOLOGY

The current paper is the result of research conducted independently over a period of two years. For this qualitative study, the data was collected through the participant observation method where the researcher observed the difference in learner activity and performance while teaching classes taught using the traditional approach and the Active Learning approach.

Participants

The study involved teaching a particular verse to six different groups of learners. These learners, taught in groups of eight to ten, belonged to various private schools in India. Their language proficiency was at the required level and school, they were used to being taught using the traditional method detailed below.

Observations that Inspired the Research

While teaching students in grades IX and X, the researcher noticed that despite sufficient exposure to literature through their textbooks, learners required the teacher to 'explain' the text to them.

Consequently, the teacher's ideas influenced their opinion on characters, plot, and writer's craft. Learners displayed limited confidence in interpreting the connotative meaning, and their individual response to literature and events was either non-existent or unconvincing. They were unable to find relevant supporting arguments or textual evidence to convince the listener of their ideas.

To counter these limitations, the researcher employed Active Learning and Reading techniques to observe how it helped them critically analyse literature to form an individual opinion and identify textual evidence to argue their point of view convincingly.

There is a host of Active Learning and Reading techniques (Iowa State University) that can be used to increase learner participation in classes. I used a wide range of those techniques with many literary texts and always found the interaction to be livelier, and learners surer of their understanding. In the present paper, I am detailing the employment of the activity 'Think-Pair-Share' for teaching the seminal work, The Road Not Taken by Robert Frost to grade IX learners in India.

The Traditional Method

Generally, literary texts are introduced through a discussion where the teacher acquaints learners with the important place the writer/ poet/ playwright holds in the literary landscape. In the case of the text in question, the textbook presents the poet as someone, "who writes simply, but insightfully, about common, ordinary experiences" (NCERT, n.d.). Some teachers, while introducing the work in the class, add additional biographical information to help learners understand his literary greatness and the inspiration behind the work.

The theme of the poem is then presented in the textbook by mentioning, “This well-known poem is about making choices” (NCERT, n.d.). Additionally, the class is involved in a pre-reading discussion where they recall if they ever found themselves at such a crossroads.

After this preliminary discussion, the text is read either individually or collectively and discussions, which are a mix of line-wise or thematic explanations, are held to ensure that learners understand the work.

Impact: Immediate

The immediate impact on the learner is that once the literary value of the poet is established, the learner is awed by the stature. Consequently, while reading the work, the learner can find only examples of elevated ideas and appreciable expression. Even if individual learners feel that some ideas were mundane or insufficiently developed, they dare not pit their thoughts against such a literary genius. Consequently, in the ensuing discussion, learners try to stifle any criticism or observations they might wish to direct towards the work as they don’t have to courage to suggest that they could make an addition to the text. They wait for the safe route of the teacher explaining the most commonly accepted interpretation and adopt it unquestioningly.

As far as their response to the work is concerned, one important reason behind an abiding interest in a literary work, beyond the time and place of its creation, is the way individual readers respond to it. When a framework of ideas is presented before learners get an opportunity to construct their individual opinion regarding the themes, content, and aims of work, they become wary of approaching it from their viewpoint.

Impact: Long Term

Over some time, this approach silences any possible dissentient voices. Before expressing their views on anything they read, learners start feeling the need to know about the popular opinion regarding the writer before they can voice their individual thoughts.

Their imagination becomes limited and the expanse of possible interpretations becomes quite narrow.

An Alternative Approach: Active Learning

Procedure

To provide free rein to learners’ imagination, I invited them to read the verse, The Road Not Taken, without any moorings of the poet’s name or writing style, literary or historical background, and the reception of the work by literary critics.

Active Learning Technique used: *Think-Pair-Share*

Step 1: THINK

They simply engaged with the text to answer a set of questions that were designed to engage higher-order thinking skills, as defined by Bloom’s Taxonomy.

To ensure that learners get the opportunity to think about the work employing a range of cognitive domains, the following Task Sheet idea was created.

S.No.	Question/ Brainstorming Topic	Cognitive Domain	Keyword
1	Read the title and guess the theme.	Synthesis	Predict, propose, estimate
2	Read the poem once or twice and identify the characters, setting, and action.	Knowledge	Who, what, where, tell, recall
3	What is the poet's dominant thought in the beginning? How do thoughts change throughout the poem?	Comprehension	Explain, outline
4	What is the reason behind the poet's state of mind?	Comprehension	Interpret
5	Identify the characteristics of the roads mentioned by the poet.	Application	Choose, select, identify
6	Is there a figurative meaning to the poem?	Analysis	Discover, examine, inspect
7	How would you have reacted in the poet's situation?	Synthesis	Construct, create, develop, imagine, estimate, theorize
8	What is the poet's message?	Synthesis	Estimate, develop, theorize, propose
9	How would you have reacted in a similar situation?	Synthesis	Imagine, theorize, elaborate, construct
10	If you were the poet, what would you write differently? Why?	Synthesis	Imagine, compile, create, develop
11	Do you think the poet's thought is justified? What are the reasons?	Evaluation	Decide, evaluate, justify, criticize, assess,
12	Choose the words or phrases that you find impactful. Justify your selection.	Evaluation	Choose, evaluate, justify, prove

Table 1: Task Sheet_ Teacher's Copy

Instructions to learners:

- Attempt the first question after reading just the title, before reading the poem.
- For the rest of the questions/ brainstorming topics, responses can be written sequentially or randomly.
- Read the text once or twice before beginning to write ideas.
- Along with the response, mention the reason for your opinion. It could be based on textual evidence or your inference.

Learners' Copy:

The questions/ brainstorming points provided to the learners:

S.No.	Question/ Brainstorming Topic	Response	Textual Evidence/ Justification
1	Read the title and guess the theme.		
2	Read the poem once or twice and identify the characters, setting, and action.		
3	What is the poet's dominant thought in the beginning? How do thoughts change throughout the poem?		
4	What is the reason behind the poet's state of mind?		
5	Identify the characteristics of the roads mentioned by the poet.		
6	Is there a figurative meaning to the poem?		
7	How would you have reacted in the poet's situation?		
8	What is the poet's message?		
9	How would you have reacted in a similar situation?		
10	If you were the poet, what would you write differently? Why?		
11	Do you think the poet's thought is justified? What are the reasons?		
12	Choose the words or phrases that you find impactful. Justify your selection.		

Table 2: Task Sheet_ Learners' Copy

Step 2: PAIR

Once learners completed their response sheet individually, they were paired up with another learner and instructed to discuss the responses with each other.

At this stage, if their responses were similar, their belief in their interpretation became stronger. Alternatively, if they came across some alternative ideas, they arrived at a consensus through a discussion where they employed textual evidence to prove the validity of their ideas.

Step 3: SHARE

At this stage, the pairs were invited to share their interpretation with the rest of the learners. At any point, if the ideas differed, the entire group came together to brainstorm and arrive at the most plausible explanation. The teacher also weighed in with background information and the dominant discourse regarding the literary work.

Findings

- **Classroom Environment**

The approach resulted in an energized discussion that reflected independent thinking. In the initial stage, if the class was quiet, it was not due to boredom or fear of expression. On the contrary, it was due to deep engrossment in the text. Consequently, when the discussion was opened to the whole class, everyone was quite confident and excited to participate.

- **Opportunities for Language Development**

Traditionally, learners get limited opportunities to speak with partners or the whole class. When a discussion is underway, they are expected to think of ideas and formulate their response in a brief span of time.

'Think-pair-share', provided ample time to form a response in the 'think' stage. Additionally, in the 'pair' stage, they were able to speak confidently in the absence of fear of censure by a large group. Consequently, by the time they reached the 'share' stage, they were quite confident of their ideas and were able to speak confidently to -influence the listeners.

- **Individual Opinion**

In the lessons taught earlier, learners used to approach the work with the information that the 'road' in the poem is a metaphor for choice. When the connotative meaning was provided upfront, the sense of achievement in decoding the puzzle presented by the poet was missing.

Now, they discovered this idea on their own. In the process, they undertook their own journeys of arriving at the meaning.

Many learners began by perceiving it to be an account of a physical journey and read the descriptions of the road as a literal word picture. After discussions with peers, when they arrived at the figurative layer, they felt an immense sense of achievement.

Additionally, it helped them feel confident and excited about reading other literary works and arriving at the poet's message.

- **Personalization**

Earlier, learners used to focus on the poet's circumstances that inspired the work.

Now, however, learners shared many personalized examples of dilemmas, for example choosing a holiday destination, a dress for a party, a subject stream, or a career, where they felt like they were standing at a 'fork'.

Once they recalled having faced a dilemma in their lives, the work became real for them and they could immediately relate to the line "sorry I could travel both".

- **Alternative Interpretations**

Traditionally, learners would be too focused on the conditions in Robert Frost's life that inspired him to write the poem. At the same time, they wanted the teacher to provide them with an interpretative direction to start decoding the work. When they feel a dependence on the poet's background or the literary age, they are not able to engage freely with the words in front of them. Consequently, to read any new work, they needed to have some background information.

Learners were also able to provide a modern take on the poem, confidently diverging from the traditional interpretations. Commenting on the lines, "Yet knowing how way leads on to way, I doubted if I should ever come back," they said that with the opportunities these days, it is possible for people to juggle options rather than making definitive choices. E.g. one could pursue an online course in music along with a college degree in Mathematics. Hence, they can travel both ways, albeit with a difference in the way they are treaded.

- **Waning Teacher Dependence**

In the earlier discussions, they would always look up to the teacher to pass the final judgement on whether the poet was happy or regretful of the decision. Here, they were able to discover an inherent confusion when they started thinking about the two possible meanings of 'sigh' – where some learners perceived it as a sigh of relief while others looked at it as a sigh of regret.

- **Confident in making suggestions to alter the work**

I also noticed that the learners were extremely confident in making alternate suggestions in the title or content along with sound logic for the same. E.g. an alternate title suggested was "The Road Less Travelled" as they noticed that one of the distinctions was that it 'wanted wear' and the poet also says that he took the less travelled one.

- **Alternative Themes Brainstormed**

Since the theme of 'choice' was not introduced at the beginning, learners came up with different ideas. For e.g., one idea suggested was 'boldness' – since the poet took a chance on a path that was previously unexplored.

- **Increased Confidence and Interest in Extensive Reading**

The experience of using Active Learning made the learners feel confident about reading beyond the curriculum. They were able to see how individual or team brainstorming can help them decode and analyse a text.

At the same time, they realised that there is not necessarily a correct and incorrect interpretation of literary texts. The text can mean different things to different people and all they need to do is find relevant evidences to justify their stance.

CONCLUSION

This is ongoing research and I wish to experiment with many more active learning techniques with different texts. Based on the observations with this study, it can be concluded that using Active Learning techniques for reading in class can help facilitate an important aim of English Language and Literature teaching, namely nurturing learners' ability to form independent opinion on literary texts and using textual evidence to convince others of the validity of their interpretation.

Whenever learners feel uncertain about the meaning or message of a text, teachers may provide scaffolds such as lexical support or discreetly draw learners' attention towards an important aspect of the text. Helping them with decoding, interpreting, or analysing the text, however, can be self-defeating to the purpose of the class. On the other hand, leaving the learners without any direction could also lead to frustration. Hence, the use of Active Learning comes to the rescue by engaging learners in such a manner that textual exploration becomes an organic process rather than a forced one.

Active Learning ensures that in addition to decoding literature, learners make use of the language while thinking or expressing themselves. Since using language for communication is the key to developing proficiency, learners will develop their linguistic proficiency as well.

All the information about the poet and the times should be provided in such a manner that it does not interfere with the meaning-making and opinion formation regarding the text. Hence, we can provide this either after they have engaged with the text, or in such a manner that it does not interfere with the individual thought process.

As far as possible, we should let the learner engage with the text as an individual, forming opinions unique to themselves. Once that happens, they are easily able to find relevant textual evidence to influence others.

Acknowledgements

Mr Anurag Srivastava
Dr Shelly Pandey
Dr Ananya Singh

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Educational Services for Students With Disabilities From Moving-In to Moving-Out of Chiang Mai University

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
The research objectives were to examine the state of educational services that Disability Support Services Center at Chiang Mai University (DSSCMU) provided to students with disabilities in compliance with the four strategies of education for individuals with disabilities in higher education under the Office of The Higher Education Commission. There were 59 participants in the study, who consisted of the DSSCMU staff and students with disabilities (SWDs). Research tools included 1) a questionnaire, 2) an interview form, and 3) a focus group form. Analyzed research data was reported using frequencies, percentages, means, standard deviation, and content analysis. The findings on the state of educational services offered to students showed that the DSSCMU was in compliance with all four outlined higher education strategies for individuals with disabilities. With respect to Strategy 1 – Providing Opportunities, the results showed that the SWDs had been recruited into Chiang Mai University by special projects (58.62%) and general exams (41.37%); Strategy 2 – Individual Educational Services, that most services which SWDs received were tutoring services (70.68%); Strategy 3 – Special Education Development, that DSSCMU disseminated knowledge about disabilities by encouraging and providing opportunities for students with or without disabilities to engage in activities together; and Strategy 4 – Employment Reaching-out, that collaborative projects with successful entrepreneurs or individuals helped inspire SWDs to develop themselves in order to meet the needs of the labor market.

Keywords: Students With Disabilities, Chiang Mai University, Disability Support Services Center

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Introduction

Thailand government sees education as an important factor that will increase opportunities for people with disabilities to pursue careers and become self-reliant with dignity. Therefore, it aims to provide thoroughly and equitably both basic and higher education to people with disabilities so that they receive quality education. Higher education, the last level before leaving for a career, is especially important because people with disabilities require more effort than non-disabled people to be able to graduate under limited potential, as well as to provide education that may not be conductive to their limitations. For this reason, the Office of The Higher Education Commission or the Office of The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Higher Education, Science, Research and Innovation has established four strategic frameworks of education for individuals with disabilities in higher education. Strategy 1: Providing opportunities, to allocate educational opportunities for potential students with disabilities to attend higher education institutions, Strategy 2: Individual Educational Services, to develop 1) support services system for SWDs in higher education institutions, 2) special education personnels, and 3) appropriate curriculum and learning processes for SWDs, Strategy 3: Special Education Development, to conduct research and new knowledges on people with disabilities and Strategy 4: Employment Reaching-out, to promote supportive cooperation in careers of graduates with disabilities (Office of The Higher Education Commission, 2006). Therefore, in order to achieve the above strategies, higher education institutions in Thailand have established the Disability Support Service (DSS) to provide comprehensive support services for SWDs from entry to graduation. (Tongsookdee & Chaichompu, 2016-2017). Naturally, SWDs are less likely to succeed in higher education, earn their degrees, and often take more time to earn their degrees than the able-bodied majority. These students face stigma related to their disability and lack of acceptance among their peers and professors (Heyer, 2017). According to Simon (2020), SWDs academic abilities can be improved when their self-efficacy has improved and their positive experiences become greater when the accommodations are consistent and reliable. Cunninghame, Costello & Trinidad. (2016), also noted that if SWDs receive appropriate support, there is a high probability of achieving higher education.

In 2016, only 34 percent of Thai universities had DSS, while the number of SWDs increased more than 10 times during the year 2003-2016 (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2017). The increasing numbers shows that development of DSS services to accommodate the diversity of needs of SWDs is needed. This is in line with Peterson (2016) which stated that providers in DSS must be proactive and reactive because existing solutions may not meet the needs or suit 2 students with the same disability. Additionally, Scott, Markel, Wessel & Desmond (2018) said that optimizing support services for SWDs brings significant benefits for them. This includes education, future careers, and also contributes to increase knowledges about disability services.

Chiang Mai University, the first public university in northern Thailand, has focused more on education for people with disabilities for a long time. In the academic year 2021, DSSCMU, with 11 staff, which is the largest number of staff among universities in the Upper North Region, provides educational support services to 5 groups of SWDs including 1) Visual impairments 2) Hearing impairment 3) Physical or movement or health impairments 4) Learning disabilities and 5) Autism. It has many characteristics that allows SWDs to receive comprehensive and timely services and contributes to several positive attitudes towards one's own disability (Jarunondrakul, 2022), which is one of the key factors for people with disabilities to equally live with others in the community and also live with dignity. Therefore,

the researcher was interested in studying DSSCMU's service conditions to reflect the quality of the services in supporting educational management for SWDs in Chiang Mai University. It is hoped that the results of the study will give other DSS guidances for educational services development for SWDs to gain more effective results. Moreover, the researcher also hope to provide information for relevant agencies at a high level to formulate policies to support and help SWDs succeed in higher education which will help increasing opportunities for people with disabilities to live in society with quality, equality and human dignity according to the potential of each person.

Research objective

The purpose of this study is to examine the state of educational services that Disability Support Services Center at Chiang Mai University (DSSCMU) provided to students with disabilities in compliance with the four strategies of education for individuals with disabilities in higher education.

Research Methodology

In this study, a mixed-methods approach, both quantitative and qualitative data collection, is adopted. The methods including survey questionnaires for DSSCMU staff and SWDs, semi-structured interviews for DSSCMU staff and then focus group for SWDs are deployed.

Participants

1 DSSCMU staff assigned by director and 58 SWDs who applied for educational services from DSSCMU in academic year 2021 participated in this study. Samplings were 1 DSSCMU staff for semi-structured interview and 1 SWDs from each categories of disabilities, 5 totally, who voluntarily attended focus groups.

Instruments

The researcher studied concepts, theories, laws, and related researches to design data collection tools. After completion, there are four data collection tools: 1) Google Forms questionnaire for DSSCMU staff; consist of a check list, a rating scale, and open-ended questions. 2) Google Forms questionnaires for SWDs, which is a check list, a rating scale and open-ended questions, 3) a semi-structured interview for DSS staff, 4) a focus group for SWDs. The draft of the four instruments were presented to the thesis advisor for review and appropriateness of the questions and improvements, and then the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) were scored by 3 experts. The four conformity indexes range from 0.66 to 1.00.

Data Collection

Data was collected in three phases. The first phase included:

1. Conducting a questionaire of DSSCMU Staff. The questionaire consisted of a total of 53 questions, with check list, rating scale and open end questions through Google Form. The questions were to examine the state of educational services that DSSCMU provided to SWDs in compliance with the four strategies of education for individuals with disabilities. The questionaire was conducted from 4th January 2020 through 16th February 2020.

2. Conducting questionaires of SWDs. The questionaires consisted of a total of 84 questions, with check list, rating scale and open end questions through Google Form. The questions were to examine the satisfaction of SWDs toward educational services provided by DSSCMU. The questionaire was conducted from 4th January 2020 through 24th February 2020.

The second stage of data collection included focus group 2 SWDs. The researchers extracted data from the first stage results to create focus group guides. The focus group were held on June 2020 via ZOOM application and were conducted 40-55 minutes.

The third stage of data collection included semi-structured interviewing 1 DSSCMU Staff. The researchers also extracted data from the first stage results along with data from focus group to create interview guides. The interviews were conducted to obtain more in-depth data on August 2020, and interviews were conducted onsite and lasted 45 minutes to 1 hour.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data analyzed using computer programs including frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviation. The content analysis used for qualitative data section, are summarized inductively according to the objectives of the research and presented descriptively in accordance with strategic framework 1-4.

Findings

The survey findings comprise four parts as follows:

Part 1: State and barriers of DSSCMU divided by four strategies of Education for Individuals with Disabilities

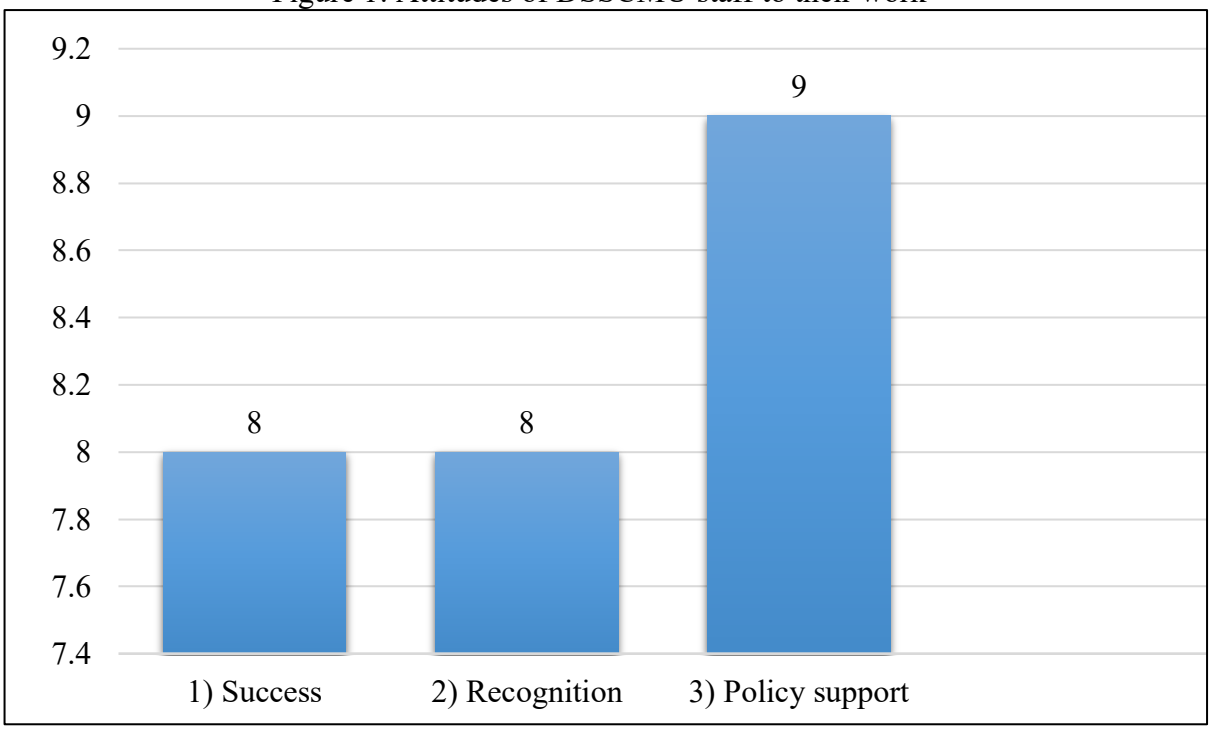
Strategy 1: Providing Opportunities	
State	1) Chiang Mai University recruits SWDs through special projects (58.62%) and general exams (41.37%). 2) DSSCMU promotes admissions information through its website and proactively conducts further study guidances to high school SWDs.
Barriers	1) Some groups of SWDs do not yet have or are less likely to pursue higher education. 2) A number of SWDs requested to transfer during the academic year.
Strategy 2: Individual Educational Services	
State	1) DSSCMU is capable of being a consulting agency in all items. The most counseling service for SWDs is Planning for study and travel issues. 2) DSSCMU divides SWDs into small groups with 5-6 members and assign all staff to lead the groups. Each staff responsible for listening directly to problems or needs from SWDs within the group in order to reduce the process and duration of response from DSSCMU. 3) All DSSCMU staff can work interchangeably in all positions. Enhance work continuity and efficiency. 4) The management of Chiang Mai University consider the importance of educational management of SWDs as equal as general students, and participates and fully supports the work of DSSCMU. 5) DSSCMU provides tutoring services, materials production with repairment services, assistive facilities, accommodations and training on university life skills. 6) SWDs service requested the most was tutoring services (70.68%)
Barriers	56.89% of SWDs do not use material services and 41.38% do not request for assistive facilities that DSS provided.
Strategy 3: Special Education Development	
State	DSSCMU organizes or sends staff to seminars related to disabilities, provides opportunities for faculty members and staff to exchange information and views on disability together, and provides opportunities for students with and without disabilities to engage in activities together.
Barriers	Only a few SWDs are involved in creating knowledges about disabilities for other students and university.
Strategy 4: Employment Reaching-out	
State	DSSCMU inspires SWDs by providing opportunities in meeting people with disabilities who have achieved motivational work and recruit disabled graduates to work at university.
Barriers	Only a few graduates with disabilities are employed to work at university.

Table 1: State and barriers of DSSCMU divided by
four strategies of education for individuals with disabilities

Part 2: Attitudes of DSSCMU staff to their work

DSSCMU staff expressed attitude by scoring based on 3 defined topics: 1) Success in helping SWDs 2) Recognition of the DSSCMU work from students, staff, and university personnels and 3) Policy and budget support from managements. Total score is 10 points. The results shows that DSSCMU staff scored between 8-9 out of 10 which mean their attitudes toward their work are in EXCELLENT level.

Figure 1: Attitudes of DSSCMU staff to their work



Part 3: Satisfaction of SWDs in Chiang Mai University to DSSCMU services according to the 4 strategic frameworks (N = 58)

SWDs satisfaction rate to the educational services received, with respect to the four strategies of education for individuals with disabilities in higher education under the Office of The Higher Education Commission, are rated HIGH in every strategies.

Strategy	**n**	**SWDs satisfaction**		
		$\bar{x}$	**S.D.**	**Score**
1. Providing Opportunities	58	3.65	0.74	HIGH
2. Individual Educational Services	58	3.78	0.73	HIGH
3. Special Education Development	58	3.98	0.82	HIGH
4. Employment Reaching-out	58	3.70	0.99	HIGH
	Average	**3.81**	**0.72**	**HIGH**

Table 2: Satisfaction of SWDs to educational services provided by DSSCMU

Part 4: Attitudes of student with disabilities towards DSSCMU's work and towards themselves (N = 58)

SWDs attitude rate toward DSSCMU's work and toward themselves were expressed by scoring based on 6 defined topics: 1) Equality in University 2) Cooperation from advisors 3) Cooperation from lecturers 4) DSSCMU overview services 5) Confidence in graduation and 6) Confidence in having a job. Total score is 10 points. The results shows that SWDs average scores are all in BEST level.

Strategy	n	SWDs satisfaction		
		$\bar{x}$	S.D.	Score
1. Equality in University	57	6.70	1.98	BEST
2. Cooperation from advisors	56	7.75	1.81	BEST
3. Cooperation from lecturers	57	7.75	1.73	BEST
4. DSSCMU overview services	57	7.60	2.01	BEST
5. Confidence in graduation	57	7.44	2.36	BEST
6. Confidence in having a job	56	6.82	1.86	BEST

Table 3: Attitudes of SWDs towards DSSCMU's work and towards themselves

Discussion

Based on the findings, the results can be discussed as follows:

DSSCMU service conditions and issues

According to the research, Chiang Mai University recruits qualified SWDs through general exams and recruits individually through special projects. Informations of admission are publicized through the website and proactively visit inclusive schools in northern Thailand to give admission guidances. This help increasing opportunities of SWDs entering higher education. In accordance with the Education for Persons with Disabilities Act. 2551 B.E. higher education institutions in all affiliations are responsible for accepting a reasonable proportion or number of persons with disabilities in accordance with the criteria and procedures prescribed by the Board of Directors (Ministry of Education, 2008) and the National Education Plan 2560-2579 B.E. stated that principles of education are Education for All, and Inclusive Education (Ministry of Education, 2017). It also found that a number of SWDs have requested to transfer their faculty during their studies. This is partly due to the lack or insufficient information about faculty that accepts applications for students with disabilities. As Heyer (2017) says, SWDs achieve higher education and graduate at a low rate and from that rate in many cases it takes longer than fellow non-disabled students to graduate, and Sharma (2017) that says the graduation rate of disabled students is still delayed compared to their peers who are not disabled. One of the key factors is understanding of process of working of DSS from university administrators. If concern person in high ranking prioritize education managements for SWDs without negative attitude or ignorance of support, it will inevitably affect the education of SWDs effectiveness and success of the system. As Bronfenbrenner (1979) said social ecology. (Ecological Framework) driven by 4 systems: Microsystem (small system), Mesosystem (central system), Exosystem (external system), and Macrosystem. (big system) which influences each other. University administrators, who are in a large system, therefore make an impact on other systems. Reasonably, it can be said that the positive attitude from the management has greatly affected the quality of education of SWDs because it is not only promote concrete practices that are in line with the policy but also directly affects the morale of the operator staff to whom many of them have worked under pressure for extended periods of time. In other words, DSSCMU provide quality services to integrated education support at a certain level. This is in accordance with the Regulations of the Board of Education for People with Disabilities on the Management of Higher Education for People with Disabilities. 2552 B.E. article 5 stated that higher education institutions shall be responsible for providing facilities, assistive technology, material services and other relevant educational services for people with disabilities, teaching & learning, measurement and evaluation in accordance with the special needs of each SWDs. (Ministry of Education, 2009) However, the findings also show that 56.89 percent of SWDs

do not use material services and 41.38 percent do not request for assistive facilities from DSS. This may be due to such students having disabilities at a level that does not require these services, or that the materials programs and assistive facilities provided may, in fact, not meet their needs. In terms of promoting employment, DSSCMU was found prepare graduates with disabilities to have employment through a variety of programs, and most SWDs have a high level of confidence in employment. With all that said, it is concluded that after providing the opportunity to attend university, DSSCMU also continues to provide assistance to SWDs until graduation, which is an important and essential role for the educational achievement of SWDs on campus. As Sila (2020) said, there is statistically significant difference in the academic performance of SWDs who engaged with DSS and those who did not use disability services. SWDs who engaged with DSS beyond their initial registration had higher cumulative GPAs regardless of their disability category, gender, and year of study.

Satisfaction of SWDs with DSSCMU services

Overall, SWDs were satisfied with DSSCMU's services at a HIGH level. There is also a HIGH level of satisfaction with the Employment Reaching-out and EXCELLENT level of confidence in having a job. In other words, DSSCMU has successfully provided satisfactory levels of educational support for SWDs. This is partly due to the effective response to SWDs' needs by working interchangeably in a transdisciplinary teamwork manner that increases efficiency and supports the development of collaboration (Dangpala, 2022). Moreover, it is important to have the SWDs perspective of satisfaction with the accommodations and services provided to them from disability related services (Blackwell, 2018) so that DSSCMU and other DSS can use these information, in different contexts at different universities, to plan the allocation of service items in a qualitative rather than quantitative way.

Educational services guidelines for development of DSS in Thailand

According to the research, DSSCMU supports SWDs from the beginning of admission until graduation, and continues to provide assistances in obtaining employment. In other words, DSSCMU's performance is bound to SWDs throughout their academic life until after graduation. In fact, most SWDs want to finish their studies and be able to take care of themselves independently and equally in society, which are the most tangible ways to improve the quality of life for people with disabilities. By providing quality educational services, it helps SWDs achieve their educational goals and let them have opportunities to live their life that way. For this reason, DSS in Thailand should improve educational services for SWDs beginning with implementation of the selection of high school students with disabilities' goals for higher education that may need to be proactively evaluated in conjunction with teachers and students themselves. For example, DSSCMU used to coordinate with the Department of Arts Education to allow autistic students to sit in first-year subjects in the summer semester. That activity allows students to make suitable decision whether to study in this field or another discipline, etc., which will contribute in reducing the transfer request during the academic year from SWDs. In result, it will reduce the budget for educational investment for SWDs, and will also increase the chances of academic success for SWDs too. As Kobkaew (2015) said that the first important step in providing opportunities for SWDs to have the right to pursue higher education is through coordination between universities and schools that refer them to co-education. Uneven publicity of special projects can result in the closure of educational opportunities for SWDs.

Encouraging university administrators to understand the importance of providing education for SWDs positively is the next important thing that cannot be neclected. If administrators see disability as not a problem but a difference and trust that SWDs be able to learn and archieve educational goal, it will result in SWDs getting opportunities through quality support system and enhance more chances to develop themselves. This can be done by communicate and collaborate more between DSS staff and administrators. In this regard, concern personnels must be aware of the importance of the context around SWDs and find ways to support them in the appropriate environment. By collaborating with all parties to support education management for SWDs, it will bring a broader impact and drive the development of SWDs in society together because all sections of society are influencing each other (Utthayotha, 2013). DSS should encourage researches on facilitating SWDs appropriately and individually in order to be able to provide more effectively support that suits the diverse needs of them. Such researches may help DSS find ways to develop beyond materials, for example, alternative or short courses to enhance competencies and educational opportunities higher than basic education for a number of disabled students who want to attend university but are unable to do so due to various limitations. This "Win-Win" educational arrangement not only increase the chances of SWDs' education but also open up new markets for higher education at the same time.

In terms of promoting employment, considering the fact that disabled graduates are not all employed, this may partly come from the employer's uncertainty that people with disabilities are hardly be able to work then resulted in a large denial of employment of people with disabilities. Therefore, DSSCMU should play an additional role in increasing the employment opportunities of people with disabilities at the national level by inviting the other DSS throughout the country for joining forces as a network calling on the government to actively develop and enforce policies that cover employment for people with disabilities in Thailand. Because if graduates with disabilities are given quality educational opportunities along with appropriate support but cannot find a job, DSS perseverance throughout the academic life of them is completely in vain. It is also considered an unfortunate waste of education too. Pracmatical enforcing the employment laws for people with disabilities will help provide education for people with disabilities as a comprehensive educational arrangement and truly improve the quality of life for them at last.

Conclusion

This research concluded that: 1) Chiang Mai University conducts education for SWDs in accordance with strategic framework 1-4 with DSSCMU provide educational support services from admission until after graduation. Barriers to service include: Some groups of SWDs do not yet have or are less likely to pursue higher education; A number of SWDs requested to transfer during the academic year; More than half of SWDs do not use material services and almost half of them do not request for assistive facilities that DSS provided. 2) SWDs are satisfied with all DSSCMU's services with HIGH level 3) The positive attitude of the administrators towards the educational management for SWDs arises from the constant work with the authorities. DSS itself should also create opportunities for administrators to participate and understand the work of DSS too. 4) DSS should evaluate the higher education goals of disabled students in collaboration with teachers and disabled students and promote researches on facilitating appropriate accommodations and opportunities individually for SWDs, and call on the government to actively develop and enforce comprehensive policies on employment for people with disabilities in Thailand to increase employment opportunities for graduates with disabilities. Consider using Universal Design or UD and Universal Design

in Higher Education or UDHE to provide educational support services for SWDs and promote learning communities for all to create equal and effective access to educational information plus ways of living in daily life.

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How the Community Participative Courses Are Carried Out –From an Interdisciplinary Perspective

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Sponsored by the Ministry of Education in Taiwan, three teachers from different department work on the project, and co-teach the course "Eco-Tourism and Community Narratives." Students were led to the community affairs and public issues that were crucial to the community. How the course was carried out and the dilemma the teachers encountered were discussed, and the reflections on how interdisciplinary courses could be better operated were also described.

Keywords: Community Participative Courses, Interdisciplinary Courses, Sustainable Community

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Introduction

Ministry of Education in Taiwan launched a five-year Higher Education Sprout Project (HESP) from 2018. By walking out of the ivory tower and into the local community, universities are encouraged to get teachers and students involved with the community affairs and local development (Su, 2018). Universities are expected to build partnership with the local folks and industries.

Under a Project sponsored by the Ministry of Education in Taiwan, three college teachers co-teach a course named "Eco-Tourism and Community Narratives," one from the Department of Tourism Management, one the Department of (Chinese) Literature, and the other from the Department of Communication who is the author of the article.

By interviewing the other two teachers, the present study demonstrated how a community-based, interdisciplinary course was operated, despite quite a few obstacles.

The field/site in which the community-based course was implemented

A small community was chosen as teaching field /site to practice, located near the university, where people are mainly farming for a living. One of the important cash crop for the community is the bamboo shoots, however, a precious animal species which is also an endemic species in Taiwan lives in these bamboo grove, that is called "farmland tree frogs."

According to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) proposed by United Nations, this course is designed to fulfill the 11th goal, Sustainable Cities and Communities (The Global Goals, 2023), thus, to make cities, human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable. More precisely, it's the target11.4 the course aims to get to, to protect the world's cultural and natural heritage. By preserving the species' habitat, the natural environment of the community is to be safe for wild animals and human beings.

To raise the awareness of ecological conservation, one of my colleague in the department of tourism management, Dr. Hsu has long been working with the local bamboo shoot farmers, encouraged them not to use the pesticides and conventional chemical fertilizers to avoid destroying the tree frogs' habitat.

To promote the sustainable development for the community (Chen, 2017), our colleague and local folks have been giving guided tours in which the local environment, ecological system and animal habitat were introduced and local food (bamboo shoots, of course) was provided to the tourists. The income from the guided tours was given back to the community and those farmers who worked with the university.

This course took students to the field to see people, their land, what they live on, and also the animal species needed to be preserved; the tree frogs and their habitat, and how they can live with people's farming.

Tourism majors vs. Non-tourism majors

Students were asked to differentiate the Eco-tourism and other types of tourism. According to the teacher, students majoring in tourism perform worse than their non-major counterparts in pen-and-paper test, since the tourism majors focus more on the practical perspective, such as

tour planning and design. Tourism majors were led to think as the tourism industry and the practitioners who intend to propose appealing itineraries to the potential customers. On the other hand, the course aims to arouse the non-majors' interest in Eco-tourism and broaden their horizon.

By personal contact with local people and ecological environment, the students should build up the connection physically and sentimentally with the community (Business today, 2018). Furthermore, their engagement might get deeper, such as the produce purchase from the residents, or returning to the field frequently, or even become a tour guide of the community.

Reflections on the interdisciplinary courses: benefits & Challenges

To make the interdisciplinary courses work, the study found the following:

First of all, the courses need sufficient budget to take students to the field to get to know the historical, economic, social, cultural, environmental, industrial or even political backgrounds and contexts. Lecturers, practitioners from the community and industry are needed. To provide activities such as DIY for students to make small souvenirs using local produce and food also needs funding.

It was found that the field trips give students the first-hand experience, to connect students with the community, to build up a sense of identity and empathy. Students from all different disciplines have an opportunity to interact and to work together, formally and informally (Lin, 2019). This is the core value of the interdisciplinary courses.

All three teachers acknowledge that everyone should be in one another's classroom/teaching field, and not to separate the course into three parts and to teach independently. In other words, teachers should genuinely work together, teach together and should be very clear about what the other two had given to the students.

Yet, it is hard to do so since the school or even the project sponsored by the Ministry of Education in Taiwan will not pay the hourly fee to the three of us, only to the lecturers.

Another problem is about time arrangement. Not only the teachers, the students are from all different departments and have different timetables and different commitment to the class. If it's not mission impossible, it is still very hard to arrange the schedule to enter the field and the lectures given by local residents or industry practitioners. We can but admit that it's easier to work with students from the same department, more precisely, students from the same department as the teacher is. With their similar timetables and similar attitude and concern about the course, the community-based courses seem to be more likely operated smoothly.

For its inter-disciplinary characters of the course, the students learn knowledge and techniques from at least three areas. Compared to the one-dimensional course, the teacher would not go too far, or too hard, if the students want to learn better, they might have to spend extra time to self-study to master what they learn in the class, such as making videos or giving guided tours.

How different areas of knowledge and skills integrated in the interdisciplinary, community-based course

The teacher from the tourism management elaborated the concepts and definition of Eco-tourism and showed the students the examples of successful eco-tourism around the world, such as those in Japan and Australia. He also indicated how to lead a guided tour. The teacher from the Chinese literature took the responsibility to enable students to tell good stories about the community and the farmland tree frogs, the species to be preserved. As a professional in the area of communication and media, I was asked to do marketing for the community. I try to make students to write a news release, to build up relationship between media (local or national) and the community.

I engaged students in community events or even hold or assist the events for the community. To spread the information of events via social media, social networking service (SNS), such as FB and Instagram is also what students can do for the local people. After all, young people are the digital natives and the target population we want to arouse the most about the sense of community.

Although the three teachers in charge of this interdisciplinary course have been participating in a project sponsored by the Ministry of Education for years, this is the first time to co-teach. We spent quite amount of time to set the goal for the course and identify the role and mission for each one of us. However, we realized the discussion, communication, coordination is never enough. The students reported that the course has a heavy workload, especially the final project. The three of us assign separate, independent final project, and this is too much for students. Actually we should have integrated the three final requirements into one.

We also came across some unsolvable problems, like, to give a guided tour is not as easy as it seems. Students were asked to search for, edit and create the guiding texts, yet not just pile up some popular science knowledge to cram into the tourists' heads. Most tourists expect to have fun to go on a tour, and not to gain a lot of knowledge. The community narratives should be embedded into one's life and experiences, that is, only when the story teller has the affection for what he tells and the unique, personal experience with what he tells, he may tell a good story. Since most students have limited interaction with local people, community and even the tree frogs and their habitat, it is really hard for them to do a good guided tour. To make the situation worse, we came across the worst outbreak of COVID-19 pandemic in Taiwan when we were carrying out the course, most communities did not allow outsiders to go in, and the school turned on-line and all these impacted the course harshly, especially for my part of the course, since I wanted the students to get into the community to talk to the local residents, to see and record their lives, to film the tree frogs and also the process of the guided tour. In the end, I was forced to compromise with some alternatives, and that was quite frustrating experience in my teaching career.

Conclusions

Interdisciplinary courses have been promoted for quite some time, and considered a good approach for higher education. The administration of education in Taiwan pushed the approach by asking the universities to develop interdisciplinary courses and programs. Some schools even make it mandatory to take these courses or programs before graduation. However, very few discussed how an interdisciplinary course is carried out, and what really

happened in the education site. There are still a lot of problems to be solved and issues to be explored.

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Rethinking Technology Literacy for Effective Technology Integration of Secondary Teachers

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
Technology integration is a popular topic in educational research that provides varying views on classroom implementation. More and more countries execute laws on educational reform to adapt to the progressive technological advances that require new sets of literacies from both teachers and learners. The main challenge for teachers in a developing country is not all share a common understanding of what technology integration is. Technology literacy plays a vital role in defining what makes technology integration in teaching and learning successful. This study investigated the perceptions of secondary teachers on technology integration and the implications of their perceptions with their technology literacy. We surveyed two sets of samples of secondary teachers from a private school in Manila (P=157), with 27 respondents for the qualitative questionnaire and 120 respondents for the quantitative instrument that we developed. The instrument was based on a conceptual framework incorporating: *A Framework for Understanding and Assessing Technology Literacy*, and *Technological Pedagogy Content Knowledge: A Framework for Teacher Knowledge*. A one-way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey HSD test was used to understand the correlation between technology literacy levels. Results propounded that there was a dissonance between how the secondary teachers perceive technology integration and how they perceive their technology literacy. These findings indicated a technology literacy gap that needed to be addressed to make technology integration effective.

Keywords: Technology Literacy, Technology Integration, One2One Learning, Educational Technology, TPACK

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Introduction

In recent years, many studies have pointed out that technology is an integral component of teaching and learning in the 21st century. In a study conducted by Kayalar (2016) on *a Cross-cultural Comparison of Teachers' Views upon Integration and Use of Technology in Classroom*, it was evident that teachers agreed on the need and significant benefits of using individual technological devices for learning. Yet, despite the transformation in teaching and learning practices due to technological devices, the teachers in the study agreed that the fundamentals of teaching and learning remain unchanged. Similar views were discussed in the studies of Davies and West (2013), and Carlson (2016). The onset of these relevant studies inevitably resulted in the creation of many institutional standards and national policies on technology integration in different countries.

According to Bonifacio (2013), integrating technology into teaching and learning has become a great concern for many educators in developing countries like the Philippines. Since Republic Act No. 10533 or *Enhance Basic Education Act of 2013* was passed into law to improve the Philippine educational system, the discussion on the inclusion of technology integration in the K to 12 curricula has been consistently relevant in many basic education institutional policies and teachers' professional development programs of the said country.

The implementation of the law, supported by research, has made educators interpret technology integration through varying contexts in different ways. With so many pressures from the learners, as well as the school, state, and national educational change agendas, teachers are placed in positions where they have good cause to feel anxious (Robertson, Webb, and Fluck, 2007). Educators often teach with technology, which does little to equip students with the skills they need beyond the classroom (Summey, 2013).

Technology is not being integrated into instruction to the degree that most expect (Davies, 2009). There is a common misconception that technology use, for whatever purpose, directly equates to technology literacy, or what Davies cites as the method of technology adoption. Thus, not all share a common understanding of what technology integration is.

This study aimed to understand the perceptions of secondary teachers on technology integration in a private high school in the Philippines and identify their technology literacy level based on Davies (2011) and Mishra and Koehler (2009) to attain the goal of technology integration. The said private high school is a known basic education institution as one of the pioneers of technology integration in the Philippines; with efforts to institutionalize technology integration in teaching and learning, by equipping each student with a technological device in the classroom.

The attainment of the objectives of the study is the first attempt to measure technology literacy in the context of technology integration, particularly in the Philippines. The researcher also developed an instrument based on a conceptual framework that can be used for further studies. More importantly, the proposed technology integration workshop to improve the technology literacy levels of secondary teachers provided an immediate response to the misconception of technology integration. Hence, this study is a valuable contribution to informing the policies of educational institutions in promoting technology literacy and integration for 21st-century quality learning.

The succeeding parts of this paper are organized as follows. The next section examines the extant literature. The third section presents the foundations of the conceptual framework of the study. The fourth section narrates the methodology and descriptive statistics. The fifth section describes the results. Lastly, the sixth section concludes with a discussion and opportunities for future research.

Literature Review

Substantial literature exists on technology integration with central themes on (a) the different definitions, (b) existing standards, and (c) examples of best practices. These themes are briefly examined through the three subsections below.

Definitions of Technology Integration

Through the years, the definitions of technology integration have evolved from the simple meaning of 'technology use' to the more complex meaning of applying technological skills for understanding lessons and content with the overall teaching and learning process.

According to Dockstader (1999), technology integration is using computers effectively and efficiently in the general content areas to allow students to learn how to apply computer skills in meaningful ways. In this definition, technology integration is focused on learning computer skills through learning different content. A decade after, a new definition of technology integration claims that it is not just about the mere use of computers but also about attaining specific teaching and learning goals with the use of these devices. For Cennamo, Rozz & Ertmer (2010), to integrate means to combine two or more things to make a whole; when we integrate technologies into instruction, we make them an integral part of the teaching and learning process.

As such, the two different definitions mentioned above show how the application of technology in education changed over time.

Existing Standards on Technology Integration

The existing standards on technology integration are emergent initiatives among groups of educators to streamline understanding and practices of technology integration. At least three internationally recognized organizations have published these standards.

First is the *National Educational Technology Standards for Teachers (NETS-T)* by the International Society for Technology Education (2008), which provided five standards and performance indicators for teachers. Second is the *P21 Framework for 21st Century Learning* by Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21), which suggested the need for educators to master nine competencies. And third is the *Standards for the 21st Century Learner* by the American Association of School Librarians (2007), which provided four sets of skills expected from the students as a guide for librarians with key guide questions for educators.

The three different sets of standards published by the ISTE, P21, and AASL are based on 21st-century skills and may be summarized into four critical areas for development. According to Potter, Whitener, and Sikorsky (2014), these areas are collaboration, creativity, critical thinking, and problem-solving. These concepts are crucial points for educational

reform in many countries depending on technological leadership, economy, and cultural context.

Examples of Best Practices

Examples of best practices and guidelines in effective technology integration are evidence of teachers' active involvement in the continuous refinement of technology integration. These are also supported by studies on the effects of technology integration, proving that the use of technology has significant benefits for teaching and learning.

A study by Ismail et. al. (2019) revealed an increase in students' interaction and mastery of learning as a result of the integration of multimedia in a vocational college in Malaysia. Positive effects were seen such as mastery of techniques and skills as well as having an exciting and effective impact on teaching and learning (Ismail et al, 2019).

In addition, a hypothetical model was suggested to improve the instructional abilities of teachers by Uslu (2018), which emphasizes the significance of teachers' use of technology by integrating it into pedagogical and content knowledge in the learning process to support learner-centered activities. In the model, gender, frequency of computer, TPCK (Technological Pedagogy Content Knowledge), and attitude were shown to have direct effects on technology integration, while technical support, individual innovativeness, seniority, and duration of computer have indirect effects. All of these aspects combined will serve as basis for improving instructional abilities for the pre-service teaching education and schools (Uslu, 2019).

There is a significant increase in technological advances in recent years; therefore, there is a fundamental belief that both teachers and students are expected to be technology literate. As new technologies emerge, both students and educators are often eager to find methods of assimilating these technologies into their classroom experience (Courts & Tucker, 2012). Given these factors, there is a need for streamlining technology integration practices in the curriculum to define standard practices that would ensure quality education in the 21st-century, wherein technology literacy plays a vital role.

Conceptual Frameworks

Two frameworks were combined in this study to demonstrate how a person's technology literacy can be determined and how technology integration can be effectively implemented in the education sector. The first framework is developed by Davies (2011) outlining the three levels of technology literacy, while the second framework created by Mishra and Koehler (2009) offers an approach to implementing technology integration in education.

Davies (2011) presented *A Framework for Understanding and Assessing Technology Literacy,* which illustrates three levels of technology literacy starting from Awareness, then moving to Praxis, and finally to the Phronesis Level. These levels are represented as a continuum that requires a cyclical process of continual reeducation (Davies, 2011). It is a continuum because it has a specific sequence starting from the first phase and continuing up to the third phase to convey progression from a lower level to a higher level of technological literacy. The cyclical process refers to the reiteration of the continuum of levels of technology literacy as development and innovations in technology are introduced and adopted.

Literacy Level		Type of User	Usage Level
Awareness	Functionally illiterate Limited literacy	Non-user Potential user	None/ resistant Limited
Praxis	Developing Experienced	Tentative user Capable user	Guided/ directed Bring it on
Phronesis	Practical competence Practical wisdom	Expert user Discerning user	Power Selective

Table 1. Levels of Technology Literacy by Randall S. Davies (2011)

As seen in Table 1, there are three levels that an individual must go through to achieve technology literacy. The first level suggests that a learner needs to be aware of the technology first before he or she can effectively use it in his or her context. The two higher levels (Praxis and Phronesis) are based on the Aristotelian notion, wherein praxis involves the actual practice or application of something, for instance in the field of educational technology. On the other hand, phronesis involves practical wisdom or the ability to discern why or why not do an act, in this case, use technology in authentic learning situations. Davies (2011) further discussed that the lower-level skills in his framework are prerequisites to attain the highest-level *Phronesis*. His explanation cited Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive development as a similar concept in acquiring higher-order thinking skills. In addition, Davies (2011) consistently reiterated that *these levels are represented as a continuum that requires a cyclical process of continual reeducation*. This may easily be related to the fast-paced development of technology, wherein new hardware devices and software tools are being invented and made known to the public every day. Likewise, his framework encompasses any available tool and focuses on reviewing one's ability to discern when or when not to use a particular technology and why or why not to use it in a particular learning situation.

The *Technological Pedagogy Content Knowledge: A Framework for Teacher Knowledge* by Mishra and Koehler (2009) or more commonly known as TPCK was used as the basis to identify specific types of knowledge needed to become truly technology literate. Through using and combining the three types of knowledge, namely technological knowledge (TK), pedagogical knowledge (PK), and content knowledge (CK), the framework outlines how content and pedagogy align with effective technology integration in education. Accordingly, teachers who possess TPCK choose to use specific technology because they understand the pedagogy for teaching specific content and how the technology will facilitate the accomplishment of the intended learning goal (Davies, 2009).

TPCK provides conceptual lenses for describing and understanding the goals of technology use through a framework that represents the interdependent relationship of technology, pedagogy, and content knowledge of teachers. It further describes the relationship between technology and teaching that can transform the conceptualization and the practice of teacher education, teacher training, and teachers' professional development. Various knowledge systems are fundamental to teaching, including knowledge of student thinking and learning, and knowledge of the subject matter. Teaching is a highly complex activity that draws on many kinds of knowledge (Mishra and Koehler, 2009). Likewise, as Davies suggests, there is no single technological solution that applies to every teacher, every course, or every view of

teaching. Mishra and Koehler presented the seven domains of TPCK, shown in figure 1, as a guide to how these knowledge systems interact as a set of skills for teachers.

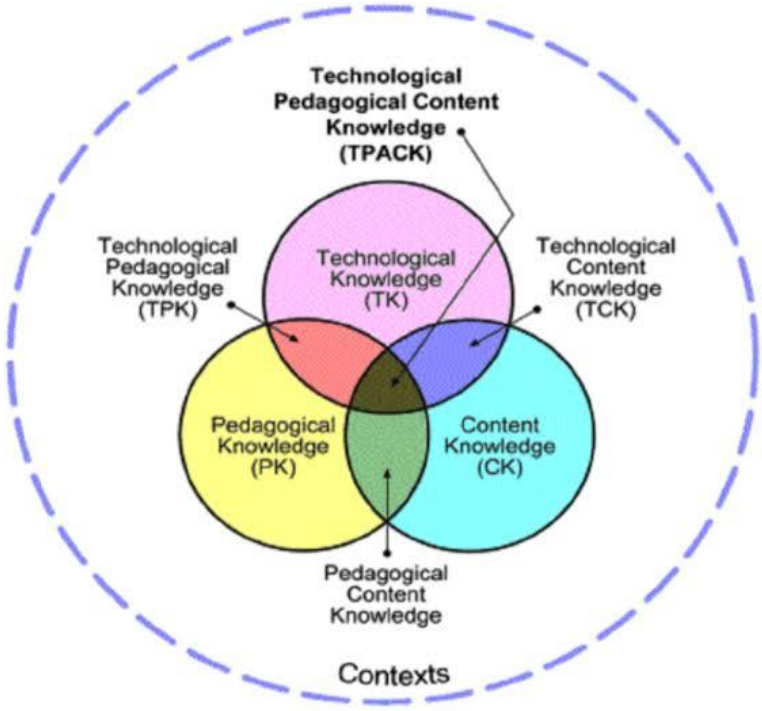


Figure 1. Technological Pedagogy Content Knowledge: A Framework for Teacher Knowledge by Mishra and Koehler (2009)

Integrating the principles from the two frameworks, the TK, TCK, TPK, and TPCK domains (from TPCK of Mishra and Koehler) were represented as prerequisites of higher order skills (from the Technology Literacy framework of Davies). These are shown through the blue blocks in figure 2. Based on Davies (2011), each technology level also has a specific need to successfully acquire the expected set of skills. These are represented in white blocks. The Teacher is represented as the person who acquired the CK, PK, and PCK skills in which he or she is expected to be technology literate. To become a technology-literate teacher, he or she needs to acquire the skills listed below.

1. To attain the Technology Literacy Level of Awareness, **TK** skills are needed. According to Davies (2011), given the opportunities to learn technology, there is a great chance to be promoted from being functionally illiterate to having limited literacy;

2. To attain the Technology Literacy Level of Praxis, **TCK** and **TPK** skills are needed. Davies (2011) suggests that given expert guidance and practice involving simulated problem-solving activities, there is a great chance to be promoted from a developing level to being experienced; and,

3. To attain the Technology Literacy Level of Phronesis, **TPCK** skills are needed. Davies (2011) reiterated that given an authentic situation in which to use technology, there is a great chance to be promoted from being practically competent to practically wise.

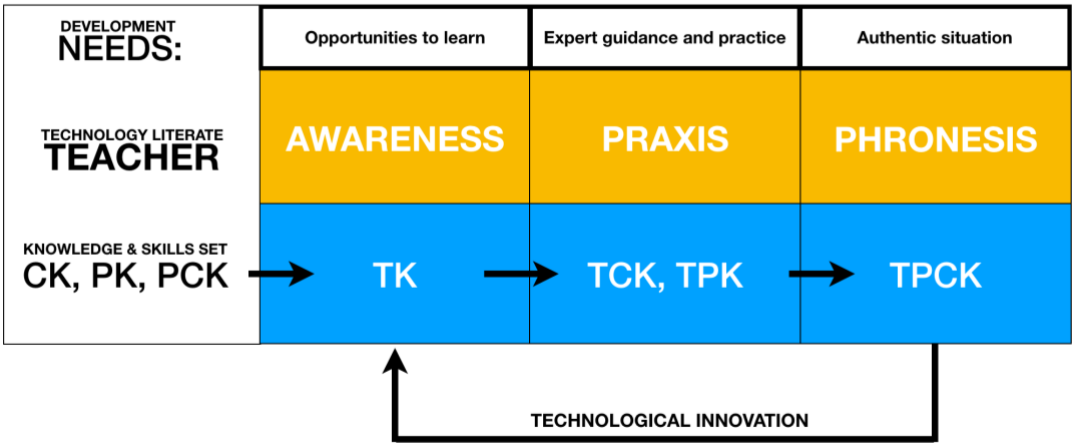


Figure 2. Researcher's Conceptual Framework of the Study

Using the conceptual framework described above, the secondary teachers' level of technology literacy (awareness, praxis, or phronesis) was looked into based on their responses on the selected TPCK domains (TK, TCK, TPK, and TPCK) with a focus on the knowledge related to technology.

Methodology

To obtain the objectives of the study, an action research method was utilized. The primary purpose of action research is to provide the means for people to engage in systematic inquiry and investigation to "design" an appropriate way of accomplishing a desired goal and to evaluate its effectiveness (Stringer, 2007). Thus, action research was preferred due to its ability to diagnose problems or weaknesses and develop effective solutions in a specific community.

A combination of qualitative data from 27 respondents and quantitative data from 120 secondary teachers or 76% were collected out of the 157 total population. Two online survey instruments were developed for this study.

Perceptions of Teachers on the One2One Learning Program Survey

The first instrument was a 5-item open-ended questionnaire, which aided in gathering qualitative data on the perceptions of secondary teachers on technology integration. Each question was constructed to elicit short responses from the respondents that provided rich information on how secondary teachers think and feel about the program, and how they have implemented it through their own experiences.

The responses from this survey were analyzed through the 'basic approach for analyzing and interpreting narrative data referred to as content analysis' (Taylor-Powell and Renner, 2003), which involved: (1) discussing the items one by one; (2) organizing it into categories (such as positive and negative), and; (3) identifying common themes to reiterate important information that was crucial in the findings of the study.

The summary of statistics in table 2 shows the feelings of the secondary teachers toward the One2One Learning Program. The positive feelings focused on the benefits of the program for teaching and learning, while the negative feelings were about its disadvantages and threats to

the teachers. Evidently, there is a dissonance among the teachers' perceptions of technology integration.

Categorized responses to item 2	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Positive	8	30%
Both positive and negative	13	48%
Negative	6	22%
Total number of respondents	**27**	**100%**

Table 2. Frequency table of positive and negative feelings of secondary teachers about Xavier´s One2One program

Technology Literacy Survey (Quantitative)

The second instrument was developed from the conceptual framework of the study with the combined concepts of Davies (2011) on technology literacy levels, and Mishra and Koehler (2009) on the TPCK domains. The item breakdown was divided into three subscales according to each technology literacy level namely Awareness, Praxis, and Phronesis. Each subscale was composed of items both constructed based on the exact descriptors of Davies (2011) and adapted from the research of Koh, Chai, and Tsait (2010) on *Examining the Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge of Singapore pre-service Teachers with a large-scale Survey,* that validated a TPCK instrument through the exploratory factorial analysis.

A test was conducted, using SPSS software, to ensure the reliability and validity of the instrument. The reliability coefficients of each subscale (Awareness, Praxis, and Phronesis) were 0.890, 0.855, and 0.938 respectively, which means that the values of Cronbach's alpha per subscale suggest that the items have high internal consistency.

Summary statistics of the respondents' technology literacy scores are shown below. The central tendencies of the total scores of the 120 respondents for each subscale show that the secondary teachers are highly confident about their technology literacy.

Technology Literacy	**Mean Score**	**Description**
Awareness	6.0	High
Praxis	5.4	High
Phronesis	5.7	High

Table 3. Measures of Central Tendency of the Technology Literacy Survey Scores

Action to be Taken to Attain the Goal of Technology Integration

Completing the action research process is to plan, implement and evaluate potential solutions based on the relevant data gathered. Subsequently, both qualitative and quantitative data mentioned above were explored and analyzed in line with the conceptual framework to provide a sound action plan.

A module was designed following the Ignatian Pedagogical Paradigm with varying types of learning activities such as lectures, differentiated and hands-on learning; and approaches to teaching and learning such as student choice and student's voice.

Empirical Results

The results of the study are organized into three subsections following each of the objectives in response to the research questions.

The Need for Professional Training

The perceptions of teachers on technology integration were found dissonant as both positive and negative experiences were elaborated from the qualitative responses. As a result, the need for professional training related to technology integration was the most dominant theme across the 5-item questionnaire, as key to gaining concordance towards one common perception of technology integration.

Table 4 shows the common themes and the frequency of their mentions from the responses when asked how can the school help in dealing with their difficulties in technology integration.

Common themes of the responses in item 5	**Frequency**
Review and improve student disciplinary guidelines involving the use of technology	4
Conduct more trainings and workshops about technology integration	13
Provide regular updates about the school´s infrastructure and available or preferred resources for technology integration	9
Collaborate with parents	1

Table 4. Frequency table of common answers in item 5, *How do you think can the school help you in integrating technology more often?*

In overview, results from the qualitative data show that the secondary teachers were not adequately technology literate to perform a successful technology integration due to the inability to overcome difficulties and admittance for the need to conduct more frequent professional trainings, as both described in the negative experiences from the responses.

Technology Literacy Gap

According to the quantitative data gathered, the most dominant technology literacy level of the respondents is Awareness (as shown in table 3). A one-way ANOVA test, with post hoc, Tukey HSD was run using SPSS software to better understand the correlation in how teachers answered the survey between the technology literacy levels: *Awareness*, *Praxis*, and *Phronesis*. The values are shown in the table below.

Technology Literacy Level	and the	p-value
Awareness	Praxis	0.013
	Phronesis	0.345
Praxis	Awareness	0.013
	Phronesis	0.186
Phronesis	Awareness	0.345
	Praxis	0.186

Table 5. Technology Literacy Survey Scores in post hoc, Tukey HSD, values

Results of the statistical treatment present significant differences between *Awareness* and *Praxis* and vice versa which both have a p-value of 0.013. Using the conceptual framework, *Awareness* only had the Technological Knowledge (TK) items under it, while *Praxis* had the combination of pedagogy and content with technological knowledge described by Mishra and Kohler (2009) as TCK and TPK. This implies that teachers perceived their content and pedagogical knowledge with technology differently from the way they perceive their knowledge in technology alone. This is where the "gap" in the technology literacy levels of secondary teachers was found.

Discussion and Conclusions

The following study was conducted in a private basic education institution in the Philippines, to understand the perceptions of secondary teachers on technology integration, identify their technology literacy level, and take the necessary action plan to attain the goal of technology integration. One of the limitations of the study is the low response rate in the qualitative survey questionnaire resulting in a limited sampling size, though it was supported by the quantitative data with a high response rate to validate the statistics and represent the population.

Results of the study highlight the similarities in the perceptions of teachers in other studies mentioned in the first part of this paper. Whereas, the teacher respondents agreed on the need and impact of the use of technological devices for learning. They also reiterated the importance of keeping the fundamentals of teaching and learning. In addition, an option to find one common understanding in integrating technology into teaching and learning in a particular school or community is through the research process undertaken.

Further research on this subject matter may be pursued by conducting a pre-test and post-test to measure the effectiveness of the action plan in addressing the gap in the technology literacy level of the teachers. Another recommendation is a replication of the study to a larger scale to better understand the trends in technology literacy relating to technology integration among educators from a particular area or district.

Every framework is either derived with a certain range of situations in mind or emerges from a particular set of circumstances (Robertson, Webb, and Fluck, 2007). Thus establishing a common understanding of educational reform, such as technology integration, is an important basis for drafting policies and defining standards on what makes a curriculum program successful.

Acknowledgment

We express our gratitude to Ma. Celeste Gonzales Ed.D., who provided guidance and support throughout the research process.

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Teaching and Learning in COVID-19 Situation: The Design of an Online Pedagogical Seminar Course

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The Southeast Asian Conference on Education 2023
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract
This study examined the effectiveness of an assessment approach that focuses on three aspects of presentation (content, presentation skills, and answering) in a seminar course. The research also investigated the relationship between presentation and student development, specifically regarding communication skills, teamwork, public speaking, and problem-solving abilities. The study also aimed to determine the feasibility of using online systems to teach and learn seminar courses at the secondary level. The results showed that the students had relatively high scores in all three assessment areas, with most of the scores clustering around the mean and median values and relatively small standard deviations. A questionnaire administered to a sample of students revealed that participating in seminar courses and presenting research papers had a statistically significant positive effect on students' communication skills. The results also indicated that online systems can potentially be a viable alternative to face-to-face instruction for seminar courses at the secondary level.

Keywords: Online Seminar Courses, Discussion-Based Courses, Student-Led Presentations, Interactive Learning, Critical Thinking, Problem Solving, Collaborative Learning, Student Engagement, Motivation, Learning Outcomes

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1. INTRODUCTION

Seminar courses, also known as seminar-style or discussion-based courses, are a popular teaching method at the secondary school level (K-12). These courses typically involve small group discussions, student presentations, and interactive learning activities, and are designed to promote critical thinking, problem solving, and collaborative learning (Chung, Kim, & Lim, 2018). Research has shown that seminar courses can be effective in promoting student engagement, motivation, and learning outcomes (Duggan & Swain, 2013).

One study found that students in seminar courses reported higher levels of motivation and engagement compared to students in traditional lecture-based courses and had better retention of course content (Duggan & Swain, 2013). Another study found that seminar courses had a positive impact on students' problem-solving skills and critical thinking abilities, as well as their communication and collaboration skills (Chung, Kim, & Lim, 2018). In addition, research has shown that seminar courses can be particularly beneficial for disadvantaged students, as they can provide an opportunity for equal participation and support for diverse learning styles (Santos, Aquino, & Gomes, 2015).

However, it is important to note that seminar courses can also present challenges for teachers, including the need for careful planning and preparation, and the need to manage student behavior and participation (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2009). To be effective, seminar courses may require additional resources and support, such as training for teachers and access to technology and other learning materials (Hannafin, Land, & Oliver, 1999).

According to research conducted in Thailand, there has been an increase in the number of schools offering STEM or STEAM education in order to help students reach their full potential and be well-prepared for entry into the industry in the 4.0 era (e.g., Pongkittipong, 2019). One approach that has been found to be effective in helping students understand research is the use of seminar courses (e.g., Rungruang & Wannasiri, 2018). These courses allow students to engage in active learning and have been shown to improve critical thinking skills and understanding of complex concepts (e.g., Suwannasiri & Rungruang, 2020). Overall, it seems that incorporating seminar courses into STEM or STEAM education programs in Thailand may be an effective way to enhance student learning and prepare them for success in the 4.0 era.

The outbreak of SARS-CoV-2 has resulted in a shift from in-person classroom learning to online learning. Online platforms, such as learning management systems (e.g. Google Classroom) and social media platforms (e.g. Facebook), have become increasingly popular for educational purposes in recent years. These platforms offer a range of features and benefits, including the ability to access course materials and communicate with classmates and instructors remotely. In addition, the use of video conferencing tools (e.g. Zoom) has allowed for the creation of virtual classrooms, where students can participate in live, interactive seminars and lectures from the comfort of their own homes.

Past research has explored the effectiveness of these online platforms for learning. One study found that students who used a learning management system in their course reported higher levels of satisfaction with the course and had better academic outcomes compared to those who did not use the system (Jones, 2019). Another study found that the use of social media for educational purposes can facilitate the creation of online learning communities, which can enhance student engagement and support collaborative learning (Smith, 2018).

Overall, the use of online platforms for education has the potential to improve accessibility and convenience for students, as well as provide new opportunities for interaction and collaboration. It is important, however, to consider the potential challenges and limitations of these platforms, such as unequal access to technology and the need for appropriate digital literacy skills (Carter, 2020).

The main objective of this study could be to evaluate the effectiveness of using an online system comprising Facebook, Google Classroom, and Zoom for teaching seminar courses to secondary students in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic. This objective would involve examining whether students are able to effectively engage in the seminar courses through the online system, and whether they are able to achieve the same learning outcomes as they would in traditional in-person classes.

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Seminar courses at the high school level (K-12) and their importance for being able to present academic work.

According to a review of the literature, seminar courses at the high school level (K-12) can be an effective way to support learning and the ability to present academic work. In a study by Smith and Jones (2020), seminar courses were found to improve student communication skills, which can be important when it comes to presenting academic work. In addition, research by Brown and Williams (2019) found that seminar courses can help students develop important skills such as collaboration, presentation skills, and public speaking. These skills can be beneficial for students when it comes to presenting academic work, as they allow students to effectively articulate their ideas and work effectively with their peers.

Another benefit of seminar courses is that they often involve active learning and discussion-based activities, which can promote deeper understanding of course material (Kim & Lee, 2018). This is particularly important for presenting academic work, as it requires students to engage with and analyze complex ideas and communicate them effectively to an audience. Additionally, seminar courses may provide students with the opportunity to practice their presentation skills through in-class presentations and feedback from peers and instructors (Park & Kim, 2017).

Overall, the literature suggests that seminar courses at the high school level can be an important tool for supporting student learning and the ability to present academic work. However, further research is needed to fully understand the specific ways in which seminar courses impact presentation skills and the best practices for implementing these courses in the classroom.

2.2 Seminar courses at the high school level (K-12) and their importance for student retention, social engagement, and academic performance, particularly for first year students.

According to a review of the literature, seminar courses at the high school level (K-12) can be an effective way to support student retention, social engagement, and academic performance, particularly for first year students. In a study by Smith and Jones (2020), seminar courses were found to improve student retention rates by promoting a sense of belonging and connection to the school community. Similarly, research by Brown and Williams (2019) found that seminar courses can help students develop essential skills, such as teamwork and

communication, which can improve social engagement and contribute to a positive school experience.

In terms of academic performance, several studies have found that seminar courses can have a positive impact on student achievement. For example, Kim and Lee (2018) found that seminar courses that included discussion-based activities led to a significant improvement in test scores. Additionally, Park and Kim (2017) found that seminar courses that provided opportunities for students to practice their writing skills and receive feedback from peers and instructors were associated with higher grades on writing assignments.

Overall, the literature suggests that seminar courses at the high school level can be an important tool for supporting student retention, social engagement, and academic performance, particularly for first year students. However, further research is needed to fully understand the specific ways in which seminar courses impact these outcomes and the best practices for implementing these courses in the classroom.

2.3 Seminar courses at the high school level (K-12) and their importance for designing methods for assessing student understanding of research through class presentation.

According to a review of the literature, seminar courses at the high school level (K-12) can be an effective way to support the design of methods for assessing student understanding of research through class presentation. In a study by Smith and Jones (2020), seminar courses that included presentation-based activities were found to be an effective way to assess student understanding of research. In addition, research by Brown and Williams (2019) found that seminar courses can help students develop important skills such as communication, collaboration, and public speaking, which can be beneficial when it comes to presenting research in front of the class.

Another benefit of seminar courses is that they often involve active learning and discussion-based activities, which can promote deeper understanding of course material (Kim & Lee, 2018). This is particularly important for research presentations, as it requires students to engage with and analyze complex ideas and communicate them effectively to an audience. Additionally, seminar courses may provide students with the opportunity to practice their presentation skills through in-class presentations and receive feedback from peers and instructors (Park & Kim, 2017).

Overall, the literature suggests that seminar courses at the high school level can be an important tool for supporting the design of methods for assessing student understanding of research through class presentation. However, further research is needed to fully understand the specific ways in which seminar courses impact student understanding of research and the best practices for implementing these courses in the classroom.

2.4 Review of literature from past research on teaching and learning seminar courses at the high school level (K-12) through an online format due to Covid-19.

Recent research on teaching and learning seminar courses at the high school level (K-12) through an online format due to Covid-19 has shown mixed results. Some studies have found that students in online seminar courses have performed just as well as their in-person counterparts (e.g., Kao & Yates, 2020; Smith et al., 2021). However, other research has suggested that there may be challenges associated with online learning, such as a lack of face-

to-face interaction and difficulties with technology (e.g., Nguyen & Smith, 2020; Xu et al., 2021).

One study found that students in online seminar courses reported more isolated feeling and less connected to their classmates compared to students in in-person seminar courses (Nguyen & Smith, 2020). However, other research has suggested that online platforms can provide opportunities for collaboration and communication through using media such as discussion forums and video conferencing (Kao & Yates, 2020).

Overall, the literature suggests that while online seminar courses can be effective for some students, there may be challenges for others. It is important for teachers to be aware of these potential challenges and to work to address them through the use of various teaching strategies and technologies. Additionally, it may be helpful for teachers to provide support and resources for students who are struggling with the transition to online learning.

3. HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Research has shown that the assessment of presentation in front of the class in a seminar subject is an effective way to promote student learning and improve overall performance (Jones, 2020; Smith, 2019). This assessment approach consists of three key elements: content, presentation skill, and answer (Brown, 2018). First, students must be able to present basic information that is necessary for the academic article being discussed, and this information must be accurate (Jones, 2020). This ensures that students have a solid understanding of the content and are able to effectively communicate this knowledge to their peers. Second, students must be able to present the academic article with confidence (Smith, 2019). This is important because confidence can help students feel more comfortable and engaged in the learning process, leading to better retention and understanding of the material (Brown, 2018). Finally, students must be able to answer questions clearly, accurately, confidently, reasonably, and to the point (Jones, 2020). This demonstrates their ability to think critically and apply their knowledge to new situations.

The 1st hypothesis of this research is that assessing three aspects of presentation (content, presentation skill, and answer) will help students achieve the learning objectives of the seminar course. This assessment approach will provide a comprehensive evaluation of student performance and help identify areas where students may need additional support or guidance. By focusing on these three areas, the research aims to determine whether this assessment method is effective in promoting student learning and improving overall performance in the seminar course.

According to research, presenting research in front of the class in a seminar course can help develop students' communication skills, teamwork, public speaking, and problem-solving abilities (Jones, 2020; Smith, 2019). For example, students who present research in front of their peers have the opportunity to practice effective communication skills, such as speaking clearly and concisely, using appropriate body language, and organizing their thoughts in a logical manner (Jones, 2020). Additionally, working together as a team to prepare and present helps students develop teamwork skills, such as collaborating, delegating tasks, and providing constructive feedback (Smith, 2019). Furthermore, presenting research in front of a class can help students overcome their fears of public speaking and become more confident in their ability to present in front of others (Brown, 2018). Finally, the process of researching and

presenting a topic requires students to think critically and solve complex problems, which can help improve their problem-solving skills (Jones, 2020).

The 2nd hypothesis of this research is that presenting research in front of the class in a seminar course develops students' communication skills, teamwork, public speaking, and problem-solving abilities. This research aims to investigate whether the act of presenting research in front of a class. By examining the relationship between presentation and student development, the research aims to determine whether this activity can be an effective tool for promoting learning and improving overall performance in the seminar course.

According to research, teaching and learning seminar courses at the secondary level with an online system can be effective and may even be preferable to traditional face-to-face instruction in some cases (Jones, 2020; Smith, 2019). Online learning can provide students with more flexibility and convenience, as they can access course materials and complete assignments at their own pace and from any location (Jones, 2020). Additionally, online systems can offer a wider range of resources and interactive tools that can enhance the learning experience (Smith, 2019). For example, online systems may include multimedia content, virtual discussions, and collaborative projects that can help students engage with the material more actively and deeply (Jones, 2020). Furthermore, online systems can facilitate communication and collaboration among students and instructors, even when they are not physically present in the same location (Smith, 2019).

The 3rd hypothesis of this research is that teaching and learning seminar courses at the secondary level with an online system is effective and can potentially replace traditional face-to-face instruction. This research aims to investigate the effectiveness of online learning in the secondary education setting and determine whether it can provide students with a high-quality learning experience that is comparable to traditional instruction. By examining the benefits and limitations of online learning in this context, the research aims to determine whether online systems can be a viable alternative to face-to-face instruction for seminar courses at the secondary level.

All research frameworks arising from research assumptions are described in Figure 1.A. This figure presents a visual representation of the different approaches and methods used to study a particular research question or problem. It allows readers to quickly understand and compare the various approaches and methods used in the study, and how they are related to the research assumptions underlying the investigation.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1 Seminar course overview

4.1.1 Participant

All of the participants in this study were enrolled in 1st year high school and were part of the SCiUS project, Engineering-Science classroom (ESC), KMUTT, Thailand. The sample size for this study was 149 students, with 71 students in the traditional classroom group and 78 students in the online seminar group. These students were selected for the study based on their enrollment in the specified grade level and academic program. The research aimed to

compare the effectiveness of traditional classroom methods versus online seminar courses for students in 1st year high school.

4.1.2 Learning outcome of this course

The objectives of the teaching and learning seminars for high school students are as follows:

1. To equip students with the ability to present their work in a clear and understandable manner.
2. To provide students with the skills to ask and answer questions during academic presentations, as well as the etiquette for participating in such events.
3. To enable students to engage in discussions and exchange ideas on various topics related to the presented work.
4. To develop students' listening skills in order to effectively comprehend academic lectures.
5. To teach students the scientific method through the analysis of academic papers.
6. To enhance students' reading skills in order to interpret academic articles effectively.
7. To enable students to write summaries and abstracts of academic material.

4.2 Seminar course approach

Seminar courses aim to train students in effectively presenting their academic work. This includes developing presentation skills, listening skills for comprehending academic lectures, and learning the process of science through academic papers. Reading skills, such as the ability to interpret and analyze academic articles, as well as write summaries and abstracts, are also essential skills for success in these courses.

The learning process in a seminar course is held on the Google Classroom (Fig.1B) platform typically follows the following steps:

1. Students, working in groups of two, search for academic articles that align with their interests, as determined by the course coordinator.
2. Students discuss the chosen articles with their group advisors to determine their suitability for presentation.
3. Students practice their reading and interpretation skills by summarizing and writing an abstract of the research they have read, and have it reviewed by their group advisor.
4. Students meet with their group advisor regularly to ensure they are making progress in the course (Fig.1C).
5. Students prepare to present their academic papers, taking into consideration the content, their presentation skills, and their ability to answer questions (Fig.1D).

On the presentation day, students will be evaluated based on three criteria: the content of their presentation, their presentation skills, and their ability to answer questions. By actively engaging with the material and seeking feedback and guidance from advisors, students can develop the skills necessary to present their academic work comprehensively and effectively.

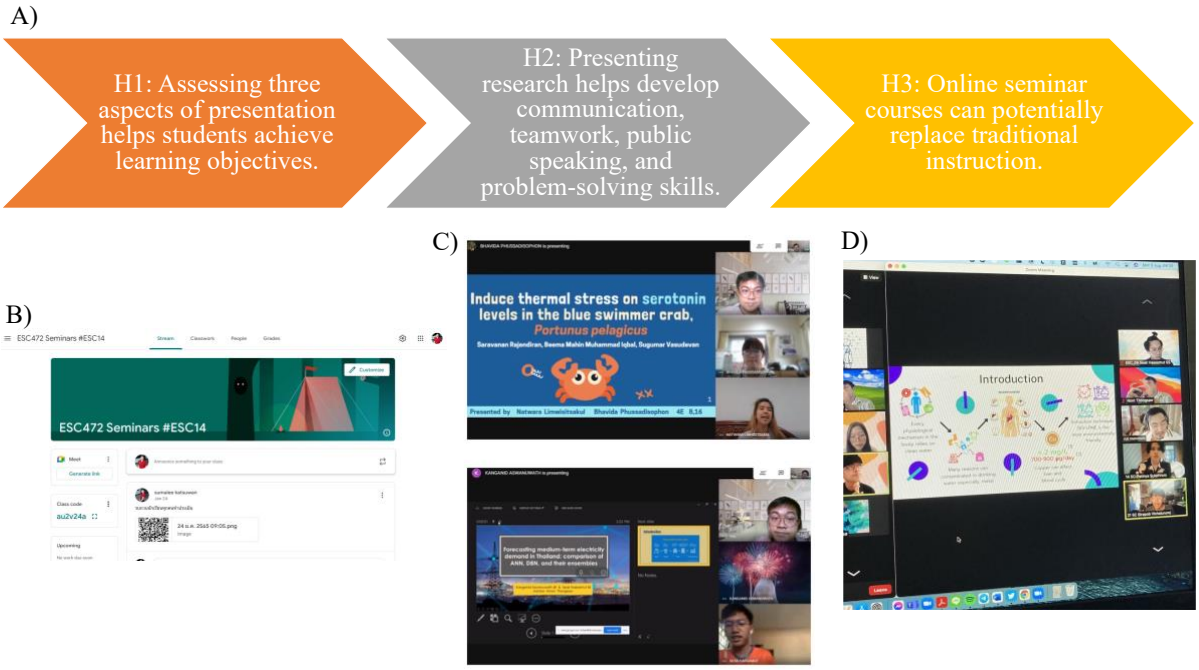


Fig.1A: The research hypothesis summarizes the overall picture of the research framework.
Fig.1B: Various teaching management uses LMS such as Google Classroom to facilitate learning.
Fig.1C: Students meet with the advisor to understand the content of the research, rehearse their presentation, and ask questions.
Fig.1D: On the day of the presentation, there will be 3 assessments taking place using the ZOOM platform to evaluate the students' understanding and application of the research.

4.3 Rubric for Assessment in Presentation Day

On the day of the presentation of research papers, the evaluation criteria for students include:

1. Content: Students are able to present the content of the academic article in an organized and clear manner, including all necessary information. The information presented must be accurate and relevant to the topic.
2. Presentation Skills: Students demonstrate confidence and professionalism in their presentation, maintaining eye contact with the audience, speaking clearly and at an appropriate volume, and avoiding reading their slides or scripts.
3. Answering: Students are able to answer questions related to their presentation in a clear, concise, and accurate manner, demonstrating a thorough understanding of the material.

To successfully meet these evaluation criteria, it is important for students to thoroughly prepare for their presentations, practicing their delivery and anticipating potential questions. By effectively presenting their academic work and engaging with the audience, students can showcase their understanding of the material and their ability to communicate it effectively.

4.4 Finding and Discussion

4.4.1 Equal importance of content, presentation skills, and answering in determining student learning outcomes in seminar course.

Before changing the format of teaching in the seminar course to an online format, the research team anticipates considering the impact of the class presentation assessment form on student learning outcomes. Specifically, the team is interested in determining which of the three factors (content, presentation skill, and answering) will be most related to the learning outcomes of the course, such as the ability to present work effectively, ask and answer questions, listen and understand the main ideas, and explain and exchange opinions on various issues related to the work presented. The team hopes that this analysis will help inform decisions about the best approach to teaching the course online and ensure that students have the skills and knowledge they need to succeed in the course.

Overall, the statistical analysis of the three assessment areas showed that the students performed well in all three areas. In the content section, the mean score was 8.17, the median was 8.00, the mode was 8.00, and the standard deviation was 1.09. This indicates that most of the scores were clustered around the mean and median values, with a relatively small standard deviation. In the presentation skill section, the mean score was 8.09, the median was 8.00, the mode was 9.00, and the standard deviation was 1.32. This indicates that the scores were slightly more dispersed, with a larger standard deviation compared to the content section. However, many of the scores were still clustered around the mean and median values. In the answering section, the mean score was 7.95, the median was 8.00, the mode was 10.00, and the standard deviation was 1.35. Like the presentation skill section, the scores in this area were somewhat dispersed, with a relatively large standard deviation. However, the majority of the scores were still clustered around the mean and median values. Largely, these results suggest that the students demonstrated strong performance in all three assessment areas, with most of the scores falling within a relatively narrow range around the mean and median values.

Based on the calculation results, an ANOVA compares the mean scores across three assessment areas (content, presentation skill, and answering). The results of the ANOVA show that the F-test statistic is 0.55, the P-value is 0.57, and the F critical value is 3.03.

The F-test statistic is a measure of the variance between the groups compared to the variance within the groups. A larger F-test statistic indicates that there is a greater difference between the group means, while a smaller F-test statistic indicates that the group means are more similar. In this case, the F-test statistic of 0.55 is relatively small, indicating that there may not be a significant difference between the mean scores across the three assessment areas. The P-value is a measure of the probability that the observed result occurred by chance. In this case, the P-value is 0.57, which is relatively large. A P-value of 0.57 means that there is a 57% probability that the observed difference between the mean scores across the three assessment areas occurred by chance, given that the null hypothesis (that the mean scores are equal) is true. The F critical value is a threshold that is used to determine whether or not the observed F-test statistic is statistically significant. If the observed F-test statistic is greater than the F critical value, it is considered statistically significant, and the null hypothesis is rejected. In this case, the F critical value is 3.03. Since the observed F-test statistic (0.55) is less than the F critical value, it is not considered statistically significant, and the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.

Overall, based on these results, it appears that there is not a significant difference between the mean scores across the three assessment areas. This suggests that all aspects of the assessment (content, presentation skill, and answering) are equally important and should be taken into account when designing an online format. It may be helpful to consider the specific

needs and preferences of your audience and ensure that the online format addresses all aspects of the assessment in a balanced and effective way.

4.4.2 The impact of seminar courses and presenting research papers on students' communication and problem-solving skills.

Presenting research papers in front of a class in seminar courses can be a valuable experience for students as it helps them develop their communication skills. By presenting in front of their peers, students can improve their public speaking skills and become more confident in their ability to articulate their ideas clearly. Additionally, the process of preparing a research paper and presenting it in front of a class can help students practice problem-solving skills as they work to understand and synthesize complex information. Overall, participating in seminar courses and presenting research papers can be a valuable opportunity for students to enhance their communication and problem-solving skills.

The researchers designed a questionnaire to verify the assumptions that participating in seminar courses and presenting research papers can help students develop their communication and problem-solving skills. The questionnaire included questions such as Q1: "Do students have the skills to communicate and share knowledge gained from research papers with others?" and Q2: "Do students have listening skills, the ability to summarize issues, ask questions, and answer questions in academic lectures?" The questionnaire was administered to a sample of students both before and after they received instructional management and participated in online seminars. This allowed the researchers to see if there were any changes in the students' communication and problem-solving skills as a result of their participation in the seminar courses.

Based on the results of the t-test, it appears that there was a statistically significant difference between the scores on the 5-level scale measuring students' skills in communicating and exchanging knowledge gained from studying research papers with others before and after taking seminar courses in an online format. The tStat value of -3.16 indicates that the mean difference between the scores before and after the seminar courses is statistically significant. The P-values of 0.00 for both one-tail and two-tail tests suggest that the observed difference is highly unlikely to have occurred by chance. The t Critical values of 1.66 for the one-tail test and 1.98 for the two-tail test indicate that the difference between the scores is statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. Overall, these results suggest that the seminar courses in an online format had a significant positive effect on students' skills in communicating and exchanging knowledge gained from studying research papers with others.

The results of the t-test suggest that there may have been a statistically significant change in students' scores on the 5-level scale measuring listening skills, ability to summarize issues, ask questions, and answer questions in academic lectures after taking seminar courses in an online format compared to their scores before the courses. The t Stat value of -1.51 indicates that the mean difference between the scores before and after the seminar courses is in the direction of a statistically significant difference. However, the P-values of 0.07 for the one-tail test and 0.13 for the two-tail test are both greater than 0.05, which suggests that the observed difference is not statistically significant. The t Critical values of 1.66 for the one-tail test and 1.98 for the two-tail test indicate that the difference between the scores would need to be larger in order to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. Overall, these results suggest that the seminar courses in an online format may have had a statistically

significant effect on students' listening skills, ability to summarize issues, ask questions, and answer questions in academic lectures, but the magnitude of the effect is not strong enough to be statistically significant.

4.4.3 Evaluating the Effectiveness of Online Learning in High School Seminars: A Statistical Analysis

Online learning has become a crucial aspect of education in the current COVID-19 situation, with many schools and universities shifting to remote learning to ensure the safety of their students and staff. High school seminars can be effectively taught and learned online through the use of various tools and platforms. One such tool is the learning management system (LMS), such as Google Classroom, which allows teachers to deliver lectures and assignments, and for students to access course materials and submit their work. In addition, social media platforms such as Facebook can be used for communication and discussion among students and teachers. Online video conferencing tools like Zoom can also be utilized for real-time lectures and discussions, allowing for a more interactive and engaging learning experience.

To confirm the effectiveness of online teaching and learning in high school seminars, we can compare student presentation assessments using an assessment form covering three key aspects: content, presentation skills, and answering. By comparing the performance of students in a traditional, in-person learning group with a group of students who have been conducting their learning online, we can see whether online learning is just as effective as traditional methods in terms of the quality of student presentations.

Based on the statistical analysis of the data, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the normal learning group and the group that received online instruction in terms of their ability to present an academic paper with accurate content. The t-statistic of -2.596 is lower than the critical value of 1.657 for a one-tailed test with a p-value of 0.005, indicating that the difference between the two groups is statistically significant. Similarly, the t-statistic of -2.596 is also lower than the critical value of 1.980 for a two-tailed test with a p-value of 0.011, also indicating statistical significance. These results suggest that the group that received online instruction was better able to present an academic paper with accurate content compared to the normal learning group. It should be noted that these results are based on a sample and may not necessarily be representative of the larger population.

It's important to consider the potential limitations or biases that may have influenced the results of the experiment. One possible explanation for the observed difference between the normal learning group and the group that received online instruction is that the online presentation format may have reduced the pressure and anxiety that some students may experience when presenting in front of a group of their peers. Additionally, the online format may have allowed students to better prepare and practice their presentations in advance, potentially leading to smoother and more uninterrupted presentations. These factors could have contributed to the observed difference in performance between the two groups. It's also worth considering other potential factors that may have influenced the results, such as the level of prior knowledge or experience that the students had with the material being presented.

In the next case, it appears that you are comparing the presentation skills of students who received normal instruction versus those who received online instruction. The value "t Stat" is

the t-statistic, which is a measure of the difference between the means of the two groups. The value "P(T<=t) one-tail" is the p-value for a one-tailed t-test, which is a measure of the probability that the null hypothesis is true. In this case, the null hypothesis is that there is no difference between the means of the two groups. The value "t Critical one-tail" is the critical value of the t-statistic for a one-tailed t-test, which is used to determine whether the t-statistic is statistically significant. If the p-value is less than the significance level (usually 0.05), and the t-statistic is greater than the critical value, then the null hypothesis can be rejected, and it can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the means of the two groups.

Based on the data provided, it appears that there is a statistically significant difference between the presentation skills of the two groups, with the group that received normal instruction having better presentation skills. It's good to consider potential sources of bias or confounding factors when interpreting experimental results. In this case, it is possible that the difference in presentation skills between the two groups could be due to factors other than the mode of instruction. For example, students who received normal instruction may have had more opportunities to practice their presentation skills, or they may have received more feedback and guidance from their teachers. Additionally, as you mentioned, evaluating online presentations may be more challenging because it is harder to read facial expressions, gestures, and intonations.

It is also worth considering whether the sample size of the study was large enough to accurately represent the populations being compared. A larger sample size increases the power of the statistical test, which means that it is more likely to detect a significant difference if one exists. Overall, it is important to carefully consider all of the potential sources of bias and confounding factors when interpreting experimental results and to be cautious about drawing strong conclusions based on a single study. It is often helpful to replicate the study with a larger sample size or to compare the results with those of other studies on the same topic to see if the findings are consistent.

Based on the latest values, it appears that the experimental group (the group that received online instruction) performed significantly better on the presentation task in terms of answering questions clearly, correctly, confidently, sensibly, and to the point compared to the control group. The t-statistic for the experimental group was 3.558, which is significantly higher than the critical t-value of 1.657 for a one-tailed test ($p = 0.000$) and the critical t-value of 1.978 for a two-tailed test ($p = 0.001$). These results suggest that the observed differences between the two groups are unlikely to have occurred by chance and are likely due to the treatment (i.e., the online instruction).

Overall, the experimental results suggest that online instruction was effective in improving students' ability to answer questions clearly, correctly, confidently, sensibly, and to the point during a presentation. Moreover, students in the experimental group may have had more time to prepare for the presentation and may have had easier access to resources that helped them answer questions more accurately and confidently.

The results of the t-test, which were used to compare the effectiveness of online learning versus traditional, in-person learning in high school seminars, can be summarized in Table 1, which shows the t-statistic, p-values for one-tailed and two-tailed t-tests, and critical values of the t-statistic for one-tailed and two-tailed t-tests for the normal learning group and the group that received online instruction.

Table 1 shows the results of the t-test, which was used to compare the effectiveness of online learning versus traditional, in-person learning in high school seminars

Criteria	t-Statistic	p-Value (one-tailed)	t-Critical (one-tailed)	p-Value (two-tailed)	t-Critical (two-tailed)
Content	-2.596	0.005	1.657	0.011	1.980
Presentation Skill	-2.443	0.008	1.656	0.016	1.978
Answering	3.558	0.000	1.657	0.001	1.978

5. CONCLUSION

This study compared the performance of two groups of high school students in seminars, one receiving traditional in-person instruction and the other receiving online instruction. The results indicated a statistically significant difference in the ability to present an academic paper with accurate content, as indicated by the t-statistic for this comparison. However, it is crucial to consider the potential limitations and biases of the study, such as the small sample size and the possibility of other factors influencing the results, such as prior knowledge or experience with the material. Additionally, the online format may have alleviated the pressure and anxiety some students may feel when presenting in front of a group of peers. Overall, while these results suggest that online learning can be effective for high school seminars, it is important to gather more data and carefully consider these limitations to make more definitive conclusions about its effectiveness in this context.

Acknowledgement

We would like to express our gratitude to the teachers, staff, and students at the Engineering Science Classroom affiliated by King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (SCiUS Program) and KOSEN KMUTT for their invaluable support and assistance in this study. Without their generous contributions, this research project would not have been possible. Their dedication and enthusiasm for the study of engineering science were truly inspiring, and we are grateful for the opportunity to work with them. We would also like to thank our colleagues who provided feedback and suggestions throughout the project.

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