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English Donor Words and Equivalent Cantonese Loanwords Pronounced by Hong Kong Cantonese ESL Learners - Implications for Teaching English Word Stress

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Abstract

This study examined English word stress produced by native speakers of Hong Kong Cantonese who were learning English as a second language (ESL). Twenty-two ESL speakers (F=11; M=11) including 11 highly proficient and 11 less proficient participated in the study. They were instructed to read four pairs of English words and the corresponding Cantonese loanwords. Pitch, duration, intensity values were obtained from all the stressed English syllables and their corresponding Cantonese syllables. Results revealed significantly higher pitch but similar durational and intensity characteristics associated with these syllables when compared with the unstressed counterparts in English and corresponding syllables in Cantonese. The findings confirm that pitch serves as the most dominant acoustic cue for stressed syllables, even in English produced by Cantonese ESL speakers. It follows that other less dominant acoustic features (such as intensity and duration) should be emphasised in ESL teaching, especially to the less proficient ESL speakers.

Keywords. English word stress, Cantonese loanwords, acoustic cues

Introduction

English is a stress language whereas Cantonese is a tone language. It has been well documented that the phonetic cues to stress are pitch (fundamental frequency), intensity (loudness), duration (length) and vowel quality, but the only phonetic cue to tone is pitch. Previous studies on Cantonese's realisation of English word stress mainly adopted two approaches: - one through investigating Cantonese loanwords borrowed from English, the other through investigating the pronunciation of English words by Chinese speakers.

Cantonese Loanwords Borrowed from English

The present study was inspired by studies by Lai (2004), Lai, Wang, Yan, Chan, and Zhang (2011), Zhang (1986) and Silverman (1992). Though all these studies agreed on the assignment of a high level (55) tone to loanword syllables corresponding to stressed ones in English, Lai (2004) provided an update on the tonal assignment in other loanword syllables. Similar to Zhang (1986), a low-mid (22) tone was assigned to epenthetic loanword syllables. Differently, loanword syllables corresponding to unstressed syllables, which Zhang (1986) reported to carry a mid (33) tone, was assigned a low-mid (22) tone. Table 1 lists some typical loanword examples as reported in Lai (2004), with different tonal patterns assigned according to their respective phonological structures:

Table 1. Tonal assignment to Cantonese loanwords

English Words	IPA	Loanword Structure	Cantonese tones
Order	/ʊŋ]δ↔/	ʊ σσ	55-35
Stick	/στɪk/	■ʊσ	22-55
Vaseline	/ʊθθσ↔λɪ]v/	ʊσσσ	55-22-35
Commission	/κ↔ʊμɪΣ↔v/	σʊσσ	22-55-35/21
Spanner	/ʊσπθv↔/	■ʊσσ	22-55-35
Whisky	/ʊωɪσkɪ/	ʊσ■σ	55-22-35
Massage	AmE /μ↔ʊσA]Z/	σʊσ■	22-55-21

Note. ʊσ refers to an originally primarily stressed syllable, σ refers to an originally unstressed syllable, and ■ refers to an epenthetic syllable.

Figure 1 summarises the results of the acoustic analyses by Lai, *et al.* (2011) which confirmed the findings reported in Lai (2004):

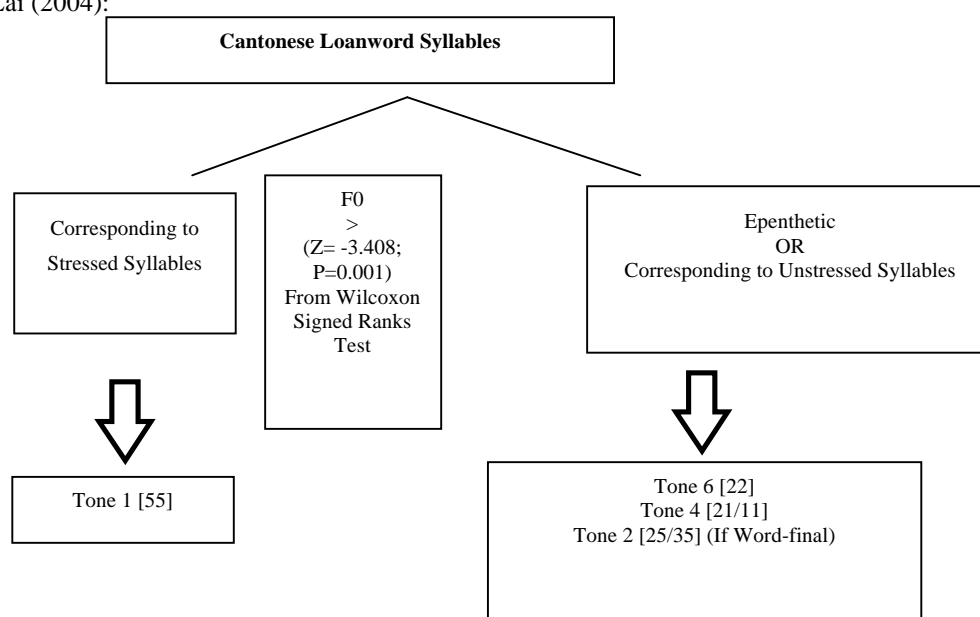


Fig 1. Tonal patterns of Cantonese loanwords borrowed from English. Cantonese loanword syllables corresponding to stressed syllables in the English donor words are assigned an H (55) tone whereas epenthetic syllables or syllables corresponding to unstressed syllables have more variations. They are assigned an M (22) tone if they precede syllables corresponding to stressed syllables in the donor words, an H (55) tone if they are sandwiched between two syllables corresponding to stressed syllables; an L (11) tone if they follow syllables corresponding to stressed syllables; and an MH (25) tone sometimes if they are also the last syllables in the loanwords.

Based on his own findings, Zhang (1986) formulated several research questions: (i) whether Cantonese speakers perceive English stress as different pitch heights, (ii) among fundamental frequency, duration and intensity, which plays the most important role in stress perception, and (iii) whether the cues for stress perception are the same for tone perception. Silverman (1992) attempted to answer the first question by assuming that English stress is perceived as “phonetic pitch patterns” at the perceptual level and represented as “phonological tonal patterns” at the operative level (see Table 2 below for the derivational processes involving epenthesis and tone insertion with two examples in Silverman, 1992, p.303). Despite that the current study focused on the production of English word stress rather than on its perception, the above questions and assumption suggest the dominance of certain phonetic cue(s) to English word stress for Cantonese ESL speakers.

Table 2. Silverman (1992, p.303)’s model illustrated with the derivation from the English donor words “stamp” and “stick” to their corresponding loanwords in Cantonese

Input	stamp	stick
Perceptual Level	[s tam[H]]	[s tik[H]]
Operative Level		
a. epenthesis	[si tam[H]]	[si tik[H]]
b. tone insertion	[si[L] tam[H]]	[si[L] tik[H]]
Surface	[si[L] tam[H]]	[si[L] tik[H]]

Unlike tone, pitch is not the only phonetic cue to stress, but so are intensity and duration (and even vowel quality). The assumption of pitch as the dominant phonetic cue to stress requires evidence to prove that pitch overrides intensity and duration (Yip, 2002), and this is what this study aims to achieve.

English Word Stress Produced by Chinese Speakers

Among the fewer number of studies on the production of English word stress by Cantonese ESL speakers, Chan (2007) and Luke (2000) appeared to have greater relevance to the present study.

In Chan (2007), 15 Cantonese speakers of English were instructed to produce eight stimuli of the nonsense word “bebe” embedded in a carrier sentence with word stress placed on either of the two syllables. The results showed that Cantonese speakers could effectively represent word stress by manipulating duration, intensity and fundamental frequency.

Since individual differences may exist and participants of different proficiencies may vary in their use of the phonetic cues, the current study was designed to address this issue using different statistical analyses, with classification of highly proficient ESL speakers and low proficient ones.

In Luke (2000), the systematic Cantonese tone assignment to English syllables was first proposed based on the word syllabicity and function, and the position of word stress, as illustrated in Table 3.:

Table 3. Mapping of English stress to Cantonese tones

English Words	IPA	Cantonese Tones
Apple	/ʊθp↔l/	H-L
Consider	/k↔n.ʊsI.d↔/	M-H-L
physical	/ʊfl.zI.k↔l/	H-L-L

Note. Primarily stressed syllables usually receive a high tone (Luke, 2000).

Luke’s participants included four native Cantonese speakers (two males and two females) and two British English native speakers (one male and one female). They were asked to read aloud a list of single words, compounds, phrases and sentences. The audio signals underwent acoustic analyses and results confirmed all of the predictions made on monosyllabic and polysyllabic words, content and form words and the intersyllabic rule. It was generalised that Cantonese learners distinguished mainly two stress levels - stress and non-stress, with stressed syllables being assigned an H tone and unstressed syllables assigned an M or L tone. The intersyllabic rule applied to syllables between strong ones (assigned an H or M tone) by modifying these intervening tones in polysyllabic words, phrases and sentences.

Though Luke (2000)’s study is of a relatively small scale, its systematic classification of words based on their syllabicity and functions, and confirmed predictions provided a good ground for future studies of Cantonese’s production of English stress, especially in polysyllabic words.

Relatively more studies targeted on English word stress production by Mandarin speakers. Among them, both Lai (2008) and Zhang (2008) examined four phonetic cues to English word stress, namely F0, duration, intensity and vowel quality, but only Lai (2008) distinguished advanced and beginning Chinese English speakers. Although the present study had focus on Hong Kong Cantonese ESL learners and the exclusion of vowel quality from the scope of analyses, reference was made to both Lai (2008) and Zhang (2008) with the following modifications. First, the importance of intensity in stress production, which was not tested alone in Zhang (2008), was also investigated. Second, the individual importance of duration and F0 was also compared. Third, due to the possible influence of L2 English competence on the production abilities of non-native sounds (Flege, Bohn, & Jang, 1997), participants were classified according to their target language proficiency, and the results of participants with different proficiency levels of the target language were compared.

The current research examined English word stress produced by native speakers of Hong Kong Cantonese who were learning English as a second language (ESL). Extending from Lai (2004) and Lai, et al. (2011) which

investigated the tonal assignment in Cantonese loanwords from English, this study aimed at identifying the dominant acoustic cues to English word stress produced by Cantonese ESL speakers, as well as the other less dominant acoustic features for emphasis in the teaching of English word stress to Cantonese ESL speakers.

With observed phenomena of Cantonese tone assignment to English words in Cantonese-English bilinguals in previous studies on Cantonese loanwords borrowed from English and those on Cantonese's pronunciation of English words, the research question and hypothesis were established as follows.

Research Questions

The proposed research aimed to answer the following research question:

Do Hong Kong Cantonese learners of English distinguish English word stress and non-stress simply with higher F0 and lower F0 respectively?

Developed from the research question above, the hypothesis below is put forward:

There is a significant difference in F0 but not in intensity and duration between stressed and unstressed English syllables produced by native speakers of Hong Kong Cantonese.

Should the above hypothesis be proved, the reliance on F0 will establish a close link with L2 English word stress production by native speakers of Hong Kong Cantonese.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Twenty-two Cantonese ESL speakers (F = 11; M = 11), aged 18-24 years, were recruited. All were born in Hong Kong and had lived in Hong Kong since birth. Among them, 11 were highly proficient (with a grade "C" or above in HKALE UE or a grade "5" or above in HKDSE English Exam), and 11 were less proficient (with a grade "E" or below in HKALE Use of English or a grade "3" or below in HKDSE English exam) (See Table 4 for the comparison among HKDSE, IELTS and HKALE results). All participants were recruited from within Hong Kong Community College (HKCC), The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (PolyU) community. They all had normal hearing, speech and language ability by self-report.

Table 4. Comparison among HKDSE, IELTS and HKALE results based on HKEA (2004, 2010)

HKDSE	IELTS	IELTS	HKALE
5**	7.51 – 7.77	7.41 - 8.30	A
5*	7.16 – 7.32	6.92 - 7.40	B
5	6.81 – 6.99	6.51 - 6.91	C
4	6.31 – 6.51	6.03 - 6.50	D
3	5.48 – 5.68	5.40 - 6.02	E
2	4.79 – 5.07		

Note. Such an equivalent between HKALE Use of English and HKDSE English is based on the research studies conducted by Hong Kong Examination Authority (HKEA) in 2004 and 2010, comparing HKALE grades with IELTS scores and comparing HKDSE scores with IELTS scores respectively.

Experiment Procedures

During the experiment, participants were asked to pronounce a set of English words in English contexts and their corresponding Cantonese loanwords in Chinese contexts for comparison (see Table 5). This experiment was used to test if native speakers of Hong Kong Cantonese used the same phonetic cue(s), namely pitch, intensity or duration, for the production of English syllables with different lexical stresses and Chinese syllables with different tones.

Table 5. English words and their corresponding loanwords in contextualised English and Chinese sentences

Target Word	English/Chinese	Contextualised Sentence
1	English	She likes taking a sauna.
	Chinese	佢鍾意焗桑拿。
2	English	She likes playing guitar.
	Chinese	佢鍾意彈結他。
3	English	She likes carnivals.
	Chinese	佢鍾意嘉年華。
4	English	She likes vanilla.
	Chinese	佢鍾意呔哩拿。

Since the current study focused on Hong Kong Cantonese ESL learner's production of stressed and unstressed English syllables, any structures foreign to Cantonese syllable structures were excluded from analyses. Examples are epenthetic syllables, typically found in loanwords, resulting from the addition of vowels to a non-permissible coda in Cantonese or a consonant cluster. For instance, the epenthetic [s], [sh] and [f] as in [ba55si35] 巴士 and [si22tik55] 士的 for the donor word bus and stick respectively, [ke55sy21] 茄薯 for cash, and [sɔ55fu21] 梳乎 and [fu22lok55] 符碌 for soft and fluke have to be eliminated.

In addition, monosyllabic words were also excluded from analysis. Since a monosyllabic word consists of only one syllable, which is always the stressed syllable, there were no other syllables within the same word for comparison of relative stress.

Disyllabic words, however, can be realised in three possible stress patterns, as shown below:

- (A) with both syllables stressed, for example, ,sar'dine, 'fore,cast, 'pass.port
- (B) with the first syllable stressed while the second unstressed, for example, 'cancer, 'captain
- (C) with the second syllable stressed while the first unstressed, for example, per'cent, gui'tar

Disyllabic words in (A), with both syllables stressed, have one syllable primarily stressed and the other secondarily stressed. In some dictionaries, these words were only marked with the primary stress. In view of this, these words were regrouped into (B) and (C), with clear distinction of stress and non-stress, for analyses in the current study. For instance, ,sar'dine was classified into Type C while 'fore,cast, and 'pass.port into Type B. In Table 5 above, Item (1) is an example of Type B disyllabic words while Item 2 is an example of Type C disyllabic words.

Trisyllabic words can also be realised in three possible stress patterns, as shown below:

- (D) with only the first syllable stressed, for example, 'chocolate, 'vitamin
- (E) with only the second syllable stressed, for example, bi'kini, va'nilla
- (F) with only the third syllables stressed, for example, ,Japan'ese, ,lega'lese, ,volun'teer, pictu'resque, ,enter'tain

In Table 5, Item (3) is an example of Type D while Item (4) is an example of Type E. An example of Type F was not included here as there is no correspondence of Cantonese loanwords for direct comparison. Each target word and its loanword correspondence were elicited with the contextualised English and Chinese sentences, shown in Table 5, in a randomised order.

Participants were asked to read each English or Chinese sentence twice, yielding a total of 352 tokens (4 target words or their loanword correspondences x 2 contexts x 2 repetitions x 22 subjects). The speech samples produced by the participants were recorded by using AUDACITY. To ensure the quality and consistency of the recording of speech samples, all recordings took place in a quiet room with a high-quality unidirectional dynamic microphone fixed at a distance of 10 cm from the participant's mouth.

Methods of Analyses

The recording of each subject was first processed using Praat (Boersma & Weenink, 2010). Each syllable in the pronounced English donor words and Cantonese loanwords was extracted and saved to individual files. The segmentation of syllables was done manually by one of the authors. Ten percent of the tokens were segmented twice in order to test the intra-judge reliability. The Spearman's correlation coefficient between the duration of segmented vowels is 0.95 ($p < 0.001$), which was regarded satisfactory. The following acoustic parameters were measured from each sound sample: average fundamental frequency (F0) (in Hz), syllable duration (in ms) and average intensity (in dB).

For intensity measurement, calibration was carried out at the same time. To calibrate for intensity during recording, three calibration signals were generated and measured with a sound level meter, based on which a calibration equation was calculated using the linear regression method. The actual intensity level of the recorded signals was calculated using this intensity calibration equation.

The extracted syllables of both the English donor words and Cantonese loanwords were then classified into two types, (1) stressed syllables or those corresponding to stressed syllables in the English donor words, and (2) unstressed syllables or those corresponding to unstressed syllables in the English donor words, for later comparisons of the mean values of F0s, syllable duration and intensity.

RESULTS

Tables 6 and 7 show the average fundamental frequency (F0) (in Hz), syllable duration (in ms) and average intensity (in dB) of the English donor word syllables and loanword syllables in the prototypes of highly proficient speakers and less proficient ones respectively, with data of the English stressed syllables and corresponding Cantonese loanword syllables shaded in grey.

Table 6 Average fundamental frequency, syllable duration and average intensity of the English donor word syllables and loanword syllables in the prototype of highly proficient speakers

	Sauna	桑拿				
	Sau	桑	na	拿		
F0 (Hz)	144.50	152.60	92.32	86.36		
Duration (ms)	0.43	0.37	0.19	0.37		
Intensity (db)	81.90	81.90	73.80	73.82		
	Guitar	結他				
	Gui	結	tar	他		
F0 (Hz)	113.40	108.00	114.60	119.00		
Duration (ms)	0.09	0.18	0.39	0.25		
Intensity (db)	71.00	72.00	80.00	74.00		
	Carnivals	嘉年華				
	Car	嘉	ni	年	vals	華
F0 (Hz)	145.36	139.74	108.15	98.19	89.00	80.68
Duration (ms)	0.15	0.19	0.11	0.10	0.12	0.20
Intensity (db)	80.42	78.94	77.16	73.86	73.38	71.90
	Vanilla	佗哩拿				
	Va	佗	nil	哩	la	拿
F0 (Hz)	115.02	101.82	121.76	120.31	86.98	86.84
Duration (ms)	0.09	0.19	0.24	0.21	0.20	0.24
Intensity (db)	76.30	76.77	77.87	75.67	74.10	77.36

Table 7 Average fundamental frequency, syllable duration and average intensity of the English donor word syllables and loanword syllables in the prototype of less proficient speakers

	Sauna	桑拿				
	Sau	桑	na	拿		
F0 (Hz)	123.57	130.17	101.48	110.50		
Duration (ms)	0.47	0.47	0.39	0.30		
Intensity (db)	68.19	69.60	64.40	62.70		
	Guitar	結他				
	Gui	結	tar	他		
F0 (Hz)	106.34	112.90	115.10	124.36		
Duration (ms)	0.21	0.28	0.38	0.39		
Intensity (db)	65.70	65.21	66.97	69.92		
	Carnivals	嘉年華				
	Car	嘉	ni	年	vals	華
F0 (Hz)	135.50	134.50	104.28	115.36	error	error
Duration (ms)	0.32	0.33	0.13	0.20	0.51	0.38
Intensity (db)	70.12	68.83	65.75	65.73	64.72	62.66
	Vanilla	佗哩拿				
	Va	佗	nil	哩	la	拿
F0 (Hz)	108.75	117.40	111.55	124.91	104.24	103.01
Duration (ms)	0.36	0.24	0.21	0.43	0.28	0.38
Intensity (db)	65.58	68.60	67.20	65.50	65.09	61.93

As shown in Tables 6 and 7, both highly proficient and less proficient speakers produced both stressed syllables in the English donor words and their corresponding Cantonese syllables with higher F0 values. The differences between stressed and unstressed syllables in terms of intensity and duration were found to be greater in highly proficient speakers' production than in less proficient speakers'.

Fundamental Frequency (F0)

Figure 2 below shows that highly proficient speakers produced both stressed syllables in the English donor words and their corresponding Cantonese syllables with higher F0 values than their unstressed counterparts by an average of 34% and 43% respectively while less proficient speakers also show a similar tendency but with a slighter difference of 18% and 16% respectively.

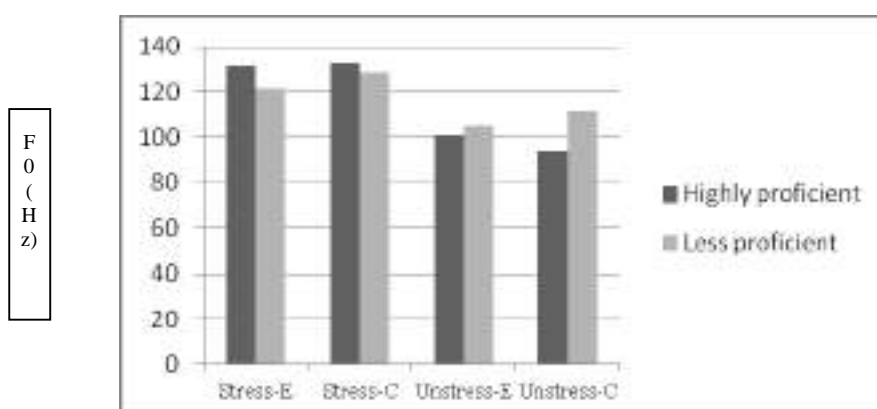


Figure 2. Comparison of average F0 values of the English donor word syllables and those of Cantonese loanword syllables in the prototypes of highly proficient and less proficient speakers

Duration (ms)

As shown in Figure 3 below, highly proficient speakers produced both stressed syllables in the English donor words and their corresponding Cantonese syllables with greater duration than their unstressed counterparts by an average of 120% and 21% respectively while less proficient speakers also show a similar tendency but with a slighter difference of 25% and 40% respectively. The extremely high percentage difference between stressed and unstressed syllables in the English donor words produced by highly proficient speakers reveals their awareness of duration as an important phonetic cue to stress.

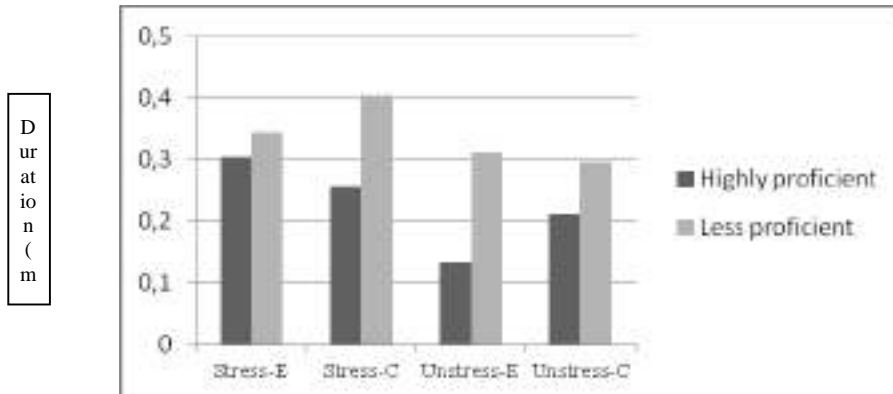


Figure 3. Comparison of average duration of the English donor word syllables and those of Cantonese loanword syllables in the prototypes of highly proficient and less proficient speakers

Intensity (dB)

Comparatively, highly proficient speakers produced both stressed syllables in the English donor words and their corresponding Cantonese syllables with just slightly greater intensity than their unstressed counterparts by an average of 7% and 4% respectively while less proficient speakers also show a similar tendency of 5% and 6% respectively (see Figure 4 below).

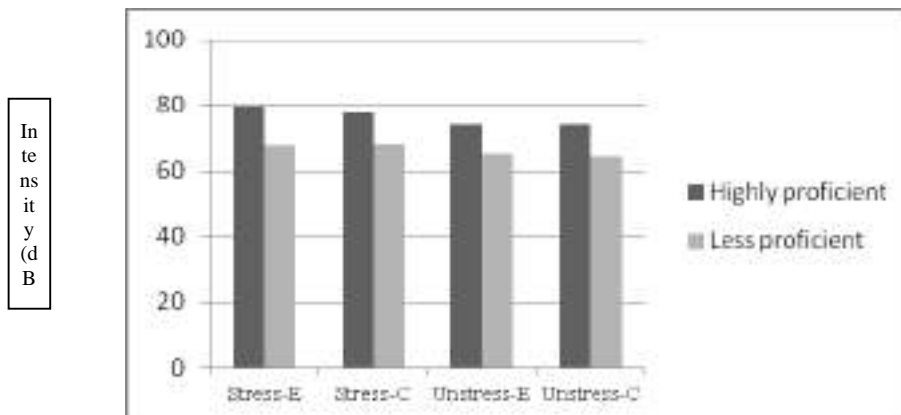


Figure 4. Comparison of average intensity of the English donor word syllables and those of Cantonese loanword syllables in the prototypes of highly proficient and less proficient speakers

Discussion and Interpretation

The above results concerning the differences between stressed and unstressed English donor word syllables and their corresponding loanword counterparts in F0, duration and intensity suggest that both highly proficient and less proficient speakers tend to rely on f0 and duration rather than intensity when producing English word stress. Besides, highly proficient speakers are more capable than less proficient speakers in using all the three phonetic cues to stress, especially duration. More training can be given to both groups on the use of intensity to denote stress, while special attention to duration is needed for the less proficient speakers.

CONCLUSION

In short, Hong Kong Cantonese ESL learners produced English lexical stress with (i) a relative higher F0 in stressed syllables than in unstressed syllables; and (ii) relatively little difference between stressed and unstressed syllables in intensity and duration, as in their Cantonese loanword counterparts. Such findings confirm that pitch serves as the most dominant acoustic cue for stressed syllables, even in English produced by Cantonese ESL speakers. In addition, highly proficient speakers showed more differences between stressed syllables and their unstressed counterparts than less proficient learners in duration and intensity. It suggests that less dominant acoustic features, intensity and duration, should be emphasised in ESL teaching, especially to the less proficient ESL speakers.

To undo the nativisation of English words into Cantonese phonological structure, Hong Kong Cantonese ESL learners should be taught explicitly the phonetic cues to English word stress: F0, intensity and duration. This may inspire teachers or educators with more effective regimens such as the use of waveforms and spectrograms as visual aids in teaching English pronunciation to Hong Kong Cantonese learners of English. This may also serve as a basis for further studies on the acquisition, production and teaching of English connected speech and intonation.

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African American Dialects and Schooling: A Positive Approach Towards Schooling

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Abstract

This research is intended to cover the many facets of what good teaching is for African American children by non African-American teachers. The paper also covers the prevailing attitudes of these non-black teachers and the impact of negative expectations of these teachers in today's classrooms across the nation and indeed in many other countries. African-American Dialect sometimes called Black English has been responsible for the lack of understanding of many teachers of the pedagogical implications in classrooms today as well as the interactive relationships that these effects may have on teachers' attitudes. Many school districts have been held accountable because of the failure to understand the needs of these students and the failure to provide an equal educational opportunity for the African-American students in classrooms today.

Keywords.

Introduction

The research hopes to broaden the knowledge base for those working with sub-standard speakers, by making them aware of attitudes that prevail and create a "crisis" in classrooms. The "self-fulfilling" prophecy syndrome makes student progress based on teacher expectations, a pattern of constant failure hence students do poorly in these situations and are graded accordingly. Negative expectations about performance leads to very negative expectations about black students as well as the black populations in general, locally, nationally as well as globally. Teachers need to learn to accept each dialectical difference and embrace it and understand it if we intend to see ourselves as participants in an extended global arena in education. When we "empower" these speech differences and weave them into the "fabric of education." We will then move towards transforming public opinions on black dialect and indeed on the black populations in general in our greater society!

African American dialects (variously known as "nonstandard English," "nonstandard Black English," "Black Vernacular English," "Vernacular Black English," "Standard Black English," "Negro Speech, and so on) constitute a controversial issue in American education. This paper is an attempt to review the research debates about the nature of African American dialects, with an emphasis on the attitudes and behaviors of teachers in shaping the achievement behaviors and school adjustments of African American students.

Because the issues surrounding African American dialects are so vast, and because the state of knowledge concerning appropriate interventions is so limited, my focus is on providing practitioners with a general introduction that highlights the key principles in teaching children who speak an African American dialect. My focus is also limited to the situation in the United States, because the relationship between schooling and African American dialects **outside of the** United States (e.g., the Caribbean, Central America, Cuba, and South America) is at **this** time beyond my research.

It is important to **contextualize** this however, within the broader reality of the educational crises confronting the nation concerning the education of African Americans and other ethno-linguistic minority groups. Namely, African Americans and other linguistic minorities (particularly the Spanish-speaking) are plagued by a number of grim statistics in scholastic achievement. These include low test scores, high dropout rates prior to the completion of high school, low university entry, and high university attrition. These educational failures accordingly, have been linked with vulnerabilities to poor self-concepts, unemployment, the reproduction of economic inequality, also the plethora of "social plagues" of today's African American community, including crime, drug abuse, homicide/suicide, intergenerational poverty, and severe threats to physical and mental well-being. Although African American dialects play a role in these broader social, cultural, and economic realities,

they are **only a part** of a complex matrix of factors that create and sustain the victimization of African American and other ethnic communities.

Note also that I have selected the phrase, African American dialects, in favor of the other terms in order to avoid the unfortunate color symbolism associated with racial labeling in the United States. In addition, African American dialects convey the fact that the subject of my research centers on a continuum and those discrete categorizations (e.g., Black English) are inevitably misleading. This latter point also applies to any operational definition of Standard English, which I view as an “idealized standard” that masks tremendous regional diversity even within this “standard.”

This paper is an attempt to present an overview of the research controversies surrounding African American dialects and a review of research on teacher attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes. The discussions present a number of emerging principles concerning teaching pupils who speak African American dialects and concludes with a call for the **total** restructuring of American education.

Research Controversies

Racial Biases

Because of the omnipresence of White racism, much of the social sciences, including education, linguistics, and psychology has revealed clear White racial biases concerning studies of African Americans. Many of these biases are revealed for example in theories that concluded that African Americans were genetically inferior to “Whites”.

In the context of language, early researchers concluded that African American dialects were reflective of a simplistic cognitive style and of low intelligence. Linguists and educational psychologists are generally convinced that African Americans are inherently inferior to European Americans, and this inferiority was reflected in their patterns of thinking and language skills.

These biases, as absurd as they may seem, were consistent with the complex ideological system that supported racial inequality in the United States. Unfortunately, these biases remain well-entrenched in the public and educational arenas today. The contemporary *entrenchment* of these ideological biases are revealed, for example, by (a) the public’s willingness to “blame the victim” for failure in school and in life, and (b) researchers’ focus on individual-level predictors (such as motivation or self-esteem) and the well-established tradition of “*controlling*” for race and class in studies of educational achievement.

A number of researchers have enumerated the varieties of African American dialects. Although frequently classified in different ways, most researchers now recognize that African American dialects fall on a continuum with a vast range of similarity or difference within “Standard English.” Region and urbanicity are also strong determinants of specific African American dialectal characteristics.

Researchers have also identified the “*bi-dialectical*” nature of the African American population. That is, many speakers of African American dialects speak both “Standard English” (or close approximations thereof) and one or more varieties of African American dialects. These “varieties” of African American dialects are closely tied to socio-economic level, region, urbanicity and level of residential integration and mobility.

In some respects, it could be argued that some African American dialects “meet or exceed” the sophistication of “Standard English” by the use of intonation, syllable stress, and nonverbal cues to modify meaning. I have, in emphasizing the rich oral tradition of Africans and African Americans recounted in some detail in previous research the verbal and nonverbal rituals that may be found in many African American communities. Others have noted the importance of nonverbal cues in conveying or modifying the meaning of the spoken word. A final illustration of the complexity of African American dialects is revealed in the recent cultural phenomenon known as “Rap,” where African American language forms are created in sharply syncopated rhythms and rhymes.

In summary, research on African American dialects has concluded that they are a legitimate variant of English that operates according to their own rules of syntax, grammar, and the derivation of meaning. As such, they should be accorded an “*equal status*” relationship with “Standard English.” Yet, studies still indicate that teachers, and the public continue to harbor negative attitudes and beliefs about the nature of African American dialects and their role in school and society.

Teacher Attitudes

Manifestation

The attitude that a teacher has for a student, demonstrably affects the student's attitudes and behaviors. After years of research and scores of studies, educational researchers have documented the processes underlying the "self-fulfilling prophecy".

In essence, the **self-fulfilling prophecy** is a process where a teacher's expectation of a student's performance is communicated to the student in a way that affects the attitudes and behaviors of both student and teacher. The result is that the teacher's expectation (for example, "Johnnie can't read") becomes true. Teachers who expect failure typically demand less, provide less information and feedback, and generally engage in conscious and unconscious behaviors that produce failure. Teachers who expect success typically have high standards and demands, provide a great deal of input, and give students consistent feedback and positive rewards.

Most of the research in this area has demonstrated negative expectations, and related behaviors, based on **race**. The expectation of lower academic achievement potential for African Americans is so pervasive, it might be considered an axiom of American education. Some recent evidence also suggests that African American males are the **most** at risk of these pessimistic teacher attitudes and behaviors. Many researchers have also reported that teachers in their classrooms gave the "*least*" amount of praise, and the "*most*" amount of verbal and nonverbal criticism, to **African American males**.

Some studies have also demonstrated that teachers have generally more negative attitudes toward linguistic minority children. I have found that teachers demonstrated lower expectations for speakers of "Vernacular Black English" than for speakers of "Standard Black English" (the differences between these two dialects are also strongly related to social class). It is easy to imagine that African American dialectal styles are a contributing factor to the generally negative attitudes and expectations that teachers have for African American students. It is also easy to imagine that race and dialect may interact in their relationship with teachers' **attitudes**.

The most troubling aspect of teachers' attitudes and behaviors is the effect these attitudes may have on students. According to one theoretical formulation, African American children develop a sense of "conditional failure" as a result of negative scholastic experiences (especially interactions with teachers who harbor negative expectations) and become willing participants in their own failure syndrome. Research indicates that performance deteriorates in response to failure which may account for the increasing achievement disparities between Whites and African Americans with increasing grade levels in the U.S. today. It is worth noting, as well, that many of these negative expectations and behaviors are characteristic of **African American** teachers as well as many dominant culture teachers.

In a landmark Supreme Court decision, it was found that the Ann Arbor Michigan, school district **failed** to provide an equal educational opportunity to African American students because of their failure to take into account the pedagogical implications of African American dialects. Indeed, it was noted that the teachers explicitly degraded the legitimacy of the children's dialects, and this was harmful to their academic achievement and **especially** their self-esteem!

Pedagogical Implications

My extensive review of historical literature suggests a number of principles for the education of African American children. These principles, however may apply to the education of all children.

Expectations

Teachers must consciously monitor their attitudes and behaviors toward racial and linguistic minorities. A long history of prejudice and discrimination against African Americans in the United States has deeply embedded racist ideologies within American culture. It is my perspective that few if any individuals can live in the United States and not be affected by racism. Unfortunately, racism is generally manifested in the belief in dominant culture racial **superiority** and the **inferiority** of other groups on a sliding scale that seems to correspond to skin color. Other researchers have also demonstrated the effects of **dialect** or native language on teachers' attitudes. Thus, unless these negative attitudes are consciously acknowledged and examined, they are likely to invade the classroom in ways that re-create racial and ethnic inequality.

Teachers must presume academic success for **all** students. Teachers expectations apply in both directions: Negative expectations **may** produce failure; positive expectations **may** produce success. Teachers must not assume, for example, that dialect or native language differences are tied in any systematic way to academic achievement potentials. Due to the variety of African American dialects, and due to the "dialect-switching" that characterizes many of the speakers of African American dialects, it is inappropriate to assume anything based on dialectal differences alone.

Behaviors

Teachers must begin to accept “*each*” child’s language or dialect as **legitimate**. In so doing, teachers must use teaching techniques that meaningfully communicate with children in ways that provide for academic enrichment. Teachers who reject African American dialects tend to “*hypercorrect*” the oral reading of children who speak an African American dialect. These corrections, however, have often been rigidly applied to pronunciation and other dialect differences rather than the actual content or meaning of reading passages. As a result, students engaged in a number of “survival strategies,” such as withdrawal and “*acting out*” behaviors, in order to escape the pejorative treatment that teachers direct toward their native linguistic styles. Teachers should accept oral pronunciations that are appropriate for each student’s normal speech (**unless an obvious error related to meaning is made**). Thus teachers should avoid interrupting students while reading for the purposes of minor corrections; they should not force adherence to an idealized standard that is inappropriate when universally applied.

Teachers must **condition** academic success. They can do this by structuring the classroom in a way that engenders involvement and academic success. This includes meaningful communication that ensures understanding by providing opportunities for students to experience success, providing rewards and other incentives and varying tasks and the length of instructional segments, and directing learning activities toward topics that are relevant to the students themselves.

Curriculum Content

The educational community must combat **ethnic, racial, and linguistic biases** in the curriculum. In this regard, the content of curriculum must recognize multicultural education as a part of basic education. The curriculum must demonstrate its relevance to various cultural groups and accurately reflect cultural pluralism. Teachers must **aggressively** seek curricular materials and resource persons that provide this relevance.

More fundamentally, the content of education should “**empower**” students to solve problems in their lives and communities. In this regard, the purpose of education should be geared toward helping students be generators of knowledge rather than passive receivers of information. In this sense, the classroom becomes a microcosm of the world, with the world’s problems and perils and with a mandate to seek critical thinking skills and problem-solving resolutions!

School Administrators

School administrators must recognize the role of school environments in enhancing academic achievement. Extensive research has concluded that the climate of the school, including curricular supports, adequacy of materials, and the role of the principal, are keys to academic success and achievement.

Social Culture

In as much as general racial and ethnic attitudes underlie the attitudes of teachers, **efforts must** be made to generate alternative representations of these groups in the mass media. I have always supported a creative effort to develop “pro-social television” programming that reverses ethnic and gender stereotypes. There was a popular program entitled, *Star Crusaders*, that portrays African Americans in cooperative leadership roles with other ethnic groups, demonstrates gender equality, and advances the tenets of the peaceful resolution of conflict.

More fundamentally, a need exists for the broader urban social culture to accept linguistic and dialect diversity as a national resource and asset. Part of this recognition then, must be translated into the involvement of the citizenry and communities in enhancing the learning opportunities of all of the nation’s children. The general citizenry can act, for example, as resources of multicultural education and as professional role models for students.

Public Policy

In the area of public policy, the guiding principle must continue to be the **provision** of equal educational opportunities for all children. This means, without doubt, the ultimate development of a national policy on language education. There must also be federal funding for “*language unique*” students of color.

More fundamentally, I am concerned with evidence of the continuing denial of equal educational opportunities. For example, documented large disparities in the amount of instructional funding provided to

predominantly Black, Hispanic, and white schools. Moreover, instructional expenditures and school size were significantly related to standardized measures of academic achievement. Other studies have shown the benefits of small class sizes, which **naturally** involve a commitment for much greater resources to the educational arena. In addition to higher achievement, small classes are also conducive to teacher/student verbal interactions.

Conclusions

The debates concerning African American dialects are likely to continue far into the foreseeable future. Both the African American community and the public at large must address fundamental pedagogical questions about the nature of language, and language education, in order to redress the cycles of educational failure that characterize a **disturbingly large** proportion of African American children.

This search for a transformation in American education is likely to benefit our entire urban society. As we recognize the special perils confronting African American children, we expand our curriculum to include multicultural content and, I hope, multicultural understanding. As we pursue the development of language competence on the part of linguistic or dialect minorities, hopefully we will enhance our understanding of the processes of language acquisition and the education of “special populations.”

Most importantly, as we address the individualized needs of our students, we transform education into a purposeful activity that provides students with skills that will enable them to pursue productive economic lives, and to assist in the empowerment of their communities. **Only then will I feel we have succeeded in urban public education.**

Variably-Cued Multimedia Language Instruction on the Vocabulary Achievement of Education Students: An Enriched Instructional Design

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Abstract

This study sought to determine the effects of multimedia language instruction with varying number of visual and verbal cues on the vocabulary achievement of education students.

Multimedia materials differ in the number and quality of visual and verbal cues. Many of these cues such as facial expressions, gestures, proximity, appearance, tone of voice have been found to be beneficial to the learning process.

This is an experimental research which used the Randomized Multi-Group with a Pre-test and Post-test Design. There were 60 research respondents involved in this study. They were randomly assigned to four (4) treatment groups employing the randomized matching technique on the bases of mental ability and vocabulary ability. Each treatment groups (TG) received six (6) multimedia lessons on vocabulary set in four (4) experimental variables such as: TG1- video: full visual and verbal cues, TG2- still picture, text and audio: limited visual and full verbal cues, TG3- still picture and text: limited visual and no verbal cues and TG4- audio only: no visual and full verbal cues.

The vocabulary achievement of the research participants were correlated to gender, age, socio-economic status, grade point average in English and attitudes towards multimedia instruction.

Statistical analyses showed no significant difference in the vocabulary achievement among the four treatment groups. Significant relationships were noted only between age and vocabulary achievement and between GPA in English and vocabulary achievement.

Keywords.

Introduction

Technology management in education should focus on educational technology or instructional technology - a systematic, iterative process for designing instruction or training used to improve performance. It should encourage wise use of systems, environments, tools, products, and strategies that can enhance human learning and competence. As such, it stresses a rigorous analysis of present and desired levels of performance, identifies the causes for any performance gaps, offers a wide range of solutions with which to improve performance, guides the change management process, and evaluates the results (Walden, 2005 in *Encyclopedia of Educational Technology*, 2013).

To keep education attuned to technological advancement, technology managers in education sector should also “respond effectively to rapid technological changes and innovations by harnessing these to enhance the productivity, quality, competitiveness, and service of their respective organizations” (U.P. Technology Management Center, <http://www.tmc.upd.edu.ph/>. Accessed December 2013).

Jenny Davidson, in her article, “Multimedia Presentation”, stresses that students and teachers are increasingly helped by multimedia presentations that are both helpful and fun, however ...it will not do much if it is part of a poorly designed or badly chosen materials (*Encyclopedia of Educational Technology*, 2013). It is in this aspect that the help and/or intervention of the technology managers are needed.

The global range of development related to multimedia in the classroom is enormous. However, the rapid growth of multimedia implementation in learning settings does not guarantee participation and acceptance on the part of students. Negative attitudes toward multimedia-based instruction could be a deterrent to using multimedia technology as a tool for language learning (Houghton, R. S. 2004. *Rationale for Multimedia Use and*

Instruction in Education. Western Carolina University. Retrieved on December 2013 from <http://www.ceap.wcu.edu/>).

With its goal to maximize the utilization of multimedia instruction both in professional subjects and general education subjects, Northern Negros State College of Science and Technology (NONESCOST), through this study, wished to establish empirical evidence especially on the use of multimedia presentation in the classroom. The teachers in this school are mostly using multimedia materials in the classroom, yet the designs of presentations are “usually based on intuition rather than on empirical evidence, and little is known about their actual effect to the end users – the learners” (Betrancourt, 2007). Hence, sometimes cues are overloaded if not indiscriminately eliminated.

Furthermore, this study is deemed vital in the sense that NONESCOST caters to more than 70 percent of students from public high schools in which computer and/or media literacy programs are quite limited, thus, their acceptance and readiness to this teaching-learning environment, especially in a language classroom, may be a factor to learning because the under-supported digital technology systems and digital curriculum of public schools leads to a growing “digital divide” within public school education...and that of higher education in the Philippines.

Statement of the Problem

This study aimed to determine the effects of multimedia language instruction with varying visual and verbal cues on the vocabulary achievement of education students at NONESCOST as basis for an enriched instructional design.

Specifically, this study sought answers to the following questions:

1. What is the profile of the education students in terms of
 - 1.1. age and gender,
 - 1.2. type of secondary schools graduated,
 - 1.3. socio-economic status of parents as to:
 - 1.3.1. educational attainment,
 - 1.3.2. combined monthly family income,
 - 1.3.3. occupation,
 - 1.3.4. size of the family,
 - 1.4. grade point average in English 1, and
 - 1.5. attitude towards multimedia-based instruction?
2. What is the vocabulary achievement of each treatment group before and after exposure to Multimedia Language Instruction (MLI) with
 - 2.1. T1 (full visual and verbal cues)
 - 2.2. T2 (limited visual and full verbal cues)
 - 2.3. T3 (limited visual and no verbal cues)
 - 2.4. T4 (no visual and full verbal cues)
3. Is there a significant difference among the four treatment groups in their vocabulary achievement?
4. Is there a significant relationship between the respondents' vocabulary achievement and identified variables in their profiles?
5. Based on the findings, what instructional design could be developed?

Hypotheses

Based on the aforesaid research problems, the researcher tested the following hypotheses:

H_{o1}. There is no significant difference in the vocabulary achievement among the four treatment groups.

H_{o2}. There is no significant relationship between the respondents' vocabulary achievement and identified variables in their profiles.

Theoretical Framework

This study was anchored primarily on the Mayer's cognitive theory of multimedia learning (CTML) which centers on the idea that learners attempt to build meaningful connections between words and pictures and that they learn more deeply than they could have with words or pictures alone (Mayer, 2010a).

According to CTML, one of the principal aims of multimedia instruction is to encourage the learner to build a coherent mental representation from the presented material. The learner's job is to make sense of the presented material as an active participant, ultimately constructing new knowledge.

Similarly, this study was also based on the premise that humans can integrate information from different sensory modalities (visual, auditory and [kinesthetic]) into one meaningful experience (learning) and/or from verbal and non-verbal information into a mental model (schema). In this context, instructional designers and teachers are confronted with the need to choose between several combinations of modes and modalities to promote meaningful learning (Moreno & Mayer, 2003).

Should the lesson content be given auditorily in a form of audio material, visually in a form of text slides, or a combination of both? Should the visual and auditory materials be presented simultaneously, sequentially or separately? Should a teacher design a lesson presentation in full motion or video format? Which one is effective? What is the best combination? What verbal and visual cues should be included to make multimedia materials totally effective? What is the most systematic and iterative process for designing instruction or training used to improve students' performance? These are only few of the many questions that bother educators in their attempt to design and deliver effective instruction.

To help answer these questions was the primary motivation of the researcher to conduct this study. It is his aim to help understand how multimedia instructional materials can be used in ways (combination of cues) that are consistent with how students learn.

To this effect, the researcher derived ideas from six (12) principles of instructional design by Mayer (2009) such as the following:

Coherence Principle. People learn better when extraneous material is excluded rather than included.

Signaling Principle. People learn better when cues that highlight the organization of the essential material are added.

Redundancy Principle. People learn better from graphics and narration than from graphics, narration, and printed text.

Spatial Contiguity Principle. People learn better when corresponding words and pictures are placed near each other rather than far from each other on the page or screen.

Temporal Contiguity Principle. People learn better when corresponding words and pictures are presented at the same time rather than in succession.

Segmenting Principle. People learn better when a multimedia lesson is presented in user-paced segments rather than as a continuous unit.

Pre-training Principle. People learn more deeply from a multimedia message when they receive pre-training in the names and characteristics of key components.

Modality Principle. People learn better from graphics and narration than from graphics and printed text.

Multimedia Principle. People learn better from words and pictures than from words alone.

Personalization Principle. People learn better from a multimedia presentation when the words are in conversational style rather than in formal style.

Voice Principle. People learn better when the words in a multimedia message are spoken by a friendly human voice rather than a machine voice.

Image Principle. People do not necessarily learn more deeply from a multimedia presentation when the speaker's image is on the screen rather than not on the screen.

Anchoring to the above-stated theories and/or principles of multimedia materials design, this study varied the degree of visual and verbal cues present in multimedia instruction to determine the effects on education students' vocabulary achievement. These variations include the following: (1) video - full visual and verbal cues, (2) still picture, text and audio - limited visual and full verbal cues, (3) still picture and text - limited visual and no verbal cues, and (4) audio only - no visual and full verbal cues. The different visual and verbal cues being referred in this study are: facial expression, gesture, proximity, and appearance (visual cues) and voice inflections (verbal cues) of the lecturer in a multimedia instruction.

The results of this study will assist educators in their decisions regarding how much amount of cues their multimedia instructional materials should have in order to most benefit the learner. It may also assist them in providing empirical evidence for justifying how multimedia technology can be used effectively in education.

Authorities clearly point out, "educators and decision-makers at all levels need to see convincing evidence of the claimed instructional effectiveness of multimedia applications before they make the considerable investment in hardware, courseware, and teacher training that successful integration requires".

Similarly, there is great need for research on vocabulary learning strategies utilized by language learners of different proficiency levels and ages, its various pedagogical methods for vocabulary acquisition can help ESL

students to increase their vocabulary. But the effectiveness of the various pedagogies for vocabulary acquisition using multimedia CALL needs to be studied.

As such, the researcher intended to conduct this study in order to set direction towards a more effective teaching of vocabulary (and eventually of other learning contents) and designing and /or enriching multimedia materials appropriate for the purpose.

Methods and Procedures

This is an experimental research which used the Randomized Multi-Group with a Pre-test and Post-test Design. In this design, two or more experimental variables are tested. The groups are formed equal to the number of experimental variables. The members of each group are assigned randomly to their respective groups. Each experimental factor is applied on the group to which it is assigned. Before experimental period, a pre-test is administered. After the experimental period, the same test as based from the lessons taken by all the groups is given to all of them. The results of the pre-test and those of the post-test are subjected to some statistical methods, generally the analysis of the variance. The experimental factor assigned to the group with the highest achievement is considered the most effective; the experimental factor assigned to the group with the second highest achievement is the second most effective, and so on.

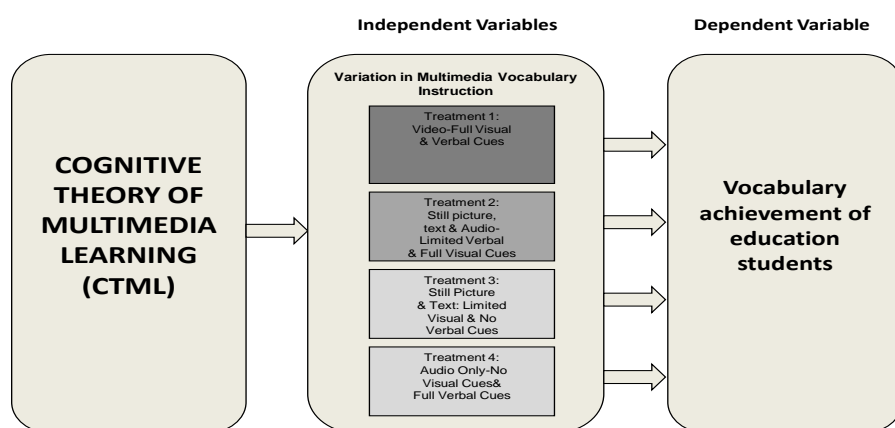
The basic structure of this design is as follows:

R	T1	X1	T2
R	T1	X2	T2
R	T1	X3	T2
R	T1	X4	T2

Where:

- R – means that the subjects have been randomly assigned to different groups
- T1 – Pre-test
- X – Treatments
- T2 – Post-Test

This research varied the visual and verbal cues present in multimedia language instruction for four (4) treatment groups. Four (4) experimental variables were used: (1) video: full visual and verbal cues, (2) still picture, text and audio: limited visual and full verbal cues, (3) still picture and text: limited visual and no verbal cues and (4) audio only: no visual and full verbal cues. This aimed to determine the effects of these differently-cued multimedia language instructions on the vocabulary achievement of education students. Figure 1 shows the schematic diagram of the study:



Research Participants

The treatment groups were composed of First Year Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSEd I) students of Eng. 2: Writing in the Discipline during the Second Semester of Academic Year 2012-2013. They were equated according to group size, mental ability, and vocabulary ability.

Mental ability was based from the results of the Mental Ability Test (MD5 Mental Ability Test) which is one of the components of the entrance examination.

The respondents were grouped using Randomized Matching. Randomized matching means matching subjects first and then randomly assign to groups. Hence, from the result of the MD5 Mental Ability Test, the researcher segregated the names of students who have above-average mental ability. Considering that this study needed four treatment groups, he then drew four names and randomly assigned each one to each of the four treatment groups. The same process was repeated for students who have average and/or low mental ability until the desired number of respondents per group was completed and equated.

As to vocabulary ability, the scores obtained by the students in the Gate-MacGinitie Reading Test (Vocabulary Test only) was treated as raw scores and became the basis of equating the four groups in vocabulary ability.

Table 1 presents the distribution of the research participants in four (4) treatment groups and table 2 shows the scores of the participants in both mental ability and vocabulary ability tests.

Table 1 Distribution of the research subjects in treatment groups

Treatment Groups (TG)	n
TG1: MLI with full visual and verbal cues	15
TG2: MLI with limited visual and full verbal cues	15
TG3: MLI with limited visual and no verbal cues	15
TG4: MLI with no visual and full verbal cues	15
Total	60

Table 2 Mental ability and vocabulary ability scores of the research participants

Research Subjects	T 1		T 2		T 3		T 4	
	MA	VA	MA	VA	MA	VA	MA	VA
1	96	39	96	34	96	45	96	39
2	91	37	91	34	91	40	91	35
3	88	38	88	35	88	41	88	39
4	85	36	85	34	85	39	85	34
5	78	38	75	34	78	34	75	33
6	65	34	70	36	65	24	70	30
7	61	31	61	31	61	36	61	39
8	57	32	57	36	57	23	57	33
9	52	27	52	29	52	24	52	34
10	50	36	50	34	50	35	50	35
11	45	36	45	33	45	36	45	28
12	36	40	36	34	36	34	36	35
13	33	23	33	29	33	36	33	28
14	27	35	27	30	27	33	27	35
15	17	34	17	36	17	30	17	36
Total	58.6	34.4	58.73333	33.26667	58.6	34	58.73333	34.06667

Instruments

Gates-MacGinitie Vocabulary Test. For the purpose of equating the subjects of this study in terms of their vocabulary skills, the researcher administered the Gates-MacGinitie Reading Test. This reading test was

constructed by Arthur Gates and Walter MacGinitie. However, the norms in terms of grades and standard scores established by Gates and Mac Ginitie were modified to suit Filipino students.

Multimedia Language Instructional Materials. The study consisted of four treatments designed to vary the number of visual and verbal cues within the multimedia language instruction. The review of literature indicated that visual and verbal cues such as facial expressions, gestures, proximity, appearance, vocal inflection, humor, personalized examples, and raising questions might affect a student's perception of the social presence of a speaker which eventually affects their learning (Steffey, 2001). The treatments vary in the degree to which they shall convey facial expressions, gestures, proximity, appearance, and vocal inflections.

Along with the materials' vocabulary contents, several recommendations by Steffey were considered in choosing these materials, to wit:

The materials must not be too long because fatigue may be an intervening variable;

Instructional lessons must not contain racist, sexist, and heterosexist language in order not to offend any participants which shall eventually lose their interest to the lessons;

The materials must bring into play dynamic instructors or hosts in order to convey higher social presence and motivation on the part of the learners.

Vocabulary Achievement Test (Pretest and Posttest). The research used a researcher-made-50-item-multiple-choice-test properly represented by the six (6) multimedia lessons on vocabulary. The test was validated by five (5) experts. The reliability of this test was established using the Kuder-Richardson (K-R 21) formula. It has a reliability coefficient of .791.

Modified Hollingshead Four Factor Index of Social Status. The four-factor index of socioeconomic status (SES) was utilized to measure SES of the research participants. This scale, widely used in the social sciences, uses parents' education, occupation and income of the parents to measure SES.

Multimedia Technology Acceptance/Attitude (MTA) Questionnaire. This survey instrument was adapted from the questionnaire used by Henderson (2005) in her study: "The Role of Computer Access in E-learning Technology Acceptance by Business Students", modified to suit the purpose of this study which is to survey on the education students' acceptance/attitudes toward the use of multimedia technology

This research instrument, as adapted and modified, came up to have 14- item scales. A Likert scale was used to elicit participants' responses on a scale from 1 to 5 (strongly disagree/strongly negative to strongly agree/strongly positive).

Procedures for data gathering

A. Pre-Experiment

1. Choosing and equating the research participants. For the purpose of conducting the experiment, the subjects were randomly chosen from the list of officially enrolled First Year BSEd I students. They were equated according to group size, mental ability, and vocabulary ability. In anticipation of this research study, the grouping and/or sectioning was already done before the start of classes in the second semester of academic year.

2. Validity and reliability of the test instrument. To assure validity and reliability of the instrument, the researcher did the following procedure:

a. Planning the test. The researcher carefully observed the procedures in test planning which included the preparation of the table of test specification.

b. Constructing the test items. The researcher constructed a total of 63-item multiple-choice test for the six lessons. The items were intentionally made more than the needed number of items (50) in anticipation of item elimination after test item analysis. The test was based from the transcripts of the materials used in the study and focused on vocabulary in context, idiomatic expressions, and slang.

The researcher used multiple-choice type of test which is considered the most flexible and the most effective test type for measuring information, vocabulary, understanding, application of principles or ability to interpret data.

c. Validating the test. The 63-item test was validated by experts. The panel of validators concertedly rated the test "valid".

d. Trial administration. After the validation process, the test was administered to thirty two (32) students who were non-participants in this study. Results of the pilot testing were utilized for analysis of the test items.

e. Analyzing the test items. After the trial testing, the test papers were corrected and analyzed.

Administering pre-test. A pretest (T1) containing the actual test items of the achievement test was

administered to the participants. This was to determine how well the participants know the vocabulary contents before treatment.

B. During Treatment

1. Preparing the experiment venue (Speech Laboratory). In preparing the venue, the researcher tried not to overlook any other intervening factors that might affect the validity and reliability of the result of the study. The following were foreseen intervening factors and how each one was avoided:

Sitting arrangement. There was no pre-determined seat plans imposed. Participants were allowed to sit anywhere they wanted so that sitting inconvenience as an intervening factor was eliminated

Lighting. The Speech Lab was well-lit during the conduct of experiments in order to eliminate bad lighting as an intervening factor.

Ventilation. The Lab is equipped with 1.5hp air conditioning unit. During the treatment, this was set in a tolerable coolness so that poor ventilation was eliminated as a factor.

Noise and other outside interferences. The lab is a closed/secluded room, thus, any noises from the outside were surely avoided.

Sound quality. The multimedia instructional material for each treatment group was played through a computer at the teacher's control panel and was projected via LCD projector; in order for each participant to get an equal quality of sounds from the materials (except Treatment 3 group), they used the headset available at their individual booth.

2. Conducting the actual experiment. The researcher completed the actual conduct of this experiment in 4 weeks. To protect this study from the Hawthorne Effect - the effect which refers to the tendency of subjects to act differently when they know they are being studied, the experiments were made part of the regular classroom meetings for the subject Eng. 2, usually during the last 20 minutes of the class period. A five-minute break was observed in between conducts of the regular subject matter session and the experimental lesson of the day.

The participants for each treatment group were not informed that they were experimented. The teacher-researcher devised merit and demerit system to help treat absences most especially by the participants. At an instance that a participant made a valid absence during the conduct of the experiment, the researcher discretely and immediately subjected him/her to special exposure to the treatment material missed.

The following are the descriptions of the four (4) treatments:

a. Treatment 1 (Group A). The language instruction was in a full-motion video. The host is in a half-body shot presenting the lesson contents, moving occasionally from left to right or vice versa. Text information, consisted of an outline of key points of the lecture, was flashing simultaneously as presented/uttered by the host and the guest-interviewee. The text information appeared either at the right, left or bottom part of the screen. All visual and verbal cues were used in this treatment: facial expressions, gestures, proximity, appearance, text and vocal inflection.

The materials were played using iTunes player.

b. Treatment 2 (Group B). The language instruction consisted of slide show of 'still images' of the host and the guest-interviewee and other pictorial elements of the materials, text information containing the key points of the lecture appear simultaneously with the audio. The presentation eliminated and/or limited the motion. A proper credit to the original source was observed in order not to violate the copyright agreement.

This treatment included the visual and verbal cues of proximity, appearance, text and vocal inflection. Facial expressions and gesture cues were eliminated in this treatment.

The materials were played using Windows Media Player.

c. Treatment 3 (Group C). The language instruction consisted of a still image of the host and the guest-interviewee. The still images remained the same throughout the lesson. A transcript of the instructional text was placed at the right side of the screen beside the still image. The text information, consisted of an outline of key points of the lecture, changed on cue as the instructional text screen changed. Audio was eliminated in this treatment. Proper credit to the original source was observed in order not to violate the copyright agreement.

This treatment included the visual cues of appearance, proximity and text. Facial expressions, gestures, and vocal inflection cues were eliminated in this treatment.

The materials were presented using Microsoft PowerPoint.

d. Treatment 4 (Group D). The instruction consisted of full audio of the original materials only. This treatment included the verbal cues of voice inflections only. Facial expressions, gestures, proximity, and appearance were eliminated from this treatment.

The audio materials were played using iTunes player.

Table 3 presents the summary of visual and verbal cues used in each of the treatment materials.

Table 3 Visual and verbal cues present in four (4) treatment materials

	Visual	Visual	Visual	Visual	Visual	Verbal
Treatments	Facial Expressions	Gestures	Proximity	Appearance	Text	Vocal Inflection
Treatment 1	*	*	*	*	*	*
Treatment 2			*	*	*	*
Treatment 3			*	*	*	
Treatment 4						*

3. *Log of experiments.* The teacher-researcher exposed each treatment group to each vocabulary lesson in respective treatment material. The meeting for each group followed the regular class schedule and the special schedules as arranged during the groups' vacant periods and were properly logged.

Treatment of data

The study consisted of four (4) treatment groups with 15 participants in each group. Treatment 1 provided the greatest number of visual and verbal cues. Each subsequent treatment group used fewer cues.

A one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there are significance differences in means and whether the differences among mean scores are statistically significant among treatment groups. ANOVA allows various mean variables to be measured, allows two or more independent variables to be analyzed simultaneously, and also allows for the measurement of the interactional effects.

Pearson r was used to determine if vocabulary achievement is significantly related to respondents' age, socio-economic index, GPA in English 1 and attitudes toward multimedia materials while Chi-Square was used to find out if vocabulary achievement is significantly related to respondents' gender and secondary school type graduated.

Data were computed using a Window-based SPSS (Statistical Packages for Social Sciences) with the help of a qualified statistician.

Scoring procedures

Achievement Test. Correct answers for each of the 50 items received scores of "1" and incorrect answers received scores of "0."

The total fifty (50) items were summed up to create an achievement score for each participant. The mean obtained was interpreted as follows:

<i>Mean</i>	<i>Verbal Interpretation</i>
41 – 50	Very High
31 – 40	High
21 – 30	Average
11 – 20	Low
1 – 10	Very Low

Multimedia Technology Acceptance/Attitude. The respondent's score to each of the 14-item scale were totaled and divided by 14. For each treatment group, the mean were summed up and divided by 15 research subjects. The mean obtained by individual participant and by treatment group were interpreted as follows:

<i>Mean</i>	<i>Verbal Interpretation</i>
4.21 – 5.00	Strongly Positive
3.41 – 4.20	Positive
2.61 – 3.40	Neutral
1.61 – 2.60	Negative
1.00 – 1.60	Strongly Negative

Grade Point Average in English I. Based on the standards of the NONESCOST, the participants' GPAs in English I were interpreted as follows:

<i>Range</i>	<i>Verbal Interpretation</i>
95.00 – 99.99	Very High
90.00 – 94.99	High

85.00 – 89.99	Average
80.00 – 84.99	Low
75.00 – 79.99	Very Low

Results

The results are presented in accordance to the order of the Statement of the Problem as stated above.

1. Majority of the education students as respondents of the study were female (73%) who are mostly below 17 years old (72%). The survey of the respondent's type of secondary school graduated disclosed that most of them were from public high schools (78%). In terms of socio-economic status/index, the profile showed that majority of the respondents' mothers are college level (42%) but mostly work as unskilled or service workers (50%). Furthermore, majority of their fathers are also college levels (45%) who are working as middle-level manager or professional, mid-size business owner or military officer (40%). The family income reported by the respondents indicated that a great majority have low yearly family income (73%). The profile also revealed that most of the respondents belong to a family with five (5) members (30%). Moreover, the grade point average (GPA) in English 1 of the respondents is low as based from the standards set by NONESCOST. The survey also manifested that the respondents have positive attitude toward the use of multimedia language instruction.

2. The vocabulary achievement of each treatment group before and after exposure to multimedia language instruction is high (See tables 4 and 5).

Although the obtained mean of scores by each treatment group before and after experiment were similarly interpreted 'high', increase in scores were noted in the posttest. After the treatments, T₁ (video: full visual and verbal cues) obtained the highest mean (38.07); T₂ (still picture, text and audio: limited visual and full verbal cues) obtained the second highest mean (37.40); T₃ (still picture and text: limited visual and no verbal cues) ranked third (36.80); and T₄ (audio only: no visual and full verbal cues) ranked fourth (34.53).

Table 4 Vocabulary achievement of each treatment group before exposure to respective multimedia language instruction

Treatment Group	N	Mean	Sd	Interpretation
T ₁	15	31.47	6.43	High
T ₂	15	31.27	4.22	High
T ₃	15	32.13	6.55	High
T ₄	15	31.27	5.56	High

Table 5 Vocabulary achievement of each treatment group after exposure to multimedia language instruction

Treatment Group	N	Mean	Sd	Interpretation
T ₁	15	38.07	6.15	High
T ₂	15	37.40	2.69	High
T ₃	15	36.80	5.62	High
T ₄	15	34.53	5.80	High

3. Results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed no significant differences on the vocabulary achievement among the four treatment groups before and after exposure to multimedia language instruction (See tables 6 and 7):

Table 6 Significant difference on the vocabulary achievement of the four treatment groups before exposure to multimedia language instruction

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F-Prob.	Interpretation
Between Groups	7.60	3	2.53			
Within Groups	1861.33	56	33.24	0.08	0.973	Not Significant
Total	1866.93	59				

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level

Table 7 Significant difference on the vocabulary achievement of the four treatment groups after exposure to multimedia language instruction

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Squares	F-ratio	F-Prob.	Interpretation
Between Groups	105.93	3	35.31			
Within Groups	1544.67	56	27.58	1.28	0.290	Not Significant
Total	1650.60	59				

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level

4. No significant relationships were found between gender and vocabulary achievement, secondary school type and vocabulary achievement, socio-economic index and vocabulary achievement, and attitudes and vocabulary achievement. However, significant relationships were noted between age and vocabulary achievement and GPA in English 1 and vocabulary achievement (See table 8):

Table 8 Significant relationship between vocabulary achievement and the identified variables in the profile of the nursing students

Variables Correlated	Total respondents (n)	Correlation (r) Value	P-value	Interpretation
Age and Vocabulary Achievement	60	-0.375	0.003	Significant
Socio-economic Index and Vocabulary Achievement	60	-0.080	0.546	Not Significant
GPA in English and Vocabulary Achievement	60	0.255	0.049	Significant
Attitudes and Vocabulary Achievement	60	0.238	0.068	Not Significant
			χ^2-value	
Gender and Vocabulary Achievement	60	0.060	0.718	Not Significant
Secondary School Type and Vocabulary Achievement	60	0.053	0.719	Not Significant

An enriched and illustrated instructional materials design guide was produced for use based on the results of the study.

Conclusions

Based from the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn out by the researcher:

1. NONESCOST caters to a majority of female education students who were from public high schools and from low income families. Majority of BSEd I students in this school got low GPA in English 1. Moreover, most of the students are positive toward multimedia language instruction.

2. Multimedia materials can improve a person's ability to learn and remember the contents of any instructions. A material that holds higher number of visual and verbal cues can create correspondingly higher effects on the achievement (test scores) of the learners.

3. There is no significant difference on the vocabulary achievement among the four treatment groups before and after exposure to a variedly-cued multimedia language instruction, thus, a teacher has the leeway to choose and/or design materials according to his/her skills, time and resources and to the needs of the learners. Each treatment material can be an alternative to each other.

4. There is no significant relationship between vocabulary achievement and the identified variables in the profile such as: gender, secondary school type, socio-economic index and attitudes. However, there is significant relationship between age and vocabulary achievement, and GPA in English 1 and vocabulary achievement, thus, older students and students with low grades must be dealt with accordingly during vocabulary instruction or any other instructions.

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The Mentorship Experience: Helping First Year Teachers Overcome The Problematic Phenomenon Of Attrition

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Abstract

Teacher retention is a problematic phenomenon occurring at an alarming rate, globally. In research conducted by Dr. Julie Owens and Dr. Lori Sanchez, a common theme emerged, which emphasizes the importance of building relationships. This includes not only relationships between teachers and students, but also those relationships among teachers. These independent studies looked at teacher-student relationships wherein teachers felt effective, as well as teacher-teacher relationships in which teachers felt supported. Many teachers who are leaving the teaching profession are not lacking in professional competence. The reasons given for leaving are numerous and categorized as contextual reasons, such as lack of support, as well as personal reasons for individual teachers (Schaefer et al., 2012). Better understanding the reasons behind teachers leaving the profession will allow schools to provide needed resources to retain these teachers. The conclusions drawn suggest developing a partnership between universities and schools to provide support to first-year teachers.

Keywords.

Introduction

Teaching is a profession where attrition rate has been an issue, especially among those within their first years of service. The researchers find the disproportionate rate of attrition among these first year teachers of particular interest due to the role played as professors. The bond between a student and teacher can be a powerful one as professor-student, and then as that student moves into the role of teacher and forms new bonds with their students. For some of the new teachers, that bond he/she forms with his/her students may be one of the few constants in a student's life. Sadly, the researchers have watched these valuable relationships end as teachers move on to other careers, moving away from the students who have grown to love them. Not only does teacher attrition affect students but it also affects the professional learning community through the emotional impact of high turnover – losing colleagues, and having to form new bonds with new colleagues. Unfortunately, it does not stop there; research also shows that teachers leaving the profession cost school districts in the United States, nationally, an average of \$2.2 billion yearly (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005). This is a costly concern for districts to face, especially with many districts already facing budget cuts that ultimately affect students. Thus, it is important to understand the reasons first year teachers are leaving the profession in order to provide them the much needed mentorship experiences that will help them make the decision to stay within the teaching profession.

Scribner and Palmer (2007) state that, "Teaching is a vocation that requires constant renewal of mind, heart, and spirit – if we want to avoid burnout, take joy in our work, and grow in our service to students" (p. 8). Teacher attrition is a national problem and many educators leave the profession within their first few years (Sass, Flores, Claeys, & Pérez, 2012). Teachers leave to go to another school within the district or change districts (movers). They also leave the teaching profession but stay within the education field or leave the educational profession all together (leavers). Hollabaugh (2012) states in her research that, "Teachers leaving the profession to retire is logical; teachers leaving within the first five years of employment is the more problematic phenomenon" (p. 15). The exact number of teachers reported moving or leaving changes depending upon the research that one reads (Schaefer, Long, & Clandinin, 2012). Part of the discrepancy comes with different definitions of leavers and movers; some consider leavers to be only those leaving the profession all together (Elfers, Plecki, & Knapp, 2006).

The U.S. Department of Education surveys teachers every year from all 50 states and the District of Columbia. During the 2008-2009 school year, 8% of the 3,380,300 public school teachers surveyed left the

teaching profession (leavers); another 7.6% moved to different schools (movers) (Keigher, 2010). Within the first three years of teaching, 19% were leavers with another 13.7% becoming movers. Shen (1997) conducted a study that highlighted results that showed the highest rates of leavers and movers were from schools deemed “disadvantaged” – that is, schools with fewer experienced teachers (fewer than three years in the profession), a high number of students on free or reduced price lunches, and a high population of minority students. Teacher attrition is not a problem isolated solely to the United States. As research indicates it spans across several countries both developed and less developed (Dove, 2004; EFA (2010); Asia Society (2012)). While these numbers are alarming in the United States and continue to rise, teacher attrition, globally, is a problematic phenomenon. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) (2002), attrition rates ranged from 2% in Korea and Japan up to 9% in England at the time of data collection. The same research showed a yearly increase in teacher attrition in New Zealand, with a combined percentage of both the primary and secondary levels, from 17.8% in 1996 up to 21.3% in 2001 and it is still rising. It is clear this issue needs to be addressed and first year teachers need more support than they are currently receiving. It is the researchers’ goal to partner with some of these first year teachers, in a variety of manners, in order to provide rich, comprehensive feedback to help support them in their new roles. This can only be done by making connections with these new teachers and building relationships that can continue to grow as they move through their careers.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

One form of support that helps retain teachers is mentorship programs. Beginning teachers find this type of support to be beneficial to them within the first years of teaching and some districts have put mentorship programs into place to help with teacher retention (Alliance for Excellent Education, 2005; Sass et al., 2012; Schaefer et al., 2012). The reality is, however, that school districts are cutting mentorship programs because of the lack of funding. It is apparent that teachers just starting out need the support of administrators and colleagues in order to feel more secure in their teaching positions. It is also important to realize that:

Relationships with colleagues are an important element of teachers’ contribution to the school and district. Professional educators are generous with their expertise and willingly share materials and insights, particularly with those less experienced than they. The focus of their work is the well-being of students, and they collaborate with colleagues to that end. (Danielson, 1996, p. 113)

As cited in Hollabaugh’s (2012) research, beginning teachers without a mentor faced a higher attrition rate that was twice that of teachers who received mentoring within the first years of teaching.

While, typically, a mentor is a person employed within the novice teacher’s school building, this research project aims to illustrate how a university professor can effectively serve as a mentor for first year teachers.

Often, students graduate from a university and lose contact with past professors and/or supervisors. The goal of this research was to encourage this relationship to continue as the novice teacher transitions into his/her first year of teaching. Even though pedagogy and teaching theory were learned in the university classroom, often when faced with the daily reality of true teaching, these concepts are quickly forgotten. With the professor being familiar with the theoretical foundation taught throughout the teacher preparation program and the most current theory-based research in the field, this partnership provides the perfect opportunity to put theory into practice while filling gaps when necessary and supporting novice teachers in the areas where weaknesses are discovered.

A purposive sampling strategy was utilized for the research to recruit first year teachers to participate in this mentoring program. The purposive strategy was an appropriate strategy due to the professor - student connection previously established with the participants. Knowing the participants ahead of time allowed the mentor to know where the mentee taught. As encouraged by Creswell (2007) this also allowed the mentor to select individuals who possessed certain characteristics that were identified in advance. These characteristics included being a first year teacher, being a former student of the mentor, working for a school without a mentor program in place, being able to accept constructive criticism and of the mindset to implement said feedback, a willingness to participate for one year, and openness to mentoring teachers in the future. Therefore, a theoretical basis for purposively recruiting these participants was established.

Teaching is a profession that requires constant decisions, and teachers want to feel supported in the decisions and academic considerations they make regarding students and their families. They want to have the freedom to

make decisions on their own and to the best of their abilities without feeling overly scrutinized by school administration or by peers. Mentoring by a university professor provides a risk-free growth opportunity where the novice teacher does not have to worry about weakness being used in formal teacher evaluations, but instead used as a tool to improve his/her craft.

According to the 2012 International Summit on the Teaching Profession, “Meaningful mentoring for new teachers under supervision of a master teacher is particularly important in helping them to become effective practitioners and to reduce wasteful high attrition rates among new teachers” (p. 23). This forum also noted several countries moving forward in order to help teachers within the profession, to strengthen the teaching career. The OECD (2010) also noted the importance of providing mentorship experiences to first year teachers in an executive summary for improving schools in Mexico. It was clear to the researchers that something needed to be done. The researchers have taken the opportunity as master teachers to serve former students as mentors as they enter their first year of teaching.

Partnerships with Local Schools

Each mentor worked closely with a first year teacher on a weekly basis. This opportunity began after the school year had started, providing the mentee time to get settled into the classroom and pinpoint areas of need. Some areas of desired support from the mentee were defined as: needing support with lack of curriculum/resources; needing support with high-needs behavior students in order to support classroom management; needing support in putting systems and routines into place within the classroom to ensure a safe and smooth running learning community. Meetings were held most weeks before school where the latest report from the classroom was discussed in order to provide the mentor with new areas of concern to observe. By hearing the mentee’s concerns, the mentor would immediately observe the mentee in practice and was able to take notes based on the observations in order to share in regards to the stated concerns. This has also been an opportunity to note areas of improvement as well as areas needing to be further addressed. One worksheet (Table 1) that has been beneficial when working with the mentee allows the mentee to focus on a few problematic behaviors with students, discuss possible causes for the issues, and then together discuss next steps in solving said issues.

Table 1

Problem Behavior	Possible Causes	Steps to fix the behavior
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The worksheet has been adapted to also meet the mentee’s needs in regards to other personal struggles within the classroom. It is a simple way for the mentee to narrow the focus and work on setting small goals, one at a time. Some of the systems that were put into place after the initial meeting with the mentor were individualized behavior plans, positive behavior systems, classroom expectations, and community building activities. The mentee noted that once the systems were put into place a positive classroom environment was established.

The mentee noted several changes in the classroom environment based on procedures that were put into place since the mentor program began. The mentor also observed these positive changes. Such advances noted were improved student behavior, students following routines more closely, and a sense of classroom community among all students. After setting small goals, and feeling success within those goals, the mentee was then ready to move on to a different focus of mentor support geared toward the academic success of students.

Due to student behavior being an issue at the beginning of the year, the initial focus centered on building a strong classroom community culture. It was felt that once this foundation was established the focus could adapt to planning as well as the mentor modeling specific lessons. Since an academic focus had not been a priority up to that point, the mentee-mentor relationship transitioned to a planning model. This included weekly sessions where the mentee and mentor looked at the yearlong curriculum maps in order to ensure Common Core State Standards were addressed. The mentor also provided assistance with planning for individual daily activities in order to ensure differentiated instruction occurred to meet the needs of the diverse learners within the classroom community.

The final stages of the mentorship experience continued based on the needs of the mentee and situations that continued to occur. This centered on mentor observations, teacher evaluations conducted by administration and

self-reflections conducted by the mentee. Preparing the mentee for a successful remainder of the school year, while helping establish end-of-year procedures, became a priority focus. This was to ensure the mentee ended to year on a positive note, thus feeling better prepared to enter their second year of teaching.

Partnership with Indonesia

With the success of the local mentor / mentee experience, the program spanned globally to include an international school in Indonesia. This partnership began when a graduate was hired to teach at the elementary level within the school. Even with the miles between, a mentor / mentee partnership was easily established with this first year teacher due to the prior professor – student relationship cultivated throughout the teacher preparation program. The mentor conducted a needs assessment to determine the topics in which the mentee needed assistance. The mentee also provided the mentor with a list of perceived weaknesses where assistance was needed most. It was determined that the immediate needs were classroom management as well as assistance with locating resources and materials not readily available in Indonesia.

Classroom management is often an area of weakness for new teachers. The geographic location of the school does not change this fact. Due to the distance between the mentor and mentee, much of the mentoring was based on reflections provided by the mentee through various technological resources such as email, Skype and an online discussion board. The mentee was asked to reflect, at the time of occurrence, any incident where concern was noted. This resulted in the mentee providing a scenario to the mentor and the mentor providing potential solutions for the mentee to implement. After the implementation, the mentee would email a reflection sharing the outcome. This would either result in further conversation and additional ideas to implement, or moving on to a new area of concern or topic of discussion.

The resources available to this new teacher were very limited. By having a mentor within higher education, and within the U.S., allowed the mentee to receive resources that otherwise would not be available in Indonesia. Some of these resources included the mentor providing website links, access to electronic books, assistance in locating materials, and assistance with academic planning. Utilizing Skype, email, and a personal trip to the school, the mentor was also able to meet the mentee's students and therefore further the relationship with the classroom, thus enhancing the opportunities.

Results

The first result of this research was the growth and development of the mentees. While success was noted by all participants in some areas, other areas were left for future mentor / mentee relationships to continue. For example, while one teacher demonstrated positive growth in the area of building an effective learning community a weakness is still present in the area of curriculum planning. This will encourage the mentor / mentee relationship to continue into the second year of teaching in order to help build the self-efficacy of the mentee. A second mentee showed growth in all areas and will not require the mentorship program as rigorously, however will still have access to the mentor as needed.

Through the use of the mentorship experience mentees have noted several areas of growth within his/her personal teaching. Also discussed were lowered levels of anxiety due to the fact that the mentor can be reached to discuss concerns, ideas, or to ask questions when support is needed. Additionally, it was also noted that even through the mentorship experience, teaching is a stressful job especially when entering in as a first year teacher without the support of wrap-around services for teachers. It is important to realize the work mentors do helps these mentees feel more successful within the profession. The relationships formed are ones that can continue into the following years, thus training mentees to soon become a mentor for new or pre-service teachers. Forming these strong relationships, while providing needed services, is one way to begin lowering the attrition rate among first year teachers.

A need for mentor training for veteran teachers within school buildings has been noted as a second result of this mentor program. Therefore, a mentorship-training course was designed to encourage teachers within school buildings to serve novice teachers more effectively. This course will challenge veteran teachers to evaluate their personal pedagogy while looking at their own teaching methods in order to determine both where they have room to grow as a teacher but also where their strengths lie. These teachers will be asked to evaluate why the methods and content of what they teach is effective, therefore a reason for novice teachers to in turn implement

them within their own classrooms. Additionally, they will see how helping novice teachers allows them as the veteran teacher to personally be more innovative and engaging as opposed to either teacher left to his/her own accord.

According to Danielson (1996) more experienced teachers can step into a mentorship role through Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) in order to help support new colleagues. Creating these collaborative teams can be quite time consuming when utilizing proper PLC techniques described by Dufour (2007), factoring in common planning time, creating common formative assessments, analyzing data from the assessments, creating new student groups based on the data shown, and reassessing students (McLester, 2012). Collaborative teams need to find common ground and agree on effective methods for working together before they can do this work. While some may argue that the culture of a school is comprised entirely of what the administration makes of it, the culture of an organization goes beyond the influence of management. Teachers' values, shared visions, and a commitment to working collaboratively affect a team's culture (James & Connolly, 2009).

An additional result of this mentorship experience, working with both local and international based first year teachers, provides the opportunity to evaluate the teacher preparation program at the university level. This allows the mentors to witness, first hand, where potential strengths and weaknesses lie. Therefore, revisions within the teacher preparation program can be implemented to further ensure a smooth transition from the role of student to the role of teacher.

Conclusions

With the experiences of both local and international mentoring opportunities, it was evident that needs of mentees are different based on the community in which they are teaching as well as the mentee's individual skill base. It is critical that mentors understand this and adapt to the needs of the individual mentee and their students to best support the mentee with where they are.

As seen from these mentor experiences, many teachers who are leaving are not lacking in professional competence. The reasons given for leaving are numerous and categorized as contextual reasons of support from the district as well as personal reasons for individual teachers (Schaefer et al., 2012). Better understanding the reasons behind teachers leaving the profession will allow districts to put forth needed energy to retain these teachers. Districts can do this through "school-wide mentoring practices" that will help "reduce the attrition rate" (Hollabaugh, 2012, p. 19). Further, a district in close proximity to a university is encouraged to build a relationship with the university. Professors in a teacher preparation program can act as mentors to first year/novice teachers within that local school district, helping to transition from role of student to that of teacher, working to lower attrition rates within that community.

Studies have shown that teachers who engage in teacher leadership are more inclined to stay within the profession because they have opportunity for personal growth within their building. The researchers will continue the mentorship program with first year teachers, both locally and internationally, ensuring the smooth and effective transition from the role of student to the role of teacher. It is also the researcher's goal that mentees, once veterans themselves, become leaders within their profession, ultimately becoming mentors to first year teachers. This experience will provide the leadership opportunity many teachers desire, yet never reifies. Ultimately, this mentorship experience will help drive improvements in the teacher preparation program ensuring teaching candidates are adequately prepared.

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Akran Öğretimi Modeli'nin Beden Eğitimi Derslerinde Akademik Öğrenme Zamanına Etkisi

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Abstract

The objective of this study is to determine the effect of peer teaching which was applied with the students who had different teaching competence and volleyball skill levels on academic learning time. This study was arranged with quasi-experimental design and pre-post without control group model was used. The study was carried out in 2012-2013 spring semester at AIBU. 11 students from third class (experimental group I) and 11 students (experimental group II) participated in this study. , Structured area observation technique was used to collect the data in academic learning time in physical education (ALT-PE).ALT-PE observational instrument which developed by Parker (1989) was used to collect data. Whitney U test were used to statistical analyze the data and the significance level was taken 0.05 in this study. The results revealed that there were significant differences between experienced and novice peer teaching group in academic learning time components such as motor engaged, breaks, interim and motor appropriate.

Keywords. Peer teaching, Academic learning time, volleyball, physical education

Giriş

Metzler (2005)'e göre beden eğitimi öğretiminde kullanılan sekiz model vardır. Bunlardan biri akran öğretim modelidir. Akran aracılığıyla öğrencinin öğrenmesine yardımcı olmak için düzenlenen uygun bir eğitimsel uygulama (NASPE,1995) olan akran öğretiminde amaç, öğrencinin bilgiyi öğretmenin kontrolünde sınıf içinde ya da dışında akranına aktarması ve bir öğrenci öğretirken, diğer öğrencilerin ise öğrenmesidir (Topping ve Ehly,1998, akt: Longueville ve diğ., 2002). Akran öğretiminin başarısı yaş, öğrenci ve öğretici öğrencilerin yetenek düzeyi, öğrencilerin işbirliğine olan motivasyon düzeyleri, görevin doğası, işbirliğine kurumsal ve kültürel destek gibi pek çok faktöre bağlıdır (Hogan ve Tutge, 1999). Ancak bunlar arasındaki en önemli faktör akranlar arasındaki iletişim ve öğrencinin yeterliğidir.

Beden eğitimi derslerinde öğretmen etkililiğini belirlemek için kullanılan en etkili uygulamalardan biri olan akademik öğrenme zamanının zamanı ile ilgili çalışmaların temeli, “öğrenme için gerekli olan katılım zamanının işlevselliğidir” hipotezini savunan Carroll (1963)'un “Okulda Öğrenme Kuramına” dayanır (Denham ve Lieberman, 1980). Beden eğitimi dersinde akademik öğrenme zamanı açısından iyi seviyelerde olan öğretmen, daha etkili öğretmen olarak kabul edilir (Siedentop, 2000; Siedentop, 1983). Beden eğitimi derslerinde etkin bir eğitimin göstergesi, dersteki aktiviteye ayrılan zamanı arttırmak ve öğrencilerin seviyesine uygun aktiviteyi seçip, onları iyi bir sınıf organizasyonu içinde aktif tutmaktır (Siedentop, 1991; Parker ve O'Sullivan, 1983). Bu nedenle, ileride antrenör veya beden eğitimi öğretmeni olacak adaylara öğretim becerilerinin kazandırılmasında akran öğretimi modeli önemli bir yer tutar ve bu modelde etkili öğretim becerilerinin göstergesi olan akademik öğrenme zamanının belirlenmesine de ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır.

Konu ile ilgili yapılan araştırmalar incelendiğinde, zaman yönetiminde akran öğretiminin akademik öğrenme zamanına etkisi 3. ve 6. sınıf beden eğitimi sınıflarında araştırılmış ve öğretmen ve öğrenci merkezli eğitim uygulamaları arasında akademik öğrenme zamanında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı farklar bulunmamıştır (Barrett, 2005; Johnson ve Ward, 2001). Yapılan incelemeler sonucunda ülkemizde beden eğitimi derslerinde etkili öğretmenliğin göstergesi olarak kullanılabilir unsurlardan biri olan akademik öğrenme zamanı üzerinde farklı öğretim yöntemlerinin etkisini gösteren çalışmalar (Munusturlar ve diğ., 2012) bulunmakla birlikte, öğretmen ve antrenör adaylarında farklı öğretim modellerin etkisini gösteren çalışmalar bulunmamaktadır. Ayrıca, öğretme ve öğrenmenin birbiriyle olan ilişkisinden yola çıkarak, bir modelin etkisini göstermeye olanak sağlayan hem

modelin öğretimdeki etkisini gösteren, hem de bu modelle ders alan öğrencilerin öğrenme düzeylerini gösteren iki yönlü çalışmalar da ülkemizde oldukça sınırlıdır. Bu nedenle bu çalışmanın amacı acemi ve deneyimli öğreticilerce uygulanan akran öğretim modelinin voleybol dersindeki akademik öğrenme zamanına etkisini belirlemektir.

Yöntem

Araştırmanın Modeli

Araştırma, çok sayıda elemandan oluşan bir evren hakkında yargıya varmak amacı ile evrenin tümü ya da ondan alınabilecek bir grup ya da örneklem üzerinde yapılan çalışmaları ifade eden genel tarama modellerinden biri olan ve gelişimin birbirinden ayrı gruplarda üzerinde bir anda yapılacak gözlemlerle belirlenmeye çalışıldığı kesit alma yaklaşımıyla (Karasar, 2005: 79) ve ilişkisel tarama modeliyle gerçekleştirilmiştir. İlişkisel tarama modeli ise, iki ve daha çok sayıdaki değişken arasında birlikte değişim varlığını ve/veya derecesini belirlemeye amaçlayan araştırma modelidir (Karasar, 2005: 79).

Çalışma Grubu

Çalışmaya 2012-2013 öğretim yılı güz döneminde AİBÜ Beden Eğitimi ve Spor Yüksekokulu Beden Eğitimi Öğretmenliği Bölümü'nde voleybol dersini alan 3. sınıf öğrencileri (6 kadın ve beş erkek toplam 11 kişi) ve Antrenörlük Eğitimi Bölümü'nde seçmeli voleybol dersini alan farklı sınıf seviyelerindeki öğrenciler (iki kadın ve dokuz erkek toplam 11 kişi) katılmışlardır.

Veri Toplama Araçları

Araştırma AÖZ-BE'ne ilişkin verilerinin toplanmasında yapılandırılmış alan çalışması gözlem tekniği kullanılmıştır. Her bir akran grubundaki öğretici öğrenci ders süresi ortalama 80 dakikadan oluşan 2'si manşet, 2'si servis, 3'ü smaç becerisinin öğretimine yönelik voleybol dersi işlemiş ve bu ders süreci doğal ortamlarında video kaydına alınmıştır. Video kayıtlarının değerlendirilmesinde Parker (1989) tarafından geliştirilen beden eğitiminde AÖZ-BE sistematik gözlem aracı kullanılmıştır.

Verilerin Analizi

Çalışmada elde edilen akademik öğrenme zamanının analizi için video kayıtlarından verilerin ayrıştırılmasında, altı saniye izle ve altı saniye kaydet gözlem yöntemi kullanılmıştır (Parker, 1989). Gözlem yapılırken sınıf içerisinde farklı motor beceri düzeyine sahip öğrenci seçilerek bu öğrencilerin ders zamanı içerisindeki davranışları altı saniye izle ve altı saniye kaydet gözlem yöntemiyle gözlenerek o esnada yaptıkları etkinliğe bakılarak gözlem aracında yer alan temel alan, boyut ve alt boyutlara uygun bir şekilde kodlamıştır (Parker, 1989; Yıldırım ve diğ., 2007).

Ders süresi içerisindeki boyut ve alt boyutların sürelerini hesaplamak amacıyla, kaydedilen her davranış ve etkinlik altı saniye ile çarpılarak toplam boyut ve alt boyut süreleri elde edilmiştir. AÖZ-BE verilerini değerlendirirken Metzler (1983, akt; Parker, 1989)' in üç basamaklı gözlem değerlendirme yöntemi uygulanmıştır. Hesaplamalar sonucunda elde edilen verilerin istatistiksel analizinde Mann Whitney U testinden faydalanılmıştır. İstatistiksel işlemlerde anlamlılık düzeyi 0.05 olarak alınmıştır.

Bulgular

Akademik öğrenme zamanı boyutlarında yer alan bulgular incelendiğinde, acemi öğreticilerin deneyimli öğreticilere göre genel içerik ve motor aktivite dışı davranışlara daha fazla zaman ayırdıkları, deneyimli öğreticilerin ise, konu alan bilgisi içeriği, konu alan motor bilgisi içeriği ve motor aktivite içi davranışlar boyutlarına daha fazla zaman ayırdıkları görülmektedir. Yapılan Mann-Whitney U testi sonuçlarına göre, öğrenci katılımı temel alanına ait motor aktivite içi davranışlar boyutunda akran grupları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı fark bulunmuştur ($Z = -1,980$; $p < 0,05$). Diğer akademik öğrenme zamanı boyutlarında akran grupları arasında anlamlı fark bulunmamıştır.

Ders ortamı ve içeriği temel alanını oluşturan alt boyutlara ait bulgulara, deneyimli öğretici grubunu işlediği derslerde geçişler (%6,84), yönetim (%1,46), teknik (%3,19), arka plan bilgisi (%0,80), beceri alıştırmaları (%41,62) ve uygulama-tekrar (%14,03) alt boyutlarına acemi öğretici öğrenci grubuna göre daha fazla zaman ayırdığı görülmektedir. Acemi öğretici grubunun işlediği derslerde ise deneyimli öğretici grubuna göre, aralar (%0,81), ısınma (%28,56), strateji (%5,37), kurallar (%0,36) ve oyun(%1,31) alt boyutlarına deneyimli öğretici grubuna göre daha fazla zaman ayırdığı görülmektedir. Yapılan Mann-Whitney U testi sonuçlarına göre, ders ortamı ve içeriği boyutuna ait aralar alt boyutunda deneyimli öğretici öğrenci grubu lehine istatistiksel olarak anlamlı fark bulunmuştur ($Z = -2,490$; $p < 0,05$). Diğer boyut ve alt boyutlarda iki grup arasında anlamlı fark bulunmamıştır.

Öğrenci katılımı temel alanındaki motor aktivite dışı davranışlar boyutunu oluşturan alt boyutlara ait bulgulara, acemi öğretici öğrencilerle yürütülen akran öğretim grubundaki öğretici öğrencilerin ara-boşluk (%2,60), bekleme (%13,16), konuyla ilgisiz davranışlar (%3,01), konuyla ilgili ancak motor aktivite içermeyen davranışlar (%40,46) boyutlarına deneyimli öğretici öğrencilerin ders işlediği gruba göre daha fazla zaman ayırdıkları görülmektedir. Deneyimli öğretici öğrencilerin ders işlediği grubun ise, işledikleri derslerde bilişsel davranışlar boyutuna (%10,72) acemi öğretici öğrencilerin ders işlediği gruba göre daha fazla zaman ayırdıkları görülmektedir. Yapılan Mann-Whitney U testi sonuçlarına göre, motor aktivite dışı davranışlar boyutuna ait ara-boşluk alt boyutunda akran grupları arasında deneyimli öğretici öğrenciler lehine istatistiksel olarak anlamlı fark bulunmuştur ($Z = -2,240$; $p < 0,05$).

Öğrenci katılımı temel alanındaki motor aktivite içi davranışlar boyutunda, deneyimli öğretici öğrenciler grubunun, acemi öğretici öğrenciler grubuna göre uygun olmayan motor aktivite (%7,43) ve motor aktivitede destek rolü (%5,90) alt boyutlarına daha fazla zaman ayırdıkları görülmektedir. Bununla beraber, deneyimli öğretici öğrencilerin grubu ise, işledikleri derslerde uygun motor aktiviteye acemi öğretici öğrenciler grubuna göre daha fazla zaman ayırmıştır. Elde edilen bulgulara göre, motor aktivite içi davranışlar boyutuna ait uygun motor aktivite alt boyutunda akran grupları arasında deneyimli öğretici öğrenciler lehine istatistiksel olarak anlamlı fark bulunmuştur ($Z = -1,720$; $p < 0,05$).

Tartışma ve Sonuç

Beden eğitimi ve spor alanında akademik öğrenme zamanının öğretmen ve antrenör yeterliğini gösteren önemli bir unsur olduğu yapılan çalışmalarla ortaya konulmuştur. AÖZ çalışmaları beden eğitimi ders ortamı üzerine yapıldığı gibi, buz hokeyi (Godbout ve diğ., 1987), badminton (Beckett, 1989), voleybol (Godbout ve diğ., 1987); basketbol (Dixon, 1997) gibi bir çok spor branşının öğretimindeki etkililiği belirlemek için de kullanılmıştır. Bu nedenden dolayı, çalışmaya sadece beden eğitimi öğretmenliği bölümü öğrencileri dahil edilmemiş, antrenörlük bölümü öğrencileri üzerinde de çalışma yapılmak istenmiştir. Bu bağlamda gerçekleştirilen çalışmada deneyimli ve acemi öğretici öğrenciler tarafından uygulanan akran öğretiminin dersteki akademik öğrenme zamanı üzerine etkisine bakılmış ve deneyimli öğretici grubunun acemi öğretici grubuna göre daha yüksek AÖZ-BE yüzdesine sahip oldukları bulunmuştur.

AÖZ-BE değerlendirmesinde akademik öğrenme zamanını belirleyen başlıca birleşen uygun motor aktivite boyutudur. Yapılan çalışmada bu boyutta deneyimli ve acemi öğreticiler arasında deneyimli öğreticiler lehine çıkan fark oldukça anlamlıdır. Graham ve diğ. (1993) deneyimli ve acemi beden eğitimi öğretmenlerini karşılaştırdıkları çalışmalarında deneyimli öğretmenlerin plan aşamasından başlayarak daha konu odaklı oldukları ve daha fazla amaca uygun aktivite yaptıklarını belirtmişlerdir. Randall ve Imwold (1989)'un beden eğitimi öğretmen adayları üzerinde yaptıkları çalışmada uygulama öncesi akademik öğrenme zamanına yönelik seminer alan deney grubu lehine anlamlı fark bulunmuştur. Benzer şekilde Munusturlar ve diğ. (2012) üç farklı öğretim yöntemini karşılaştırdıkları çalışmalarında üç grup arasında da anlamlı fark olduğuna işaret ederek, sırasıyla alıştırmaya yöntemi, eşli çalışma yöntemi ve komut yöntemi olarak uygun motor aktiviteye en fazla zaman ayrılan öğretim yöntemleri olarak sıralanabileceğini ifade etmişlerdir.

Sonuç olarak çalışmada elde edilen bulgular birlikte değerlendirildiğinde deneyimli öğretici grubunun ara-boşluk, konuyla ilgisiz davranışlara acemi öğretici gruba göre daha az zaman ayırmaları ve konuyla ilgili davranışlar ile uygun motor aktiviteye daha fazla zaman ayırmalarına bağlı olarak, deneyimli akran öğreticilerinin acemi öğreticilere göre daha yüksek düzeyde AÖZ-BE yüzdesine sahip olduğu belirlenmiştir.

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Intellectual Property Education Combined With Invention, Law, and Ethics Educations

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Abstract

Many countries proceed creativity education to enhance artistic ability and invention education to result in future industrial development. As a complete intellectual property (IP) education, education on relating laws with ethical point of view is also required, and those educations should be systematically given from childhood. The author made a research group to promote such an IP education. The group has made IP education curriculum from elementary school to high school and accumulated various examples of lesson practice at school with the cooperation of school teachers. To understand the policy of the laws on IP, it is efficient for children to create or invent something and to consider how their own ideas should be respected and protected to each other. We can learn IP laws after growing up, but had better learn IP from childhood to understand the importance of IP and to have the mind to respect creation or invention, and those who create or invent something new.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

There are various levels on intellectual property (IP) education concerning with copyrights, patents and so on; 1) training to become patent attorneys or experts working in IP section in companies as the top level education, 2) basic education for artists or inventors to treat their created things appropriately as the second level, and 3) education for general public and students appropriately to use things created by somebody else as the basic level. Original purpose of the law on copyrights and patents is not to simply protect their rights but to encourage further creations by giving profit to creators in a certain amount and to realize more cultural and more convenient society. So far in Japan, IP professional human resource development (1 and 2 mentioned above) has been done in companies in the style of on-job-training (OJT). IP education was provided also in higher education such as faculty of engineering but was limited. IP basic education (3) was quite limited; copyright was briefly treated in primary and secondary education.

The authors' group consider that IP education should be done as early as from primary education in a systematic way. The reasons are a) the fundamental idea of IP can be understood better through the systematic education from childhood, b) organic and effective education can be realized by cooperative education among creativity education, IP education, and entrepreneur education, c) IP education from childhood has a meaning not only for general public but can be an opportunity for a part of them to become professional IP experts, artists, or inventors.

This report describes the status of IP education in primary and secondary education and research and practice lessons in schools in Japan, mainly involved by the author. It is shown historical review and present status of IP education in Japan, the status of research and lesson practice, cooperative activity with neighboring countries, and future outlook in turn.

Historical Review and Present Status of IP Education in Japan

Until quite recently, it was considered that in schools only basics and principles should be taught. This was also true in universities; higher but general education was given in universities and practical knowledge is given as OJT. IP education is one of the typical examples. Companies have led IP education in Japan. In 1938 ten

electronics companies established an organization named Juu-You-Kai, which concerned IP. The organization expand its scale and is now known as “Japan Intellectual Property Association” (<http://www.jipa.or.jp/english/index.html>). Nowadays most of middle or large companies have IP department and OJT on IP is in progress.

Intellectual Property Strategy Council was established in Prime Minister of Japan and His Cabinet in March 2002 and developed Intellectual Property Strategy General Rules in July 2002. Intellectual Property Basic Law enacted in March 2003 and on the basis of the law, Intellectual Property Strategic Program is announced every year. In the Intellectual Property Strategy General Rules, there are sentences concerning IP education in primary and secondary education;

... It is an urgent need that take a comprehensive approach for the realization of education to nurture the creativity early from primary education. ... To do so, it is necessary to build a cultural environment that respects the creativity and individuality through the education to cultivate free ideas and the importance of creativity early from primary school followed by IP education in accordance with the age. ...

Intellectual Property Strategy Headquarters was established in May 2003 in the form of taking over the Intellectual Property Strategy Council. Intellectual Creation Cycle Expert Committee, which is one of the expert committees of Intellectual Property Strategy Headquarters, issued an "Intellectual Property Human Resources Development Strategy" in 2006. In the strategy, IP personnel is classified into three types; IP professionals (IP human resources in the narrow sense), IP creation and management personnel (IP human resources in a broad sense), and supporting human resources. The last, supporting human resources are defined as human resources expected to possess a general knowledge of IP as uses and a part of them to be expected to become IP creators in future. The IP education mentioned in this report corresponds to the last.

There were few IP educations in primary and secondary educations in Japan before the development of Intellectual Property Strategy General Rules. In Japan Ministry of Education gives the government curriculum guidelines and all schools use textbooks written on the basis of the guidelines. Major update for the guidelines is usually made every 10 years. As an example, the evolution of the description relating with IP in the guideline for the subject “technology and home economics” is as follows;

Revised Year	Description
1988	Foster ability to devise and create something new willingly and practical attitude
1998	Foster ability to devise and create something new willingly and practical attitude Address protection of personal information and copyright and responsibility on the originating information
2008	Foster ability to devise and create something new in a daily life willingly and practical attitude Know the responsibility on copyright and originating information and consider the moral on information Address the necessity of the protection of IP in information and communication network

As we see, the description develops from the one simply to draw creativity to the one up to understand copyright law and the concept of IP.

There is no special subject to treat IP but IP is treated in various subjects. The government curriculum guidelines includes the following sentences related to IP:

Primary school:

- ✓ Demonstrate citations and sources (Grade 3 and 4), demonstrate in more details such as the amount of citations (Grade 5 and 6) in “Japanese Language”
- ✓ To have students think that there are rights such as IP rights for both self and others in the contents of information, as the contents of information ethics

Secondary school:

- ✓ Touch IP rights related to music as necessary in “music”
- ✓ Care about IP rights and image rights and so on related to art, so that promote the formation of

- ✓ attitudes to respect the creation of self and others in “art”
- ✓ Sentences in “technology and home economics” mentioned above

High school:

- ✓ Some descriptions in art subjects and information subject in general high schools
- ✓ Some descriptions in many subjects in specialized high schools

In addition to the above, the subjects of which the description includes the term “creation” or “devise” are as follows;

Primary school:

Japanese language, social studies, music, art and handicraft, physical education, living environment studies, home economics, morality, the period for integrated studies

Secondary school:

Japanese language, social studies, music, art, health and physical education, technology and home economics, foreign languages, morality, the period for integrated studies, special activities

High school:

Japanese language, geography and history, mathematics, science, art, health and physical education, home economics, foreign languages, the period for integrated studies, specialized activities, subjects in specialized high schools

The points of the IP education in Japan can be summarized as follows; 1) To address how to treat copyrighted works in a simple way in primary school and to address IP in more specifically and more broad way in secondary school, 2) IP is addressed in many subjects in specialized high schools but few in general high schools, 3) “creation” and “devise” are addressed in many subjects in all schools. It is desirable that IP is covered in many subjects on one side but there is a problem that it is unclear how depth IP should be taught in which subject and whether IP education is given systematically as a whole.

Status of the Research and Lesson Practice on IP in Japan

As mentioned above, IP has come to be addressed in primary and secondary schools in Japan, but the establishment of the teaching methods is remained. This is due to the fact that few teachers themselves have received IP education. The Ministry of Education, Patent Office, and their relating organizations provide webs and materials on IP education. The support projects for the lesson practice using the corresponding text on IP education started in 2000, and the accumulation of lesson practices has progressed. There are also several invention contests for primary school students to university students.

Some research groups, including an author’s group, have studied IP education with the support of the Ministry of Education and the Patent Office. The author’s group proposed a draft curriculum of IP education in each school level (Matsuoka, 2008). Table 1 illustrates the overview of the whole of them. Its features are as follows;

- 1) In consideration with mental development stage, curriculum is divided into 4 phases as follows;
 - IP literacy incubation phase (age 7 to 10)
 - IP literacy birth phase (age 11 to 12)
 - IP literacy growth phase (age 13 to 15)
 - IP literacy fulfillment phase (age 16 to 18)
- 2) Two points are set to be learned; creativity being aware of IP, and attitude to respect IP. Sense of ethics to respect IP is addressed not simply to know IP rights.

In low grades they touch the concept of IP while experiencing the joy of creation, and gradually learn advanced creative methods and the structure of IP rights in more detail. In Japan there is a model named “IP creation cycle” that affluent society is realized by repeating the cycle among “creation”, “protection”, and “utilization”. Imitating the others is, however, sometimes required in learning process. Therefore, the word “protection” is not familiar with learning process, especially for lower grades. So that instead of “protection”, we

put “respect” in IP education cycle; to respect inventions and inventors is important. Corresponding lesson practices are accumulated by school teachers cooperating our research.

The Intellectual Property Association of Japan was established in 2002 as an academic society for IP. There are several working groups in the Association. As one of them, there is a Research Group on Human Resource Development of IP Professionals since early stage of the academic society but is not a group of IP education for supporting human resources. Therefore, the author established a new working group named “IP Education” with colleagues for that purpose in 2007. The working group held research meetings in various parts of Japan and increased members gradually. Recently the working group published a book that describes research on IP education and typical lesson practices (Editorial Board of IP Education Working Group in Intellectual Property Association of Japan, 2013).

Cooperative Activities with Neighboring Countries

The largest number of international students to universities in Japan is from China and is more than 60% of the total. This is also true in the author’s university. One or more students always stay in his laboratory and they want to learn technology education and/or IP education in Japan. Under such a situation, the author started visiting lectures to their schools from primary school to university in China. IP is usually considered to be one of the sensitive issues between China and Japan but the author found visiting lectures on IP with the help of international students from China are accepted favorably. Furthermore, the author found progressive approach is being made on IP education in China. Under a coined word “Creation-New Education”, China promotes special education for gifted children on IP, for example, to perform a special grant to the school of their children and the children did a good invention (JETRO, 2009). There are some points that are different from the ones in Japan and to exchange information must be good for better IP education to each other. To have such an opportunity, we held the International Symposium on IP Personnel Training in 2013 (<http://ceba.cqu.edu.cn/xsdt/1580.jhtml>).

Korea also promotes special education for gifted children on IP (Nahm, 2011). Korea established a special education promotion law in 2011. Second special education progress comprehensive plan was issued in 2007 and Korean Intellectual Property Office has used the conventional invention classroom as the special education for gifted children on the basis of the plan. The number of students in the special class has been rapidly increasing and reached 3765 in 2010. There is deep connection on IP rights between Korea and Japan. The information exchange and research on IP education exist in individual level but a systematic research on IP education in the level of academic groups remains for future.

Conclusion

There are several international movements on IP in Asian countries. The State Intellectual Property Office of the People's Republic of China (SIPO), the Japan Patent Office (JPO) and the Korean Intellectual Property Office (KIPO) agreed to establish the Joint Experts Group for Automation (JEGA) during the Trilateral Policy Dialogue Meeting in 2002. Joint Expert Group for Patent Examination (JEGPE) project was established in 2009 in order to promote patent cooperation among JPO, KIPO and SIPO. JPO, KIPO, and SIPO have agreed at the Thirteenth Trilateral Policy Dialogue Meeting held on November 2013 to jointly establish a Trilateral IP Cooperation Website named TRIPO (Trilateral IP Offices) that will be made available to the general public (<http://www.tripo.org/index.html>). China-Japan-Korea IP symposium was held in 2012, to celebrate the 10th anniversary of the Intellectual Property of Japan and to celebrate the academic cooperation among the Intellectual Property of Japan, Korea Industrial Property Law Association, and China Intellectual Property Study Group. We are trying to expand to the research activity on IP education from bi-lateral (China and Japan) to tri-lateral (China, Japan, and Korea) one. The research activity should be worldwide in future, which will contribute the global exchange of IP.

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Table 1 IP Education Curriculum (Big Goal) Scheme at the Each School level

Age Levels		7 - 10 years old	11 - 12 years old	13 - 15 years old	16 - 18 years old
School Levels		Elementary School 1 - 4 grade	Elementary School 5 - 6 grade	Intermediate School 1 - 3 grade	High School 1 - 3 grade
IP Education Levels		IP Literacy Incubation Phase From "Enjoy" to "Become Aware"	IP Literacy Birth Phase From "Become Aware" to "Know"	IP Literacy Growth Phase From "Know" to "Understand"	IP Literacy Fulfillment Phase From "Understand" to "Capable to Do"
Creativity to consider IP	a: Creative Thinking	a1: Capable to Spark Various Ideas against Issues		a2: Capable to Think Various Ideas Collecting/Analyzing Information	a3: Capable to Evaluate Various Ideas Properly based on IP Knowledge
	b: Creative Skills	b1: Capable to Value Friend's Work and Ideas, and Do Creative Activities	b2: Capable to Do Creative Activities Paying Attention for Copyrights	b3: Capable to Do Creative Activities in Consideration of IP	b4: Capable to Do Creative Activities Judging/Treating IP Properly
	c: Desire for Creative Activities	c1: Capable to Do Creative Activities with Desire		c2: Capable to Do Creative Activities Collectively with Desire	c3: Capable to Do Creative Activities Relating to Society with Desire
Attitude to Respect IP	d: Knowledge of IP Systems (Entire IP)	d1: To Become Aware of Importance to Value Copyrighted Work and Ideas	d2: To Learn Concept of IP	d3: Capable to Understand Outline of Intellectual Property Systems	d4: Capable to Utilize Fundamental Knowledge of IP
	e: Knowledge of IP Systems (Industrial Property Rights)	e1: To Learn Remarkable Inventors/Inventions	e2: To Learn Concept of Patent	e3: Capable to Understand Relation between Industrial Development and Industrial	e4: Capable to Utilize Fundamental Knowledge of Industrial Property Rights
	f: Knowledge of IP Systems (Copyrights)		f1: To Learn Concept of Copyrights and Precautions	f2: Capable to Understand Criteria of Own and Others' Copyrights and Use of	f3: Capable to Understand Methods and Contents of Contract, and to Utilize Copyrights
	g: Ethics to Respect IP	g1: Capable to Keep in Mind to Value Friend's Works and Ideas	g3: Capable to Keep in Mind to Respect IP in Living Sphere	g4: Capable to Keep in Mind to Respect IP Based on IP Knowledge	g5: Capable to Understand Importance of Protecting IP

The Sustainability of Community of Practice: The Case of EFL Teachers at TAIF University, Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

This paper reports on a qualitative study that is a follow up to the research undertaken on CoP in my PhD study. The study, which was conducted at Taif University, Saudi Arabia, aimed to enhance the instructional practices of eight male EFL teachers about corrective feedback (CF). In one of its phases, the PhD study investigated the implementation of Community of Practice (CoP) as a form of professional development (PD) for Taif University EFL teachers. This form of PD was designed to suit the local context of Taif University EFL teachers PD, which is mainly expert-driven, while maintaining the essence of CoP, which is mainly learner-driven. However, the PhD study did not investigate the sustainability of CoP due to the limited time frame of the study. Therefore, in the current study the researcher has interviewed the eight EFL male teachers 18 months after the original PhD study was conducted. The current study has investigated the sustainability and the continuation of CoP after the researcher had left. The results showed that the teachers conducted only one CoP meeting after the researcher's departure and that some promises made by the teachers had not been achieved, such as the creation of an electronic CoP. Furthermore, the teachers reported some difficulties that hindered the continuation of the CoP and thus led to its dissolution at that time. The results of the current study have provided some suggestions about how CoP as a form of PD could be sustained in such a context. Recommendations are made for both policy makers and EFL teachers at Taif University.

Keywords. EFL, Community of Practice, University teachers, Professional development

Introduction

Enhancing and improving teachers' instructional practices are not easy tasks (Althobaiti, 2012). Specifically, enhancing tertiary teachers' awareness and instructional practices must be given considerable attention by both teacher educators and policymakers. One way of enhancement is via professional development (PD) sessions (Laksov & Dahlgren, 2008; Lawrence & Sankey, 2008). The PD should suit the needs of teachers as well as students (Richard & Farrell, 2005). This is achieved by exploring teachers' thoughts and perceptions about their training needs, and then tailoring PD programmes to their training needs (Guskey, 2000). Thus, the PhD study sought teachers' beliefs and reported on their instructional practices in 2010 by distributing a survey-based questionnaire to male EFL teachers at all Saudi universities in order to give a general overview of their understanding of instructional practices for the provision of oral corrective feedback. In addition, the survey-based questionnaire helped to design suitable starting materials for the teachers in the professional development sessions, which were conducted at a later stage.

The survey-based questionnaire revealed most of the EFL university teachers in Saudi Arabia had either a lack of understanding or an arbitrary understanding about the provision of oral error correction techniques. Moreover, the survey-based questionnaire showed a diversity of opinions amongst the EFL teachers with regard to the provision of oral error correction. Such diversity provided the researcher with a good grasp of the instructional practice of the provision of oral error correction in the Saudi university context. It also helped with planning and designing an appropriate PD model. The planning stage of the PD model took six months and considered two main issues: the improvement of teachers' instructional practices, and the contextual atmosphere of tertiary teachers' training/PD. The context of the teacher training (or PD) was trainer-centred, which means it relied on the presence of the trainer (Althobaiti, 2012). Therefore, community of Practice (CoP) was chosen as a form of PD. As a study-based training session or PD session, the teachers' beliefs and perceptions were sought

both during and after the PD sessions. The teachers had positive perceptions about the CoP and the way it is planned and delivered in a context where teachers are considered dominant and omniscient (Khan, 2011).

The PD model was designed to be both trainer-driven and learner-driven. It aimed to suit the context of teacher training in the Saudi higher education context where PD and teacher training programs are led and chaired by experts. The PD design also considered the essence of CoP where learners (i.e. teachers in this case are considered of learners of teaching) are given responsibility for their learning. Thus, the PD is designed to encourage teachers' participation, interaction, and reflection. Such features or characteristics were not previously part of the context of Saudi EFL university teacher training (to the best of the researcher's knowledge).

The designed PD model in the form of CoP comprised 10 meetings/sessions; the length of the sessions ranged from 80 to 100 minutes, depending on the discussions and the teachers' availability. The teachers believed these meetings enhanced their awareness of certain English teaching skills, specifically, the provision of oral error correction. Eight teachers participated in these sessions and showed great interest. They shared their experiences with their colleagues, reflected on their colleagues' experiences, and shared ideas and concerns encountered in their classes. The teachers were given the chance to generate a list of the practices on which they agreed; they then incorporated them into their instructional practices. In doing so, the teachers connected theory to practice and were able to bridge their lack of knowledge as they reported in the study (Althobaiti, 2012). In other words, they could connect what they knew in CoP to what they did in their classrooms.

As a part of the investigation, the teachers' perceptions were again sought two months after the last PD sessions they had about the CoP. Specifically, the teachers were asked about their involvement in the CoP and their continuity in it. Most of the teachers came up with similar answers, such as exams were approaching at that time and they could not continue meeting as CoP members anymore after the researcher's departure to finalize his PhD study. Thus, the CoP was dissolved.

In 2013, the researcher decided to revisit the CoP at Taif University and investigated the continuity of the CoP amongst the eight Taif university EFL teachers 18 months after finishing his data collection in 2011. It is hoped that this investigation will contribute to the revival of CoP and provide more insights about the PD of EFL teachers at Taif University in particular and all Saudi universities in general. The following section touches briefly on the notion of CoP as a form of PD.

It is important to clarify what is meant by sustainability in this study. It refers to the continuity of CoP as a form of PD over a reasonable period of time that allows teachers to receive and exchange knowledge, share experience, problems, and find solutions in order to be able to incorporate them into their teaching. In addition, sustainability refers to the factors that help teachers continue CoP, including the establishment of a mutual engagement, joint enterprise, and shared repertoire. Also, it refers to teacher development factors for which Taif University administrative staff are responsible, such as the initiation, design, coordination and sustainment of the PD sessions.

Community of Practice

Community of practice as a term was first introduced by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger in 1991 (Wenger, 1998). Eight years later, they extended the concept of CoP to the fields of organizational learning, business, government, and development associations (Wenger, 2006). Importantly, they also applied CoP to the domain of education (Wenger, 2006).

Wenger (1998) defined CoP as "groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly" (p. 6). CoP is a form of social learning that allows learners to cooperate with each other by sharing their experiences, ideas, best practices, problems, and the search for and implementation of solutions into their teaching (Buckley & Toit, 2010; Wenger, 2006). These elements are what Wenger (1998) means in his description of the three main characteristics of learning within CoPs: "mutual engagement, understanding and tuning their enterprise, and developing [and sharing their] repertoire" (p. 95).

A Community of Practice as a means of PD appears to encourage the learners' involvement in their learning via interaction, participation, and reflection. These characteristics are considered valuable to introduce PD to EFL university teachers in a Saudi context. A CoP that included these qualities would be useful to enhance teachers' knowledge about their instructional practices and help them connect what they had in the PD to what they did in their classes. Also, CoP as a form of PD is one way of improving teachers' instructional practices that, in turn, will achieve students' ultimate benefits (Morrissey, 2000).

Sustainability of CoP

The CoP has been selected to replace the traditional uni-directional PD sessions characterized by a one-short delivery (Richards & Farrell, 2005). They usually last for short periods and do not provide teachers with the chance to adopt what they learn in the PD to use in their classes (Guskey, 2000; Kennedy, 2005). Such PD sessions are characterized by a lack of sustainability as well (Althobaiti, 2012). It has been shown that after finishing this sort of PD, teachers often revert to their old habits and instructional practices (Wang, 2010). Some of the reasons were that these PD sessions do not provide teachers with sufficient opportunity to be mutually engaged with sharing their ideas, exchanging problems, and solving problems encountered in their classes (Wenger, 2006). These sessions also provided teachers with little time to plan to implement these solutions in their teaching (Ellis, 2010).

Mutual engagement is considered an important factor in sustaining a CoP (Wenger, 2002). Teachers need to establish mutual trust, mutual respect, fair distribution of learning responsibilities, and control over their individual learning (Hawkins, 2008). In addition, the relatedness of PD sessions to teachers' needs make PD both sustainable and ongoing (Richards & Farrell, 2005). The characteristics of CoP, including teachers' reflection, cooperation, interaction, and the connection of their knowledge to their instructional practices, are believed to lead to a more sustainable CoP (Althobaiti, 2012).

However, the existence of a facilitator (i.e. expert) is necessary to make CoP sustainable (Wang, 2010). Furthermore, organizational administration is needed to continue CoPs and enhance this kind of PD amongst teachers. The facilitator needs to raise teachers' awareness that sustainability of PD and, specifically, CoP is a part of lifelong learning required to keep them up to date, and not a means of garnering career security or a compulsory task one must perform.

The scarcity of research investigating the sustainability of CoP in higher education institutions indicates that little is known about the establishment of sustainable CoPs (Bolam, McMahon, Still, Thomas & Wallace, 2005). However, there is a growing interest as to how to incorporate a thorough understanding of how EFL university teachers' training programs are organized and sustained. Specifically, at Taif University, the teacher development administrative staff make every effort to plan teachers' training and PD and make it sustainable and ongoing (Taif University Deanship of Development, 2014). Recently, this issue has gained importance in the context of all Saudi tertiary institutions. However, more effort is required to explore the reasons, as this study does, that may contribute to or hinder the sustainability of PD in Saudi context.

Significance of the Study and Research Questions

It is hoped this study provides a deeper understanding of the sustainability of CoP at Taif University by exploring the reasons that contributed to teachers' decisions to continue or quit their CoP (studied in 2011) and the possibility of joining the CoP again in 2014. Such an investigation is hoped to be a starting point toward establishing a sustainable CoP in the English Department at Taif University, which, in turn, may provide insights on two levels: on the Taif University teacher development administrative level (i.e. departmental and stake holder level) and on the instructional practices level. The main research question and its subquestions are as follows:

- What do EFL Taif University teachers' believe about the sustainability of CoP?
- a. What are the factors that helped and/or hindered the sustainability of CoP?
 - b. What do teachers suggest for the sustainability of CoP?
 - c. What do teachers think about the role of teacher development administrative staff at Taif University with regard to the sustainability of CoP?

The following section explains the method and procedures of the study.

Method and Procedures

This section describes the design of the study, the study setting and participants, the data instruments and procedure, and, finally, the data analysis. The description starts with the context of the study.

The study was conducted in 2013 in the Foreign Languages Department (FLD) at Taif University. Given the fact that the current study is a follow up study, the same eight teachers selected for the 2011 study were asked to participate in the current study. These teachers were contacted and their permission sought after obtaining permission from the FLD to conduct the study. For pragmatic reasons, the researcher was given permission as a member of staff at the FLD. After obtaining the teachers' permission to participate in the study, suitable interview times were arranged and conducted at their ease and convenience.

The researcher employed purposive sampling to select three participants for reporting the results of the case study. Purposive sampling enables a researcher to select a group of participants with specific characteristics or with a range of experiences (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Also, due to the space provided for this paper, the researcher focuses on three participants whose answers typify the responses reported by the remaining participants. As noted, the teachers were selected because of their participation in the 2011 CoP. The participants' identifying information is confidential, so the teachers were allocated pseudonyms. The first teacher holds a PhD and has more than 18 years' experience teaching EFL university students. The second selected teacher holds an MA and has eight 8 years of teaching experience, while the third has a BA and four years' experience teaching EFL. Such diversity in qualifications and years of teaching experience is believed to provide a deeper understanding of the sustainability of CoP in Taif University.

Study Design

The researcher decided to conduct this study qualitatively, preferring to further investigate and extend his 2011 efforts to explore whether or not CoP is sustainable at Taif University. The use of the case study as a form of research has been adopted to provide richer and deeper descriptions of the teachers' participation in professional development, their involvement in a CoP, and their efforts in continuing the CoP (Simons, 2009).

Instruments

Data were collected through a semi-structured interview (that is, a face-to-face interview). An interview is considered a powerful instrument that can be used to collect information to understand participants' points of view and beliefs (Best & Kahn, 1998), as well as to understand their perspectives on their experiences (Mason, 2002). A semi-structured interview has the potential to elicit more details and clarifications via some additional spontaneous questions developed by an interviewer (Drever, 1995, 2003). The semi-structured interview as a data collection instrument was chosen as it facilitates the creation of a friendly atmosphere between the researcher and the interviewee. This, in turn, may help the researcher explore teachers' perceptions and ideas more deeply (Drever, 2003) than could be done via the questionnaire-based survey. The semi-structured interview main questions revolve around the following topics:

- 1) Teachers' participation in the CoP in 2011;
- 2) Whether or not they continued meeting with CoP members after the researcher's departure;
- 3) Main factors that helped the CoP to continue;
- 4) Main factors that hindered the continuity of the CoP;
- 5) The possibility of joining the CoP again this year in 2014;
- 6) How, where, and when teachers prefer a CoP to be conducted;
- 7) The launch of an online platform for CoP and its potential to make a CoP cooperative and sustainable; and
- 8) The role of teacher development administrative staff at Taif University and how they may make a CoP more sustainable.

Data Coding and Analysis

The interviews were transcribed, saved as Microsoft Word documents, and then analysed. Data were treated confidentially and de-identified, and the teachers were allocated pseudonyms. After multiple readings of the transcriptions, a systematic pattern of coding was used to establish general themes. First, initial categories were identified, followed by descriptive codes, and, finally, interpretive codes were established (that is, more abstract themes) (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The emergent codes are organized in a way that answers the research questions.

To ensure the trustworthiness of the data transcription and analysis, teachers were given the transcription and asked to read them to ensure what was represented was what they really wanted to say. In addition, a friend, a professional researcher in the same field of study, was asked to read and provide a thorough critique of all the stages of the study, including the literature review, methods, analysis, and the interpretation and discussion.

Thus, the research questions were used to guide the analysis. To recap, this section described the method of the study, as well as the participants and study setting, the study design instruments and procedures, and the data analysis. The results of the study are presented in the following section.

RESULTS

This section presents the results of the analysis in the context of the research questions. Three common themes emerge from the analysis: teachers' perceptions about the sustainability of CoPs in general, the possibility of a CoP in 2014, and the role of the university administration in the sustainability of a CoP. Supporting evidence is provided throughout the results discussion in the form of direct quotes from the individual's data. These quotes are referenced according to their data source, the transcript page number, and the transcript line number. All names used here are pseudonyms to protect the participants' anonymity.

Almost all the EFL Taif University teachers showed positive perceptions about their participation in the 2011 CoP. Radi commented, "It was a fruitful practice that helped us share our experiences in teaching in general and at the FLD in particular. It was a productive academic practice that was based on collective wisdom" (Interview, p. 1, ll. 10-12). However, other teachers expressed a contradictory view about the CoP and its impact on the instructional practice; for instance, Khalid admitted, "I think it was good to talk about teaching-learning issues but [it] seems in vain as the effect does not reach classrooms" (Interview, p. 3, ll. 121-122).

The teachers also stated that CoP was a kind of teacher PD that they had not previously experienced during their academic career, with the exception of Khalid, who said he had been part of a small discussion group with his colleagues when he was tutoring at a London university while studying for his master's degree.

As to the sustainability of CoP, the participating EFL Taif University teachers stated that the 2011 CoP was dissolved after the researcher's departure. The teachers did not refer to any factors that contributed to the dissolution of the CoP. However, they shared some views as to possible hindrances to the CoP's sustainability. The reasons the teachers mentioned revolved around four issues: the heavy teaching and academic responsibilities, including the supervision of students' academic progress and enrolment; the lack of collegial support; the lack of administrative support; and the absence of a facilitator, which they felt had a significant impact.

Unexpectedly, Khalid stated that the reason why most of the teachers did not continue the CoP was because they felt it lacked relevance to what they do and they had no need for it; he commented that, "Many might have thought it unneeded and irrelevant or not something of immediate importance" (Interview, p. 3, ll. 132-133).

The possibility of reviving the CoP in 2014 was endorsed by many teachers who, without reservation, expressed their interest in joining a CoP at any time, starting from this semester. However, they wanted to acknowledge the role of the Department administration in order to be provided with some support, such as the allocation of space for the CoP meetings as well as time in their schedules, preferably in the morning. Also, some of the teachers requested a 'smart room', one that is fully equipped with a smart board, projector, microphones, audio-video recording, and an internet facility.

In their answers regarding the possibility of launching an online CoP as an alternative to the physical CoP at FLD, teachers had various views and suggestions. Many of the teachers liked the idea and suggested having a Facebook group and page connected to a Twitter account, a channel on YouTube, and a WhatsApp group. They further commented that launching social platform access would facilitate the process of PD and make the CoP more sustainable. Regarding the adoption of Web2 programs and applications, Fareed stated that such platforms "would act as a virtual meeting place, and could be used for maintaining [PD] and useful references for our CoP, and any working documents that we would produce" (Interview, p. 3, ll. 100-103). However, Khalid was less optimistic about the online platforms and argued that online "platforms don't work in traditional contexts" (Interview, p. 4, l. 154). He believed that even if teachers show interest in activating and being involved in a virtual or online CoP, they would not continue to use it.

The teachers demonstrated a heavy reliance on the university's teacher development administration and expected a lot of it and, specifically, the administration of the Foreign Language Department. All of the teachers held the responsibility of initiating, arranging, running, and following the PD sessions, whether they are a CoP or any other form of PD on departmental administration and University administration.

Discussion

The section discusses the main results of the research questions and is based on three themes that emerged from the analysis. The three themes are: the EFL Taif University teachers' beliefs and perceptions about the sustainability of CoP; the possibility of the online CoP; and the expectations of the teacher development administrative staff at Taif University. The results are briefly summarized, followed by an interpretation of each in light of the literature.

For the most part, the teachers stated that their participation in the 2011 CoP was both fruitful and advantageous and that the CoP had allowed them to share ideas, experiences, instructional practices, problems encountered, and find solutions to these problems. These advantages represent the characteristics of the CoP,

which include mutual engagement, building a skills reservoir, and running a joint enterprise, as suggested by Wenger (1998; 2006).

It is of little surprise that one teacher mentioned that the effort put into the CoP seemed to be in vain because the benefits were not transmitted from the CoP into his teaching, meaning it was not related to his needs. This result is an accurate reflection of the CoP and teacher PD literature in that, in order for any PD efforts to succeed and have an impact in a real context, they must be needs related (Ellis, 2010; Guskey, 2000; Khan, 2011; Richards, 2006). This result is in contrast to the findings of Andrews and Louis (2004), which is that the development of learning communities of teacher training enhances the knowledge base of the community members and the results have a significant impact in their classrooms.

This diversity of opinion is in line with Althobaiti's (2012) findings where the teachers expressed opposing opinions with regard to the usefulness of CoP. However, it should be noted that there were fewer teachers who stated that CoP was not useful as compared to those who endorsed CoP and its usefulness.

The dissolution of the 2011 CoP occurred because of lack of time due to teaching loads, a lack of collegial and departmental support, and the absence of the catalyst, that is, the researcher who founded and facilitated the CoP. These results found by Althobaiti (2012) are corroborated by Wang (2010) who found the same results; in both studies, both CoPs dissolved upon the departure of the researcher. Also, both studies reported that administrative support and collegial encouragement hindered the sustainability of the CoP. Wenger, McDermott and Snyder (2002) and Wenger and Snyder (2000) also found that their CoP faded away due to members' lack of interest to attend.

The establishment of an online CoP was endorsed by most of the teachers who showed an interest in joining a virtual CoP. They expressed the view that a virtual CoP may save time and effort, as well as contribute to the mutual engagement and trust which strengthen teachers' relationships and, in turn, encourage them to exchange their ideas and experiences. Virtual CoPs could make teacher PD easier and longer lasting, which would result in improved teaching practices (Morrissey, 2000).

However, Khalid did not perceive the online CoP as a feasible option, due to the teachers' lack of readiness to deal with a virtual PD facility from within a traditional context. Presumably, Khalid was commenting on some teachers' unenthusiastic responses to offers to participate in PD sessions. This finding may bring Khan's (2011) argument to light when he said that some Saudi EFL teachers fail to take up PD offerings, possibly due to the egos of some academics who like to be seen as knowledgeable experts and therefore turn down PD opportunities (Khan, 2011). This, of course, has the unfortunate result of isolating those same academics in their 'ivory towers', to the detriment of the learning community (Buckley & Du Toit, 2010).

The teachers argued that teacher development administrative staff at Taif University are fully responsible to encourage the teachers to take part in PD sessions, whether they are CoPs or other forms of PD. To facilitate the uptake of teacher PD, the teachers asked for a lightening of their teaching, academic supervision, and administrative loads, as well as the provision of PD facilities such as fully equipped smart rooms and access to online resources. These findings are in line with those of Althobaiti (2012), Wang (2010), and Davis (1993), all of whom argued that teaching and other academic responsibilities can be detrimental to teachers' further learning as there is little time left for PD. Thus, policy makers should consider such issues when planning PD programs for their teaching staff. Indeed, teaching staff deserve more care and encouragement.

This section discussed the results with regard to the main themes that emerged from the analysis. The following section is the conclusion. The limitations of Study 1 and Study 2, followed by the implications of the results for further research and practice, are also presented. The chapter ends with a conclusion for both studies.

Implications and Limitations

Implications for Future Research

Efforts for any further research on the issue of CoP and its sustainability should be accompanied by an invitation to a CoP session in order to compare what teachers say with the reality of CoP in practice. Also, researchers are encouraged to include female teachers in future investigation and explore their willingness to take part in CoPs, including online ones.

Implications for Policy Makers and PD Designers

Teachers are the cornerstones of teaching, which is the soul of University life, and they deserve more care and attention at the planning level. It is known that University makes every effort and strives to achieve excellency and ensure development and quality. The Saudi government supports all Higher education

institutions to a high standard, and Taif University is no exception. However, there are some gaps in the planning of teachers' development for which there needs to be some compensation and consideration; this must start from the initial planning through to the development of the CoP and the establishment of online platforms where teachers can meet online, using, for example, Blackboard and other Web 2 programmes and applications.

Teachers should be reminded that the main goal of the teaching process is the students' achievement (Guskey, 2005). Therefore, to prepare good students, every effort must be made to keep pace with the latest teaching methods. Teachers' should be given incentives to pursue their learning as professionals. For instance, they might be offered a reduction in teaching time and other academic responsibilities to allow them to attend PD sessions; alternatively, incentives to pursue PD could include rewards, extra evaluation marks, points counted towards future career promotions, or public announcement of their names on an honour board on the University Website or in other publications. In addition, teachers should be encouraged to be aware and keep abreast of the latest teaching practices and to understand the importance of PD opportunities. Teachers may also be encouraged to take part in the planning and delivering of their PD; once teachers feel they are involved, they will be committed. Importantly, teachers should be encouraged to participate in the PD sessions voluntarily, which will help to make PD an ongoing and sustainable process, rather than a compulsory single session.

Teachers' enthusiasm and involvement for PD may decrease or fade if they feel there are no real benefits for their teaching or solutions to their problems and concerns, as Khalid reported. Thus, within CoP meetings and planning, teachers' varying needs and differing viewpoints need to be dealt with carefully and with understanding, as these differences are important factors that contribute to the success of the CoP form of PD. As Wenger (1998) stated, "The CoP is not a haven of togetherness or an island of intimacy" (p. 18). Thus, these challenges and diversity of opinions are regarded as important characteristics in the formation of a healthy CoP (Wenger, 1998; 2006).

Limitations

The use of a solo source of data may be considered a limitation of this study. However, interviews are considered a powerful tool for extracting teachers' beliefs and thoughts about issues under investigation. Also, the use of interviews is justified due to the fact that the current study is a follow up study on a study where a similar methodology was used. Although the study only interviewed eight teachers, this was beneficial rather than a limitation, as it allowed the researcher to investigate the issue of CoP sustainability deeply and to obtain rich detail from the participants.

Conclusion

In spite of the fact that the 2011 CoP was not sustained at Taif University, this study is considered both insightful and contributive. It explored in-depth the reasons that led to the dissolution of the CoP, and it provided some suggestions for establishing an alternative, virtual CoP using Web 2 programmes and applications. The study also discussed some administrative issues that are believed to contribute to the sustainability of CoP. Thus, such an investigation should assist in raising policy makers' awareness about the barriers to the sustainability of CoP. Knowledge of the barriers which may hinder or prevent a CoP from continuing will help the policy makers to overcome them in the future. The results of this study should be kept on record for each Taif University development program or any other Saudi universities organizational program to benefit all learns with their continued professional development.

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Education Research and the Community -- A Report On The Learn (Local Education and Academic Research Networks) Project

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Abstract

This paper reports on an ongoing project developed to explore community-oriented approaches to education research and teacher training by building networks of stakeholder communities. The LEARN (Local Education and Academic Research Networks) Project uses critical education research to empower teacher-researchers and to develop practice that contributes to the equity and resilience of their communities (e.g. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Ramanathan & Morgan, 2007). The paper explains the theoretical foundation of the project and discusses the extent to which the project has achieved its goal of developing socially responsive and responsible research and practice. The paper includes examples from three incarnations of the project: a teacher training project for high school teachers and university students in China, a research forum for graduate students in a TESOL program in South Korea, and a materials development project involving teachers and graduate students from Korea, China, and Vietnam.

Keywords.

Introduction

One of the consequences of the demand for quality education is that teachers are increasingly being asked to assume greater responsibility for the implementation of curriculum reforms and pedagogical approaches (e.g. Bascia & Hargreaves, 2000). Since quality education is increasingly being described as a situated process that leads to sustainable praxes (e.g. Johnston & Goettsch, 2000; Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Ramanathan & Morgan, 2007), teachers need to engage in research and pedagogy that contribute to the resilience of their communities. Education research that is socially responsive and responsible should perform discursive work that benefits the community in which the research is conducted. Such research should recognize socio-economic contexts and consequences and address social equity. That means constructing relevant and contextualized research agendas, promoting community values and praxes, and anchoring academic and professional research in the community as a whole. In order to meet these criteria, research should involve a wide range of stakeholders and explore theoretical frameworks and methodological approaches in relation to the setting and experiences of the stakeholders. Alternative formats for publishing and sharing research must be explored so that the research is linked to, and performs significant functions in, the local community.

In order to help teachers meet the challenges, teacher education and professional development programs must create professional communities that provide support and empower teachers as stakeholders in their education systems (e.g. Hannaway & Talbert, 1993; Louis, Kruse & Marks, 1996; Bascia & Hargreaves, 2000; Newmann, King & Youngs, 2000). Consequently, an important function of education research and teacher education is to “[position] teachers as knowers and [position] their ways of knowing that lead to praxis alongside the disciplinary knowledge that has dominated the traditional knowledge base” (Johnson, 2006, p. 243). Rather than distributing already developed knowledge, teacher education and research must focus on “how the process of ‘dialogue with the situation’ takes place in a teaching context, which insights are developed in this context, and how these insights relate to insights from other sources” (Verloop, Van Driel, & Meijer, 2001, p. 443). As teachers transition from traditional teacher roles to more research- and policy-oriented functions, they need opportunities to gain confidence and experience as they develop appropriate objectives for their own practice.

This paper reports on an ongoing project designed to use critical education research to empower teacher-researchers and local knowledge. The paper briefly explains the theoretical foundation of the project and discusses the extent to which the project has achieved its goal of developing socially responsive and responsible research and practice. The paper describes three incarnations of the project: a teacher training and development

project for high school teachers and university students in China, and a research forum for graduate students in a TESOL program in South Korea, and a materials development project involving teachers and graduate students from Korea, China, and Vietnam. The three incarnations of the project outlined in this paper remain works-in-progress and have yet to be fully analyzed and evaluated. My purpose in this paper is simply to describe the projects and share observations and comments on the projects in the hope that doing so may inspire new incarnations and invite ideas for how the project can be improved and developed.

General Description and Purpose of the LEARN Project

The LEARN (Local Education and Academic Research Networks) project was developed to explore community-oriented approaches to education research and teacher training by building networks of stakeholder communities. Drawing on critical pedagogy, service-learning, and community-oriented education, the LEARN project is based on the belief that knowledge and education are social acts achieved by community collaboration, and that successful collaboration requires empowerment of all participants (e.g. Creese, 2002; Freeman, 2007). The LEARN project also reflects the belief that critical research and community building can be used to legitimize a greater variety of identities, positions, and activities, this allowing for the inclusion of more participants and their knowledge in the teacher knowledge base and its knowledge-constructing processes.

The LEARN project uses qualitative research as a critical tool for empowering participants. The project facilitates the development of local research themes as well as the construction and validation of local knowledge. The research is not primarily reported by the LEARN project organizers at remote academic or professional venues, but rather collected, shared, and published locally by the participants themselves. The LEARN project creates a local discourse community which in turn provides an empowered position that enables local teacher-researchers to interact with regional, national, and international TESOL communities. The LEARN community also seeks to strengthen links between schools and the communities they belong to by bringing together administrators, educators, researchers, students, and parents.

Project 1: A Teacher Training Project for Middle School Teachers and University Students in China

In 2008, the LEARN Project was hosted by a university in southern China. The project was conducted over a 12-month period and included university students and faculty, and teachers from five partner middle schools. Partner school teachers were selected on a volunteer basis and were given the opportunity to act as teacher-researchers. They visited the host university during both fall and spring semesters and acted as consultants to the student-researchers; they also served as host teachers when the student-researchers visited the partner schools. A small group of host university faculty members were closely involved in the implementation and development of the project and gradually assumed the roles of trainers and organizers. They collaborated in a research group consisting of teachers and researchers from the partner schools and other institutions.

The LEARN Project 2008 student-researchers were Chinese undergraduate students training to become teachers of English at the middle school or university level. As participants in the LEARN project, they received four courses in preparation for, and support of, their fieldwork. The fall courses prepared the students for their research projects by providing a theoretical and methodological foundation in conjunction with meetings with local and national/international TESOL professionals, students, parents, and regional education specialists. The student-researchers designed qualitative or mixed-mode studies for the spring; these designs were then presented at a local conference at the end of the fall semester and published in the LEARN Project language journal. In the spring, the student-researchers cooperated with partner school teachers and spent approximately one week co-teaching with a partner school teacher.

Discussion of Project 1

By far the most ambitious of the LEARN projects to date, this incarnation was challenging both logistically and pedagogically. The stated purpose—to develop local research strategies and forums consistent with national curriculum guidelines and aimed at facilitating the implementation of a new curriculum—proved difficult to define, at least initially. In the early stages of the project especially, participants at all levels struggled to identify their individual roles and objectives. As the project proceeded, participants gained confidence and gradually developed research foci that addressed the overall agenda. Despite the fragmented outcome, which was perceived by some participants as failure to meet the objective, the project did result in student-researcher papers and presentations, as well as conference presentations by some of the faculty members in the research group.

Project 2: A Research Forum for Graduate Students in a TESOL Program in South Korea

In the fall of 2010, a LEARN project was launched as a volunteer program for graduate students in a TESOL MA program in South Korea. Unlike the 2008 project, this undertaking was much more limited in scope and included a less heterogeneous group of participants. The project was set up as an extra-curricular graduate student research forum, with the stated objective of conducting research on TESOL/ELT issues identified in the immediate local community. Four research groups formed in conjunction with two graduate courses, each designing a small-scale study of language use in the community. The groups examined different aspects of TESOL/ELT in a district (*gu*) of Seoul, with a special focus on the relationship between language as it is used and perceived in the community and language as it is presented in TESOL/ELT pedagogy. The resulting studies were presented at national and international TESOL/ELT conferences.

Discussion of Project 2

The limited scope of the graduate student research forum made it easier for all participants to define their roles in relation to the overall objective, and thus contribute even at the outset of the project. While the project did not explicitly address the community-education links as the 2008 project had done, the studies that developed through the project certainly highlighted the relationship between education research and the community. Furthermore, the conference presentations, being the first ever by students from this graduate school, were instrumental in strengthening the participants' confidence and willingness to undertake studies in their own context. The participants also reported being inspired by the response they received after presenting their papers at the conferences.

Project 3: A Materials Development Project Involving Teachers and Graduate Students From Korea, China, and Vietnam

The latest incarnation of the LEARN project was launched in the fall of 2013. This time, participants were recruited from three graduate schools in South Korea. The project is to run in conjunction with graduate courses in critical pedagogy and materials design, and is aimed at developing teaching materials for a charity school in Vietnam. During the spring semester, participants will collaborate with a small group of partner teachers from the charity school and develop criteria and content for classroom materials. Students from the partner school will also be invited to contribute to the process by suggesting topics, storylines, and other content-related ideas. The collaboration will be documented and later analyzed by the graduate students, and the results of the collaboration will be compiled into a textbook or resource book with the help of editors and graphic artists from a local publisher.

Discussion of Project 3

Drawing on the experiences from project 1 and project 2 described above, project 3 is an attempt to maintain a narrow focus while still addressing some of the more general objectives of the LEARN project as a whole. The short-term goal of producing teaching materials and activities is linked to the longer-term goal of empowering the partner school teachers, as well as the teacher-researchers in the graduate programs. By documenting and analyzing the project, the participants will have opportunities to gain experience as researchers and writers. The resulting study can also be used to examine and explore the interaction between different stakeholders and the relationship between education research and the community.

Conclusion

The three LEARN projects described in this brief paper reflect the challenges facing teachers as they transition from classroom practitioners to teacher-researchers or practitioner-researchers, either through graduate school training or professional development. While most teachers recognize and welcome a shift from centers of power to centers of practice, they also experience frustration and at times bewilderment as they are asked to produce research and join academic and professional conversations. The LEARN projects attempt to provide a bridge between theory and practice, but the gap remains significant and some of the attempts fail to fully take into account the needs and perceptions of the participants. It seems clear that the three LEARN projects resulted in empowered peer collaboration, but it is equally clear that only a few of the original objectives were reached.

As the LEARN project evolves, its emerging significance seems to be shifting the focus of inquiry and placing greater importance and value on local context and expertise. By involving participating teachers and students in the research and policy processes, at least peripherally, the project does seem to empower

participants and “acknowledge the situated, process-oriented, contextualized nature of the knowledge base” (Johnston & Goettsch, 2000, pp. 464-465). By prioritizing the context and developing local criteria for quality education, it seems clear that the project encourages teacher education and research that focuses on “the activity of teaching itself – who does it, where it is done, and how it is done” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 405). Unlike much traditional education research, which tends to receive its agendas from established centers of power, research conducted under the auspices of the LEARN project remains anchored in actual centers of practice.

Perhaps most importantly, the LEARN project gives participants opportunities to develop new perspectives on their practice, and to share those perspectives with other stakeholders. In so doing, the project offers a necessary alternative to the traditional focus of teacher training, professional development, and education research. As Gebhard (2005), explains:

[The] goal of exploring to see our teaching differently is quite different from a usual goal of teacher development, that of improving our teaching. By aiming to improve, we want to discover better ways to teach. By aiming to see our teaching differently, we want to discover new things about ourselves and consider our teaching beliefs and practices. I believe the goal of exploration transcends the concept of improvement because we can gain so much more awareness of our teaching when we do not limit ourselves to improvement and are open to discovery. (p. 3).

Discovery beyond the scope of “improvement” is an objective that simultaneously empowers teachers and provides openings for the experiences and needs of teachers as they gradually take on the role of researchers.

Projects such as the LEARN project can serve as starting points for teachers as well as researchers as they try to find common ground in their efforts to develop quality education. However, more research is needed to understand what aspects of the LEARN project can be considered effective and which objectives provide appropriate guidance to the project activities. Analyses of the project would also help determine whether the project itself lives up to its overall goal of developing socially responsive and responsible research and practice.

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An Innovative Method of Teaching The Qanoon To Develop The Capacity Playing For The Beginner Student Through Innovative Training Technical

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Abstract

This research aims to, create some technical courses on El Qanoon instrument to evolve the ability of play to untrained student, and analysis creation of training and recognize it forms of Rhythm or Drums and structures which are used within it, and it has been used system. Analysis contain" to describe the phenomenon and analysis the contain of trainings. And the innovated term the research has created technical training for El Qanoon instrument, which were suggested by scholar and references?

Keywords.

Introduction

El Qanoon is one of the most important instruments in the oriental music and it considered the basic of the Arabic musical band and which enriches our Arabic music inherit age. And El Qanoon is the basic instrument in teaching the Arabic music in especial institutes and it has own term. it advanced with wide pitch , multi pitch and a strong and clearness in the pitch it has a high occupied and it is generally in songs and the historians considered the Arabic scales hand mental inspiring the student's teaching term and the importance of the research , that it achieves the pervious aims and we may assure the matron of technical of art , according to el Qanoon instruments as Egyptian , valuable and inveterate instrument , and so the developed the ability of playing for untrained player .

The inner tube of doctrinaire includes 1- El Qanoon instrument 2- Untrained student 3-techniquel training and mechanics tire contain on creative training on El Qanoon instrument by research assistant and her analysis and results of quest , achievements for the questions and the quest was conclusion , ended by recommends and Mohamed Kamal El Kholey 1932

El Qanoon is one of instrument which played a vital role in performing various of Arabic music if it was playing or songs

El Qanoon was evolved gradually since ages , since the setting up the writer and become on its shape in the present time

Elfarbu who was the first inventor the instrument and some so that he modify in her designs it is the inveterate ancient instrument was found in old civilization. And it had many titles and forms which different from the shape that days

It was the first player Abdel fatah Elmanssy . He was between six and seven old besides playing the piano and studied them in the union music institute then he became professional in playing El Qanoon in musical band and it has many musical composes , especially with El Qanoon such as Elnozha – Farhi – Shabui - Arose elnile – Hewudi from his traditi and works " long Hagizu karkd " and he taught this instrument in Egypt in the faculties and different institutes , and he taught it in auteur and Elkwait and he left for us his prints in the field of teaching El Qanoon and his advanced with showing his performance and his skill in the play .

And he shared in playing the photographic music for several movie and recording films and played concerto El Qanoon from foaud Elzawhrui's works (Nabil Abd ElHady shora 2003).

Inspire of these : He didn't gain fame such as his brother who was the player of violet (Anwar Elmanssu) and this because he was busy with the production of films . but when he Bankrupt he returned to play with his friend Abd Elhalum Nwurua) .

When he set up Arabic musical band and it was said he was the one of the composer who wrote down hormone for tone for El Qanoon his experience in the piano benefit him a lot and made him playing with his hands Together. Where his holding with El Qanoon fuel of decorates and renewable tone. And his playing remarkable with control in El Qanoon and performance and this is due to using both his hands Together in

playing, he started to play with left hand for drums and hit for right hand. And he wrote down Enharmonic when he performed it with his hands in the same time during his playing on El Qanoon (Ghada Mohamed Hosny 2011) in contrary the style of Abdu Salah who was known for holding vacuum tone . and he played on it with using featho and touch with it lightly from the ivory or cover which were held in the hand by button which made of metal both of them perform the same tone and El Qanoon include three parts of tone octave, and his tone was written down on the fa for the left hand and the button of sol for the right hand .

After that the scholar showed what the aims a quest / research. and it creates for some technical training on el Qanoon to develop the untrained student to play , and analysis these innovated training and drills and recognize on the kinds of drums shapes and structures of drums and structures of tones which used in it . Within achieving these pervious aims the importance of research assure the . importance of valuable art to el Qanoon as an inveterate Egyptian instrument , and we can contribute to evolve the ability of untrained student on playing on el Qanoon instrument and the scholar showed in has article some idioms .

technique :- and it is acquaint flexible speed and control in using the private the was with playing such as fingers – hand arm and synarthrodial Johnston Alfred 1980

In heritage :- all we delivered from the past inside our common civilization . it is the processes of civilized life which came to us and we live on it after increasing the humanitarian experiences with acted and mixed unopposed (Hassan Hanfy 1977)

Independence. The hand (multi tones) it is playing with both hands to gather , and each hand performed tones which different from the tone . which different from the tone . which accompanied by other hand . (Abeer El Namer 2011)

Technique :- it is a sort of cleverness of playing which due to acquisition of flexible and unchained and control in the muscles which are used in playing such as fingers – wrist- hand arm joined ankles (miller m. hugh 1977)

Creation :- it is a meaning of creative and in general it is remarkable distanced a contribution in reorganization the humanitarian life and taste it Mustafa swuife37 . thr linguistic creation with its meaning coming the thing or hot creation is the ability of individual to deal with advanced may , it is the case of the active brain up normal Nabil Shwri 2007. And the performing of creation is depend on the possibilities conditions and it connect with critical thinking , (Hissien Abd El Bary 2001)

The style :- in general is the performing how to perform in the tones and the style is the way (ones style) and so his own style and his term , the style control in the technique and control in the require limit of creative and his technique and this artist transfer his style and point of view to the audience (Ashraf Mohamed Garuled) 1965

The direct modulation :- It is keeping with the original to rhythm and changing it into ways and kinds by using the rhythm

Indirect modulation :- it has been changed the original of rhythm to reach into the new basic to give the meaning by using the basic of degree (Mostafa Abd El Salam 2011)

The decorate of tones and transferring

The decorates are important elements in all traditional musical rhythm which remarkable with regular the tone of line which is consist of followed tones and structure of tone , and according to a lot of shapes ith showing the ability of voice and used all his efforts in expressing besides parallelism acting is showed in performing , so the decorating of tones becomes very important for performing of musical playing and song and we can't separate them, but is distanced the Arabic music but decorating tones give the color which remarkable for the tones or for The meaning of the other meanings which was accompanied with other meanings (twifke elsbag 1950)

The scholar benefit from the previous from the previous studies were joined current research such as nubile el swath 1975 . and this study had el Qanoon and the styles and different schools which played and it had different techniques which depend on the performing which benefit the scholar in this research

Method and Material

The scholar made the comprehensive summary which include aims and terms which the scholar used it in describing term analyses the containing

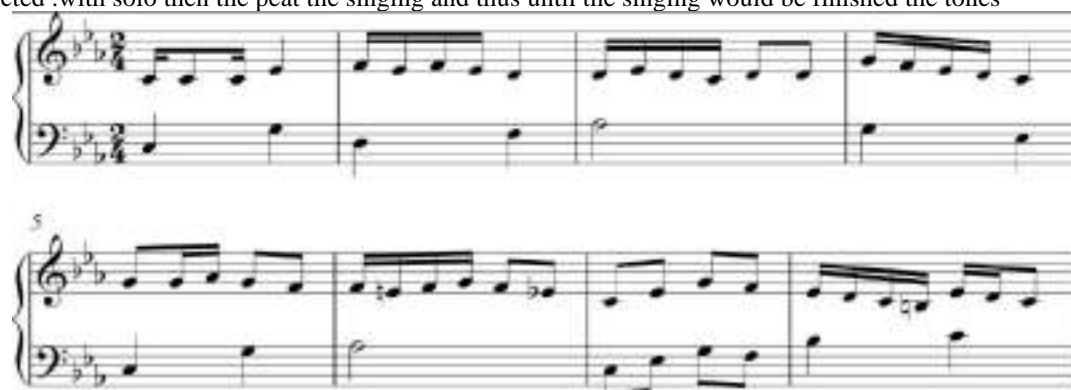
The scholar used created term which was written technique tanning then the scholar showed what the research included .such as the importance of achieve the pervious aims and assure the valuable art for el Qanoon and the development the ability of student to play. then the scholar set up explanation for doctrinaire of inner tube for concepts which belonged to playing On el Qanoon and teaching on it and used each hand to play until it is found devolved and progress the style of playing and performing which it was still used since ages this

instrument manufacturer and player and the scholars and we noticed this development since the twenty century and it was the modernist playing on this instrument the way of performing on this instrument with more sound and tones which is called multi sounds and tones and the scholar assured on the untrained student which is considered chosen element from the first group in educational faculty Alex university and she talked about teaching training of creative by the school and it was several multi training in the drums and rhythms and structure in tones which different in space and ways and degree which control.

And the research in clued on the system thickness and rummage finally the creation of training and analysis them and the scholarly at the end shows the results of the research of the research achieve her aims then the scholar talked about the recommendation then the Arabic and English references which she used it and the scholar made the processes of research which in clued the descriptions term or amyases containment the scholar made the time and place of the research 2013-2014 and the place was the educational faculty Alex university and the scholar made a show some idioms such as technical in heritage using both hands multi sounds creation the style direct changing indirect changing decorating and trams faring tones

First Training:

The style of the player Training on the play: the basic stanza several times (EL Nahawand) up and down to feel with it when we play training on the space which we remained in training and it is the second and third and with enables it and feel with it when playing sing the training and when we discover any mistake it has been corrected .with solo then the peat the singing and thus until the singing would be finished the tones



The benefit from Peruvians training: achieve the dialog style about question and answer and thus feeling the spiritual of stanza and stability of stanza and tone. the interest in the space the second and the third the fourth . The interest of consent ration on steps controls (raset – gaharka – nawa - kord)

Researcher comments: the scholar interested in the style of dialogue about question and answer and feel with the spiritual of stanza and stability of rhythm, it had many some difficult in space which remained but with the continued training it became easy in performance.

Second Training:

The style of the player Training on the play : the basic stanza several times (el nahawand)up and down to feel with it when we play training on the space which we remained in training and it is the second and third and with enables it and feel with it when playing sing . the training and when we discover any mistake it has been corrected . With solo then the peat the singing and thus until the singing would be finished the tones.



The benefit from Peruvians train: achieve the dialog style about question and answer and thus feeling the spiritual of stanza and stability of stanza and tone . The interest in the space the second and the third the fourth. The interest of consent ration on steps controls. (raset – nawa - sekah)

Searcher: the scholar interested in the style of dialogue about question and answer and feel with the spiritual za and stability of rhythm. it had many some difficult in space which remained but with the continued training it became easy in performance .

Third Training

The style of the player Train on the play : the basic stanza several times (el nahawand) up and down to feel with it when we play training on the space which we remained in training and it is the second and third and with enables it and feel with it when playing sing the training and when we discover any mistake it has been corrected . with solo then the peat the singing and thus until the singing would be finished the tones

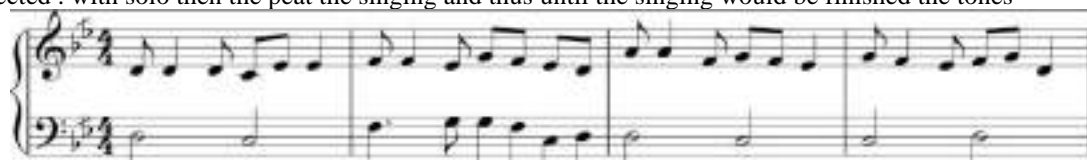


The benefit from Peruvians training :- achieve the dialog style about question and answer and thus feeling the spiritual of stanza and stability of stanza and tone. The interest in the space the second and the third the fourth. The interest of consent ration on steps controls. (raset – gaharka – nawa - kord)

Searcher : the scholar interested in the style of dialogue about question and answer and feel with the spiritual of stanza and stability of rhythm . it had many some difficult in space which remained but with the continued training it became easy in performance .

Fourth Training

The style of the player Training on the play : the basic stanza several times (el bayati) up and down to feel with it when we play training on the space which we remained in training and it is the second and third and with enables it and feel with it when playing sing . the training and when we discover any mistake it has been corrected . with solo then the peat the singing and thus until the singing would be finished the tones



The benefit from Peruvians training : achieve the dialog style about question and answer and thus feeling the spiritual of stanza and stability of stanza and tone . the interest in the space the second and the third the fourth . the interest of consent ration on steps controls . (el dokah – nawa – el hoseny - gaharka)

Searcher : the scholar interested in the style of dialogue about question and answer and feel with the spiritual of stanza and stability of rhythm . it had many some difficult in space which remained but with the continued training it became easy in performance .

Fifth Training

The style of the player Train on the play : the basic stanza several times (el nahawand) up and down to feel with it when we play training on the space which we remained in training and it is the second and third and with enables it and feel with it when playing sing . the training and when we discover any mistake it has been corrected . with solo then the peat the singing and thus until the singing would be finished the tones .



The benefit from Peruvians training : achieve the dialog style about question and answer and thus feeling the spiritual of stanza and stability of stanza and tone . the interest in the space the second and the third the fourth . the interest of consent ration on steps controls . (gaharka – nawa - kord)

Searcher : the scholar interested in the style of dialogue about question and answer and feel with the spiritual of stanza and stability of rhythm . it had many some difficult in space which remained but with the continued training it became easy in performance .

Sixth Training

The style of the player Train on the play : the basic stanza several times (el nahawand) up and down to feel with it when we play training on the space which we remained in training and it is the second and third and with enables it and feel with it when playing .sing the training and when we discover any mistake it has been corrected . with solo then the peat the singing and thus until the singing would be finished the tones

The benefit from Peruvians training : achieve the dialog style about question and answer and thus feeling the spiritual of stanza and stability of stanza and tone . the interest in the space the second and the third the fourth. The interest of consent ration on steps controls (Gaharka -Nawa -Kerdan)

Searcher : the scholar interested in the style of dialogue about question and answer and feel with the spiritual of stanza and stability of rhythm . it had many some difficult in space which remained but with the continued training it became easy in performance .

Discussion

Within pervious the show the scholar had agreement some studies such as mobile sower music Abd El Kany Abdel El Kadu in put some creation of music for el Qanoon in putting a group of technical various training which was set up multi sound and tones which treat the player's skill for untrained player and it has agreed to treat some tones or piece of music on el Qanoon of two tones and how to teach and these ben hit the scholar in the search

Results

The result of the research achieved her aims that technical training of creation contribute to develop the ability of untrained student and the scholar analyzed these created training and recognized the shapes of drums and structures and tones and with showing this suggested training by the scholar to the first group of specific

education faculty Alex university and on the teachers and masters all assured on that training contribute with a great part in developing the ability of playing for entrained student and acquired all the skillful playing and the ability of instrument with the keeping of impression of tones which beauty advanced our Arabic music

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Current Negative Trends in Engineering Education in Central Europe

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Abstract

The paper deals with disappointing trends in technical education in Central European countries. The current analysis is based on the author's long-term experiences in university level technical education in the Czech and Slovak republics. The study corresponds to publications which deal with current problems in a wider context and on experience from foreign partner universities. A profile of a typical graduate of technical education is described.

The paper presents the evolution of the education process over the last decade in the context of the influence of industrial partners and their different expectations about the graduate's profile and curriculum quality.

Keywords.

Introduction

In the nineties, when the countries of Central Europe turned away from dictatorship to democracy, a wide range of tumultuous changes occurred in our society. In an effort to distance ourselves from all previous events in the non-democratic regime, we unfortunately rejected even those systems that worked relatively well here, and one of these was undoubtedly the university education system. Believing that the market would save us and work everything out, we stopped managing and controlling the structure and content of higher education. At that time there arose a number of new universities of dubious reputation. In addition, there was a boom of disciplines that in the previous period did not have too much support from the communist regime. The young generation suddenly had the possibility to study humanities, philosophy, economics and other subjects about which their parents' generation could only dream of. This naturally led to a reduction of the number of people interested in technical fields. Lack of interest in technical education was further supported by the disappearance of, or significant restrictions on, production by a whole range of traditional industrial companies in Central Europe.

Trend in the number of students during the last decade is obvious from Fig. 1 [1].

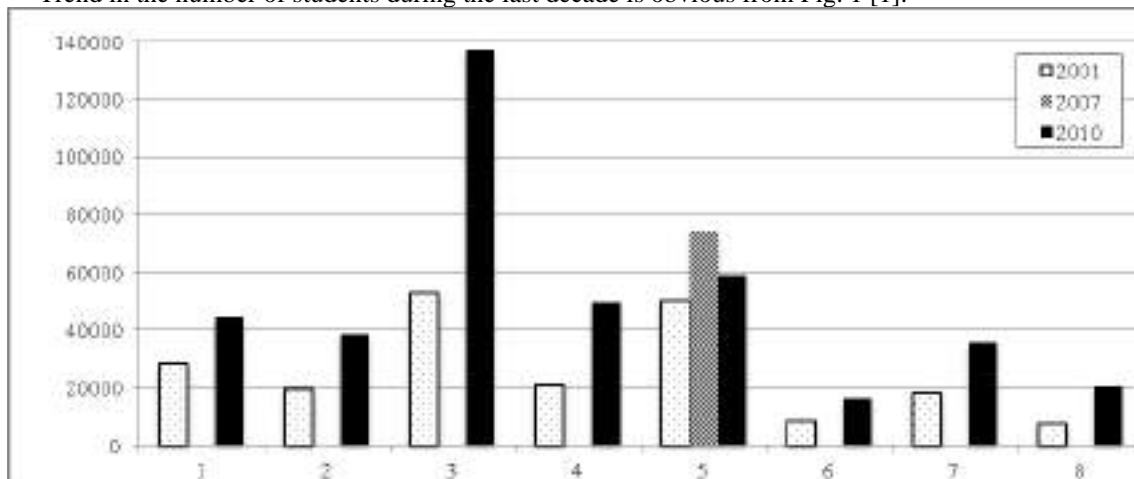


Fig. 1 Number of students by field of study at Czech Republic

(1) Education; (2) Human science and art; (3) Social science; (4) Natural science, Mathematics, Informatics; (5) Engineering, production, building industry; (6) Agriculture; (7) Medicine; (8) Services

Technical Education and its Societal Impact

The states of Central Europe had always been among the world leaders in many industries and this corresponded to the scope and quality of technical education.

Countries with well-educated technical intelligence can more easily adopt and implement new technologies - such as with the development of peaceful uses of nuclear energy in Central Europe after the Second World War. Technical intelligence in addition can easily recognize the risks, specific needs of development, production and operation of new technologies, including the educational process. Such a society then does not tend to be subject to hysterical pressure from various activist organizations dismissing anything new because, thanks to their educational profile, they can form their own opinions. For example, there is the view of environmental parties, whose efforts to protect the environment are otherwise very much appreciated, but the environmental activists who are campaigning against nuclear energy are making it difficult for technically educated nations to make advances in the area of nuclear research. For example, there is the view of environmental parties, whose efforts to protect the environment are otherwise very much appreciated by society. They are fight against nuclear energy. In this case it is extremely difficult to fight against environmental parties with technically educated nations such as the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Poland. Recent trends in technical education however are leading to a certain rearrangement of literacy in certain areas of knowledge. It is only a matter of time before even in this region the ratio of technically educated people will have evolved so that the new generation of people will be more easily impressible in technical matters than the current generation.

The Reasons for the Current State of Technical Higher Education

The causes of this unsatisfactory situation can be seen in the tumultuous changes in the post-communist period. The reputation and salary of teachers together with continuous under-funding of education ... The current status of teachers in our society is unprecedented in developed countries. While a teacher at any level of education in most developed countries has a decent social status and evaluation, in our region the salary of a teacher in a primary school is only 80% of the average wage. It is easy to imagine the reputation of the teaching profession in a society when the status of teachers is blindly determined on the basis of their salary. Wages and evaluation, and thus the status of teachers and engineers in society, are clearly shown in the following table. Values are relative to the average wage.

The salary of a teacher in a primary school after 15 years of practice reaches about 50% of the average salary of a college student aged 25-64 , see Fig. 2. Tabulated teacher salary lower than 60% is also in Hungary, Iceland, Italy.

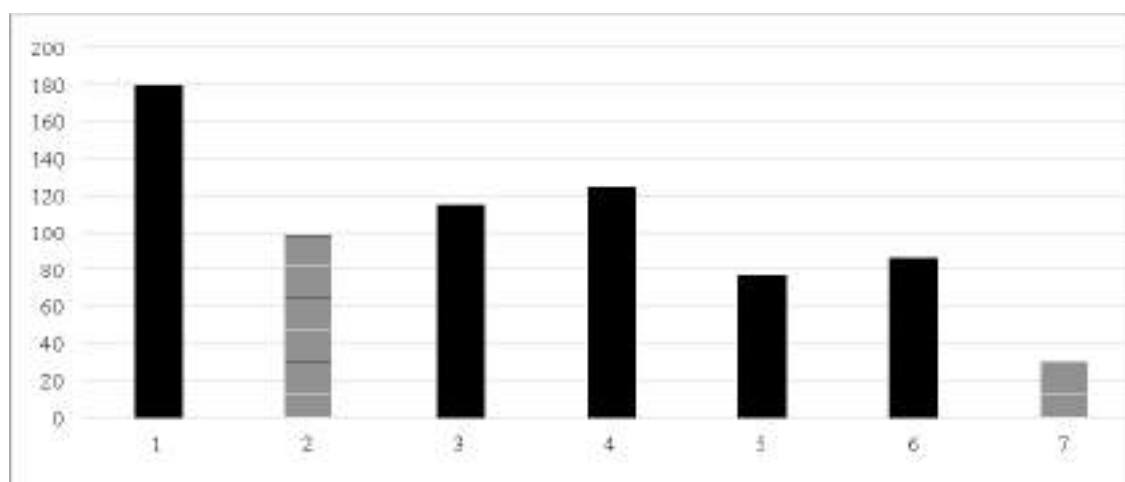


Fig. 2 Comparison of salary in different positions [%]

- (1) Graduate student's salary; (2) Average salary at Czech Republic (100%); (3) Education field (all degrees); (4) Research; (5) Starting salary for teacher at primary school; (6) Average salary for teacher at primary school (approximately 15 years of experience); (7) Minimal salary at Czech republic

Evaluation of the teaching profession in our region, funding of schools, the actual composition of activities of teachers (teaching versus administration), significantly influence the composition of the teaching staff as well as the methods and quality of the educational process. The result of all these factors is a significant change in the pattern and level of primary and secondary education, underlined by the historical decline in science and mathematics students in the last decade; see studies by TIMSS, FIMS, SIMS, PISA and others [3].

The changing profile of the high school graduate and especially reduced numeracy skills makes higher education difficult for both teacher and student. Although society in general knows about the phenomenon of poor quality primary and secondary education becoming fully apparent at the highest levels of education, nothing fundamental is being done about it.

Why Study Technical Subjects?

Why even study engineering, considering its difficulty – made more difficult by inadequate numeracy?

At best, it is a real interest in, or even a predilection for, technology and science in general. In the worst case - and unfortunately prevalent - this is due to non-acceptance in other, economically more lucrative fields.

This is created by a very distinctive composition of students?. There is an ever shrinking group of students who crave for knowledge and for obtaining it at a high level and who are willing and able to make even extensive effort. The second group consists of students who still have the ability to absorb the material at an appropriate level, and meet the necessary conditions for this necessary analytical and logical thinking. Due to the deficiency of theoretical knowledge working with this group is difficult, but it is worth it. Currently, however, a third group is beginning to dominate, for which teaching technical subjects in the traditional sense is impossible. The motivation for their study is to obtain a university degree with the lowest possible effort. Surely you cannot deny this group of students their commitment and ability to memorizing the curriculum and to obtaining certain encyclopedic knowledge. Their knowledge is however superficial without a deeper insight of engineering principles. Studying a technical subject, in a way that is still remembered by today's generation in their forties, by this group would be impossible. It would mean nowadays an unbearable loss of students and studies completed by a fraction of the current number of graduates. However, we have a system where universities are evaluated by the number of students and not for their quality, which is economically totally unacceptable. To avoid this - and so that the financing of universities will not collapse, faculty managers are making drastic reductions to the requirements for students. The rate of adaptation to the third (weakest) group of students depends on both the courage and the conscience of the governing body of the faculty or school, and on the pressure from outside. The current shortage of technical staff in the region forces industrial plants to judge universities according to the number of graduates, rather than their quality. Industry itself then pushes towards reducing the level of education - usually presented as a "need to popularize the educational process" [4].

Large companies are themselves able to provide training in the desired scientific field using a variety of training programs, training and business schools. Their requirements on the graduate profile is changing – it is important for them to acquire more superficial general knowledge, teamwork ability, language skills, work habits, etc. The ability of analytical thinking in solving technical problems has taken a back seat to manual control capabilities of CFD, FEF, CAD and so on.

To what extent this is a short-sighted attitude, or whether it is an inevitable trend, which the middle and older generation of teachers simply must come to terms with, time will tell. The opinion of the author of this article is that certainly the teaching of many scientific disciplines can be moved into corporate training. However, there is a whole range of knowledge (mainly theoretical), which it is necessary to absorb during studies at university. Corporate training subsequently will contribute to the deepening of practical skills, including the application of theoretical knowledge in practice, but it is very difficult here to supplement the neglected engineering knowledge base.

Conclusions

- The assumption that the demand for fields of study is solved only by the market is erroneous. Practice shows too much inertia between the demand for graduates in certain disciplines and focus on their studies.

- In a system where the number of university students is decisive for financing universities, adequate quality education cannot be sustained. Schools, from an instinct of self-preservation even in the context of competitive struggle, sooner or later begin to offer less and less demanding fields of study to candidates.

- In a society that suffers from a lack engineers, industrial companies assess universities by the number of university graduates rather than by the quality of their education. Such a situation on the labor market favours less demanding subjects, and means liquidation for difficult fields - in the past "selective" fields.

The above and the annotated negative trends can be eliminated as follows:

- Manage the number of applicants for individual fields - as is common in developed countries.
- Finance disciplines not only according to number of students, but also take into account their difficulty and current social necessity.

- When accepting graduates, take into account in particular the level of the educational process.

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Role Changes in Team Teaching

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Abstract

Team teaching is increasingly popular in language classrooms due to the mix of language and content or native and local teachers of English. The English program in Korea (EPIK) brought in close to 10,000 native English assistant teachers (NEATs) to Korean English classrooms. As indicated by word “assistant” NEATs are designed to assist Korean teachers of English only in team teaching setting. Korean teachers with teaching certificate and periodic curriculum training are expected to utilize the NEATs in their instructional contexts for the maximum advantage. This study explores the current situation how team teaching runs based on the comparison between team teaching and solo Korean teachers of teaching English. The method was sampling three sets of team teaching and solo teaching of same language skills and same lessons for appropriate comparison. It looks into teacher’s language of L1 and L2, sentence types of teacher utterances and types of teacher talk. The analysis result shows that NEATs are more alike to solo Korean teachers of English while Korean teachers of English in team teaching play assisting roles and mediating roles between NEATs and students. This raises a serious teacher issue on the role changes between main and assistant teachers possibly caused by the language power between native speakers and foreign language learners. However, the national curriculum is designed for Korean teachers of English with foreign language learning experiences to teach English classes. The current changes of roles calls for an intervention policy to realign the roles and relationships between Korean teachers and NEATs.

Keywords.

Introduction

“Role” is the shared expectation of how an individual should behave in a given social setting (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003). In English language teaching, several methodologists (Littlewood, 1981; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Tudor, 1993; Harmer, 2001) have suggested many potential roles for language teachers. Richards and Rodgers (1986) consider teacher roles as part of the “design” component of a method, pointing out that these are related to the following issues: (a) the types of function teachers are expected to fulfill, (b) the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place, (c) the degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught, and (d) the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners (p. 24). Littlewood (1981) conceptualizes the role of the language teacher broadly as the “facilitator of learning” (p. 92) in the context of Communicative Language Teaching instead of the rather narrow concept of the “teacher as instructor”. According to Littlewood (1981), a teacher’s role as a facilitator entails the sub-roles of an “overseer” of student’s learning, a “classroom manager”, a “consultant” or “adviser”, and sometimes, a “co-communicator” with the learners. Harmer (2001) looks at the term “facilitator” in a much broader way than Littlewood does, and points out that the ultimate aim of all roles is to facilitate the students’ progress in some way or the other. He talks about using certain “precise” terms for the roles that teachers play in the classroom: controller, organizer, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor, and observer. Tudor (1993) looks at the role of the teacher in the context of the notion of the learner-centered classroom, a kind of classroom in which the focus is on the active involvement of the learners in the learning process.

This paper will investigate the roles of Korean English teachers and NEATs (native English assistant teachers) by exploring their classroom languages including instructional languages they use, pedagogic discourse they engage, questions they raise and feedback language they utter in team teaching. The data will be compared with the baseline solo Korean English teacher’s data to check how the roles have changed due to the nature of team teaching and the unequal balance of linguistic power between Korean teachers and NEATs. The

paper will investigate the overall teacher talk of team teaching against its baseline data collected from a solo Korean English teacher.

Method

Baseline and Team Teaching Teachers

Three teams of Korean teachers and NEATs and three solo Korean teachers of English were selected from elementary school classes of a metropolitan city, a small city and a rural area based on the representative profiles of English teachers at elementary level. The typical profile of English teachers in elementary school is Korean teachers in their 30s and 40s of majority females and American NEATs in their 20s and 30s of slightly more males. All the selected subjects belong to the group profile, and the profile is controlled to be the same across the team teaching teachers and the baseline teachers. The details of these teachers are in table 1.

Table 1. Teacher Profile

Baseline						Team Teaching								
Teacher	Sex	Age	Experience	Grade	Teachers	Grade	Korean Teachers				NEATs			
Teacher	M/F	Age	E-Career	Grade	Teacher	Grade	Sex	Age	Experience	Sex	Age	Nationality	Class	
A	F	30s	4	5	D	5	F	30s	3	F	20s	US	2+	
B	M	40s	9	6	E	6	M	40s	8	M	30s	US	1	
C	F	40s	10	6	F	6	F	40s	7	M	30s	US	2	

The solo teachers of English (A, B, C) consist of two female teachers in their 30s and 40s and one male teacher in his 40s. Teacher A has four years of English teaching experience and is currently teaching English to the 5th graders. Teacher B has nine years of English teaching experience and is teaching the 6th graders. Teacher C has the same profile to teacher B except one additional year of English teaching experience.

The three team teachers of English (D, E, F) consists of one Korean teacher and one NEAT. Team D is teaching English to the 5th graders and made up of a female Korean teacher in her 30s with three years of English teaching experience and a female NEAT in her 20s from the States with class 2+ which equals to one full year of teaching experience PLUS one of the following: Master's degree in any discipline, 100+ hours (TEFL, TESOL or CELTA certificate), bachelors degree in Education, English, Linguistics or Writing and a valid teachers license. Team E is teaching English to the 6th graders and consists of a male Korean teacher in his 40s with eight years of English teaching experience and a male American in his 30s with class 1 which equals to two years of full time teaching experience plus one of the following: Master's degree in any discipline, 100+ hours (TEFL, TESOL or CEKTA certificate), Bachelor's degree in Education, English, Linguistics or Writing and a valid teachers license. Team F is teaching the 6th graders and made up of a female Korean teacher in her 40s with seven years of English teaching experience and a male American NEAT in his 30s with class 2 which means that he has 100+ hour TEFL/TESOL/CELTA certificate plus a bachelor's degree in any discipline.

Data collection and analysis

One lesson four class hours were recorded from each baseline and team teaching, and a total of 24 class hour's recordings were transcribed for the analysis. The four recorded classes of solo teacher A and team D were the teacher talk teaching lesson five *I get up at seven everyday*. The recordings of solo teacher B and team E were teacher talk teaching lesson five *May I help you?* The recordings of solo teacher C and the counterpart team F were the teacher talk teaching lesson seven *My father is a pilot*.

Teachers' classroom discourses were coded using the following coding scheme: teacher categories, teacher's instructional language (Korean/English), speech acts (declaratives, interrogatives and imperatives), question types (wh-/yes-no questions, display/referential), types of instructional language (regulative/instructional/feedback), interactive feedback types (clarification/confirmation requests/comprehension checks) and discourse complexity in terms of numbers of c-units, s-nodes and words.

All 24 classes of transcription were analyzed by these coded criteria and presented in a descriptive statistics for comparison and analysis. Chi-square verification was used to infer the statistical significance between and among different groups of teachers.

Result

The analysis result is addressed to the questions: the proportion of Korean teacher's instructional language using L1 and L2 in team teaching, the proportions of different speech acts and question types between Korean teachers and NEATs, the proportions of different pedagogic registers between Korean teachers and NEATs and the complexities of pedagogic discourses between Korean teachers and NEATs. This section is organized into discussions for the listed questions in the order as presented.

Analysis of Instructional Languages

Korean teachers are encouraged to use only English when they are in English classes, but they use both English and Korean to meet the instructional needs whenever and wherever appropriate and efficient the choice language is in complex instructional contexts. Table 2 shows the mean utterance frequencies of using each language by English teachers in team teaching and the baseline sole Korean teachers.

Table 2. Instructional Languages

Teacher		English	Korean	Total
Korean	Freq	1132	282	1414
	%	80.1%	19.9%	100%
NEAT	Freq	1301	0	1301
	%	100%	0%	100%
Baseline	Freq	2741	215	2956
	%	92.7%	7.3%	100%

Korean teachers of English in team teaching shows an average of 1,132 English utterances and 282 Korean utterances for the recorded four class hour sessions while NEATs utter an average of 1301 English utterances for the same period. Korean teacher's classroom utterances consist of 80.1% of English and 19.9% of Korean. On the other hand, solo Korean teachers of English make an average of 2,741 English utterances and 215 Korean utterances which translate into 92.7% of English and 7.3% of English.

The result indicates that Korean teachers in team teaching use a smaller percentage of English in average compared to the baseline Korean teachers. The English utterances made by NEATs can work toward the increase of English utterances students are exposed in team teaching of English. This will balance out 89.5% of English and 10.5% of Korean uttered in team teaching, but Korean teachers still use substantially more Korean compared to the baseline Korean teachers. The difference of 3.2% Korean between team teaching and the baseline solo Korean teaching is attributed to the mediational utterances done by Korean teachers to facilitate the communication between NEATs and students. It includes Korean translations and explanations help students better understand their NEATs.

Whether the discrepancy in the utterance frequencies obtained is of statistical significance or not is tested using chi-square test. The result is shown in its value, degree of freedom, the probability of confidence interval and post-hoc grouping as in table 3.

Table 3. chi-square and post-hoc of teacher's languages

	Value	df	p	post-hoc
chi-square	361.17	4	.000	NEATs > baseline > Korean in team

The chi-square test shows that the value 361.17 is statistically significant on the probability of confidence 99.9%. Also, the post-hoc result indicates that three teachers belong to different groups, which means that Korean teachers in team teaching significantly differ in their utterances of instructional languages from the baseline Korean teachers who teach English alone in the class.

Analyses of sentence types and questions in teacher utterances

1) Analysis of sentence types

Investigating English sentence types of teacher's utterances is of consequence to teacher's roles played in the English classes. Three sentence types under investigation are declarative, imperative and interrogatives. When teachers explain instructional contents, they tend to use declaratives; but when they engage in managing classes, their language often turns into imperatives. Also, when teachers seek for interactions with students, they tend to use interrogatives. With this observation in mind, the teacher utterance analysis of sentence types presumably leads to insights on the roles that teachers play in the English classes. Table 4 shows that Korean teachers of English in team teaching with NEATs are contrasted in their frequencies of sentential types of teacher utterances (declaratives, imperatives and interrogatives) with their counterparts, the solo Korean teachers of English.

Table 4. Sentence Types of Teacher Utterances

Teachers		Declaratives	Imperatives	Interrogatives	Total
Korean	freq	708	464	242	1414
	%	50.1%	32.8%	17.1%	100%
NEAT	freq	822	182	297	1301
	%	63.2%	14.0%	22.8%	100%
Baseline	freq	1378	721	857	2956
	%	46.6%	24.4%	29.0%	100%

The utterances in team teaching consist of 708 times of declaratives (50.1%), 464 times of imperatives (32.8%) and 242 times of interrogatives (17.2%) for Korean teachers; 822 times of declaratives (63.2%), 182 times of imperatives (14.0%) and 297 times of interrogatives (22.8%). The total frequencies of both Korean teachers and NEATs in team teaching are 1,530 times of declaratives (56.4%), 646 times of imperatives (23.8%) and 539 times of interrogatives (19.8%). On the other hand, the utterances of the baseline teachers in their solo teaching is comprised of 1378 times of declaratives (46.6%), 721 times of imperatives (24.4%) and 857 times of interrogatives (29.0%).

Analysis result on different sentence types of Korean teacher's utterances in team teaching bears the following characteristics when compared with the frequencies of sentential types in baseline solo teaching: Declaratives in team teaching occupy substantially a bigger percentage (9.8%) of teacher talks compared with the baseline solo teaching, but NEATs speak more declaratives than Korean teachers in team teaching by a margin of 13.1%. The imperative forms of Korean teacher utterances in team teaching outweigh in proportion the imperatives uttered by the NEATs by a margin of 18%, and the imperative forms exceed the baseline solo teachers by a margin of 8.2%. Interrogatives in team teaching are of smaller percentage of 22.8% compared to the 29.0% of the baseline solo teaching. Korean teacher's interrogatives (17.2%) are even smaller than the 29.0% of the baseline solo Korean teachers.

The higher proportion of declaratives and the lower proportion of interrogatives of team teaching compared to the baseline solo teaching explain that the verbal interaction with students in team teaching is less active due to the lack of questions and answers compared to the baseline solo teaching. Korean teachers in team teaching is even less active than NEATs in giving language-related instructions in declarative languages and addressing questions in interrogatives to students when compared to the native speakers. This means that NEATs play the main teaching roles and Korean teachers of English in team teaching are less involved in language-related instruction. However, they are using substantially more imperatives than NEATs and the baseline solo teachers.

This means that Korean teachers of English assist the classroom management for NEATs and students. In other words, NEATs are teaching English while Korean teachers of English assist and mediate the teaching and learning between NEATs and students.

Whether the discrepancy in the utterance frequencies obtained is of statistical significance or not is tested using chi-square test. The result is shown in its value, degree of freedom, the probability of confidence interval and post-hoc grouping as in table 5.

Table 5. Chi-square and post-hoc of sentence types

	Value	df	p	post-hoc
Chi-square	205.71	4	.000	baseline > NEAT > Korean in team

The chi-square test shows that the value 205.71 is statistically significant on the probability of confidence 99.9%. Also, the post-hoc result indicates that three teachers belong to different groups, which means that Korean teachers in team teaching significantly differ in their proportion of utterances in sentential types from the baseline Korean teachers who teach English alone in the class. The chi-square test and the post-hoc support that Korean teachers in team teaching play the assistant roles while NEATs are teaching English to students.

2) Comparison of wh-questions and yes/no questions

The analysis of sentential types showed that NEATs are asking more questions than Korean counterparts in team teaching. Investigating question types will reveal the quality of interrogatives and different roles NEATs and Korean teachers of English play in English instruction. Question types are either open (wh-questions) or closed (yes/no-questions). Teachers who ask more wh-questions address more open questions to students and thus lead the classroom instruction while teachers using more yes/no-questions interpret what the other teacher is addressing and mediate the classroom instruction between the other teacher and students. Table 6 shows frequencies of different questions for each teacher group: Korean teacher of English and NEATs in team teaching and the baseline solo Korean teachers.

Table 6. wh-question and yes/no question in teacher utterances

Teacher		wh-question	yes/no question	Total
Korean	Freq	152	155	307
	%	49.5%	50.5%	100%
NEAT	Freq	191	100	291
	%	65.6%	34.4%	100%
Baseline	Freq	549	247	796
	%	69%	31%	100%

Korean teachers of English in team teaching uttered 155 times of yes/no questions (50.5%) and 152 times of wh-questions (49.5%). On the other hand, NEATs show 191 times of wh-questions (65.6%) and 100 times of yes/no-questions (34.4%). The baseline solo teachers used 549 times of wh-questions (69%) and 247 times of yes/no-questions (31%). The result shows that Korean teachers of English in team teaching use slightly more yes/no questions (50.5%) than wh-questions (49.5%), while NEATs utter substantially more wh-questions (65.6%) than yes/no-questions (34.4%). The baseline solo teachers use different questions types similar to NEATs than Korean teachers of English in team teaching. In other words, both NEATs and the baseline solo teachers use wh-questions about twice as frequently as yes/no-questions while Korean teachers of English in team teaching are wh-questions slightly less frequently than yes/no-questions.

The fact that NEATs address wh-questions similar to the baseline solo teachers indicates that NEATs lead the instruction and Korean teachers of English assist the classes. NEATs contextualize questions to connect the current instructional content with students' daily life, and Korean teachers of English use questions to check or encourage students to utter appropriate forms of English in response to NEAT's questions to facilitate and mediate the classes.

The chi-square test was conducted to infer the statistical significance of these differences regarding different question types among different groups of teachers. The result is shown in its value, degree of freedom, the probability of confidence interval and post-hoc grouping as in table 7.

Table 7. Chi-square of wh and yes/no questions

	Value	df	p	post-hoc
Chi-square	51.82	2	.000	Baseline > NEAT > Korean

The result shows that the difference in the question types of teacher utterances is significant in that Korean teachers in team teaching belong to radically different group from the baseline solo teachers than NEATs at the level of 99% probability confidence. This indicates that Korean teachers in team teaching play a mediating role between NEATs' open questions by translating the questions into more closed yes/no questions. Example excerpts supporting this are as follows:

NEAT: *How's the weather today?*

Students: ???

Korean Teacher: *Is it cloudy today?*

Students: *Yes, it's cloudy.*

NEAT: *What's the color of this bag?*

Students: ???

Korean Teacher: *Is this bag blue or red?*

Students: *It's red.*

3) referential vs. display questions in teacher utterances

Referential questions are questions you ask someone because you don't know the answer. Referential questions can be compared to display questions, for which the answer is already clear and teachers ask just to see if the learners know the answer, or for language manipulation. Display questions clearly lack the communicative quality and authenticity of referential questions, but they are an important tool in the classrooms, not only for the teacher to be able to check and test their learners, but also as a source of listening practice. One of the first things a beginner learns in English is how to understand and answer display questions. Examples of referential questions are if the teacher asks a learner 'What did you do at the weekend?', or a learner asks another 'Why are you so sad?'. In contrast, an example of display question is that asking if the teacher asks a learner 'What is the past simple form of leave?' is obviously not for the information but for checking whether or not the student knows the answer.

One of the main differences in teacher utterances is the dominance of display questions to students, which makes teacher utterances not authentic in real life interactional talks. The teachers under this study showed the same tendency using more display questions than referential questions.

Table 8. display and referential questions

Teacher		display question	referential question	Total
Korean	freq	204	102	306
	%	66.67%	33.33%	100%
NEAT	freq	197	96	293
	%	67.24%	32.76%	100%
Baseline	freq	488	287	775
	%	57.81%	42.19%	100%

Within this commonality of a high use of display questions, however, the team teaching shows higher percentage of display questions (average of 66.95%) than the baseline solo teaching (57.81%). On the other hand, the team teaching shows lower percentage of referential questions (average of 33.04%) than the baseline solo teaching (42.19%). It can be hypothesized that the baseline solo teaching is more communicative than the team teaching. The classroom procedure engaging students to the classes with open-ended questions on and around students' daily life were often used to elicit students' experiences and opinions in communicative setting. In a relative term, however, the team teaching is more structured so that it limits teachers to interact with

students with freedom of giving sufficient wait time and exchanging opinions and thoughts for open-ended questions.

The chi-square test is shown to infer the statistical significance of these differences regarding the use of display and referential questions among different groups of teachers. The result is shown in its value, degree of freedom, the probability of confidence interval and post-hoc grouping as in table 9.

Table 9. Chi-square of display and referential questions

	Value	df	p	post-hoc
Chi-square	21.424	2	.000	baseline > NEAT > Korean

The result of display and referential questions in teacher questions shows that the difference is significant across all different groups of teachers. One thing noted here is that NEAT is more alike the solo baseline teacher than Korean teacher in team teaching, which indicate that Korean teachers of English behaves as an assistant to the NEATs and distances further from the baseline solo English teacher.

Analyses on different types of teacher talk

Teacher talk can be classified into different categories depending on what a researcher is looking for. In this paper, teacher talk will be divided into three categories: regulative, instructional and feedback languages. Regulative teacher talk is mainly managerial talk as to how to maintain the necessary order and attention for classes to continue. Instructional talk is teacher talk related to the instructional content or activities for students to learn. Feedback is a type of teacher talk entertaining students' questions and comments. In this section, these three types of teacher talk will be looked into to see if there's a role change between Korean teachers and NEATs in team teaching.

1) regulative, instructional and feedback language types

The frequency of each type of teacher talk is recorded along with its percentile among different teacher talks for regulative, instructional and feedback respectively. Table 10 shows that each group of teacher shows their frequency followed by the percentile for regulative, instructional, feedback and total figure.

Table 10. Ratio of feedback, instructional, regulative languages

Teacher		Regulative	instructional	Feedback	Total
Korean	Freq	803	475	185	2956
	%	53.9%	31.9%	12.4%	100%
NEAT	Freq	314	647	250	1226
	%	25.6%	52.8%	20.4%	100%
Baseline	Freq	1164	1247	529	1489
	%	39.4%	42.2%	17.9%	100%

It's noticed that Korean teachers in team teaching articulate significantly more regulative language (53.9%) compared to both NEATs (25.6%) and baseline Korean teachers (39.4%). On the other hand, Korean teachers in team teaching utter instructional language in a significantly less (31.9%) than the NEATs (52.8%) and the baseline teachers (42.2%). Feedback language also shows the same tendency where Korean teachers in team teaching (12.4%) use less than NEATs (20.4%) and the baseline teachers (17.9%). This indicates that Korean teachers take over a large portion of regulative roles from NEATs during the classes in team teaching. On the other hand, instructional and feedback utterances, otherwise Korean's role, are handed over to NEATs. The baseline Korean teacher utterances speak the current analysis loudly across three different types of utterances. In fact, the role division between Kroeans and NEATs in team teaching is clear in that NEATs take the main instructional and feedback roles to students, and Korean teachers take the assistant roles of regulating classes and getting classes going to facilitate NEATs to run the English class. If Korean teachers and NEAT utterances

are combined, the ratio and amount of three different types of teacher talk reach about the same ratio to the baseline Korean teacher talk.

The chi-square test is shown to illustrate the statistical significance of different teacher groups regarding the teacher talk. The result is shown in its value, degree of freedom, the probability of confidence interval and post-hoc grouping as in table 11.

Table 11. Chi-square analysis of feedback, instructional and regulative languages

	Value	df	p	post-hoc
chi-square	248.586	6	.000	Baseline > NEAT > Korean

Chi-square test shows that the differences of teacher utterances are significant at the level of 1% statistical significance across different groups of teachers in their regulative, instructional and feedback of classroom languages. The post-hoc result shows that Korean teachers in team teaching belongs to different groups even further away from the baseline Korean teachers than NEATs, which indicate that NEATs play instructional roles that the baseline teachers do in the classes while Korean teachers in team teaching do something other than doing the main instructional role.

2) Teacher feedback utterances

The frequency and percentile of teacher feedback language is analyzed into the table crossed by the teacher type vertically and feedback types horizontally. Table 12 shows that the analysis of confirmation checks, clarification requests and comprehension checks are tabulated into frequency and its percentile among different feedback languages for each teacher type.

Table 12. Analysis of confirmation checks, clarification requests, comprehension checks

Teacher		confirmation checks	clarification requests	comprehension checks	Total
Korean	freq	51	36	47	134
	%	38.06%	26.86%	35.08%	100%
NEAT	freq	37	52	27	116
	%	31.89%	44.83%	23.28%	100%
Baseline	freq	131	169	187	487
	%	26.90%	34.70%	38.40%	100%

Korean teachers in team teaching use significantly more confirmation checks (38.06%) than NEATs (31.89%) or the baseline teachers (26.90%). It is also noted that the average of confirmation checks in team teaching (34.98%) is much higher than the solo teaching of English (26.9%). This leads to the conclusion that team teaching or NEAT causes confirmation checks to occur more frequently than the solo Korean teaching of English. Clarification requests show a sharp contrast between Korean teachers of English and NEATs in team teaching whereby NEATs make significantly more clarification requests (44.83%) than Korean teachers in team teaching (26.86%). The baseline Korean teachers shows 34.7% of feedback utterances for clarification requests which is roughly the combined average of Korean teachers and NEATs in team teaching. The reason why feedback utterances between Koreans and NEATs in team teaching show the role changes between Korean teachers and NEATs in team teaching is sought for by comparing the data against the baseline data that the solo English teacher feedback language is used. NEATs tend to make more clarification requests because NEATs do not understand what the students say more often than Korean teachers in team teaching. For example:

NEAT: *What kind of pet animal do you have?*

Student A: *I have a sasumbeoley.*

NEAT: *What did you say?*[clarification request]

Korean: *Do you have a beetle?*[confirmation check]

Student A: *Yes, I have a beetle.*

When NEATs request clarification of student's utterance, it's often the case NEATs don't understand student's talk either because of the pronunciation, words or structure. In this situation, Korean teacher in team teaching often intervenes by translating her understanding into confirmation checks in the form of scaffolding the utterances of students. This causes more confirmation checks on the part of Korean teachers. The nature of NEAT's inexperience with Korean students results in more clarification requests in their utterances. If we collapse Korean and NEAT feedback languages, team teaching feedback in total shows similar distribution to the baseline teacher feedback languages.

Korean teachers in team teaching tend to request more comprehension checks (35.08%) than NEATs in team teaching (23.28%) while the baseline solo teachers use comprehension checks (38.4%). It suggests that Korean teachers tend to utter comprehension checks more often than NEATs in general. Comprehension checks of the lesson content seem predominantly performed by Korean teachers in team teaching, and it is possible that comprehension checks are often a part of regulative language, which becomes an important contribution to the increase of regulative language by Korean teachers in team teaching.

The chi-square test is shown to demonstrate the statistical significance of different teacher groups regarding the teacher feedback language. The result is shown in its value, degree of freedom, the probability of confidence interval and post-hoc grouping as in table 13.

Table 13. Chi-square test of confirmation checks, clarification requests, comprehension checks

	Value	df	p	post-hoc
chi-square	79.358	4	.000	Baseline > Korean > NEAT

Chi-square test shows that the difference of teacher feedback utterances is significant at the level of 1% statistical significance across different groups of teachers. Each teacher group belongs to different groups in terms of the feedback language use. Within these differences, the post-hoc analysis indicates that the overall feedback utterances of Korean teachers in team teaching is more alike the baseline teachers of English than NEATs do, which is different from other instances of analyses.

Conclusion

Team teaching is encouraged in language teaching classes since it can mix two different fields of expertise, one in language and the other in teaching. Another common form of team teaching is a mix of native language teachers and local language teachers. In a team teaching, roles are generally prescriptive to the design of the curriculum and pedagogic program. Role distinction in real classrooms is generally descriptive to the roles each teacher can play in a given context. When a native speaker is an assistant teacher and the local teacher is the main teacher, the general assumption is that the main teacher will lead the instruction and the assistant teacher is assisting the main teacher to run the class. However, when a native assistant teacher knows more about the culture and language and the main teacher knows more about students and their learning background, the assistant teacher will teach the language and the main teacher will assist students to communicate better with the native speaker. This is a role-reversal between the assistant teacher and the main teacher.

The intermittent role-reversal can sometimes be an effective method, for example role-reversal between teachers and students, but if the role-reversal sustains over a period of semester or longer, it will become a new structure in place of the original roles. The EPIK (English Program in Korea) is never designed to weaken Korean teachers of teaching English. Instead it's designed to enhance the teaching skills and English proficiency. This paper will address the issue in which Korean teachers of English is NOT teaching English but assisting NEATs by comparing teacher talks of Korean teachers of English and NEATs in team-teaching against the baseline teacher talk data of solo Korean teachers of English. The EPIK program has contributed to the exposure of English speaking countries and the English fluency of Korean students and teachers (Jeon, 2009). It

also narrowed the gap in terms of accessibility to native speakers across different regional differences and social classes. However, the analysis results of teacher talks raise some concern that Korean English teachers tend to take assistant roles, and NEATs play major roles in team teaching due to the language power of native speakers in team teaching setting. The analyses of L2 use, sentence types in utterances and types of teacher talk indicate that NEATs in team teaching take up the leading roles except teacher feedback like the solo Korean teachers of English, and Korean teachers of English play minor roles assisting students and intermediating between NEATs and students. If this continues the way it's been described in the analysis, the teaching ability of Korean teachers of English will have to be seriously compromised, and this will lead the loss of respect and authority generally maintained by solo teachers in the classrooms. Despite the benefits of EPIK programs, it's important to raise the downside of the EPIK program by looking into teaching practices in team teaching. When Korean teachers who underwent the training necessary to teach new national curriculum do not take the instructional role and leave it to NEATs who stay in Korea only few years without the curriculum-related training, and Korean teachers engage in mostly regulative and intermediate roles in the instruction, the program is seriously derailed from the national curriculum system of education and a remedial policy needs to be in place for realigning the roles between Korean teachers and NEATs in team teaching.

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Okullarda Değerler Eğitimi ve Türkiye’deki Uygulamaya Bir Bakış

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Özet

Değerler, normlar ve ahlak kavramları hem zihinlerde çağrıştırdıklarıyla, hem de eğitim alanı için oluşturdukları anlamlarıyla giderek önem kazanan ve tüm dünyada tartışılan kavramlardır. Özellikle değerler eğitiminin okulla ilişkisinin sorgulandığı bir zeminde, okulda değerler eğitiminin verilip verilmemesi gerektiği, eğitimin amaçlarının neler olduğu, toplumun temel değerlerinin neler olduğu, ortak değerlerin neyi ifade ettiği ve okulda değerler eğitiminin nasıl yapılacağı soruları, henüz kesin yanıtlarını bulabilmiş değildir. Bilindiği gibi Türkiye’de de 2011-2012 eğitim-öğretim yılında “Değer Eğitimi”, bir proje olarak okullarda uygulamaya başlanmıştır. Bu çalışmada, değerler eğitiminin okullarla ilişkisi üzerinde durulacak, Türkiye’de değerler eğitiminin okullarda hangi biçimde uygulandığı sorusu irdelenecektir.

Anahtar kelimeler. Eğitim, Değerler, Okullar, Türkiye’de Değerler Eğitimi

Giriş

Henüz başında bulunduğumuz 21. Yüzyılda değerler, normlar ve ahlak kavramları hem zihinlerde çağrıştırdıklarıyla, hem de eğitim alanı için oluşturdukları anlamlarıyla giderek önem kazanan ve tüm dünyada tartışılan kavramlardır. Bir yandan bu kavramlar geleneksel, modası geçmiş, eskimiş sıfatlarıyla anılırken, diğer yandan her kesimden insanın üzerine tartıştığı ve görüşler ortaya koyduğu güncel ve yakıcı bir konu başlığı olmaya devam etmektedir. Özellikle değerler eğitiminin okulla ilişkisinin sorgulandığı bir zeminde, okulda değerler eğitiminin verilip verilmemesi gerektiği, eğitimin amaçlarının neler olduğu, toplumun temel değerlerinin neler olduğu, ortak değerlerin neyi ifade ettiği ve okulda değerler eğitiminin nasıl yapılacağı soruları, henüz kesin yanıtlarını bulabilmiş değildir.

Özgürlükçü bir toplum düzeninin bireylerin kendi yaşam tarzlarını belirlemede tanıdığı özgürlük alanı, fırsatları ve tehlikeleri eşit oranda barındırmaktadır. Bir yandan her bireye, kendini gerçekleştirme ve kendi başına karar verme olanağı sunarken, öte yandan muğlak sınırları bireyi, toplumsal birliği ve başkalarının haklarını ihlâl etme pahasına, bencil davranışlar geliştirmeye yöneltebilmektedir. Özgürlükçü ve demokratik bir düzen bir taraftan, her biri kendi değer yargılarıyla donatılmış eşsiz kişiliklerin gelişimine katkıda bulunurken diğer taraftan toplumsal ilişkilerin sağlıklı bir şekilde sürdürülebilmesi ve geliştirilebilmesi için ortak değerlerden oluşan bir zemini zorunlu kılmaktadır. Tüm bireylerin paylaştığı ortak değerler ile bireylerin kendi dünya görüşlerine göre edindikleri değerler, iki farklı kutup olarak, eğitim alanının en temel sorunlarından birini oluşturmaktadır.

Değerler Nasıl Öğrenilir?

Brenzika’ya göre eğitim sisteminin bütünü, gelişmiş sanayi ülkelerinin çekirdeğini oluşturmaktadır. Bu çekirdek bireylerin olduğu kadar, aileden işletmelere, farklı toplumsal örgütlenmelerden ve cemaatlerden uluslara kadar uzanan çeşitli sosyal grupların da kaderini belirlemektedir (Brenzika; 1993:137). Toplum ve toplumun alt grupları için eğitim sisteminin vazgeçilmez bir anlamı vardır, çünkü öğrencilerin okulda öğrendikleri veya öğrenmedikleri her şey, ait oldukları toplumun sürekliliğini büyük ölçüde etkilemektedir. Toplumsal açıdan eğitim sisteminin öncelikli görevi, toplumun varlığını ve kültürünü koruyarak gelecek nesillere aktarılmasını güvence altına almaktır. Bunun sağlanabilmesi için gelecek nesillerin hem bilgi ve beceriyle, hem de ahlaki değer yargılarıyla donatılmış olması gerekmektedir. Eğitimin, bu yönüyle siyasi bir nitelik taşıdığı, Brenzika şöyle ifade etmektedir: “(Eğitimin) iyi, kötü veya hiçbir etkisinin olmaması, yalnızca yetiştirilen birey için değil, bütün topluluk için sonuçları olacaktır.” Sander, konuyla ilgili olarak

okullarda eğitim yoluyla aktarılan değerler ve normları kastederek, “ince mesaj”lardan söz eder (Sander; 2000). Söz konusu olan, Dreeben’in ifadesiyle, okullarda verilen politik eğitimin “örtük karakteri” ve okulların kurum olarak, demokratik erdemler ve siyasi karar verme yetisi kazandırma konusundaki toplumsal işlevlerini nasıl konumlandığıdır. Dreeben, Parson’un “Sosyal Sistem Olarak Sınıf” makalesine (Parson, 1959) atıfta bulunarak, bağımsızlık, başarı, evrensellik ve uzmanlaşma gibi kavramları okullarda aktarılan temel normlar olarak saptamıştır (Dreeben; 1980: 44). Böylece okul, bireyi aileden topluma geçişte çeşitli yetişkin rollerini devralmaya hazırlarken, devletin demokrasi yaşamına da katılımını sağlamaktadır. Bireyler okulda davranış ilkelerini ve sosyal normları edinmeyi ve bunlara göre davranış geliştirmeyi öğrenmektedirler. Giesecke, değerlerin durup dururken ortaya çıkmadığını, her sosyal yapılanmanın kendine ait en önemli değerlerini, kurallar koyarak koruduğunu söylerken değerler eğitiminin politik yönüne işaret etmektedir aslında (Giesecke, 2005:15). Bu durum, değerleri siyasi yönden güvence altına alan devlet için de geçerlidir; ancak, demokratik devlet için bu noktada bir ikilem söz konusudur çünkü devlet, güvence altına almakla yükümlü olduğu değerleri yaratamaz. Demokratik ilkelere dayanan bir değerler politikası, politik/sosyal tutum ve davranışlarla ilgili kapsayıcı kurallar hakkında kamuoyunda yürüyen tartışmalar yoluyla şekillenen ve kabul gören bir değer bilincine bağlıdır. İnsan hakları gibi temel hak ve özgürlükleri ifade eden değerlerin, devletin politik güvencesi kapsamında çıkması halinde neler olabileceğini Giesecke, nasyonal sosyalist rejimi örnek göstererek hatırlatmaktadır (Giesecke, 2005:15). Buradan yola çıkarak, siyasi boyutu hesaba katılmaksızın eğitimde değerler ve kurallardan söz etmenin düşünülemediğini söylemek mümkündür. Değerler eğitimi, aynı zamanda siyasi bilinçlenmenin de önemli bir sacayağını oluşturmaktadır.

Öyleyse eğitim, yalnızca akılcı bilginin ve teknik becerinin geliştirildiği bir alan değil, aynı zamanda kültürel değerlerin, ahlaki tutum ve davranışların aktarıldığı bir araç olarak da karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Bu noktada Brenzika, eğitimin ve eğitimin amaçlarının ne olduğunu herkesin bildiğini, ancak bu konularda herkesin aynı görüşleri paylaşmadığını dile getirmektedir (Brenzika; 1993: 68). Eğitimin hem birey, hem de toplum için bu kadar önemli bir işlevi yerine getirmesi, doğal olarak ona çeşitli ve birbirinden farklı ilgi, istek ve taleplerin yöneltilmesine yol açmaktadır. Gelecek nesillerin kendi dünya görüşlerine ve amaçlarına uygun bir biçimde yetişmesini arzulayan farklı topluluklar, eğitim sistemini etki altına almaya çalışmaktadır. Anne babalardan, öğrencilere ve öğretmenlere; sanayi dernekleri ve meslek odalarından sendikalara ve siyasi partilere; dini cemaatlerden devlet kurumlarına kadar birçok farklı toplumsal yapının eğitime ve eğitim reformuna dair kendi görüş ve açıklamaları bulunmaktadır. Höhler bu durumu, kendi değer yargılarımızı diğer insanlar ve sistemler için ölçüt olarak dayatma eğilimimize bağlamaktadır. “Değerler” dünyayı algılayışımız ve ona nüfuz etme güdümüz için temel varoluşsal bir güç kaynağıdır. Höhler’e göre kendimizi toplum içerisinde konumlandırmamız da değerlerle olanaklıdır (Höhler; 1994:116). Kültürün belkemiğini oluşturan değerler sistemi, insanlar arası iletişimi sağlar ve aynı zamanda da keyfi uygulamalardan ve davranışlardan korur. Ayrıca bir arada yaşayan ve üreten insanların tarihsel bilinçlerini güvence altına alır. Buradan hareketle, eğitimi değerlerle ortak paydada buluşturan noktanın, aktarım sürecinin eğitim, bunu yerine getiren kurumun okullar olduğu söylenebilir.

Lott’un da belirttiği gibi, okullar topluma ait kurumlardır (Lott, 1996: 5). Bernfeld’in tezine göre de okullar – kurum olarak- eğitirler (Bernfeld; 1973:28). O halde, toplumsal yaşamı belirleyen koşullar, okullar için de geçerlidir; daha açık bir ifadeyle toplumsal koşullar okulları belirler. Okullar, devletin, toplumun, anne babaların ve öğrencilerin çeşitli beklenti ve taleplerini karşılamaya yönelik bir işlevi yerine getiren araçlardır. Rekus, toplumun öğrencilere dayattığı bu beklentilerin, toplumsal yaşamın sürekliliği ile ilgili olduğunu; bunun için de belirli ölçüde bilgi ve beceri, farkındalık ve anlayış, değerlere bağlılık ve davranış geliştirme gibi tutumların gerekli olduğunu belirtmektedir (Rekus, 1993: S.27). Öyleyse okulun, öğrencileri topluma uyumlu hale getirmek gibi bir işlevi yerine getirdiği söylenebilir. Bu da ancak, toplumun istediği davranış biçimlerinin öğretilmesi ile olanaklıdır. Bu davranış biçimleri arasında Lott, dürüstlük, çalışkanlık, tutumluluk, uysallık, diğer insanlara karşı sorumluluk ve saygı, devlete karşı bağlılık ve sadakat gibi özellikleri saymaktadır (Lott, 1996: 106). Buradan yola çıkarak, eğitimin birçok insanın algısında, diğer insanların ahlaki ilkelere, geleneksel ve manevi değerlere, bağlayıcı kurallara karşı geliştirdikleri tutum ve davranışların tümünü çağrıştırdığını söyleyebiliriz.

Giesecke, okulların değerler eğitimine ve öğrencilerde oluşması istenen değerlerin aktarımına ne ölçüde katkı koyabileceği sorusuna üç açıdan yaklaşmıştır (Giesecke; 2004:236):

1. Çocuklarda ve gençlerde değerler oluşumu birçok farklı kaynaktan beslenmektedir. Öğretmenler, bu kaynağın yalnızca bir bölümüne ve düşük bir etkide bulunabilirler, büyük bir bölümü öğrencilerin yaşlarından kaynaklanan tercihlerden ve modanın yönelimlerinden oluşmaktadır. Bu sürece, kitle iletişim araçları da dahil, çocukların hareket alanını oluşturan bütün sosyal alanlar katılmaktadır. Değerlerin oluşumu, toplumsallaşma

sürecinin bütünü içerisinde gerçekleşmektedir. Başka bir deyişle, öğretmenler öğrencilerdeki değerler oluşum sürecini yaratamazlar, yalnızca tamamlayıcı ve düzeltici bir konumda müdahalede bulunabilirler. Bu bağlamda, eğitsel açıdan elde edilmek istenen etki ne olursa olsun, söz konusu yalnızca, tüm eğitim sürecinin her anında zaten gerçekleşen içsel süreçlere müdahale olabilir ancak. Eğitsel anlamda etki olanakları yalnızca pedagojik alanlar olarak tanımlanan bir çerçevede, yani aile, okul ve çıraklık eğitimi gibi sosyal alanlarda bulunmaktadır, bunları aşan ve değerler oluşumuna etkisini uzun zaman sürdüren alanlarda ise eğitimcilerin bir belirleyiciliği bulunmamaktadır. Üstelik çeşitli pedagojik alanların amaçları her zaman yerinde ve uygun bulunmayabilir, öğretmenlerin niyetleri örneğin ailelerin karşıt eğilimleri ile ters düşebilmektedir. Bu bağlamda okulların yalnızca bir katkısından – ki bu katkının da başarısını garanti edemez - söz edilebilir.

2. Kurum olarak okullar –inanca dayalı din dersleri sayılmazsa - son kertede insan yaşamının anlamına dair soruların yanıtlanmasından sorumlu değildir. Öğretmenler, ideolojik çeşitlikten kaynaklanan tarafsızlık ilkesi gereğince, ideolojiler üstü bir düzlemde, daha çok mesleki kaygılarla hareket etmektedirler. Değerlerin belirlenmesi ve hangi değerlerin doğru olduğu konusunda eğitimbilimleri karar veremez. İçe bakış/refleksyon zemini güçlendikçe, ilgili bilim dalında konuyla ilgili uzlaşma zemini zayıflamaktadır. Toplum nezdinde tartışmalı olan bir konuyu okul tartışmasız ve mutlak hale getiremez, en fazla bunları ele alır ve üzerinde çalışmalar yapabilir. Okulun konusu, çoğunlukla toplumda algılandığı gibi, “doğru” değerlerin propagandasını yapmak veya bunları öğrencilerin kafalarına ve kalplerine transfer etmek değildir. Okullar kamusal kurumlar olduklarından, anayasanın yönergelerine, genel yasal düzenlemelere ve dolayısıyla da bunların içerisinde ifade edilen değerlere ve normlara bağlıdır, ancak sorunun bu boyutu okulların gündelik akışı ve öğrencilerin gündelik yaşamları açısından oldukça soyut ve ikincil bir öneme sahiptir.

3. Değerlerin oluşum süreci, kişinin içinde gerçekleşir, dolayısıyla dışarıdan fark edilmez. Edinilen ve temsil edilen değerler sosyal tutum ve davranışlar biçiminde ortaya konularak somutlaştığı ölçüde, algılanabilir ve sınanabilir hale gelirler. Okul, değerler eğitimi sürecini etkilemede yalnızca destekleyici ve yardımcı rolü üstlenebilir. Bu nedenle okullardaki değerler eğitimi özünde, öğrencilerin davranış ve tutum geliştirme sürecinin eleştirisinden başka bir şey değildir. Eleştiri burada kişiyi rencide etmeyi değil, sözcüğün gerçek anlamını, seçme ve yargılama yoluyla aydınlatmayı ifade etmektedir.

Görüldüğü gibi, burada aslında birbirinden farklı iki eğitsel amaç birbirine bağlanmaktadır; bir yanda sosyal öğrenme, yani sosyalleşme, bir yanda da değerler eğitimi. Değerler, çocukluktan itibaren felsefî bir soyutluk içerisinde değil, sosyal davranışlar biçiminde algılanmaktadır. Bunlara bağlı olarak, sosyal kurallarla veya normlarla yaşanan çatışmalar, kişide bilinçli ya da bilinçsiz bir biçimde değer yargılarının oluşmasına yol açmaktadır – pedagojik alanlarda verilen eğitimin de payı vardır bunda, ancak ağırlıkla yalnızca sosyalizasyon yoluyla. Sosyal bir davranışın başarılı sayılabilmesi için, iletişim halinde olunan kişilerin güvendikleri değerlere sahip olmak gerektiğini çocuklar çok erken yaşlarda fark etmektedirler. Öyleyse değerlerin öğrenilmesi, daha çok kişisel çabaların sınırlara – yani kurallara ve normlara - çarpması ve üzerinde çalışılarak dengelenmesi ile gerçekleşmektedir. Kendi iç dünyası öncelikli olan çocuğun bakış açısından ilk sırada sosyallik yer alır. İkisi arasında bir bağ kurabilmesi için çocuğun bir iç hesaplaşmaya girip bunlar üzerine düşünmesi gerekmektedir. Bunu yapabilmesi için de, ebeveynler ve öğretmenler gibi, eğitsel bakış açısıyla düşünen yetişkinlerin yardımına gereksinim duymaktadır, tek başına sosyalizasyon süreci yeterli değildir. Okullardaki değerler eğitiminin bu anlamda özel veya yeni bir alan olmadığını belirten Giesecke’ye göre değerler eğitimi, okullarda zaten yapılan veya yapılması beklenen bir şeyin altının daha kalın çizilmesi anlamına gelmektedir yalnızca. Giesecke ayrıca, okulun öğrencilerdeki değerler oluşum sürecine katkısının, ders, öğretmen modeli, kurumun kuralları ve okul kültürü olmak üzere dört düzlemde gerçekleştiğine dikkat çekmektedir (Giesecke; 2004:238).

Değerler Eğitiminin Türkiye’deki Uygulaması

Değerler eğitiminin Türkiye’deki uygulaması öncelikle, UNESCO tarafından desteklenen ve “Yaşayan Değerler Eğitim Programı (YDEP)” adı altında 1995 yılında Birleşmiş Milletlerin 50. yıl dönümü kutlamaları için hazırlanan uluslararası bir projeye dayanmaktadır (İstanbul Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü: 2012). Uluslar arası boyutta eğitimcilerin ortaklaştığı “Yaşayan Değerler Eğitimi” adı verilen bu eğitim projesinde demokrasi, adalet, özgürlük gibi evrensel değerlerin öğrencilere kazandırılmasında telkin yolu değil, ‘etkinlik temelli’ yaklaşımlar yaygın olarak kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca değerler eğitimine yönelik farklı yaş grubundaki öğrenci ve öğretmenler için materyaller geliştirilmiştir. “**Daha iyi bir dünya için değerlerimizi paylaşalım**” yaklaşımından yola çıkan proje; iş birliği, özgürlük, mutluluk, dürüstlük, sevgi, alçakgönüllülük, barış, saygı, sorumluluk, sadelik, hoşgörü, birlik olarak 12 evrensel değere odaklanmıştır. Bu bağlamda Türkiye’de Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Talim Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı 2010 yılında valiliklere ve tüm ilk ve orta dereceli okullara; 2010-2011 Eğitim Öğretim Yılı’nın ilk haftasında okulöncesi, ilköğretim ve ortaöğretim okullarında ders içi ve ders dışında,

değerler eğitimine yönelik faaliyetlerin gerçekleştirilmesi ile ilgili bir genelge yayınlamıştır. Bu genelgede değerler eğitimin kapsamı şu şekilde ifade edilmiştir:

“Toplumsal hayatı oluşturan, insanları birbirine bağlayan, gelişmeyi, mutluluğu ve huzuru sağlayan, risk ve tehditlerden koruyan ahlaki, insani, sosyal, manevi değerlerimizin tüm bireylere kazandırılmasında en önemli etken eğitimidir. Bu kazanımlarımızın öğrencilerimize aktarılması da değerler eğitimi oluşturmaktadır.” (MEB, Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu Başkanlığı: 2010).

“Değerler erozyonuna bir çözüm arayışının ürünü” olarak tarif edilen proje çerçevesinde gerçekleştirilmek istenen hedefler şu şekilde saptanmıştır:

- a. Öğrencilere temel insanî değer ve erdemlerin kazandırılması, değerlere karşı duyarlılık oluşturulması ve onları davranışa dönüştürülmesi,
- b. Toplum tarafından kabul gören değerlerin uygun okul ortamı oluşturularak geliştirilmesi ve pekiştirilmesi.
- c. Öğrencilerin sorumluluk duygularının geliştirilmesi.
- d. Akademik bilgi ve gerçek hayatta rehberlik edecek ahlaki değerlerle donatılmış yetiştirilmesi.
- e. Kültürel kodların güçlendirilmesi,
- f. Okul ve çevresindeki sosyal yaşamın ahlaki ve etik değerlere uygun olarak şekillenmesi,
- g. “Ahlak Temelli Disiplin” kavramının yerleştirilmesi.
- h. Öğrencilerde ahlaki bir topluluk bilincinin oluşturulması. (İstanbul Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü: 2012)

Dayanağını 1739 sayılı Milli Eğitim Temel Kanunu, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Stratejik Planı ve 18. Milli Eğitim Şurasından alan Değerler Eğitimi Projesinin okullarda uygulanmasından öncelikle, her il için saptanan İl Proje Yürütme Kurulları, İlçe Proje Yürütme Kurulları ve Okul Proje Yürütme Kurulu sorumludur. Belirli bir süreyle sınırlandırılmayan ve eğitim-öğretim yılının tümüne yayılan değerler eğitiminin programı, Sınıf İçi Etkinlikler, Okul İçi Etkinlikler ve Aileye Yönelik Etkinlikler birbirini tamamlayan üç boyutta geliştirilmiş etkinlikleri içermektedir. Bu etkinlikler, okulöncesi, ilk ve ortaöğretim okullarında, her branştan öğretmenler, rehber öğretmenler, okul yöneticileri ve okul aile birliği üyelerinden oluşturulan “değerler eğitimi komisyonu” üzerinden yürütülen çalışmalarla, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığının önerdiği faaliyet planı konularından ve kaynaklardan yararlanılarak belirlenmektedir. Okullarda uygulanacak etkinlik konuları, her eğitim-öğretim yılı için hazırlanan faaliyet planında belirtilmekte, her sınıf, ilgili ayların değerlerine yönelik, sınıf rehber öğretmenin denetim ve rehberliğinde etkinlik örnekleri ve benzeri başka etkinlikleri sınıf düzeyinde yapacaklardır.

Uygulanacak etkinlikleri genel kapsamı ve niteliği, 2552 Sayılı Tebliğler Dergisinde kısaca “Öğrencilerden Beklenen Davranışlar” olarak şu şekilde tarif edilmektedir:

“Bütün okul arkadaşlarının kendisi gibi Türk toplumunun ve Türkiye Cumhuriyeti'nin bir bireyi olduklarını unutmamaları, onur ve haklarına saygı göstermeleri, öğretmenlerine/okul yöneticilerine/arkadaşlarına ve çevresindeki kişilere karşı saygılı ve hoşgörülü davranmaları, doğru sözlü, dürüst olmaları, yalan söylememeleri, iyi ve nazik tavırlı olmaları, kaba söz ve davranışlardan kaçınmaları, millet malını, okulunu ve eşyasını kendi öz malı gibi korumaları, yasalara, yönetmeliklere ve toplumun etik kurallarına, millî, manevî ve kültürel değerlere uymaları beklenir. Bu davranışlara uymadıklarında da bazı yaptırımlar uygulanır” (Tebliğler Dergisi, 2003)

Bu proje bağlamında işlenecek değerler Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından belirlenmiş olup, İl Yürütme Kurulları değerleri ve değerlerin işleniş sırasını değiştirme yetkisine sahiptir. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığınca belirlenen değerler şunlardır:

Sevgi, Sorumluluk, Saygı, Hoşgörü- duyarlılık,Özgüven, Empati, Adil olma, Cesaret, liderlik Nazik olmak, Doğru, Yardımlaşma,Dayanışma,Temizlik, Doğruluk, dürüstlük Aile birliğine önem verme, Bağımsız ve özgür düşünme, İyimserlik, Estetik duyguların geliştirilmesi, Misafirperverlik, Vatansızlık İyilik yapmak, Çalışkanlık, Paylaşımçı olmak, Şefkat - merhamet, Selamlaşma, Alçakgönüllülük, Kültürel mirasa sahip çıkma, Fedakârlık. (M.E.B. 2013).

Türkiye’de değerler eğitiminin 2010-2011 eğitim-öğretim yılından itibaren okullarda uygulamaya konulmasıyla, bu proje kapsamında işlenen faaliyet konularının eğitim-öğretim yıllarına göre dağılımı şu şekildedir:

EĞİTİM-ÖĞRETİM YILI	FAALİYET KONUSU
2010-2011	DEMOKRASİ, SORUMLULUK, BAŞARI, ÖFKE VE ÇATIŞMA, SEVGİ VE SAYGI, YARDIMLAŞMA, İŞBİRLİĞİ, HOŞGÖRÜ, MERHAMET, DOSTLUK, ARKADAŞLIK, VATANSEVERLİK, DOĞRULUK, DÜRÜSTLÜK
2011-2012	SAYGI, SORUMLULUK, TEMİZLİK, ÖZGÜVEN, SEVGİ, HOŞGÖRÜ, İYİLİK, YARDIMLAŞMA, ÇALIŞKANLIK, TUTUMLULUK, SABIR, VATANSEVELİK, DAYANIŞMA ,DÜRÜSTLÜK, MİSAFİRPERVERLİK, MERHAMET
2012-2013	NEZAKET VE GÖRGÜ KURALLARI, BİRLİK, BERABERLİK, KARDEŞLİK, VATAN SEVGİSİ, SABIR (ALT BAŞLIKLARI İLE BİRLİKTE)
2013-2014	SEVGİ, BARIŞ, NEZAKET, ZARAFET, SAYGI, HOŞGÖRÜ, EMPATİ, ETKİLİ İLETİŞİM, ALÇAKGÖNÜLLÜLÜK, YARDIMSEVERLİK

Sonuç

Eğitim, toplumun idealine yönelik gerek evrensel, gerekse kültüre özgü geleneksel değerler sistemini bireylere iletmede önemli rol oynamaktadır. Okulların, önemli görevi, kültür aktarımında okul programında açık olarak belirtilen veya belirtilmeyen değerleri öğretmek, öğrencileri belirlenen kurallar doğrultusunda hayata hazırlamak, ahlaki gelişimine katkıda bulunmak, karakterini ve benlik algısını olumlu yönde etkilemektir. Bu yüzden bireyin belirli değerlerin farkına varması, yeni değerler üretmesi, benimsemesi ve kişiliğine mâl ederek davranışları ile sergilemesi başlı başına bir eğitim ve eğitici sorumluluğudur.

Türkiye’de değerler eğitimi değişik evrelerden geçmiştir. Değerler eğitimi kimi zaman ayrı bir ders olarak okutulmuş, kimi zaman da diğer derslerin içerisinde öğrencilere verilmeye çalışılmıştır. Günümüzde değerler eğitimi, diğer derslerin konuları içerisinde verilmeye çalışılmaktadır. Bu durum etkili bir değerler eğitimi verilebilmesi için her şeyden önce tesadüfî olmayan, planlı bir eğitim anlayışına duyulan ihtiyacı ortaya çıkartmaktadır. Bu bağlamda değerler eğitimi, ders kitaplarında yer alan, kardeşlik, vatan sevgisi, nezaket ve görgü kuralları, vatan sevgisi, sabır, adil olma, aile birliğine önem verme, bağımsızlık ve özgür düşünebilme, barış, iyimserlik, duyarlı olma, dürüstlük, estetik duyguların geliştirilmesi, hoşgörü, misafirperverlik, saygı, sevgi, sorumluluk, temizlik, vatanseverlik gibi birçok değer, değerler eğitimi yoluyla okullarda yapılacak olan etkinlikler ve uygulamalarla hayata geçirilmesinde ve davranışa dönüştürülmesinde önemli katkılarda bulunacaktır.

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Okul Öncesi Öğretmenlerinin Sınıf Yönetimi Becerilerine İlişkin Algılarının İncelenmesi

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Özet

Bu araştırmada, okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin algılarına göre sınıf yönetimi yeterlikleri belirlenmektedir. Araştırmanın örneklemini 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Malatya il merkezinde resmi ve özel okullarda görev yapan 74 okul öncesi öğretmeni oluşturmaktadır. Araştırma hem kuramsal çerçevede hem de pratik boyutta ele alınmıştır. Araştırmanın kuramsal kısmı derleme çalışması niteliğindedir. Pratik boyutu ise tarama modelinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. Araştırmada veri toplamak amacıyla kuramsal çerçevenin irdelenmesi sonucu geliştirilen 30 maddelik okul öncesi öğretmenleri sınıf yönetimi beceri ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca aynı ölçek içerisinde katılımcıların demografik özelliklerine yer verilmiş ve ölçeğin son bölümünde sınıf yönetimine yönelik sorular sorulmuştur. Ölçme aracı ile toplanan veriler, bilgisayar ortamında SPSS 17 istatistik paket programı kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Araştırmada elde edilen verilerin çözümlenmesinde Frekans ve Yüzde Hesaplamaları, Aritmetik Ortalama, Standart Sapma Değeri Hesaplamaları, Minimum, Maksimum Puan Belirlemeleri ve One Way ANOVA Testleri kullanılmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda öğretmenlerin sınıf yönetimi becerilerini “yeterli” olarak algıladıkları, en yeterli oldukları alanın “okula hazırlık”, en az yeterli oldukları alanın “kurallar ve disiplin oluşturma süreci” olduğu görülmüştür. Bunların yanı sıra öğretmenlerin lisans programında yer alan sınıf yönetimi dersini yetersiz buldukları ve içeriğinin değişmesi gerektiğine inandıkları, öğretmenlik becerilerini öğretmenlik yaptıkları süreç içerisinde yaparak yaşayarak geliştirdikleri ve hizmet içi eğitime ihtiyaç duydukları gibi bulgulara erişilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler. Okul Öncesi Eğitim, Sınıf Yönetimi, Eğitim-Öğretim Uygulamaları

Causal Model of Mathematical Competences in Kindergarten

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Abstract

In this paper, the authors defined mathematical competences for kindergarten children. Mathematical competences were grouped in following areas: language/data, geometry and arithmetic. Statistical set for the research consisted of 77 children from the kindergarten in Zagreb, Croatia. Authors had 19 measuring variables together with the evaluated results of described tasks. Methods for causal modelling were described in three steps. Results were analysed in three causal models for language/data, geometry, and arithmetic. Causal models were represented in three directed acyclic graphs. Authors analysed these three causal models and gave critical views of the research.

Keywords.

Mathematical Competences in Pre-School Education

Kindergartens are pre-school education institutions. In Croatia, kindergarten teachers use curriculum for kindergarten in Croatia (MZOS 2013) and additional curriculum unit (M. Kliman 2004 & 2006). Kindergarten teachers have to learn children mathematical competences. Mathematical competences are mathematical knowledge, skills and abilities. Mathematical competences in kindergarten can be divided in the following manner:

Mathematical language/space competences,
Mathematical geometry competences,
Mathematical arithmetic competences

The most important part is to learn kindergarten children mathematical concepts, relations and operations. Prerequisite competences in natural language are important in regard to teaching and learning. Natural language is important for communication between teachers and children.

The mathematical language/data competences include:

Natural language:
Word analysis and synthesis,
Telling the stories,
Ability to focus on activity

Data:
Painting and writing letters,
Counting the same objects,
Differentiating between letters and number

The mathematical geometry competences include:

Spaces relations:
More or less,
Before and after,
Above and under,
Left and right

Geometric objects:
Distinction lines and surfaces,
Recognizing simple sharps,
Recognizing simple bodies

The mathematical arithmetic competences include:

Numbers:
Sequencing numbers,
Writing numbers

Relations and operation:
Counting numbers,
Adding numbers.
Subtracting numbers

Statistical Set and Measuring Variables

Statistical set for the research were 77 children from Kindergarten “Milan Sachs” (Kindergarten M. Sachs 2011) in Zagreb, Croatia. The children were of ages from 6 to 7 years. The structure of children’s age can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Children’s ages

Children’s ages (months)	Number of children
(65) – 70	27
70 – 75	15
75 – 80	21
80 – (85)	14
Total	77

Testing of mathematical competences was performed as a part of an ordinary testing of development monitoring and children’s readiness for school.

Measuring variables for language/data were:

- 1) Telling the stories (DTEST). Child was asked to retell what happened today. If a child knew how to retell the story he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not know how to retell it he was evaluated with 0.
- 2) Word analysis (DWOAN). Child was asked to listen when the teacher says the word “table” and to analyse the letters “t – a – b – l – e”. If a child knew how to spell it he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not know how to spell it he was evaluated with 0.
- 3) Word synthesis (DWOSI). Child was asked to listen when the teacher said sequence of letters “t – a – b – l – e” and to synthesize the letters into one word “table”. If a child knew how to synthesize it he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not know how to synthesize it he was evaluated with 0.
- 4) Hyphenation into syllables (DHYSY). Child was asked to hyphenate the word “table” into sequence of syllables “ta – ble”. If a child knew how to hyphenate word into syllables he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not know how to hyphenate into syllables he was evaluated with 0.
- 5) Colour recognition (RECO). The teacher put 8 coloured pencils on the table (red, green, yellow, blue, purple, pink, grey and brown). Teacher asked children to show the blue pencil. If a child showed the blue pencil he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not show it he was evaluated with 0.
- 6) Distinguishing numbers and letters (DNULE). Children had mixed group of numbers and letters on the table and had to make two groups, the group of numbers and the group of letters. If a child solved this problem he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not solve it he was evaluated with 0. (Picture 1.)
- 7) Writing the name (DWRNA). If a child knew how to write his/her name he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not know it he was evaluated with 0.
- 8) Activity duration (DACTI). The teacher observed the child’s activity. If the duration of child’s activity was more than 20’ he was evaluated with 1, and if the duration of child’s activity was less than 20’ he was evaluated with 0.

Measuring variables for geometry were:

- 1) Relation in front of and behind (GIFBE). With the help of pictures, child was asked: Who is in front of the hen? Who is behind the girl? If a child knew the relationship he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not know the relationship he was evaluated with 0. (Picture 2)
- 2) Relation above and under (GABUN). With the help of the table and a train toy, child was asked the following question: What is above the train toy? What is under the table? If a child knew the relationship

- he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not know the relationship he was evaluated with 0. (Picture 3.)
- 3) Relation left – right (GLERI). Knowledge of the left – right relationship was examined within orientation to one’s own body. Child was asked to show his right leg, left ear, left eye and other body parts. If a child knew the relationship he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not know the relationship he was evaluated with 0.
 - 4) Recognizing triangle (GTRIA). Child was shown pictures of various geometric shapes and asked: Where is a triangle? If a child recognised a triangle he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not recognise a triangle he was evaluated with 0.
 - 5) Recognising rectangle (GRECT). Child was shown pictures of various geometric shapes and asked: Where is a rectangle? If a child recognised a rectangle he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not recognise a rectangle he was evaluated with 0.

Measuring variables for arithmetic were:

- 1) Counting to 30 (ACO30). Child was asked to count. It was expected that he knew how to count to 30. If a child counted from 20 to 30 he was evaluated with 1, and if a child counted to less than 20 he was evaluated with 0.
- 2) Understanding the numbers to 10 (AUN10). More than 10 crayons were placed on the table. Child was asked to count them one by one, joining a number of crayons with the proper sequence of numbers. If a child understood counting to 10 he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not understand it he was evaluated with 0.
- 3) Knowing the number of fingers on both hands (ANFBH). Child was asked: How many fingers do you have on both hands? If a child successfully solved the task he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not solve the task he was evaluated with 0.
- 4) Adding +1 (AAD+1). Understanding of the operation of adding from 1 to 5 was examined by using the questions such as: You have 3 marbles and mother adds 1 marble. How many marbles have you got? If a child successfully solved the task he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not solve the task he was evaluated with 0.
- 5) Adding +2 (AAD+2). Understanding of the operation of adding from 1 to 5 was examined by using the questions such as: You have 3 marbles and mother adds 2 marbles. How many marbles have you got? If a child successfully solved the task he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not solve the task he was evaluated with 0.
- 6) Subtracting – 1 (ASU–1) Understanding of the operation of subtracting from 1 to 5 was examined by using the questions such as: You have 3 marbles and your mother takes away one marble. How many marbles have you got? If a child successfully solved the task he was evaluated with 1, and if a child did not solve the task he was evaluated with 0.

Causal Modeling of Mathematical Competences

In the causal modelling, measuring variables were used to make three models. First causal model was made from 8 measuring variables for language/data competence. Second causal model was made from 5 measuring variables for geometry competence. Third model for arithmetic competence was made from 6 measuring variables for arithmetic competence. These models were created in three steps.

In the first step (Whittaker, J. 1989), partial correlation coefficient between variables i and j was calculated, while knowing all the other variables $\rho_{ij|1,2,\dots,i-1,i+1,\dots,j-1,j,\dots,n}$. By defining limits ε , edges of the graph of connections between vertices of the graph were determined. If partial coefficient satisfies $|\rho_{ij|1,2,\dots,i-1,i+1,\dots,j-1,j,\dots,n}| > \varepsilon$, the edge between vertices i and j can be determined.

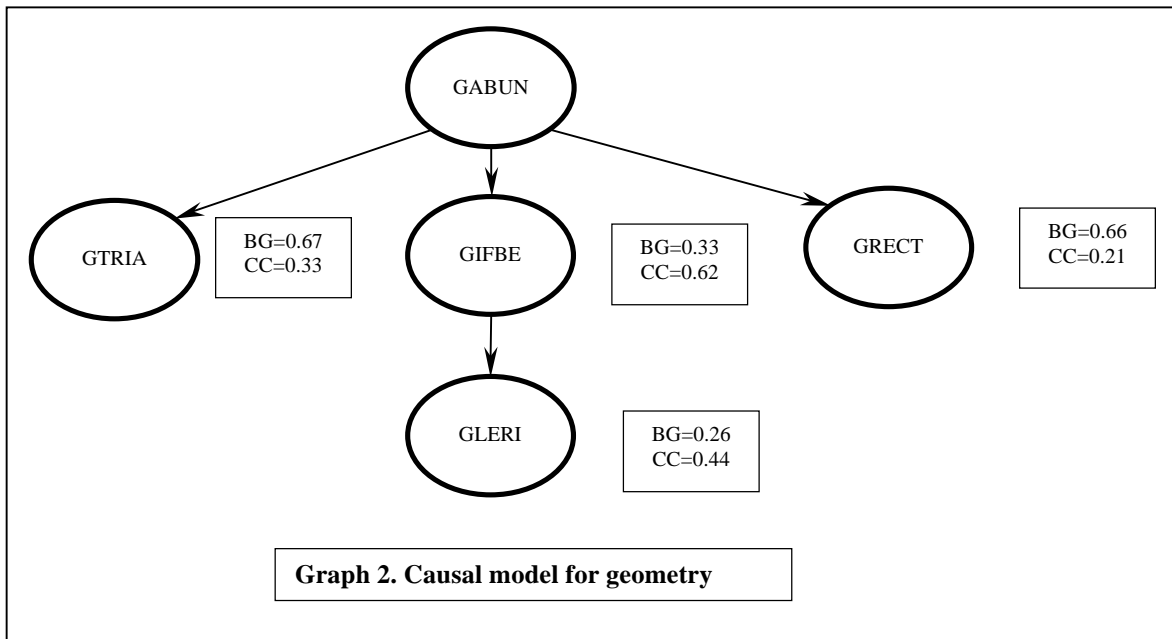
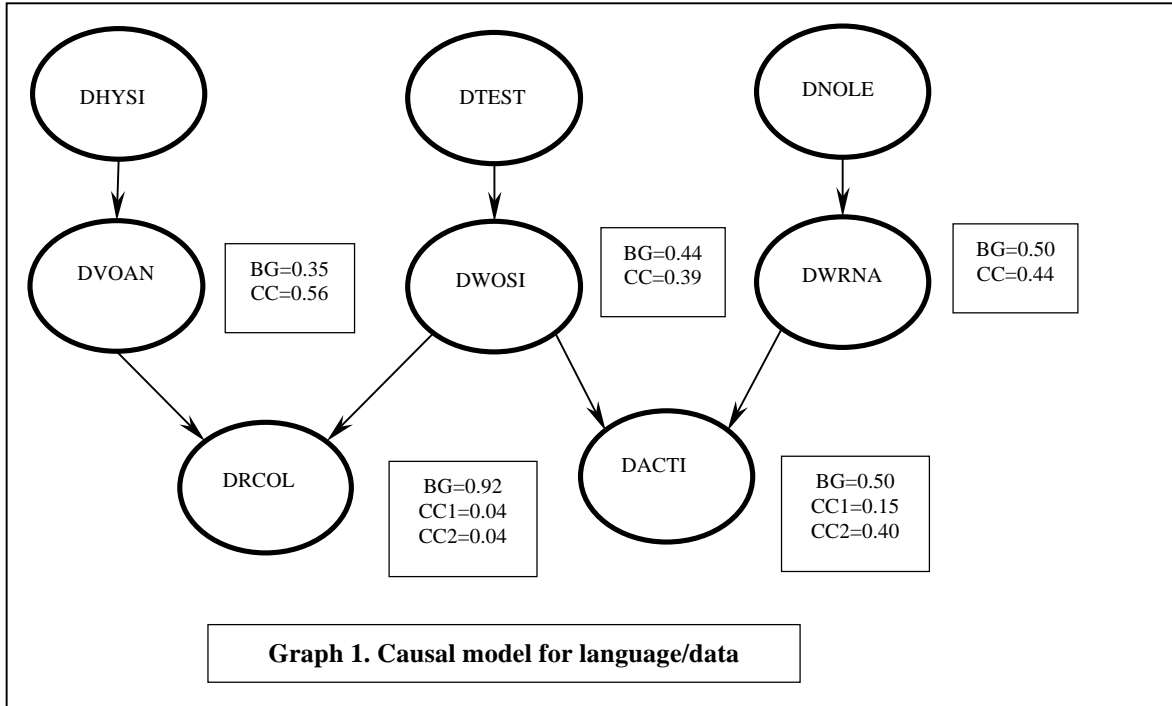
In the second step (Peartl, J. 2000, Pellet, J.P. & Elisseff, A. 2007), causal structure for competence was calculated. Causal structure was directed acyclic graph with directed edges and same vertices as a graph of connections in the first step.

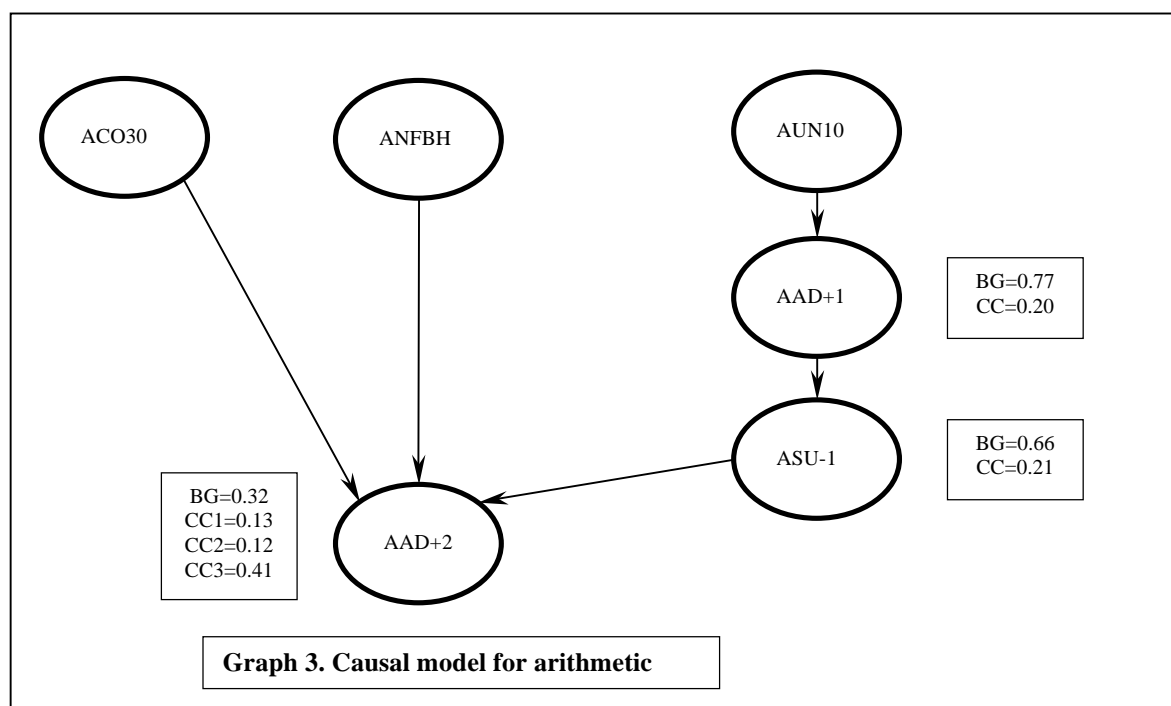
In the third step (Tepeš, B. 2009), causal model for competences was calculated. In the causal model, every directed edge is a causal connection connecting cause and effect of the cause. Cause is the beginning variable and effect is the second variable on directed edge. Intensity of cause was determined with coefficients in multiple regression formula. If measuring variable i is a cause, and measuring variable j effect, then multiple

regression formula connecting cause and effect is $j = BG + CC \cdot i$. Coefficient BG means background competences, and coefficient CC means causal competence of cause i to j . If two measuring variables i and j are causes, and measuring variable k effect, then multiple regression formula is $k = BG + CC1 \cdot i + CC2 \cdot j$ with same interpretation of coefficients.

Results: Causal Models For Mathematical Competences

Results can be represented in tree causal models in Graph 4, Graph 5, and Graph 6.





Discussion

From the graph of the causal model for language/data competence, one can see three measuring variables which are causes: hyphenation into syllables (DHYSY), telling the stories (DTEST) and distinguishing numbers and letters (DNULE). All causal competences or the coefficients of causal competence are 0.39 – 0.56. The only small causal competences are when effect is colour recognition (RECO). Colour recognition (RECO) has great previous knowledge competence of 0.92.

From the graph of causal model for geometry, one can see only one cause relation above and under (GABUN). From this cause there is one cause line for relations and two cause lines for recognizing triangle (GTRIA) and recognising rectangle (GRECT). From this model for geometry, one can see most difficult relation left – right (GLERI), because the task is connected with the part of one's body.

From the graph of causal model for arithmetic, there are three causes: counting to 30 (ACO30), knowing the number of fingers on both hands (ANFBH) and understanding the numbers to 10 (AUN10). Also, one can observe cause line of arithmetic operations. Final effect is adding +2 (AAD+2) with small background competence 0.32 and grate causal competence from cause subtracting – 1 (ASU–1) of 0.41.

For the purpose of further research, it is necessary to increase statistical set or the number of children included. Test materials must be standardized and must allow for higher gradation of results. The study should include more measuring variables in data competence (collecting data, measuring and information technology) and geometry competence (lines, planes and simple bodies). New research in mathematical teaching and learning has to be included in the research (Sharma M. C. 2012.).

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The Formation of New Professional Career Model in Modern Russian Society

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Abstract

Transformation processes in modern Russian society changed whole situation in education, work and profession. After several sociological researches of university graduates' professional career strategies since 1995 we have found the transformation of their professional career model. In previous 'linear' career model which has taken shape in a soviet society an individual have to transfer gradually from profession choice through professional education and to career realization according to his vocational training. Since 90th of the 20th century in a Russian society taken shape a new 'non-linear' professional career model. In this model we can't distinguish any successive steps, but a complex interference of educational, professional and career trajectories. Main factors that driven to such model shift were: an abrupt transition from the system of obligatory job placement to the regulation of employment by labor market, occurrence of the fee-paying education and educational services, growth of the social differentiation and instability in hierarchy of professions in Russia. Such institutional and structural transformations are in a close touch with social transformations on the individual level like occurrence of new professional career strategies from 1990th to 2000th . The main feature of such strategies is their 'flexibility' – ability to the abrupt and sudden change of the professional activity. Several researches revealed essential social problem during realization of the 'flexible' career strategies by university graduates' which is risk of stable professional trajectory loss and reduction of opportunity to gain professional identity by individuals. On this background young Russians feels themselves frustrated and being unclaimed as personalities.

Keywords.

Introduction

Since the 90th of 20th century, sociologists interested in an urgent aspect of social changes – global changes of modern societies in the phase of growing uncertainty. (Bauman, 1998), (Giddens, 2004), (Kravchenko, 2010). In our opinion, the particular characteristic of Russian society is not only growth of uncertainty leading by the raising speed of social changes, but abrupt transition from the society of sharp certainty type, to the open and unbalanced society. One of the consequences of such transition is a change of material significance to the Russian society status in the labour, educational and professional spheres.

Theory

After several sociological researches of university graduates' professional career strategies since 1995, we have found the transformation of their professional career model.

Until 90th of 20th century, in a Russian society dominated a 'linear' career model. According to this model, an individual have to transfer gradually from profession choice through professional education and to career realization according to his vocational training.

The factors that formed the basis of this model are:

First, an employment of professionals in every level of an education guaranteed by the obligatory job placement for graduates of every educational institution. Such approach created conditions for the employment guaranteed by a state, but reduced the amount of abilities for the free choice of employment sphere and place. It conditioned the univariant career development within the limits of received professional education.

Second, such a firm social-professional structure and a low scale social differentiation together creates a stable hierarchy of professions in the society. The main criterions of professional prestige were the matter of work (mental or manual) and its complicity (demanded level of training). The payment, totally regulated by a state, and virtually it does not work as a criterion for the differentiation. Such conditions created unpredictable

situation for profession choice in a way of future social status and career abilities, also they exclude the situation of secondary employment and development of the “parallel” career trajectories.

Third, a free education on any level guaranteed it affordability without dependence on family resources; also, it limited the abilities for professional trajectory change. An education and its quality was not concerned as a resource to raise chances in career development.

Fourth, an effect of this complex of conditions depends on particular individual behavior. Within this model rigid professional career strategies dominated, with a tendency to plan professional trajectory in the way of chosen profession and gained vocational training. As for professional education, it regarded as gained ‘once and for always’.

Transformation processes at the turn of the centuries driven to the new ‘non-linear’ professional career model. In this model, we cannot distinguish any successive steps, but a complex interference of educational, professional and career trajectories.

One of the main factors that driven to such model shift on the institutional-structural level was an abrupt transition from the system of the obligatory job placement to the regulation of the employment by the labor market.

A cancellation of the obligatory job placement in 1990th and shaping of the labor market, from one side, widen individuals’ possibilities in developing their professional careers: either they find themselves freed to choose after, or during the vocational training between organizations providing different working conditions, also they gained an opportunity to retire from the primary profession choice.

On the other side, the professional choice in labor market conditions put them in the situation of uncertainty, instability of future employment. These changes recorded in the results of sociological researches on university graduates: since 1990th, we can see a decrease in a share of graduates, which employed according to the specialty gained in a university.

According to our data, among the young professionals, gained their specialty and entered the labor market from 1997 to 2001 the share of employed according to their specialty a little larger than 60% graduates. An abrupt transition from the system of the obligatory job placement to the uncertainty of the labor market driven to the drift of professional training and career realization stages. It is almost impossible to build up a clear chain of stages – periods of the professional training and the career realization can rotate and interfere.

The processes of income differentiation, a raise of new professional groups, an old professional groups’ status change driven to the change of the professions prestige characteristics as the most valuable regulation for future profession choice. The hierarchy of professions prestige gain unstable and inconsistent characteristic. Individuals fall into marginal situation of professional self-determination: a profession has been chosen and has been received according to old, soviet hierarchy of professional prestige (an engineer, a doctor, a teacher), but professional career must develop according to new, constantly changing hierarchy (a manager, a financier, a lawyer). This process connected to loss of social professional status of many professional groups in Russia, and as a consequence to loss of professional identity. (Popova, 2013)

These institutional and structural changes connected to social transformations on the individual level – the rise of new professional career strategies types in 1990th – 2000th.

Methods and Procedures

The analysis of professional career strategies in a modern Russian society based on the results of non-formalized interview with graduates of Yekaterinburg universities graduates with a work experience from 1 to 5 years after been graduating from 2002 to 2010 years.

Results

According to interview results, we build a typology of professional career strategies. Base of this typology formed by several urgent factors, differs university graduates by: the attachment to specialty chosen, the orientation to a profession development, the level of individual independence in developing professional career. We got 4 types of professional strategies: 1) ‘potential professionals’; 2) ‘mobile careerists’; 3) ‘constantly occupied’; 4) ‘undetermined’ or ‘deprofessionalized’
‘Potential professionals’ very committed to their profession, work or business. Their profession is comparable with the aim in life. First of all, ‘potential professionals’ have a sufficiently early choice of professional development field: “as I remember myself I dreamed to become a driver, maybe it's partly influenced to my choice of the future profession” (electrical engineer). Choosing the career after graduation, they already have a solid value-orienting foundation. On their choice of career was influenced by parents, relatives, friends, elders,

but not in the way of advice or guidance, and as samples for imitation: «Because my grandfather, mother, aunt, the sister are teachers in three generations, and my grandmother was a doctor, graduated from Leningrad Medical Academy, and I decided to go into her footsteps» (children's doctor-expert in resuscitation). Despite the influence parents, older friends, family, the choice of the profession is carried out by them independently, thoughtfully and conscientiously. The main and most valuable features of the respondents of this type are their perception of the profession and the inability to imagine themselves outside of profession. Such evaluations their profession like “it's mine”, “my destiny”, “my business” is typical for “Potential professionals”. They describe their daily work very detailed, colorful and interested. They talk about their responsibilities and achievements in detail. The career does not include in their basic value orientation: “Well, I guess I definitely can't answer do I have a career or not doing. Rather, I am simply doing the thing I like, I try to work as much as possible, and a career is done by itself” (economist).

For **‘mobile careerists’** are characterized by frequent change of the fields of professional activity, transitions between organizations, change of job places. They find their “new” calling in the new activities, and achieve essential successes in the new occupation. They are all happy with this “regime” career experience, they have satisfaction from mobility opportunities. Unlike the previous group, it is more typical for the “mobile careerist” of focusing on the “profession for himself” (what they can get from the profession for myself?), not the “profession for other” (that I could give the people mastered the profession?). When choosing a university the prestige and quality of education are very important for them: “Well, Ural State University is a very large school of higher education in our region and in our city, a very good education there is given, and therefore chose” (historian, works as a Manager of public relations). The «mobile careerists» have employment in student's years, but this work is usually not associated with profession obtained at the University. It is significant as the beginning of the working career for the respondents. In comparison with other types the respondents in this group are looking for work more independently. The new area of work for them gradually becomes "their", interesting and meaningful. The respondents try not to forget, but to use in his new career the first professional experience obtained earlier and his professional education (as defined career capital). A distinctive feature of this group is the aspiration of its participants to go upstairs to make a career, to develop. The professional plans of “mobile careerists” sufficiently clear and certain associated **‘Constantly occupied’** found a job and continue to work within the specialty from the University. During his professional career, they are consistently working on the same place. In general, satisfied with their work, they consider it's interesting, however, their desire to make a career, to advance in their profession is poorly expressed. Their professional choice is adjective, it is made under the influence or under the direct indication of the parents. The respondents of this type very often use blat, social capital, personal communication: “my parents told me that I need to get higher education is no difference in what Institute, the opportunity came to enter the Mining Institute, using blat. There and did” (mining engineer). They use relatives not only to enter university, but also to get a job. Strategy of avoidance difficulties is projected onto career, here is a typical description of their work: “... the work is not complicated and it is now clear that we are here excess. There is lot of staff, but little a work” (state and municipal administration). The participants of this group say little about the content of their work and find it difficult to tell about their achievements. There is practically no professional growth, promotion, getting second education, courses in the plans of the respondents of this type. One of their key words is «stability». They quite often say about money, but money is for them, first of all, a stable income, not very big, but guaranteed.

‘Undecided’ are characterized by weak orientation on the profession obtained at the university, and lack of desire to make a career, to succeed in the profession. Their professional trajectory is unstable, they have changed a lot of job places and organizations. They don't interest in the profession obtained at the University, they only need a diploma. Current employment is not associated with a university specialty, and sometimes does not require at all higher education. A large part of their career path is fixed in such position as “assistant”, “secretary”, etc. No one sphere of activity is interested in seriously and permanently. The strategy of this type is characteristic of a random motivation in the professional choice and university choice, some of them even find it difficult to articulate their motives: “had to study somewhere, and therefore...” (mechanical engineer, works as a guard). Attitude to his present work has the imprint of temporality, carelessness: “But I understand that this is a temporary job, just a period. I'm not trying to work here seriously” (engineer, works as an administrator dance studio). They usually expected serious and real job in the future, but does not take any real steps to obtain it.

Conclusion

Thus, part of examined strategies and above all the strategy of ‘constantly occupied’ complies with the old linear career model. Among the new strategies connected to the formation of non-linear career model with often and abrupt changes of professional trajectories direction, we mark strategies of ‘mobile careerists’ and

'deprofessionalized'. The main feature of such strategies is their 'flexibility' – ability to the abrupt and sudden change of the professional activity. However, if the strategy of 'mobile careerists' is very successful, also in objective (professional gain) and in subjective way (self-esteem in profession, satisfaction), than 'deprofessionalized' strategy fool of problems. Our researches revealed a problem when university graduates realizes such 'flexible' career strategies which is the risk of professional trajectory stability loss and decrease of ability to obtain the professional identity by individuals.

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Adoption of Information and Communications Technology: An Evidence of Teacher Education Institutions in Davao City

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Abstract

This dissertation investigated the rate of ICT adoption of Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in Davao City. Specifically this research was conducted in order to determine the status of ICT institutional factors and the status of ICT adoption of TEIs in Davao City, to determine the behavior and reasons of teachers in adopting ICT and to identify the factors that best affect the rate of adoption.

The study used a questionnaire adapted from Becta School and a self survey assessment tool to gauge the ICT mark threshold of the different schools. A Contingent Valuation Method was used to determine the behavior of teachers in adopting ICT and Probit model in order to determine the factors that affect the rate of ICT adoption. In the findings of the study, the factors that affect the rate of adoption are the years in using ICT, educational background and accessibility to teachers.

Keywords.

Introduction

The momentum of the technological revolution creates rapid and disruptive changes in the way in which people live, work, learn and play. As the pace of technological advance shows no sign of slowing, the challenge is in learning to adapt to changes and to prepare people to work with new technologies competently and confidently. (Future Trends in Technology and Learning)

All of the ten countries in Asia such as Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Laos, Sri Lanka, Thailand, Vietnam, Philippines, Malaysia and China have national policy on ICT. While for the educational technology standards for teachers only China was able to finish it, Philippines and Malaysia are on the process of making it happen (Situational Analysis of TEIs on ICT Integration).

As in most other areas of modern life, computers and technology have had an important impact on higher education. For more than four decades, information technology has played an important role in the structure of schools and universities (Sherry & Gibson, 2002) and information technologies are widely available on university campuses. For example, approximately three-fourths of higher education institutions provide technology-based course management tools to their faculty (The Campus Computing Project, 2001). With technology more available on campuses, the integration of technology into teaching and learning in higher education has become more and more crucial since technology has the potential to reinforce the core of teaching and learning (Green & Gilbert, 1995). In fact, "if higher education wants to survive in the expansion of technology, then it must be prepared and must prepare its faculty to implement the new technologies within their classrooms" (Hagenson, 2001, p. 2).

Everybody is talking about technology integration, investing so much on it but few practicing teachers profess to know exactly how to proceed. The fact is that real integration requires change However, what seems to be lacking is a model that teachers can use to guide them through the necessary changes they will need to make to be successful in integrating new technology into their classroom. (Johnson & Liu, 2000 p.4)

In the Philippines, the move for K to12 paradigm implementation created a big leap in the change of our educational system. As what the Secretary of Education Armin A. Luistro said in his speech during the 4th National Convention of the Centers of Excellence, Centers of Development, Centers of Training and Association of Local Colleges and Universities last April 11-12, 2011 at Bataan, "If our TEIs are not yet teaching in a revolutionary pedagogy using Information Technology as a backbone in teaching and learning, then there is no future". The way to the future is Information Technology and the backbone of education in the future is Information Technology.

The change in the Teacher Education Curriculum in 2005 has tremendously effect in all Teacher Education Institutions. The thrust of the educational system includes the integration of technology in the curriculum with the inclusion of Educational Technology courses such as Educational Technology 1 and 2. But for many, the

focus of these courses is typically on technology skills and applications rather than the integration of technology across the curriculum (Smith, 2001). This has been referred to by Pelgrum and Law (2003) as the learning about ICT phase.

Many Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) have also progressed to the learning with ICT phase, whereby teacher educators are using their computer capabilities to enhance instruction without necessarily changing beliefs about the approach and methods for teaching and learning. The third phase, learning through ICT is not commonly practiced in pre-service teacher education. In this phase, ICT is integrated completely as an essential tool in the curriculum (Pelgrum & Law, 2003)

Moving to this level of integration, where technology infiltrates all aspects of the teacher education curriculum is perceived as out of reach for a large proportion of TEIs. Many of their teacher educators do not have sufficient skills or knowledge to model the use of technology in their classes. Despite funding for the transformation of schools through technology, the classroom was still driven by lectures, textbook, and passive learning (Kromhout & Butzin, 1993.) Opportunity to use technology across a range of both pre-service and in-service classes are further restricted in different schools where a more traditional teacher education and school curriculum is delivered with its focus on lecture style, rote learning and exam based result (Smith 2001).

Very few teachers are integrating technology into their classes due to the different problems such as availability of resources, training, access and administration support. It is in this premise that the researcher would like to find out the threshold level and the factors that may affect in the TEI's adoption of ICT.

This study seeks to identify the factors that affect the rate of adoption of Information and Communications Technology in the Teacher Education Institutions in Davao City.

Specifically it sought to answer the following specific questions:

- 1) What is the demographic profile of the respondents in terms of:
 - a. Sex
 - b. Age
 - c. Length of service in teaching
 - d. Number of years using ICT
 - e. Number of ICT trainings attended
 - f. Subject taught
 - g. Educational Background
- 2) What is the status of ICT Institutional Factors in terms of:
 - a. resources
 - b. connectivity
 - c. policies
 - d. Accessibility to teachers
 - e. Accessibility to students
 - f. support
 - g. training
- 3) What is the status of ICT adoption of Teacher Education Institutions in Davao City?
- 4) What is the behavior of teachers and the reasons in adopting ICT for instruction using the contingent valuation model?
- 5) What are the factors that significantly affect the rate of adoption of ICT?

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine and to give a picture of the status of ICT adoption of TEIs in Davao City and to identify the different factors that may affect the rate of adoption.

This study hopes to offer more arguments in the growing body of knowledge concerning ICT in education. Also, this hopes to provide contribution for TEIs strategic ICT plan, and policy implication for school adoption and assessment of ICT with more contextualized application and implementation.

Methods Used

A causal research design using contingent valuation method is used in this study. Causal research design attempts to explain the relationship between two variables (if A causes B to occur). Causal Research explores the effect of one thing on another and more specifically, the effect of one variable on another. This research design is used to measure what impact a specific change will have on existing norms which is the status of adoption and allows researcher to predict hypothetical scenarios upon which an institution will base its technology integration plan.

Contingent valuation method (CVM) was used which involves directly asking people in a survey how much they would be willing to pay for specific services or how much compensation they are willing to accept to give up specific goods and services (Pearce and Turner, 1993). This method is referred to as a “stated preference method” because people are asked directly to state their values, rather than infer values. Dichotomous choice was used to elicit the willingness to pay/willingness to accept. The possible range of values for the maximum WTP (or minimum WTP) of individuals was pre-set. This is to gauge the willingness to pay (WTP) of the teachers for ICT. Estimation of WTP typically involves asking prospective respondents whether or not they would be willing to pay at various hypothetical prices.

The sources of data are primarily from the survey questionnaires given to the respondents in order to determine the demographic profile of the respondents such as sex, age, length of service, number of years using ICT, number of ICT trainings attended, educational background and subjects taught. The institutional factors of the Teacher Education Institutions with the following indicators: resources, connectivity, policies, accessibility of students and teachers, training, and support are also included in the survey questionnaire.

The general attitude and behavior of teachers and the willingness to pay are also gathered through the third part of the questionnaire using a likert scale and the contingent valuation questionnaire respectively. The status of technology adoption is determine through the part four of the survey questionnaire using rubric for ICT mark threshold which is adapted from Becta school.

The respondents were the teachers teaching in the identified teacher Education Institutions in Davao City. These teachers are handing professional, core and major subjects and teaching in a full time basis. There are 147 teachers from 21 TEIs comprising from private universities and state university respectively.

Results

For the socio-demographic profile of the respondents, majority of the ICT adopters and non-adopters are female and most of them ages between 31-40 years old. Adopters are teaching already from one to ten years in the Teacher Education Institutions. For the number of years using ICT majority falls between 0-5 years. It was found out that most of the teachers were not able to attend even a single training on ICT and they are usually teaching non-ICT related courses. A higher percentage of adopters are with MA/MS degree.

The second focus of this study is on the institutional factors in which constitute the profile of TEIs with 47.6% are 1:1 ratio of computer to student and for the speed of internet connection 32.7% has a speed of 256 kbps. The institutional factors such as resources turned out to be given emphasis of the TEIs since 90.5% have funds allocation for the maintenance and support of technology. However most of the TEIs don't have a strong or fast internet connection or wireless connection though most of the schools are providing resource center where teachers can use computers and can be connected to internet. Teacher's accessibility is very evident to TEIs as well. Even students have access to computer laboratories especially if there is prior arrangement by teachers.

TEIs are very weak on policy when it comes to ICT, only 15.6% and 25.2% consider ICT test for teacher's regularization and promotion respectively. When it comes to support such as technical and administrative, majority of TEIs are giving support such as access to equipment for instructional purposes, the booking of computer laboratories and class schedule to accommodate teachers in the use of it and the provision of technicians who are available in the case teachers need them. In the case of training, most of the teachers do not

receive trainings specifically on advanced course in the use of the internet such as creating website, developing homepage or video conferencing. Most of the teachers in the TEIs of Davao City are not exposed to latest development and trend on ICT.

The third part of this study is about the status of ICT adoption using the questionnaire on identifying the threshold level and the results show that in all the indicators for ICT adoption the TEIs turned out to have a low capacity which means below the international standard threshold of 2.0. It implies that TEIs in Davao City are still on the process of starting to adopt ICT in education. Although from the survey the focus of adoption is for the teaching and the learning process with the highest mean of 2.8503 compared to other indicators but still it is interpreted as low capacity. The lowest mean result 3.0935 is on resources since the environment for online learning is not very evident in most TEIs.

Teachers exhibit also a positive behavior towards ICT since the resulted mean are 3.77 and 3.78 respectively focusing on proper use and maintenance of equipment so that the next batch of students may still benefit through their learning experience and process in the classroom. However, most of the teachers are not open to the idea of paying something for the equipment and its maintenance.

Under contingent valuation result it was found out that 92.5% of the teachers are adopters of ICT and only 7.5% are non-adopters. Schools are usually the source of ICT for them comprising 37.4% and 18.4% are using ICT on their own. The number of hours spend for computers every month ranges from 1 – 420 hours and most of the teachers spend one to fifty (50) hours every month which is 41.5%. Teachers are spending from Php 80.00 to as much as Php 8,000.00 per month for ICT and the highest percentage of 15.6% amounting to Php 1,000.00 which means that most of the teachers are spending at least Php 1,000.00 every month for ICT alone. Thus, 74.8% of the teachers are willing to pay for ICT in the amount of Php 100.00 every month. They have the reasons why they are willing to pay because they believe that it's one way of helping prolong the life span of ICT equipment so in the future there are still many students who can benefit from them. They are in favor of collecting it through salary deduction comprising 74% while others prefer to have it on a voluntary basis.

Out of 147 respondents, 35 or 23.8% of them are not willing to pay due to the reason that they believe it's the sole responsibility of the school to allocate funds for the budget of ICT for teachers use and 28.57% do not want to pay however are willing to do so but they have limited resources. There are also 108 or 73.5% who are willing to volunteer to help in the maintenance of ICT facilities.

The probit analysis resulted to the following significant factors such as years in using ICT which is positively related; educational background exhibits a negative result wherein an increase in the years of educational attainment there will be a decrease in the probability of adoption; and the last significant factor is the accessibility to teachers with a positive sign indicating that if teachers are given access the higher is the possibility of ICT adoption. All estimates are based on the self-assessment survey by Becta School on the international ICT mark threshold set at 2.0.

Conclusion

This study focused on the rate of technology adoption of the TEIs in Davao City. The ICT mark threshold of Becta School used by international schools as a self-survey in determining ICT mark whether below or above the threshold was used as a dependent variable. The threshold level is equivalent to 2.0 which means that the result is greater than 2.0 it is below the threshold level and if less than 2.0 it is considered as above the threshold level and represents the rate of adoption of teachers and TEIs as a whole, used throughout the data analysis.

Results indicated that the three factors namely sex, number of years in using ICT and accessibility to teachers are the significant factors that affect the rate of adoption of ICT with the estimates of parameters using tobit analysis. The probit analysis method for the factors affecting the rate of ICT adoption resulted to also three significant factors such as years in using ICT which is positively related meaning, the increase in the number of years in using ICT to increase also in the rate of adoption. The educational background with a negative sign connotes that the higher the educational background the decrease in the rate of adoption which implies that most of the teachers who are PhD and EdD degree holders are lagging already in the adoption which is also in consonance with the result of age variable, the older the teacher the lower is the rate of adoption. The third one is the accessibility to teachers, if the TEIs shall provide teachers with facilities and opportunities on the accessibility of technology, the rate of adoption will increase.

The CVM was used also to determine the willingness to pay of the teachers, taken into consideration that the WTP will opt for the adoption of technology. The teacher adopters' valuation of ICT has an average amount of Php 129.85, and this is the amount they are willing to pay every month for the adoption of ICT.

Taken together, these findings suggest the importance of creating support networks for teachers as well as giving opportunities for faculty development through continuous training and access to technology.

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Acquisition of English Articles by Croatian Primary School Students in Early EFL

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Abstract

The paper deals with the analysis of the transcribed recordings of spontaneous classroom interaction in five classes of primary school students in early EFL in Croatia. The study was conducted within the framework of a large research project supported by the Croatian Ministry of Science, Education and Sport. The students involved in this study started learning English at the very beginning of their education. The recordings were taken during three consecutive years when the students were at the end of grade one, two and three. Although the students overall language development showed clear progress, the development of the correct use of definite and indefinite article remained a very variable one. There is progress in the sense that throughout the years the use of both types of article increases, but the incorrect usage is still very frequent. The study showed a clear interdependence between lexis and grammar at the very beginning of EFL (learning English as a foreign language).

Keywords.

Introduction

L2 learners of English often have difficulty in mastering the proper use of indefinite and definite articles especially when their L1 lacks articles (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Most of the work on the acquisition of the English articles focused on adult students/learners (Trenkić 2002, 2008, Zergollern-Miletić 2008). There's been no previous longitudinal research on the acquisition of the English articles by the Croatian primary school students, so there's been a need to examine this process. We wanted to explore the development of the interlanguage (Selinker, 1972) of primary school students over the period of three successive years to the special emphasis on the acquisition of the English definite and indefinite articles.

Background

In this part, we will briefly discuss the term interlanguage, since at the very beginning of learning any foreign language students in their oral production are likely to use their mother tongue more than the target language. The semantics of definiteness/indefiniteness will be discussed as well and the previous research of articles in L2 acquisition (Ionin, Zergollern-Miletić, Trenkić).

Interlanguage

The term interlanguage was first introduced into the study of SLA by Larry Selinker (1972, 1992), to describe a language between two systems that exists and develops from L1 trying to approach the target language (TL). Since this term describes the language with the elements of both languages, sometimes it is called compromise system (Filipović, 1972). The main characteristics of this notion are seen through its simplification, variability, dynamism and especially crosslinguistic influence, or language transfer (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2008), where we mostly deal with positive and negative language transfer. But, language transfer can occur not only from L1 to an L2 (forward transfer) but also vice versa, i.e. from L2 to an L1 (backward or reverse transfer) or even from L2 to an L3 (lateral transfer). In this sense of language transfer or crosslinguistic influence there is also bidirectional transfer (Medved Krajnović, 2010) i.e. interaction of two languages known by the learner.

Crucial components of the language acquisition process include input, intake, output and feedback. Input refers to what is available to the learner in the learning process, while intake refers to what is actually "taken in" by the learner. Feedback provides learners the information about their utterances and gives chances to focus on

their production or comprehension. In this study we will mostly deal with the notion of output which was introduced by Swain (1985) as “comprehensible” or “pushed” output in which learners are pushed in their production as a necessary part of learning process.

On definiteness/indefiniteness

Linguistic category such as definiteness/indefiniteness is often seen as a linguistic universal (Chomsky, 2000, Silić, 2000), i.e. universal feature in learners’ linguistic knowledge as absolute universal that exists in every human language. What is different is the way how this category is expressed in certain languages, either by linguistic patterns such as articles, or some other elements such as determiners. The lack of articles in learners’ L1 presupposed constrains and difficulties on article choice in L2 acquisition. Since Croatian lacks an article system it is unlikely that L1 transfer affects the acquisition of the English articles by Croatian learners. It provides to examine the role of UG approach (Chomsky, 2000) in the acquisition of this category as well as the role of Fluctuation Hypothesis (Ionin, 2008) in the acquisition of the English articles.

In Standard English grammars (Eastwood, 2005) articles are found with other determiners as closed system which express definiteness/indefiniteness, where definite article indicates that the referent is already shared between the speaker and hearer (Robertson, 2000) or they share knowledge of the same. When the situation of this is visible, demonstrative pronouns can be used instead of definite article and is explained by Hawkins’ location theory (1978). Definite article sometimes expresses uniqueness (Hawkins, Heim, 1991) of a referent where demonstrative pronouns can’t be used instead of article. The indefinite article *a* marks or signals that new information is introduced in a discourse set as first mentioned. Sometimes indefinite pronouns (*any, some*) can be used in such situations or even number one instead indefinite article. This often happens when learners’ L1 lacks article system (for example in the present study). If there is no shared knowledge (Yule, 1998) between the speaker and hearer, or shared previous discourse set (Hawkins, 1978), definite article is used. Thus, article choices depend on the notion of definiteness that Ionin (2004) describes as a discourse-related semantic feature related to the knowledge state of the speaker and hearer while the notion of specificity refers to the knowledge known only to the speaker (writer). For example: *I want to talk to **the** owner of this store, whoever that is; I want to talk to **the** owner of this store, she is my neighbour.* The second example implies that information is known and important only to the speaker. Definiteness and specificity are the notions important for the Article Choice Parameter (Ionin, 2004, 2007) by which the author explains the variability in L2 learners’ production of articles that leads to the Fluctuation Hypothesis. Under this hypothesis L2 learners are predicted to fluctuate between the two settings of the Article Choice Parameter until the input leads them to the right option.

Previous research of articles in L2 acquisition

The research results made by Ionin et al. (2006) showed that fluctuation overrides language transfer with the article-less L1 learners (Russian), while transfer overrides fluctuation with article L1 learners (Spanish) where they transferred article semantics from their L1 to their L2. In our study we assume that fluctuation will override transfer since Croatian lacks article system. Zergollern-Miletić (2008) conducted a study on native speakers of Croatian/advanced L2 speakers of English with the purpose of examining their perception of definiteness/indefiniteness in English and Croatian. The research results showed wrong use of articles with abstract nouns and omission of articles when noun is defined by an adjective as well as article substitution (definite for indefinite and vice versa). The author concluded that learners have to develop awareness of the existence of definiteness/indefiniteness in their first language, despite the lack of articles. In Trenkić (2002) L2 learners (Serbian) were found to supply the definite article in place of the indefinite article more often with concrete noun phrase referring to concepts with a relatively constant form (e.g. *a letter*), than with abstract noun phrases referring to concepts which can take many different forms (e.g. *a disaster*). Trenkić (2007, 2009) questions the notion of definiteness and asks why the majority of the world’s languages can do without formal marking of this concept through articles. The author concerns this term as identification of the referent in a discourse. A discourse referent is definite if the speaker intends to refer to it, and expects the referent to be uniquely identifiable to the hearer (e.g. *Pass me the black mug please*). When the existence and uniqueness are not met, the referent is indefinite (e.g. *Pass me a white mug please*). In Ionin, Ko&Wexler’s (2004) study L2 learners inappropriately used the definite article in indefinite contexts like *a girl from my class* where the referent is identified by the speaker, than when the speaker denies knowledge of the referent. Ogawa (2008) conducted a study on article-less L1 learners (Japanese) with the idea that the difficulty of article acquisition lies in nominal countability as well as in definiteness and specificity (Hawkins, 2001). It was discovered that advanced EFL learners had difficulty in recognizing nominal countability. What was unsolved in this study the

author considered important in the proper use of articles was what kind of context determines countability of abstract nouns, i.e. if those nouns are “carrier” or “shell” (e.g. *fear*, or *the fear of contracting AIDS*). The context determines the article as well as the form of a noun (abstract noun becomes countable).

Research – Aim and Methodology

Aim of the study

The aim of our research was to analyse the process of article acquisition in the primary school EFL learners with a goal of disentangling the factors which might influence that process. The study was conducted longitudinally within the framework of a large research project (*Early acquisition of English as a foreign language: the analysis of the learner’s interlanguage*) supported by the Croatian Ministry of Science, Education and Sport. Our initial hypotheses in this research are:

- H1 – the use of indefinite (*a, an*) is more frequent than the use of definite (*the*) article in early EFL learners
- H2 - the correct use of L2 article system gradually increases over the years of learning
- H3 – there is a clear interdependence between lexis and grammar at the beginning of EFL learning

Participants

A total of 93 Croatian EFL learners from five primary schools (classes) from different counties were observed over a period of three years. The recordings of spontaneous classroom interaction were taken at the end of the first, second and third grade.

Methods

The recordings taken during three consecutive years when the students were at the end of grade one, two and three were prepared to be analysed by using CLAN (*Computerised Language Analysis* – MacWhinney, 1995, 2008, 2010). The quantitative analysis included number of morphemes, type/token ratio (FREQ), mean length of utterance (MLU) as well as the number of the correct use of definite and indefinite articles. After the recordings were done, they were prepared for the analysis by using CHAT (*Codes for Human Analysis of Transcripts*), which was made for the analysis of child’s oral production as a part of CHILDES (*Child Language Data Exchange System*). For the purpose of this study additional programmes (KWAL, COMBO) were used as well. The quantitative analysis was done using error analysis, i.e. proper/wrong or article omission use.

Research results

As mentioned above the quantitative analysis was performed in CLAN and was focused on gradual development of lexical diversity and syntactic complexity. The results showed an increase in the overall number of morphemes per recording. There is also increase of the MLU (mean length of utterance) as well as in the type/token ratio. We concluded that throughout the years of learning communicative language proficiency systematically increases what was expected since there is a formal exposure of learning over the years. The focus in this study was on the frequency and accuracy of article use in the classroom interaction of primary EFL learners. The analysis of classroom interaction was done among the classes (schools) with the aim of showing the frequency of article use at the end of the first, second and third grades. The following is a comparison of frequency of indefinite article use among the schools over the three years of learning EFL process:

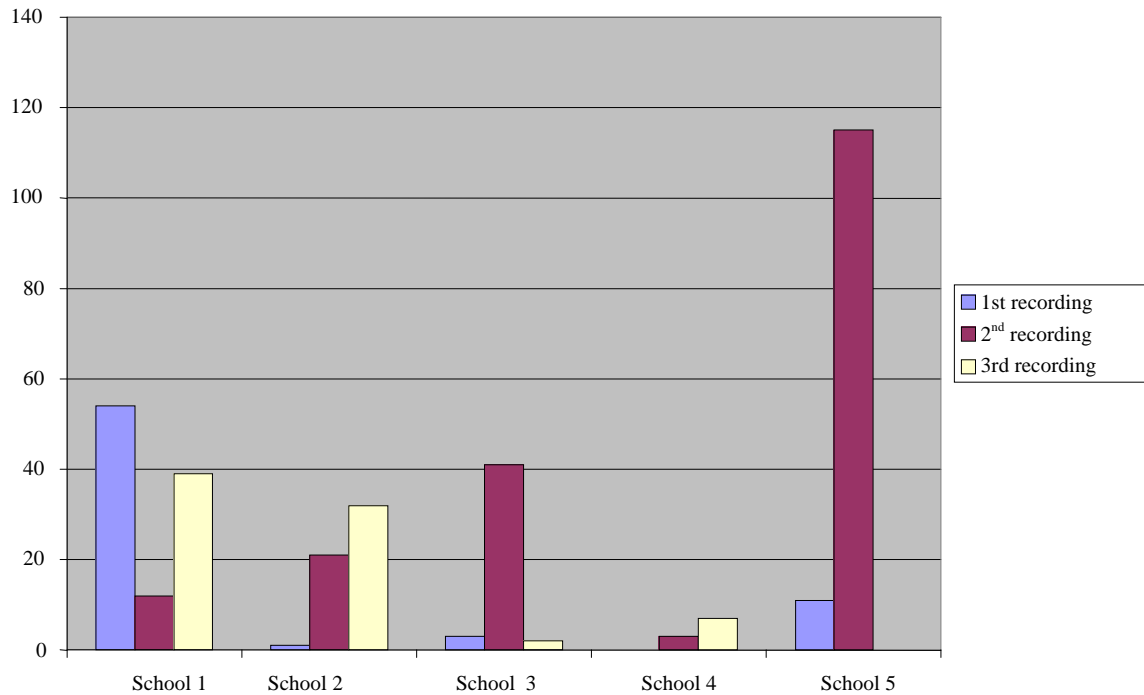


Figure 1: The frequency of indefinite article use in the classroom interaction

As seen above the indefinite article is mostly used in all classes and recordings, except the school 4, first recording. The result is expected since it is the very beginning of EFL learning. The most frequent indefinite article use is in the fifth school (2nd recording). The qualitative analysis showed the reason for such frequency. The pupils often repeated the same utterance (*Have you got **a** pet*). From the above data we conclude that learners use indefinite article in their utterances although the mean length of utterance is relatively short ($M_v=2,714$). But, there is very frequent indefinite article omission, especially in the front of a word (noun) beginning with a vowel sound (**apple*), or if a noun is not familiar to the learners. As pointed at the very beginning of this article there is a clear interdependence between lexis and grammar, especially when learners in their L1 lack article system (Croatian).

The following figure (figure 2) shows the frequency of definite article use among the observed schools (classes) in three recordings:

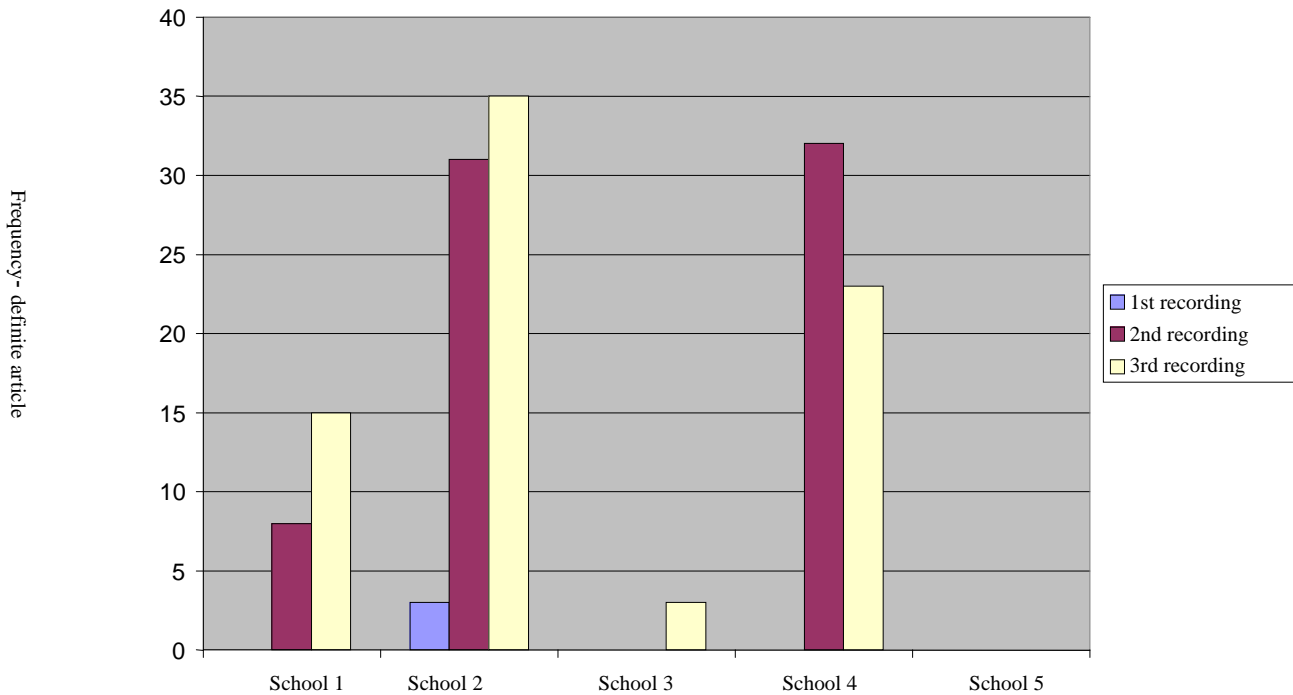


Figure 2: The frequency of definite article use in the classroom interaction

As seen above there are some classes (schools) and recordings (first recordings in all classes, but 2nd) where definite article is not used at all. In comparison to the indefinite article use we conclude that learners use more indefinite than definite article in their utterances. That is due to the fact that the pupils in early EFL are first introduced to the indefinite article (as the results in this study confirmed) and to the definite article in the later phases of learning. So, the data analysis showed more frequent proper use of indefinite than definite article. This can be also explained with more frequent exposure to the former in the classroom context. These data confirm our first and second hypotheses.

The qualitative analysis also showed the correct use of indefinite article in front of familiar nouns. Learners tend to omit indefinite article in front of unfamiliar nouns. We conclude that there is interdependence of lexis and grammar especially at the beginning of EFL. It confirms our third hypothesis. There is also omission of the 'an' form of indefinite article due to very few familiar nouns with vowel beginnings and for young learners a difficult form for pronunciation. The same could be stated for the pronunciation of definite article as well. The qualitative analysis also showed omission of the indefinite article at the beginning of the sentence and correct use of the definite article in the same sentence (e.g. **pencil is on the box*, confirmed also in Trenkić 2002, Jarvis 2002).

Conclusion

The findings demonstrate the problem that Croatian learners of English have in mastering the English articles. The analysis revealed that frequent exposure to both types of articles and frequent repetition of structures including them, increases the correct use of both definite and indefinite articles. However, inconsistency in the use of both types of articles indicates a long and fluctuating process of their acquisition. The analysis also revealed tendency to omit the articles, especially at the beginning stages of learning, probably due to the non-existence of the articles in the participants L1 (Croatian). We finally conclude that there is a need of developing learners' awareness of the existence of the article in English and their semantic and pragmatic role. The study supports the Fluctuation Hypothesis, i.e. students who lack articles in L1, fluctuate between definite and indefinite article use over an extended time period.

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Good Learning Experiences in Accounting

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Abstract

This study explores teaching in accounting. The study takes a qualitative research approach and uses phenomenography as a research method. The data is collected from diaries, interviews and observation material. The analysis is focused on the search for good learning experiences. The study aims at giving insights for accounting educators and administrators designing and realizing higher level studies.

The results reveal that the teacher is an important mediator in learning accounting. The key qualities of the teacher are the teaching style, responsibility and feedback. The student's conception of learning has an influence on the position of the student and the teacher in the learning process. It is also notable that there is a clear difference between absolute learning experiences versus learning experiences in relation to some external reference point like expertise level. It is important for the teacher to be able to support those higher order thinking skills and those learning approaches that are suited for quality learning.

Keywords.

Introduction

One of the current priorities in educational development is to improve the efficiency of the education system. The increasing complexity of businesses has influences on the educational demands in the field of accounting. The same trend can be seen in any education with a vocational emphasis. Changes in globalization, technology, sources of information and businesses' operations place pressure on the accounting profession. According to prior studies (Boyce et al., 2001; Granlund & Lukka, 1997, Järvenpää, 2001; Kovar et al., 2003; Mainela et al., 2005; Nikolai & Wolk, 1997) the skills needed to succeed in accounting are seen to broaden.

Educational institutions are expected to serve the needs of society and business life and businesses are becoming aware of their rights to expect educational institutions to produce them work force suitable for their purposes, and co-operation with educational institutions has given them a channel to express their expectancies. Recent studies (Chia, 2005; Smith, 2004) suggest that educators are supposed to reinforce their awareness of what the business community considers necessary for the potential employees. There are calls (Cullen et al., 2004; Manninen, 1994) for accounting education and research to be more closely related to the demands of accounting practice. Thus, in addition to professional factors, a primary aim of accounting education is to further the development of broad generic skills that are essential components of social competency and enabling skills for learning and thinking. (Boyce et al., 2001; Järvenpää, 2001).

This study aims at developing understanding of what kind of teaching practices produce good learning in accounting. Since educational processes are very complex and since it is very hard to utter explicitly what is better learning, better teaching, better performance or better learning outcomes, the purpose of this study is to find out the core elements of teaching practises producing good learning experiences. Marton and Tsui (2004) define learning process as the process of becoming capable of doing something as a result of having had certain experiences. There is a wide variety of differing approaches to describing the ways in which students learn and study in higher education. The learning research pays attention to personal factors such as motivation, learning styles, personality types, and contextual factors such as curriculum design, course culture and assessment tasks and their relationship to how students choose or avoid particular learning strategies (Arquero Montaña et al., 2004; Ballantine & Larres, 2004; Brightman, 2006; Feldman & Usoff, 2001; Ramsay et al., 2000). Many studies assume that an approach to learning is a student's response to a context (Gul & Hutchinson, 1997; Tempone & Martin, 1999). Since one important aspect of context is the nature of the discipline being studied, this

emphasises the importance of this research being carried out within an accounting education context only. This type of knowledge provides a basis for discussing pedagogy in discipline specific terms.

The formulation of research question assumes that students' experiences are central in exploring what suitable teaching practices are. Students' experiences are the result of the interaction. The idea is to give space for respondents' experience without presuppositions of what the possible answers might be. The research question can be defined as follows:

What kind of teaching practices produce good learning experiences in accounting?

The study is carried out in Finland. The students in this study are all business students of the JAMK University of Applied Sciences located in Jyväskylä. The institution expresses that its educational target aims at developing theoretical knowledge and practical professional competences with interaction with regional economic life, the industry and organizations, which allows students to participate in various cooperation and development projects, in addition to completing practical training periods in authentic environments and workplace situations. The objective of the studies is to educate experts for planning, development, counselling, educational and managerial tasks, as well as for entrepreneurship.

The research method is phenomenography. It is a research approach designed to answer questions about thinking and learning. Phenomenography is concerned with the subjective study of human experience. It focuses on the different ways in which people experience, see, perceive, apprehend, understand and conceptualise various phenomena. These different ways of understanding, or conceptions, are represented in the form of categories of description. A conception is the basic unit of description in phenomenographic research. (Marton, 1994; Marton & Pong, 2005.)

Phenomenography, although it has been widely used in higher education research, has been scarcely used in the studying of accounting education (Lord & Robertson 2006). Most common methods used in accounting education research have been the description of and reflection on teaching, literature review, statistical analysis of data and questionnaires. Qualitative methods have been employed only infrequently. This study uses as a starting point four phenomenographic and one other qualitative study on learning in the accounting context. This study has taken as the starting point one qualitative and four phenomenographic accounting studies: Jackling (2005), Sharma (1997), Lucas (2001), Leveson (2004) and Lord and Robertson (2004).

This article is constructed as follows. After introduction there will be the description of data and research method. Chapter three discusses teaching practises producing good learning experiences from the teacher orientation perspective. Finally, there is a summary of the results with contributions and critical evaluation.

Description of Data, Method and Empirical Analysis

The data for the study was collected from four kinds of sources: diaries in writing, group interviews, actual learning situations in accounting observed and individual interviews. The writing of learning diaries happened in a longer period of time (3-4 months). After the preliminary analysis of the diary data, five group interviews were recorded. There were always three people participating in a group except for one group that consisted of two people, so that the number of interviewed was 14 people in total. What influenced the selection in addition to voluntarism was the fact that the sample in a phenomenographic study should be chosen for heterogeneity rather than for representativeness. This means that phenomenographic research outcomes do not enable generalisation from the sample group to the population represented by the group, because the sample is not representative of the population in the usual sense of the term. (Åkerlind 2005.)

The interviews lasted from half an hour to one hour. First the researcher asked the students to talk about good learning in accounting on the general level basing on their own experiences. The questions were semi structured and they had been formulated on the basis of the findings from issues that were raised in descriptions, or in prior interviews or in prior studies of the same kind. In the course of the interview, the researcher also questioned about new issues that were brought about. The general aim and attitude of the researcher was to avoid all judgment and have an empathic attitude towards the interviewees.

Later, in order to make sure that the saturation had been reached, two observation data sets were added. The first one was a group situation of 12 people who worked in groups of four people solving an accounting problem together. The second one was a classroom situation where the same 12 people were working on accounting problems using a computer. Both observation situations lasted one hour and a half.

This observation data was videotaped and then transcribed, and on the basis of the data, five students observed were asked to be interviewed separately a couple of days later from the observed classroom situations. These individual interviews lasted about half an hour each. Both the observation data and the individual

interviews connected with the observation data were added to the existing data, and once again, all data was reinvestigated in the light of the new material. At this point it became evident that the saturation point in terms of key issues had been reached, because the additional data did not produce any significant or important new elements in the earlier categories of descriptions, but only reinforced the existing ones.

Phenomenography can be classified as empirical study. The researcher is studying the awareness and reflection of the subjects. Phenomenography falls within interpretive research. It aims to describe experience collectively rather than individually and to focus on the differences rather than the similarities in this experience. Conceptions are regarded as being context-dependent and relational. (Leveson 2004; Lucas 2001; Marton 1994.)

The aim of phenomenographic research is to map the variation in ways of experiencing. What is important is the nature of the variation instead of how common or representative an experience is. The researcher must set aside any presuppositions about the nature of the phenomenon. It is also impossible to construct hypotheses or interpretative categories in advance or try to sample the material. Through exploring the different ways of seeing a phenomenon, a fuller understanding is developed. The variation becomes the object of research. Outcomes are represented as different ways of experiencing the phenomenon that include the structural relationships. (Lucas 2001; Tempone & Martin 2003; Åkerlind 2005.)

Individual interviews have been the most used method for collecting data but there are also phenomenographic studies where group interviews, observations, drawings, written responses, historical documents, artefacts and observations have been used as the main source of information. The number of interviewees is usually not very big. The individual is not the unit of analysis because it is possible that the same participant can express more than one way of understanding the phenomenon. (Marton 1994.)

The analysis process is iterative. It usually starts with a search for meaning or variation in meaning followed by a search for structural relationships between meanings. In the early phase, reading through transcripts should be done as with a high degree of openness for different interpretations. Subsequent readings are more focused on particular aspects. However, later readings are still open to new possible interpretations. Data is sorted and resorted, comparisons between the data are done and categories of description and defining relations between the categories are developed. The important point is the search for key qualitative similarities within and differences between the categories. (Åkerlind 2005.)

The first way of reducing the data is to distinguish between what is immediately relevant. This relates to the way of experiencing the phenomenon. The second step is to identify distinct ways of experiencing the phenomenon based on similarities or contrast effect. Then focus is shifted from the relations between the expressions to the relations between the groups. This is done in order to establish the critical attributes of each group and the distinguishing features between the groups. The researcher develops the set of categories of description. Using these categories of description it is possible to characterise the variation in ways of experiencing and understanding a phenomenon. There are logical relations between the categories of description. As they represent different capabilities for conceptualising the phenomenon, a hierarchy can be established. This complex of categories of descriptions is the outcome space. The categories of description and the outcome space are the main results of a phenomenographic study. (Marton 1994.)

The analysis started with a search for meaning or with a search for variation in meaning. At this point, the main purpose was to find out what could possibly emerge from the data. Any predetermined ideas were dropped as much as it is possible to do so and the first reading was done with an open mind without any attempt to foreclose anything. The main point was in identifying similarities and differences in diaries and interview data and the possible relationships between categories as a set rather than individually. Then it was supplemented by a search for structural relationships between these meanings.

The amount of material in one interview was very big. This is why excerpts or utterances that seemed to contain the key aspects that also were present in the larger transcript were selected, while irrelevant or redundant parts of the data were rejected. The number of interviews was restricted for the same reason. The whole readings process was iterative. The first readings were kept as open as possible. The analysis started with a search for meaning supplemented by a search for relationships between meanings. Then the emphasis was more focused on particular aspects. Even at this point, any new interpretations were considered possible. The material was sorted and resorted many times while the categories were developed and redeveloped at the same time. The main emphasis was in the search for key similarities within and differences between the categories. This meant that the quotes or utterances were grouped and regrouped according to similarities and differences on the basis of different criteria. This was done as long as the rate of change became very small. These selected quotes finally represented the data that was used for next analysis.

The next step was to look for a meaning that could be revealed by the quotes. This interpretation phase was also iterative and had to be done many times from different perspectives, because there were so many aspects present at the same time that looking at them all at once would have been impossible. The utterances were put in

categories on the basis of their similarities and the categories were differentiated on the basis of their differences. At this reading the focus was kept on structural components of the categories of description. The final phase concentrated on borderline quotes that did not seem to fit to any of the proposed categories.

The outcomes have been developed from the researcher's analysis and interpretations. The emphasis was in the collective experience based on diaries, interview data and observation data on videos collected in the sample groups. The two latter ones were transcribed as verbatim as possible. The outcome comes as categories of description. They are not the same as the actual ways of experiencing; rather they are characterisations of key aspects of experience.

Results

The influence of the teacher in learning accounting was emphasized in student experiences. The descriptions reflect the variation in conceptions concerning teaching. Some students conceptualized learning as transmission of knowledge and mainly the quality of this transmission was a question of the teacher's ability to do things that helped in transmission. Some students expressed the relationship between a student and a teacher using utterances linked with co-operation and some brought about more varied descriptions of deep interaction in learning situations between the student and the teacher.

Students expected the teacher to be able to teach in such a way that every student would learn. This was considered to be dependent on the teacher's ability to think what is good for the students. In addition, the teacher's professional competence connected with the pedagogical skills like the ability and persistence in explaining accounting issues in classroom situations was connected with this issue. A good teacher was described as person who knows a lot about the topic and is able to explain it in such a manner that students understand. It can be said that the teacher becomes a representative of the whole accounting discipline.

Being able to regulate the amount of explanations and to take into account students' different cognitive capabilities were felt important, because it is possible to explain too much. If the whole class time was used to lecturing and explaining, the burden became too heavy and finally students felt they were not really learning on the deep learning level. Also, it was important that the class time was used to go through the tasks and material so that the teacher was in lead and concretely helped student to develop their own understanding of accounting issues. This was seen as enhancing deep learning and also creating possibilities to reciprocal learning situation where students could - by asking questions - ensure they had deeply learned or understood something. The fact that the teacher repeated and revised was highlighted and appreciated a lot; the students did not automatically ask teachers to repeat and they actually considered it being part of the teacher's professionalism that the teacher was able to detect the need for revision in the class situation.

The teacher's teaching style was mentioned of being able to improve the learning results and to increase the motivation of students even if the topic was not considered that interesting. Students expressed they wanted to see the teacher's enthusiasm and they wanted to see that teacher wanted them to learn. Enthusiasm was described in terms of concrete effects that were interpreted as having a connection with the importance of student learning to the teacher. The teacher's ability to perform in front of the students and to concentrate on the students was considered as a remedy for better learning.

The impact of different teaching styles did not come as a surprise for students; on the contrary, they were able to understand that each teacher teaches using his personal style, which might or might not be suitable for a given student. To improve learning students were seeking for alignment of styles, i.e. courses that were taught by teachers whose teaching styles were known being suitable for their own learning style and personality. This knowledge had been acquired through personal experience in the course of the studies.

The question of responsibility is very important in defining what the teacher's role in the learning process is. The responsibility the teacher was ready to take was appreciated in student experiences. Whether the teacher was monitoring all the time that students were really learning was regarded important. Indifference was experienced as an antithesis for learning. Also, if the teacher showed that he cared about the student's learning, it increased the students' motivation. A demanding teacher was felt to increase a student's input and effort measures because in the opposite case, students could feel that their input goes for nothing and that their efforts are not valued. This can be interpreted as a discrepancy between the learning targets and the assessment.

What was considered important was the possibility to ask for advice when needed. This seemed to be very much depending on the teachers' personality; how ready they were to give help to individual students and how they addressed to them in speech. If students felt at ease when they needed to ask the teacher for help, they would do it, but in the opposite case they rather went for another teacher (even if he was not the course tutor) or to their peer student. This can all be interpreted also with the help of the immediacy behaviour.

Feedback was an issue that was raised in student descriptions. Only numerical feedback was judged imperfect, personal written information and comments were considered better because students were mainly worried about the possibility of learning erroneously or getting wrong information. A quick feedback on assignments and exams was mentioned to be highly motivating and it helped in keeping up the interest in the topic studied. If the students had erroneous conceptions, they felt safer when they were corrected and adjusted immediately. This created the feeling of being closer to study requirements on a continuous basis, and also gave a feeling of achievement and personal development. On the other hand, if students got the feedback proving that they had learned something – the way they supposed the teacher had intended them to learn it – they felt the true joy of learning and achieving a target.

The method of assessment was not recognized as having much effect on learning as such, but it was rather recognized as having effect on student input during the course. Exam performance was very much seen as a teaching quality question. Assessment was mentioned to have an effect on the learning approach. If assessment revealed that the learning outcome was poor, then learning approach was changed. Sometimes assessment, an exam situation, revealed that students had thought they knew the contents but in an exam situation they realized they were not able to apply what they had learned. This was considered a wrong learning approach question.

In sum, the teacher is an important mediator in the learning process and there are certain qualities in the teacher specifically that are in a key position. These include, concretely, the ability to understand what is good for the student, professional competence, ability to regulate the amount of explanations, ability to take into account students' different cognitive capabilities, ability to detect the need of repetition and revision, teaching style, enthusiasm, ability to perform, responsibility, concern, approachability and continuous feedback. On more general terms, it means that it is important for the teacher to be able to support those higher order thinking skills and those learning approaches that are suited for quality learning.

Conclusion

The influence of the teacher in relation to the student was significant, but this was not the case the other way round; the influence from students to the teacher was not seen of great importance and the respondents did not produce any evidence that they even considered it desirable. However, the relationships among students themselves played a more important role in learning accounting. What makes the position of the teacher interesting is that the meaning of the teacher in the teaching process was highlighted though students did not see themselves having possibilities to influence it. Even though from the learning point of view the ability of self-study and the support of peer students are very important in the learning process itself, it may be that from the content point of view the role of the teacher is essential, because accounting is very much seen as including a great deal of factual content and technical substance and in need of numerous explanations meant to help understanding. It is also possible to think that since there is a heavy vocational orientation and since the learning in relation to professional requirements was also considered very important by the respondents of this study, the need to have a professional model in developing cognitive processes is highlighted, and in the learning situation, the teacher can be seen as acting as a professional model.

Since learning and teaching are connected, it is evident that - even though the learner is in the centre of the learning process - the influence of the teacher in the process is significant. On the basis of student experiences, the teacher could be described as an important mediator between the student and learning. The descriptions concerning the conception of teaching vary: For some students teaching represents pure knowledge transmission, for others it is rather a more complex interplay in the process of constructing meaning. Moreover, the students evaluate the teacher in both absolute and relative terms. It is not only the absolute teaching as such that counts but it is also the experienced professional and pedagogic competence of the teacher in relation to professional requirements that influence on the experienced teaching quality. The teacher is seen as a representative of the whole accounting discipline and also as a professional model.

The ability to explain accounting matters in an understandable way was an important issue in the descriptions. Explanations that are experienced understandable can be interpreted as a matching meta-programme question, which, in turn, can be seen enhancing deep learning. Another important issue is the teacher's ability to detect the need for repetition and revision, which can be interpreted as the teacher's pedagogical competence. The need for explanations is also a question related to accounting students' personal features; the match of higher order thinking skills creates synergy in a learning situation.

The teacher's teaching style is essential because it has an impact on the outcomes of learning and motivation. The teacher's enthusiasm is a motivation and interest increasing feature and the teacher's teaching style is a feature improving learning. The latter one is considered so important that students are consciously seeking for

the matching of styles so that they choose courses taught by those teachers whose styles they consider suitable and avoid those they consider not suitable for their own learning style.

The responsibility and helpfulness of the teacher play a notable role even though, at the same time, the students expressed that the key element in learning was the student and that the most preferred study methods were those that can be classified as student centred methods. The co-operational aspect with the teacher in the learning situation was emphasized. This could be interpreted so that the teacher's role is to act as a facilitator and to monitor the learning on a continuous basis so that the students can be assured that their learning is going to what they consider the right direction.

Feedback is considered crucial for learning and it is used as a guideline to judge whether learning attains the study requirements. This means that qualitative assessment instead of quantitative evaluation is experienced to be associated with good learning experiences. On the other hand, exam performance does not have an effect on learning as such, it rather has an effect on the effort measures the student is ready to take and on the learning approach the student decides to use in a given situation. Many prior studies have estimated assessment to be a remarkable driver in student learning, but in this study, assessment was seen as playing a minor role in good learning experiences and in good learning experiences its role was mainly to fortify the experience the student had with regard to the achievement of learning targets.

What becomes evident in the light of the results of the present study is the fact that there seems to be a gap between the actual learning experiences on the personal and absolute level. This means that the students felt they had reached the educational aims in a satisfactory way while at the same time they experienced deficiencies concerning the expert level skills they thought they should have attained in order to be competent in working life. The latter can be described as the relative level of learning and it poses real challenges to educators and educational institutions. This is a very important result and should get further attention in future accounting education studies.

The value of phenomenographic research is in phenomenographic pedagogy, which involves teaching for conceptual change. It is founded on the premise that students engage with alternative ways of viewing the subject and educators engage with alternative ways of viewing the student. The aim of phenomenographic pedagogy is to raise teachers' awareness of their thinking and practice and of how variation in this practice might be related to their students' approaches to learning. From the teachers' perspective, some types of learning are better than others. Learning for understanding that involves a conceptual change is superior to learning of information or skills where the learner focuses on meeting external requirements. Phenomenographic pedagogy also assumes that the characteristics and behaviour of teachers and whole educational systems have effects on how students learn. Changing teaching practices to improve learning quality is desirable. (Lucas 2001; Trigwell et al. 2005.)

The results should reveal specific aspects associated with teaching practices producing good learning experiences in accounting – which may be very different from good learning experiences in some other area since learning is contextual and relational. The outcomes are expected to reveal something relevant that has not been explored earlier in this context, and they should contribute in extending the understanding of learning processes in a subject specific area of education. On the practical level, they should give insights for accounting educators and administrators designing and realizing higher level studies of accounting, the primary aim of all studies being, of course, the improvement of the learning process.

In a phenomenographic study, the outcome space represents a relationship between the researcher and the data, which means that it is not the only possible one. It is an outcome that can be argued for representing a partial understanding of the phenomenon. Phenomenographic validity is not how well the outcomes correspond to the phenomenon as it exists. It is rather how well they correspond to the human experience of the phenomenon. An interpretive process can never be objective, but it always represents the data as experienced by the researcher. Research quality means ensuring that the research aims are reflected in the research methods. Another aspect of qualitative research validity is the extent to which the research outcomes are seen as useful. The aim is to provide useful knowledge. Phenomenography has been developed primarily as an educational research approach. In this sense, phenomenography has two purposes: a research tool to explicate the nature of human experience, and an educational tool to improve teaching and learning especially in higher education. (Aaltio 2006, Åkerlind 2005.)

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The Results of Research and Development, Collaboration With Practice and Solution of the International Projects Belong To Teaching and Education

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Abstract

The mission of technical universities and colleges in all forms of education is teaching within the field. The inclusion of the latest findings is closely associated with the scientific-research activities. Priority means the international projects focusing on new technology, innovation and industrial application. The paper presents the experience of the implemented projects of the Grant Agency of the Czech Republic, international projects carried out in the international programme EUREKA and clusters. The ERASMUS programme was processing the theses of students from KHBO in Belgium. The Laboratory of Water Management Research of the Brno University of Technology (CZ) was also used in the teaching of physical modelling and hydraulic engineering for students of TU Luzern, CH.

Keywords. Teaching and education, multidisciplinary measurement, implementation results for and from practice, international projects

Introduction

The international conference INTE 2013 in Rome fascinated us, and therefore we have immediately applied for participation in the conference ITEC in Dubai to present our results there. We follow up on the paper that we presented at the conference INTE 2013 (Parilkova et al., 2013), at which we gave the basic information about us and our school.

The mission of technical universities and colleges in all forms of education is the teaching and preparation of students in theoretical, professional and practical areas to the extent of the entire subject.

The submitted paper will discuss the study at the Faculty of Civil Engineering (FCE) of Brno University of Technology (BUT), partner relationships, possibilities of study for foreign students, all of which can also be found at www.fce.vutbr.cz. Special attention is given to our experience in the teaching of foreign students in the Laboratory of Water Management Research of the Department of Water Structures and in stays of our students abroad (Parilkova et al., 2013), (Parilkova, 2009), (Parilkova and Vesely, 2009).

Introduction of new findings is closely connected with the scientific-research area and the demands of practice. In solving this issue, it is necessary not only to establish international cooperation and a link to practice, but also to know problems and needs of the given field of study. Our priority means international projects focused on new technologies, innovation and industrial applications (Parilkova et al., 2013), (www.eureka3838.com). We use the results and experience gained from the projects being undertaken.

We inform about the progress in the solution of projects and their succession from theory up to application in practice and emphasis is placed on the publication and presentation of results, including our experience. We inform about the projects being carried out in the Laboratory of Water Management Research (LWMR) of the Department of Water Structures (DWB), Veveri 95, Brno, see (www.fce.vutbr.cz), (www.eureka3838.com) and about the results in which the workplace participated.

We come to the conclusion that the results of science and research, collaboration with businesses and experience in the solution of international projects clearly belong to teaching. This holds true in general, therefore it is necessary to apply conclusions both to the full-time form of university/college study, and to life-long education, seminars and training for practice, not neglecting providing information at universities of the third age for senior citizens.



Fig. 1 From the defence of master thesis of two students from KHBO Oostende (B) in LWMR

Fields of Study and Possibilities of Study at the FCE of BUT

Study at the Faculty of Civil Engineering is organized in the following accredited programmes (www.fce.vutbr.cz). The forms of study are full-time and combined (distance learning).

Bachelor's study programmes

Architecture of Building Construction (A)

Accreditation since: 2004. Length of study: 8 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: Czech.

Civil Engineering (BA)

Accreditation since: 2007. Length of study: 8 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: English.

Design of Civil Engineering Structures (BD)

Accreditation since: 2009. Length of study: 6 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: English.

Geodesy and Cartography (GK)

Accreditation since: 2007. Length of study: 6 semesters. Form of study: combined. Teaching language: Czech.

Geodesy and Cartography (G)

Accreditation since: 2003. Length of study: 6 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: Czech.

Urban Engineering (W)

Accreditation since: 2013. Length of study: 8 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: Czech.

Civil Engineering (BK)

Accreditation since: 2004. Length of study: 8 semesters. Form of study: combined. Teaching language: Czech.

Civil Engineering (B)

Accreditation since: 2004. Length of study: 8 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: Czech.

The completion of study takes place by preparation of a bachelor's thesis, its assessment by the leader and its defence with a professional debate in the presence of a commission nominated by the dean. The graduate will receive a certificate of completion. Excellent students, who meet all prescribed criteria, will receive a red certificate. More detailed data are available at www.fce.vutbr.cz, queries can be answered by e-mail or by phone. Foreign students with support from the faculty hold discussions about study for their younger colleagues and other interested persons as well, present their countries and inform about problems and their solution.



Fig. 2 Week intensive course of hydraulics for students of TU Luzern (CH)

Follow-up master's study programmes

Architecture and Development of Settlements (T)

Accreditation since: 2008. Length of study: 4 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: Czech.

Civil Engineering (CA)

Accreditation since: 2007. Length of study: 3 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: English.

Geodesy and Cartography (H)

Accreditation since: 2003. Length of study: 4 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: Czech.

Civil Engineering (C)

Accreditation since: 2007. Length of study: 3 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: Czech.

Civil Engineering (CK)

Accreditation since: 2007. Length of study: 3 semesters. Form of study: combined. Teaching language: Czech.

For the follow-up master's study it is necessary to pass an admission examination; students who will meet the prescribed criteria during the bachelor's study and will continue with their field of study can be accepted without the admission examination.

Teaching of the 1st and 2nd year of bachelor's study, except for the Geodesy and Cartography branch, is collective. For the Geodesy and Cartography branch, usually studied by 70 to 80 students, it is separate all over the entire course of study in all subjects.

Other forms of education are usually organized by individual institutes/departments with support from the faculty.

About 5,000 students study and 500 employees work at the faculty. More detailed data were given in the presentation at the meeting of a section of the conference INTE 2013 in Rome.

Doctoral study programmes

Civil Engineering (nDA)

Accreditation since: 2007. Length of study: 8 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: English.

Civil Engineering (nDKA)

Accreditation since: 2007. Length of study: 8 semesters. Form of study: combined. Teaching language: English.

Geodesy and Cartography (I)

Accreditation since: 2001. Length of study: 6 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: Czech and English.

Geodesy and Cartography (IK)

Accreditation since: 2001. Length of study: 6 semesters. Form of study: combined. Teaching language: Czech and English.

Civil Engineering (nD)

Accreditation since: 2007. Length of study: 8 semesters. Form of study: full-time. Teaching language: Czech.

Civil Engineering (nDK)

Accreditation since: 2007. Length of study: 8 semesters. Form of study: combined. Teaching language: Czech.

Awarding Pedagogical and Scientific Degrees

At the faculty, pedagogical and scientific degrees are awarded in all fields of study. Not only school employees can receive them, hence they become attractive also to foreign experts.

Projects Undertaken, Results, Publication and Presentation, Introduction into Teaching

The paper at the conference INTE 2013 (Parilkova et al., 2013) was concerned in detail with the issue of international projects of the **EUREKA programme**, the description of the EIS method and our results. At the final external examination, we defended the national project OE 10002 (www.msmt.cz) and, with me as the chief manager, the international project E!4981 as well (www.eurekanetwork.org), and we presented the proceedings of the international conference 2012 in Brno (www.eureka3838.com). We organize such an international conference to the given issue every year; we will show the proceedings of the conference at the conference that will be held on 30.10. to 1.11.2013 at Karolinka, Czech Republic.

The proceedings are available in 18 largest libraries of the Czech Republic (CZ), in co-investigators in Switzerland (CH), Belgium (B), Italy (IT), Slovakia (SK) and Cyprus (CY) and also in the parties interested in collaboration in Bulgaria (BG), Latvia (LV), Russia (RU), Spain (ES), Portugal (PT), Poland (PL), Germany (DE) and Austria (AT).



Fig. 3 From international conference organized to the given issue of project in EUREKA programme

For information and the possibility of collaboration, we give the data of the ongoing project E!7614 (www.eurekanetwork.org) with the main goals:

- 1) New applications of the constructed apparatus and implementation of the method of electrical impedance spectrometry (EIS) to new localities.
- 2) Modification of the new apparatus.
- 3) Marketing, promotion, information, sale.

The epistemology of projects is evident from the following scheme:

- a) Investigator research within the Grant Agency of the CR, a project carried out in the years 2001 to 2003 No. 103/01/0057 (Parilkova et al., 2003) and a project undertaken in the years 2004 to 2006 No. 103/04/0741 (Parilkova et al., 2004).
- b) Projects E!3838, E!4981 and E!7614.

The project results were successfully implemented into the **project “Clusters”** for the cluster CREA (www.creacz.com) in the application “Reconstruction of the Earth Dam of the Karolinka Reservoir on the River Stanovnice”, northern Moravia, CZ. 4 probes, each 13 m long and with an outer diameter of 0.026 m, were installed in the core of the earth-fill embankment dam using the PAGANI device. The state of water level in the reservoir and qualitative parameters (changes in soil layers, etc.) were monitored before and after the reconstruction and after the effect following the completion of remediation work.

The cluster is a civic association of at least 15 small- and medium-sized companies with universities and scientific-research institutions having innovation programmes brought into implementation. In case of the cluster CREA (www.creacz.com), it concentrates on Renewable Energy Resources, the Environment (particularly Wastewater Treatment Plants), excavation and disposal of wastes or transported materials (sediments of water streams, the issue of wastes from excavation of raw materials and production). The cluster CREA has experience gained from international cooperation of clusters.

Transfer of experience also takes place on examples of international collaboration in the **ERASMUS programme**.

The FCE of BUT has established collaboration for the academic year 2013/14 – “Bilateral Agreement” (BA) and has closed applications as at 31.01.2014 according to the new guidelines for the academic year 2014/15 or longer. For information we give current ongoing collaboration and in designated contracts we participate in collaboration.

Collaboration takes place based on 4 BAs with 3 universities in AT (we have a possibility to develop it in Lower Austria);

on 3 BAs with the KHBO university in B (we participate in 1 contract);

in BG there are 2 working contracts (we participate in all of them and are preparing 2 other contracts);

1 contract is concluded with CY and we are jointly preparing another one;

collaboration with DE is extensive, concerning 5 different universities and at 1 (Dresden) there are 3 BAs;

4 BAs are concluded with Denmark (DK);

collaboration with ES is significant, 9 BAs are concluded with 7 schools, participating in 1;

we took great pains to establish collaboration with Estonia (EE, Tallinn);

collaboration takes place with 3 universities in France (F) and 4 BAs are concluded;

2 BAs are operating in Greece (GR), but none with, e.g., Athens;

3 BAs (2 with Zagreb) are concluded with 2 universities in Croatia (HR);

in CH there is collaboration with 2 entities, but none with, e.g., TU Basel, with which we would be interested in development in conjunction with collaboration in the EUREKA programme;

in IT there is collaboration with 4 universities, other cooperation is potential;

1 contract exists in Iceland (IS);

3 BAs exist with 2 universities in Lithuania (LT);

2 BAs exist with TU Riga in LV, we closely collaborate with 1 university also within the solution of the project E!7614;

1 contract exists with Norway (NO);

only 1 contract also exists with the Netherlands (NL), interest would be in collaboration with Rotterdam, Delft and others;

collaboration with PT (5 universities, 5 BAs) is traditional and amply used;

5 universities from PL with a total of 6 BA contracts;

1 BA exists with Romania (RO);

3 BAs exist with 3 universities in Sweden (SE);

2 operating BAs exist with 1 university in Finland (FI);

2 contracts are valid with Slovenia (SI);

4 BAs with 3 universities in SK;

3 BAs are active in Turkey (TR);

4 BAs are concluded with 4 universities in the United Kingdom - Great Britain (GB).

We are able to discuss particular data with conference participants, including potential collaborating universities, but also details or other possibilities.

We dealt with the issue of introduction into **teaching** relatively in detail in the paper for the conference INTE 2013. We can add that we are searching for other localities for applying the findings gained from our research and for acquiring new knowledge e.g. from the study visit of the student Ing. Ladislav Rousar in the USA, Ing. Marie Fejfarova in Denmark and Belgium or from the defence of the diploma theses of two students from Belgium at the FCE of BUT, and we are preparing other activities. Not all plans are always successful and

it is necessary to still continue with this demanding work and to apply the possibilities of new activities or contacts. We are pleased to note that we have gained good experience in this area from the conference INTE 2013 in Rome.

Finding and Conclusions for Wider Applications

- I. The research activity in technical sciences should result in
 - a) investigator research in which a theme will arise for application research followed by implementation.
 - b) innovation research of a selected application in link to utility parameters within implementation.
- II. During solution finding, international collaboration is appropriate, using grant possibilities, partners should have similar conditions during solution finding.
- III. For information and marketing it is recommended that results be presented and introduced to teaching programmes for students and experts from implementation and application areas.
- IV. According to possibilities, it is recommended that suitable grant programmes be searched for and that the areas with potential use of the method and products for resolving particular problems be focused on.
- V. Attention must be given to the appropriate structure of investigator teams, their experience and equipment

Acknowledgements

This presentation, which will be supplemented with other particular findings and experience during a lecture at the conference ITEC 2014, is carried out with the help of the project E!7614, follows the obligation of sustainability of the project E!4981, the ERASMUS programme and the activities of the FCE of BUT and the Consulting and Advisory Centre (KPC) for local development and businessmen, public service company (Konzultační a poradenské centrum pro místní rozvoj a podnikatele, o.p.s.).

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Teaching Languages to Engineers: Using A Hands-On Approach as A Strategy to Improve The Language Learning Environment For Undergraduates

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Abstract

The use of hands-on activities as an effective teaching method which engages students is well known. In the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching, however, such activities are often underused. Framed against previous research suggesting that engineering students are on the whole much more kinesthetic learners than most language students, this paper documents the use of model internal combustion engines (ICEs) to teach ESP vocabulary and writing skills to undergraduate automotive engineers.

The rationale behind this activity will be outlined, followed by a description of the practical implementation in the classroom. Finally, the findings of questionnaires conducted with the students to evaluate their reactions to the activity and the (perceived) effects on their language learning and motivation will be presented.

The content of this paper should serve as an impetus for practitioners to explore the use and effects of similar activities on language learning and motivation.

Keywords.

Introduction

ESP teaching typically “involves orientation to specific spoken and written English which is required to carry out specific academic or workplace tasks” (Orr, 2001, p.27). In the case of engineering disciplines, these tasks are manifold but are governed by the overall need for clear, concise and unambiguous communication (Irish & Weiss, 2009). The ability to communicate well in English is particularly important in the highly globalized automotive branch, where engineers nowadays can expect to work not only in multidisciplinary and multinational teams at home, but also to spend a considerable amount of time communicating with their counterparts in other teams and companies worldwide. Thus, ESP is an indispensable element in the education of young engineers.

This paper describes an activity designed and introduced into a third semester undergraduate course for students of Automotive Engineering at the FH JOANNEUM (FHJ) University of Applied Sciences, Graz, Austria. FHJ is a tertiary level institution offering over 40 degree programmes, each with a specific vocational orientation, ranging from health sciences to international business to engineering disciplines. All degree programmes include mandatory ESP courses. In the Automotive Engineering programme, this amounts to 150 (45-minute) units at bachelor’s level and 90 units at master’s level (in addition to English as the main language of instruction in the Master’s courses).

Rationale

Students in the Automotive Engineering programme often choose this course of studies based on an avid interest in the technology and design of motorized vehicles. One could argue that their motivation in this case is highly intrinsic, in other words it comes from within (van Lier, 1996). By contrast, their reactions to ESP lessons in the early semesters indicate little intrinsic motivation to improve their language skills. While, the global automotive industry requires graduates who are not only well versed in engineering subjects but also proficient in the lingua franca of the industry, many undergraduates fail to make the connection between these industry requirements and the inclusion of ESP as a compulsory part of their degree programme. Thus, the extrinsic motivation, or external incentive driving the language learner (van Lier, 1996; see also Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Csizer 1998; Gardner & Lambert 1959, 1972) also appears to be low. Motivation, however, cannot be taught. It must come from the students themselves and “be based on their perception that what they are learning is of interest and value to them” (McKay & Tom, 1999, p.4). Faced with this situation, the authors set out to investigate means of improving the language learning environment in such a way that students would want to participate more actively and, ideally, want to learn (Ushioda, 2011).

Research conducted into the learning preferences of students of Automotive Engineering and Aviation at FHJ showed that the majority of the engineering student cohort surveyed in the course of the longitudinal study had clear preferences for a more communicative (interpersonal) and hands-on (bodily-kinesthetic) approach to learning, as defined by Gardner in his theory of multiple intelligences (Millward-Sadler et al., 2010). It became clear that in order to engage the learners in the ESP classes, the activities used and materials developed would have to address the abovementioned learning preferences more directly, revolving around the dominant intelligences identified - interpersonal, kinesthetic, logical-mathematical and spatial - in order to foster development of the weaker ones, including the linguistic intelligence (Millward-Sadler et al., 2011a). In addition, they would do well to take into account the benefits of hands-on activities in terms of promoting learning.

In the field of science teaching, hands-on activities have long been regarded as enhancing cognitive learning (Korwin and Jones, 1990, n.pag.) In her discussion of why hands-on science activities are so effective for student learning, Satterthwait (2010) points to the significant role such activities have on student engagement and motivation. The manipulation of three-dimensional objects, she argues, invokes curiosity within the learners. This curiosity fosters learning. Further, set against the backdrop of constructivist theory, she highlights the influence of peer interaction in what she calls “cooperative learning settings” on the learning process (Satterthwait, 2010, pp.7-8).

A further consideration informing the development of new materials was the question of relevance. If materials which appear relevant and are of interest to our students are integrated into our teaching, we may, as instructors, help to improve their intrinsic motivation (Meixner, 2013). It has already been noted by colleagues lecturing in the engineering disciplines in the Automotive Engineering programme how students are “motivated by tasks that stem from real engineering problems” (Bischof et al., 2009, n. pag.). Thus, relevance to their area of studies and future workplace was of key importance. The following section describes the design and

implementation of one activity centered around using model combustion engines (ICEs) to teach vocabulary, communication and writing skills. The engineering workplace activities specifically addressed are:

- describing technical systems and components,
- giving and reacting to oral instructions,
- documenting a step-by-step (assembly) process and
- writing instructions.

Design and Implementation of Activity

The activity was devised to be run by two instructors in a team-teaching set up. The instructors led the participants through a series of warm-up activities and were on hand to provide assistance (both language and technical) to the students while monitoring and recording student interaction. Due to the complexity of the model and the time required to build it, an intensive workshop consisting of a block of three 45-minute sessions per day over three consecutive days was created.

The early part of Day 1 served to gauge the students' existing knowledge of the relevant technical background and vocabulary through a series of short warm-up activities, including brief impromptu presentations, given in groups of three or four, on the components and/or working principles of engines as well as other related vehicle systems. Not only did these presentations show the range in levels of technical background knowledge amongst the students, but also highlighted areas, both in terms of vocabulary and pronunciation, where they clearly needed input. This kind of “deep-end approach”, as described by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.119), is frequently employed in ESP instruction and places the students somewhat out of their depth to see how much they know of what is required of them so that instructors can step in where specific weaknesses and gaps in knowledge become apparent (Orr, 2001).

In the same session, students were given the ICE model kits, without the assembly manual or the necessary tools, and with some parts removed. The rationale behind removing parts was, firstly, to ensure documentation (including photo documentation) and comparison to the original parts' list with the intention of engaging students with the target lexical terms in a kinesthetic way. The second reason was more practical – by removing certain essential parts, it became possible to control the lesson stages more easily and prevent students from moving straight into the linguistically ‘thin’ stage of building the engine, thereby skipping the desired language engagement. It created a situation which forced communicative acts, which otherwise may have been significantly shortened or even avoided altogether. Figure 1 shows a group of students checking and cataloguing the engine parts on the first day.



Figure 1: Students cataloguing engine parts on Day 1 of the workshop.

Day 2 consisted of the actual engine build itself, where students were given the manufacturer's assembly manual, the necessary tools and additional equipment (including vegetable oil for lubrication and batteries) they

would need to build the engine and get it running. They were also instructed to document the building/assembly process step-by-step, both in writing and photographically.

Day 3 was dedicated to completing the build and to writing an alternative set of instructions and parts' list using their own notes and pictures as well as some language guidelines provided for writing technical instructions at the beginning of the lesson. Students were given until the end of the following week to revise and complete their documents and submit them as part of their course work.

The instructors adopted a variety of different roles in the course of the workshop, moving from being controllers to facilitators (Harmer, 1991), or to use Scriviner's (1994) categorization, from explainers to involvers to enablers and back again at many stages over the three days. This variation of roles appeared to have positive effect on the workshop in terms of classroom management. Additionally, it affected interaction patterns, with the lessons being generally far more student-active than teacher-dominated (Ur, 1991).

Discussion of Impact and Student Feedback

Impacts and learning outcomes of such in-class activities are difficult to measure objectively (Tatzl, 2011, p. 63). In an attempt to measure at least immediate reactions to the activity/workshop, students from both year groups were required to complete paper-based questionnaires after the final session. The majority reported having not only acquired engine-specific vocabulary, but also valuable experience in teamwork. A considerable number stated that they had, in addition, acquired knowledge about the workings of internal combustion engines. Constructing the models themselves was mentioned as the most enjoyable aspect overall, whereas writing the documentation, unsurprisingly, was mentioned as the least popular.

As one of the underlying goals was also to determine the influence of hands-on activities such as the one described here on motivation, students were asked to rate a series of statements concerning the motivational effects of the activity using a five-point Likert scale. As can be seen from the summary of student responses from both years (n=105) in Figure 2, the majority of learners strongly agreed that they had been motivated by using and assembling models. Similarly, the majority appear to have been motivated to engage with the subject matter in general, while just over 80% of the respondents claimed that their team colleagues contributed positively to the overall motivational effects. (Casey, A. & Millward-Sadler, A., 2013, n.pag.)

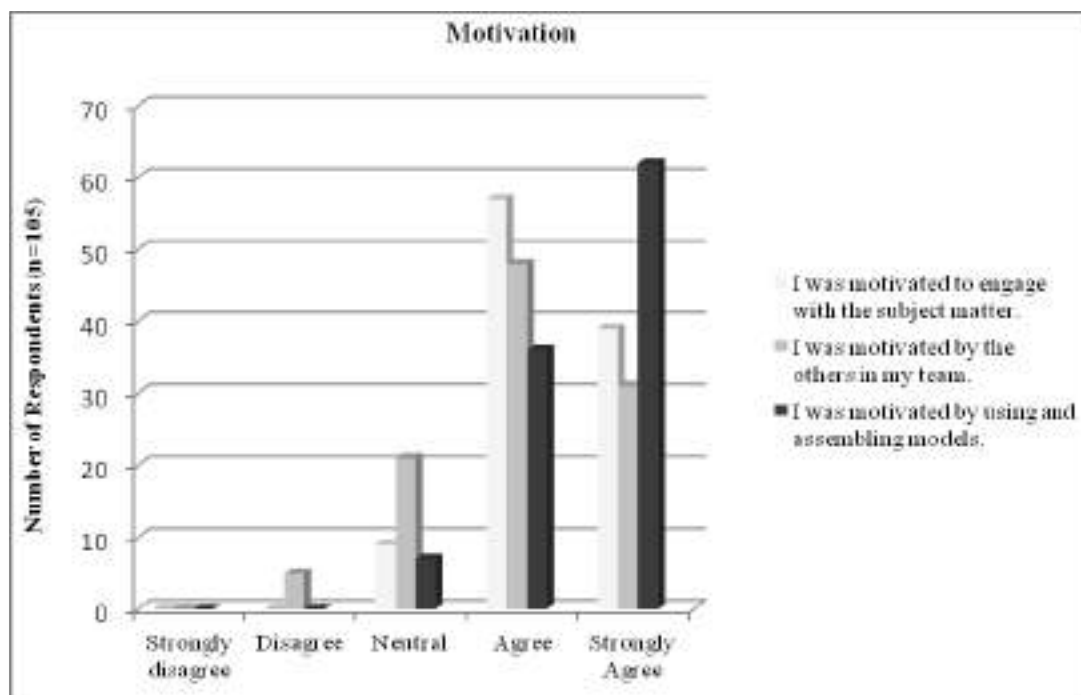


Figure 2: Summarized feedback on perceived motivational effects of the engine building activity.

Conclusion

The ICE building activity and the feedback loop have been conducted twice with two consecutive year groups of undergraduates, both with comparable responses and results. In each case, students responded positively to

the design and content of activity and reported a strong learning effect, not only in terms of engine-specific vocabulary, but also in terms of technical writing and teamwork. Perhaps most surprising of all was the feedback that some felt they had acquired a better overall understanding of the working principles of internal combustion engines in the course of the three-day activity. Indications from the feedback are that students would respond positively to similar intensive workshops within the ESP courses in the future.

From the instructors' point of view attendance, attention levels and willingness to engage with classroom materials increased perceptibly, as did the amount of student talk/interaction. While no formal study of the retention levels has been carried out to date, students appeared capable of reproducing core vocabulary from the engine build easily during subsequent activities in the regular, weekly ESP classes.

A further extension of this activity has also been run as an introduction to ESP courses at master's level at the same institution, whereby sessions one and two were merged and shortened and the engine build itself was intended to constitute more of a team building than a vocabulary acquisition activity in the first lesson. Such was the enthusiasm of the participants for the activity that extra lessons were subsequently timetabled in the university workshops, where the groups went on to disassemble real engines and transmissions, document the parts and the disassembly process, and create instruction manuals for their colleagues, based upon which the components were fully reassembled.

While it may not be possible to incorporate this activity as it stands into every ESP classroom (particularly where budgets for additional classroom materials may be limited), the authors would argue that there is a strong argument for investigating and introducing similar forms of hands-on or realia-based activities relevant to the students' field of studies into their language classroom.

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Differences in Body Image and Health Among Sport Active and Passive Adults

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Abstract

The article deals with the aspects of self concept, self evaluation, physical self and the possibility of improvement. The aim of the research "Body image as a part of active life style" was to learn about the importance and level of satisfaction with particular aspects of the physical and psychological self and degree of felt control and opportunity for change. The questionnaire contains 8 parts: personal data, importance and satisfaction with "My body and health" and "My thinking and feelings", self control, opportunity for change, health status, sport activities, somatic type. A total of 1,635 adult persons were interviewed. The results show that the more physically active people value their body and health much higher and they show a significantly higher satisfaction with monitored aspects of their own physical and psychological status. At the same time, they feel they have more control over their body and feelings. They also perceive more positively the opportunity to change, which indicates greater self confidence.

Keywords. Physical self, sport, health, self control

Introduction

Taking care of one's body and health has become a standard part of our modern lives. While our grandparents were happy with being healthy enough to bear and bring up children, our parents' generation is spending more

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and more effort and money on keep not just healthy but also good-looking and fit. Our children will face the risk of damaging both their bodies and minds by keeping drastic diets, taking food supplements designed to increase muscle mass, undergoing plastic surgeries, getting tattoos and piercing ... Why is physical perfection so important to us and why do we refuse to accept our natural selves? Psychologists and sociologists have spent years researching people's attitudes to themselves, including the very important issue of physical self image. On the one hand, lack of natural physical activity leads to growing masses of obese and ill individuals. On the other, we have seen a rise of eating disorders and other unfortunate practices that seriously damage the human body.

The importance of physical activity for human health

The recent rise of obesity has been primarily driven by lifestyle changes (persistent removal of physical activity from work as well as leisure) and dietary habits (high-calorie food with high fat content), which together results in excessive calorie intake.

An active lifestyle is characterised by an organic interaction between the individual and his or her environment. There are two sides to this interaction – biological and social (Bunc, Štilec, 2003). As one get older, the rhythm of life changes due to both the increasing age of the person and changes in the social group he or she is involved in and favoured. All this affects the person's physical, mental and social behaviour and habits that influence the development of personality, performance and identity. The overall result depends on biological (age, sex, health) as well as social determinants (cultural traditions, political and economic conditions prevailing in the society, the socioeconomic status of the individual).

Modern technological progress and a hectic lifestyle make people grow lazier, less active and incline them to forget that physical activity is one of the factors that affect physical health and contribute to mental balance (Málková, 1992). Physical activity has its place in the life of every individual. Physical activity has an immediate effect on metabolism and increases energy expenditure. This metabolic effect lasts for several hours after physical activity, depending on its intensity and duration. The ability to adapt to a physical load is influenced by many factors that are in mutual interaction. These factors include the initial training level, sex, total amount and distribution of bodily fat, age, genetic predisposition (Riegerová, Přidalová, Ulbrichová, 2006).

Self concept and self assessment

Self concept as a person's view of himself or herself means more than just what opinions one has about the self. It also describes the relationship to one's self including emotional experience with cognitive, active and regulative factors. The Self is formed on a basic level of evaluation and becomes the object of opinions and attitudes.

Self assessment is a component of self concept created as a final product during socialisation. It is formed based on social comparison and self-evaluation of one own activities (Výrost, Slaměník, 2008). The basic self assessment criteria are formed during childhood by parents or other significant persons with the family or persons who play an important educating and parenting role. Parental support is thus the strongest predictor of self assessment (Blatný, Plhánková, 2003). Peers take on the self-assessment forming role as the child grows up. However, parental support loses none of its importance during adolescence. Things change in adult years when the individual begins professional career and founds his or her own family. At this stage, the strongest influences on self-concept are exerted by colleagues and peers as well as family members, partners, friends and children.

The physical self

Research into self-concept has recently entered the area of sports and the physical self. A number of tests have been performed to determine what role physical aspects play in our overall self-concept. The physical self is believed to be a motivating agent of our behaviour, significantly contributing to our overall self-respect, mental health and well-being. The physical self-concept has been associated with sports or regular exercise that aims at keeping us fit, achieving our ideal weight, maintaining a healthy lifestyle and physical condition or rehabilitation after an injury or due a disability (Krejčí, 2008).

One of the fundamental problems with self-esteem and positive self-concept is a discrepancy between one's actual body and the ideal body. It may happen that the real body and the physical ideal are diametrically different. The physical ideal is formed primarily by the social and cultural environment. The way we experience and present our bodies depends on social factors. This is true especially for the female body which is subject to precise ideas about what the ideal woman should look like. We are talking especially about external factors that

convince individuals that by working hard and investing in one's body, they will be able to form their bodies according to the "ideal".

The physical self has three basic components: look, fitness and health. Accepting one's body requires knowledge, awareness, evaluation and plans of action. The way we look is one of the factors that affect our self-esteem, which is why the behaviour and personality of our communication partners is often judged by the way they look. Physical look is also one of signs of social perception, which makes self-concept a part of the everyday interaction of individuals and their environment. Efforts to improve one's physical look, health and fitness may, therefore, directly or indirectly contribute to one's motivation to lead a healthy lifestyle. In general, we may say that both women and men care about the way they look, although women tend to worry about it more and are willing to spend more time and money on it.

Our modern society believes a person's image is an integral part of a lifestyle. Our relationship to our body and body-centred behaviour are also affected by our social class, gender, age and lifestyle. All this affects our perception of the body as a functional and aesthetic object. In this sense, the body is often described as the mirror of a society and a cultural product. To be attractive is one of the key trends of this age. Feeling attractive, therefore, is important for our self-esteem. Physical attractiveness is an important part of self-confidence, requiring that the individual accepts himself or herself and at the same time believes that others find him or her attractive. Changing one's self-concept requires, first and foremost, a change in our thinking and perception but also behavioural changes in our approach to health and beauty.

How to improve one's physical self-concept

As for the specific content of one's self-concept, it consists of various aspects of social identity (role, status, age, gender, etc.) as well as personality attributes (hobbies, activities, interpersonal style of behaviour, look, wealth, social standing, etc). Another level represents a "systematic self-assessment" (competences, value structure, etc.). Based on these factors, the individual creates a self-image, a feeling of personal autonomy and overall self-evaluation. If the individual is happy with his body, he also feels more in control and is more self-confident (Fialová, 2001).

A sense of personal integrity is the fundamental condition for adaptive behaviour. To maintain a psychological integrity, one must be well motivated. Motivation regarding the Self is described as Self-motivation and includes: Self-consistency and Self-strengthening (Škultétyová, 2010).

The person should open up to his own feelings and voice his own opinions and wishes. If people's values are based on the reactions of others, their behaviour is motivated by a desire to conform to the wishes of others. These values then become part of the person's self-concept and as they often express unrealistic demands, there occurs a major discrepancy between the ideal and the actual Self. If the ideal and the actual Self are then constantly compared, the level of self-esteem decreases.

Methods and Procedure

The objective of the "Body image as a part of active life style" research conducted by the Faculty of Physical Education and Sports of the Charles University is to determine the importance of and level of satisfaction with different aspects of the physical and psychological self. We were interested to find to what degree importance, satisfaction, control and opportunity are aligned. The aim of this article is to analyse relationship with one's own body and health as well as one's own feelings and thoughts in a group of 1,635 subjects of ages ranging from 18 to 60 years (866 women and 769 men), relative to the amount of physical exercise in their daily routine (48% were physically active and 52% were passive). We expect our results will allow us to propose changes to long-term programmes in the area of healthy lifestyle education and help individuals arrive at a realistic self-evaluation.

Methods applied

A web site was created for purposes of this research including the questionnaire "Self-concept, Quality of Life" (SQL), which consisted of 8 parts:

- 1) Personal data (sex, age, education, height, weight, BMI)
- 2) Importance and evaluation of "My body and health" (6 questions) and "My thoughts and feelings" (6 questions)
- 3) Satisfaction and evaluation of "My body and health" (6 questions) and "My thoughts and feelings" (6 questions)

- 4) Self-control (5 questions)
- 5) Opportunity for change (5 questions).
- 6) Health status (7 questions)
- 7) Physical activity (5 questions)
- 8) Body type (5 questions).

The subsection “My body and health” focuses on: look, physical activity and fitness, hygiene and care taken of one’s body, nutrition and food eaten, physical health and sexual life. This subsection, therefore, concerns the physical self-concept, which is evaluated from several perspectives: in terms of its importance for me, my satisfaction with it, my sense of having it under control, my chances for change.

The subsection “My thoughts and feelings” focuses on psychological aspects that reflect our feelings, our ability to learn and self-evaluate. It focuses on our self-confidence, attitude to problems, ability to control ourselves and deal with difficulties and stress. The questions target: self-acceptance (accepting the way I am), life without worries, fear and tension, how do I feel about myself and what do I think about myself, mental health, mood, independence of thought and action. Once again, the personal importance of these issues is evaluated as well as my satisfaction, sense of control and chances for change.

Cronbach’s α (internal consistency) for all respondents – men and women – ranges between 0.68 and 0.92. The content validity of the questionnaire was verified. The data were analysed using the NCSS software. This article brings a comparison of the results between the sexes and among groups with different levels of physical activity in the weekly regime of adults.

Subjects:

The questionnaire was filled by 866 women and 769 men who answered the questions online. The analysis works only with questionnaires that were filled in their entirety. 14% of the subjects are people under 20 years of age, 49% are people in the 20-30 age group, 16% in the 31-40 age group, 11% in the 41-50 age group and 9% in the 51-60 age group. In terms of education, our respondents are very close to the actual structure of the population: 9% elementary education, 3% vocational education, 50% secondary-school graduates, 36% university education, 2% doctorate. Since we were interested in differences between physically active and inactive populations, we chose the number of hours spent on physical activity per week as one of the key criteria. The minimum (0-1 hour a week) was admitted by 18% of women and 15% of men, 2-3 hours a week were reported by approximately a third of all respondents (34% of women and 29% of men). Active individuals (four or more hours of physical activity a week) form nearly a half of the sample (48% of women and 55% of men) while the more passive respondents (0-3 hours of physical activity a week) consists of 52% of our female subjects and 45% of the men.

Results

Physical and mental self

Table 1. Importance and satisfaction in physically active and inactive people (scale 1-5, answers: important and very important 4+5) %

	Importance				Satisfaction			
	Women		Men		Women		Men	
	passive	active	passive	active	passive	active	passive	active
Look	68	68	43	63	46	49	38	55
Phys. activity + fitness	61	78	44	86	29	51	27	58
Hygiene, bodily care	93	93	80	82	84	82	67	79
Nutrition	65	66	45	54	48	47	38	47
Physical health	88	89	80	87	54	58	50	59
Sexual life	57	58	71	72	55	55	39	54
Overall evaluation	432	452	363	444	316	342	259	352

While physically active women pay the highest attention in terms of bodily care to hygiene, physical health and activity, physically passive women concentrate on hygiene, physical health and look. The most important

aspects for physically active men are physical health, activity and fitness, hygiene while physically inactive men concentrate on hygiene, physical health and sexual life. Satisfaction usually received lower scores than importance. Both groups of women and men expressed the highest satisfaction with hygiene and bodily care. As for the lowest satisfaction, physically passive women and men were concerned about the amount of physical activity and fitness, while physically active women and men were mostly concerned about nutrition. In general, men considered physical aspects less important than women did and physically passive men were even less satisfied than women. Both active groups were more satisfied in general than the passive group and physically active men are the most satisfied group of all.

Table 2. Control and opportunity for change in active and inactive individuals (scale 1-5, answers: important and very important 4+5) %

	Control				Opportunity			
	Women		Men		Women		Men	
	passive	active	passive	active	passive	active	passive	active
Body and health	60	72	52	74	76	79	67	82
Thoughts and feelings	66	69	57	72	66	69	72	66
Inner faith and values	80	78	81	82	76	75	66	72
Activities for fun	79	81	74	87	84	84	68	81
Activities for change	68	75	39	52	70	76	61	71
Overall evaluation	353	375	303	367	372	383	334	372

Physically active women and men feel more in control of their body and health. Women report a significantly higher level of control over activities for fun and significantly more activities for change than men. This indicates a greater openness and awareness of own possibilities. All groups reported the highest opportunity for activities for fun. Physically active women and men believe they have greater chances of achieving all the aspects but men tend to see less opportunity than women. By reporting little opportunity, the passive groups betray certain scepticism in terms of their own contribution to change.

Health

We were also interested in finding what differences there are in the subjective evaluation of health, health problems and health-related care of one's body.

Table 3. Health complaints (%)

	Women			Men		
	passive	active	general	active	passive	general
Sleep disorders	17	11	28	28	20	48
Fatigue	23	9	32	30	19	49
Headache	13	10	23	11	11	22
Backache	26	22	48	43	37	80
Digestive complaints	17	14	31	24	13	37
Overall weakness	18	11	29	25	17	42
Total complaints	114	77	191	161	117	278

The most commonly reported health complaint was backache, which was stated by nearly a half of all women and as many as 80% of men. Fatigue, digestive complaints and sleep disorders were quite common, too. Men have more health complaints than women (except headache). Physically active men and women reported significantly less complaints than the passive groups. The biggest difference was found in terms of fatigue and, in men, in terms of digestive complaints. The positive results achieved by the physically active respondents are conclusive.

Table 4. Healthcare in physically active and passive respondents (%)

Passive women	Active women	Passive men	Active men
	151		

	no	seldom	regul.	no	seldom	regul.	no	seldom	regul.	no	seldom	regul.
Visits to GP	26	14	12	26	13	9	59	28	13	54	28	18
Visits to dentist	8	21	23	8	19	21	28	39	33	30	32	38
Visits to gynaecol.	6	24	22	7	21	19						
Visits to optician	41	9	2	37	9	2	91	7	2	89	8	2
	no	10 +		no	10 +		no	10 +		no	10 +	
Smoking (cigarettes / day)	43	5		43	2		81	10		83	6	
	no	1-3	repeat	ne	1-3	repeat	ne	1-3	repeat	ne	1-3	repeat
Weight-loss diet (how many times)	32	10	8	32	12	6	87	11	3	91	7	2

In terms of awareness of the importance of regular visits to doctors and in terms of health-conscious behaviour, no significant differences were found between active and passive group, with the exception of the amount of physical activity in the weekly regime. The number of smokers among active and passive respondents is similar, although physically active individuals seem to smoke fewer cigarettes a day. Weight-loss diet is not frequent. The physically active groups report lower numbers but the differences are not significant.

Discussion and Conclusion

The objective of the article was to analyse the relationship one has to his or her own body and health, thoughts and feelings based on sorting criteria including sex and the amount of physical activity in the weekly regime. Our results indicate that self-concept is largely determined by the sex of the person rather than by other circumstances. Like other researchers (Fox, 1990, Grogan, 2000, Higgins, 1997), we found that self-image and the attitude one takes to one's self and one's body depends primarily on the sex, to some degree on physical activity and less so on age, education and other factors. The results reported in this article confirm the importance of physical activity for satisfaction with one's look, health, function and performance of one's body. Physically more active groups (especially men who ascribe more importance to physical activity and performance) appreciate the body and health more, they are also significantly happier with the monitored aspects of their physical and mental state. At the same time, they feel more in control of their body and feelings. Active people tend to see more opportunity for change, which indicates a higher level of self-confidence. Furthermore, the number of health complaints reported by these respondents is significantly lower than that reported by inactive respondents.

A surprising finding was that respondents (especially women) declared greater importance of psychological aspects (thoughts and feelings) than physical aspects (body and health). This might be influenced by stress, work overload, tension and worries that are part of the everyday lives of us all. The importance of mental and physical health was recognised by more than 80% of respondents. In terms of the psychological aspects, the most important factors were: life without fear and tension, independence of thought and action, feeling good about self. In terms of physical aspects, the most important factors were hygiene and bodily care, health. Physical activity and fitness were considered more important than look and nutrition. Physically active individuals, physical health, hygiene and activity are of more importance while physically passive respondents are more concerned about hygiene, physical health and looks. They replaced physical activity by looks in this value system, which may explain why physically inactive people tend to be more susceptible to advertisements promoting products that promise miraculous changes to the body and looks without much effort.

Evaluation of satisfaction looked rather different. Overall, satisfaction was lower than the reported importance (lower scores were reported on all aspects by both men and women). In psychological terms, men and women were the least satisfied in terms of life free of tension and worries and the way they feel about themselves and what they think of themselves. In terms of physical aspects, the least satisfaction was reported on activity and fitness as well as looks and nutrition in women. This dissatisfaction may lead women to adopt behaviour that is commendable in terms of health but, on the other hand, lack of understanding and susceptibility to media pressure may lead women to believe in the impossible. Once the promised results fail to materialise, even more dissatisfaction may be felt. Women are considered more susceptible to advertising than men (even more so if they are young and have less education) and many companies take clever advantage of this. Men complained the most about nutrition, sexual life and looks. The biggest dissatisfaction in psychological terms was reported regarding mental health and independence of action. It was hygiene and bodily care in physical terms.

The sense of having control over self also plays a role your self-concept and self-confidence. The results indicate difference in the control over physical and mental aspects felt by men and women. Women feel they have their thoughts and feelings under control while men feel in control of their bodies. The respondents realise that they have a great choice of activities for fun (a total of 80% of respondents recognised this). Control over

thoughts and feelings was reported by approx. 65% of respondents and control of body and health by even fewer respondents (approx. 60%). There is an interesting difference in terms of control over activities for change or the ability to cope with negative things – this type of control was felt by 71% of women but only 46% of men. This result may indicate that men are less ready to deal with changes.

Opportunity for change or chance of achieving change was identified on a larger scale than the feeling of having control. Women and men see the most opportunities for activities for fun (over 80%). A surprisingly high number of respondents see opportunity for bodily care and health. A total of 76% of passive, 79% of active women, 67% of passive and 82% of active men believe they can achieve positive change in this respect if they try. Men feel a great discrepancy between opportunity for (61% passive and 71% active men) and control over (39% passive and 52% active men) activities for change. Many respondents believe that they have the chances and opportunities but they do not take advantage of them and they are unable to take control of their body and health.

The entire society is now under media pressure, which demands that everybody take good care of their bodies without respecting individual possibilities and limits faced by every individual. Our task is to educate people to take qualified measures to improve their health and accept themselves the way they are. Success and socioeconomic prosperity can be achieved only by a healthy society. A healthy society is composed of healthy individuals who recognise their own value, who like themselves and who work on their own growth and development with their own individual limits.

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The Place of Pedagogical Training in Engineering Education

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Abstract

Academic personnel attendant in engineering education predominantly performs educational functions besides research functions, development and laboratory works. At this stage, the communication and interaction between instructor and student make very large influence in the quality of the education. This paper describes the role of pedagogical knowledge and training of instructors and academic personnel in the educational activity and in the relation and communication with students. A list of fundamental objectives is presented along with suggestions.

Keywords. Pedagogy, education, engineering, academic, formation

Introduction

The responsibility of a university is to educate students for their profession. Students should learn how to realize and solve problems in their profession. Learning is described as a permanent change in an individual's behavior that controlled by teacher. In engineering education, facts and rules are developed through education. On the other hand education has to be support by creativity, responsibility, ability to work in a team and to communicate with others (MEYER, 1985). Student should gain these skills as efficiently as possible. In order to make a change of the learner's behavior which is controlled by the teacher, teacher should have the pedagogical formation.

Teaching strategies are the ways which are divided as student-based strategies and teacher-based strategies in order to represent subjects to reach the goals of the learning (EAUM, 2002). Strategies are used to reach the learning aims. Instructor has to select the suitable strategies for learning goals while planning education.

Instructor picks the suitable learning strategies which are defined as repeat strategies, signification strategies, organization strategies, observation of the understanding strategies and sensory strategies while planning the education.

Learning strategies include the technics to transfer and process the impulses come from sensory nerves to the memory. Moreover, these technics which simplify learning, guide students and make the fresh-learned behaviors permanent in the memory and also help students to achieve the information. Learning strategies are invented by the students. Thus, every student has own unique learning technic (Demirel, 2006). On the other hand fundamentals of learning and teaching according to Meyer (1985) can be classified in to six groups. These are variables of the instructional process, educational objectives, psychological structure, sociological structure, instruction methods and experiments. Meyer (1985) has obtained that the application of pedagogics in engineering education can improve efficiency of learning very much.

A good teaching aims to teach the students how to learn, how to remember, how to think and how to get students motivated.

Learning style is defined as environmental and factual choices which affect the individual's entire physical and emotional needs that students make throughout the learning process. Every student has different learning and processing of the information styles. Learning style is the best way that students learn. Learning styles are divided as visual (Seeing and reading, reading oneself, colorful figures-charts-graphics, visual technology, show and make), auditory(hearing, listening, discussing, interactive class) and kinesthesia [with entire body](physical contact, experimental learning, dramatize, making a project) (Demirel,2006).

Discovering the learning styles showed us, most students considered "lazy", have solely lack of learning styles because of ignoring them. That makes teachers to uncover those styles with various technics. According to researches, teachers have knowledge of a few technics which are not enough (Davidson et.al.1982, Jones et.al. 1987). Teachers must be competent about teaching technics and must have different technics in their class.

Learning process has to be led by teacher considering learning psychology and pedagogy to make a change in behavior of the student. Therefore, teachers must have pedagogical formation.

Methods and Procedures

Pedagogy means, the study of teaching methods and activities. Also, formation means the way to form something. In that way, pedagogical formation can be considered as the formation which has to be possessed for teaching. In other word, education of the pedagogical formation which is required to become a teacher can also be considered as appropriate way to use teaching methods of any discipline.

In engineering education, instructors generally use speech, presentation with computer, problem solving and question – answer. On the other hand during the teaching time, instructors should take account the time planning, speaking speed, auxiliary document, time – content relation and appearance of the instructor etc. All these things said here have influence on the learning quality of students. For example while making presentation with computer, one instructor should be careful with below points:

- must read by one by,
- speech speed level must be low,
- each reflection must be in proper scale,
- every time must be done a connection with previous lecture,
- must put an "s" between words,
- must explain the aim of the course clearly,
- must refer to letter course.

As seen above, while giving a lecture to the students, there are a lot of rules that an instructor should follow. In order to give these rules to the teachers, there is pedagogical formation training in faculty of education. But engineering teachers do not follow this type of training. If they can follow this type of training, quality of engineering education will surprisingly increase.

In Turkey, pedagogical formation training is given by the faculties of education. Any one graduated from an university can also take pedagogical formation training if he wants to work as a teacher in minister of national education. An instructor who works as a teacher in universities should not take a training in pedagogical formation. This difference affects the quality of engineering education. Instructors who teach in the universities should have pedagogical formation to make an effective education ambiance, to have various repertoires of engineering education strategies and methods.

Teaching methods have been found very effective in developing a set of desirable soft skills in the student (Nabhani N. 2010). Nabhani (2010) also says that "We must give students an opportunity to make use of their acquired knowledge. Students will benefit from new teaching strategies thus improving their employment prospects and career opportunities".

Lectures (Turkish Council of Higher Education –YOK, Pedagogic Formation Directive,2013) for the education of the pedagogical formation are:

- Introduction to Educational Science (2-0-2)
- Measurement and Evaluation (2-0-2)
- Theories and Approaches for Teaching and Learning (2-0-2)
- Psychology of evolution (2-0-2)

- Program Development and Teaching (2-0-2)
- Teaching Technologies and Material Design (2-2-3)
- Fundamental Principles of Educational Technology
- Special Teaching Methods (3-2-4)
- Guidance (2-0-2)
- Classroom Management (2-0-2)
- Teaching Applications (2-6-5)

Total Program; Theory: 21 credits, Practice: 10 credits and Total: 26 credits.

A similar program for engineering pedagogical formation has been suggested by Adolf Melezinek (2001). The lectures in this program are:

- Fundamental Principles of Psychology (16 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Sociology (8 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Communication Studies (44 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Understandable Text Creation (16 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Educational Technology (12 Lessons)
- Biological Fundamental Principles of Development and Education (8 Lessons)
- Laboratory Didactics (12 Lessons)
- Fundamental Principles of Engineering Pedagogy (36 Lessons)
- Engineering Educational Practical (36 Lessons)

Total Program: 188 Lessons

Results and Discussion

It can be seen that, there are important differences between pedagogical formation education program used in Turkey and engineering pedagogical formation suggested by Melezinek. This difference shows that, the pedagogical formation education program which is used in Turkey, should be rearranged and be used in pedagogical formation for engineering education. At present there is necessity to pedagogical formation education for engineers who works as an teacher in engineering universities.

A study from Kantonidou (2010) determines 85% of the teachers think engineering pedagogy is required. Also Meyer (Meyer, 1985) suggests that pedagogy in engineering effects the education very much and institutes of education should rearrange methods according to specific conditions. In Turkey, it should be emphasized by the educational institutes that provide engineering education, should improve themselves about pedagogical formation.

Conclusion

The deficiencies about pedagogical formation should be cleared by seminars and symposiums. It is required for more efficient and effective engineering education.

It is foreseen that giving a pedagogical formation seminar which is improved for engineering education, to PhD students before they conclude the education may increase students' success in engineering faculties. A suggestion for pedagogical formation training of engineering instructors can be made as :

- Fundamental Principles of Educational Science (2-0-2)
- Measurement and Evaluation (2-0-2)
- Theories and Approaches for Teaching and Learning (2-0-2)
- Fundamental principles of learning and evolution psychology (2-0-2)
- Program Development and Teaching (2-0-2)
- Teaching Technologies and Material Design (2-0-2)
- Special Teaching Methods (2-2-3)
- Fundamental Principles of Sociology (2-0-2)
- Communication in management (2-0-2)
- Classroom and education management (2-0-2)
- Teaching Applications (1-4-3)
- Human relations and management (2-0-2)
- Research methods and prepare scientific report (2-0-2)

Total Program; Theory: 25 credits, Practice: 6 credits and Total: 28 credits.

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Using Mobile Devices to Integrate Economic Simulations in Teaching Approaches Based on Direct Instruction

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Abstract

The increasing proliferation of mobile devices brings with it opportunities for developing innovative didactic scenarios for university lectures. This potential for development is particularly evident in lectures with directive teaching methods, in which participants assume a passive and receptive role and the lecturer receives no feedback on the learning progress of the students. In lectures without accompanying tutorials, this problem is even more prominent, as the knowledge transmitted can neither be applied nor tested in other contexts. In order to address this issue, a technical system and a concept for integrating interactive exercises into lectures is being developed as part of the MTED project. An interventional study (n=331) will investigate the effect of interactive exercises in economics lectures on students' learning processes.

Keywords.

Introduction

Current forecasts show that there will be a strong growth in the use of mobile devices over the next few years (Llamas et al., 2013). This development can be used to more actively include the participants in the learning process with the integration of mobile devices, and to investigate the effects of this on the transfer of knowledge. In this context, lectures without accompanying tutorials constitute a subject for research, as (1) the participants can neither apply nor transfer the knowledge learned during the lecture, and (2) the lecturer receives no feedback on the learning progress of the students. Furthermore, current findings in modern didactics, which are rarely considered during the planning phase when using directive teaching methods, indicate that such an intervention is necessary. "Progressive educational concepts as well as cognitivist and constructivist theories of learning consider learning as an independent activity, and see the learner (subject) in a manner that is very similar to the (neo-liberal) concept of a (self-) responsible and self-managing subject (Rabenstein/Reh, 2007)". Based on this concept, studies from scholastic environments show that directive teaching methods (cf. table 1) are more effective in transmitting knowledge, and therefore superior to other methods. This conclusion was made based on studies (Hattie 2009) that show that frontal instruction is more effective, efficient and time-saving than other teaching methods when learning cognitive competencies and when applying knowledge (cf. Ofenbach, 2003: p. 307-315). On the other hand, non-directive teaching methods may be beneficial when non-cognitive goals, such as social learning, cooperative abilities, creativity, imagination and self-confidence are to be integrated into the curriculum.

This was the conclusion Paetzold (cf. Klusmeyer et al., 2003) arrived at after evaluating a study involving 1400 school students and 177 teaching staff, and discovering that two-thirds of the students felt that frontal teaching negatively affects motivation. The studies carried out by a research group (Nickolaus et al., 2003) could not find any clear evidence to support the assertion that a directive and guiding approach is inferior for industrial and technical vocational training courses. These studies allow requirements to be inferred for planning school curricula. However, university lectures typically take the form of directive teaching methods, and in particular from an economic point of view, the utilization of alternative teaching methods appears to be difficult to

implement. On the other hand, a study (Deslauriers/Wiemann, 2011) showed that the use of various methods (discussions, clicker systems) can increase the knowledge gained, as well as improve motivation and the transmission of theoretical concepts. In the context of economics lectures positive effects through the use of economic experiments and simulations could be determined (Schloesser et al., 2012). Compared to the study of Wiemann, this study also shows that classroom experiments can improve the transmission of theoretical concepts (see e.g., Holt and Davis 1993, Holt 2006). In relation to these research results, the question arises, which effect have economics simulations on knowledge acquisition and other non-cognitive skills of students in university lectures.

Table 1: Teaching approaches based on direct instruction are advantageous for: (cf. Klusmeyer et al., 2003)

	is always correct	is often the case	applies rarely	does not apply	not specified
Be able to cope the contents of the curriculum.	50.6 %	40.3 %	3.4 %	3.4 %	2.3 %
Acquire knowledge about concepts.	28.4 %	61.4 %	8.5 %	0.6 %	1.1 %
Elaborate contextual knowledge.	15.3 %	52.8 %	23.3 %	4.5 %	4.0 %
To learn how to apply knowledge.	3.4 %	24.4 %	43.8 %	26.1 %	2.3 %
Increasing the independence of the students.	1.7 %	5.7 %	44.3 %	46.0 %	2.3 %
Promoting the problemsolving skills of the students.	1.1 %	24.4 %	42.6 %	29.0 %	2.8 %
Promoting a practical school education.	3.4 %	20.5 %	41.5 %	31.3 %	3.4 %

MTED Project

The project MTED (www.mted.de) provides a “rapid application development tool” for the design of interactive lectures. The implementation of learning applications carried out via MTED modules (general and domain specific) that contain technical contents and pedagogical structures. The following interactive task “option trading” shows the exemplary construction of a collaborative MTED module. It has already been used and evaluated in the context of a finance lecture. From specialized scientific point of view options are a financial derivative that represents a contract sold an option writer to an option holder. The option contract offers the buyer the right, but not the obligation, to call or put a financial asset at an agreed-upon price (strike price) during the exercise date. The participants have the possibility of trading options on a stock exchange in the lecture by using their mobile devices. Figure 1 shows the participants view, in which the parameters number of shares, share price, bounty and execution date can be adjusted to place options on the virtual stock exchange. Besides the sale of options, the participants can purchase the options placed on the stock market, which were placed by the other participants of the lecture. As additional information the current market price, the current date, the rate forecast and the current transactions of the participants are displayed with the beamer. The transactions on the stock exchange are analyzed by the simulation model and displayed on mobile devices. After completion of the simulation, the lecturer can access individual strategies of option transactions and connect to terms such as strike price, in the money, at the money or out of the money.

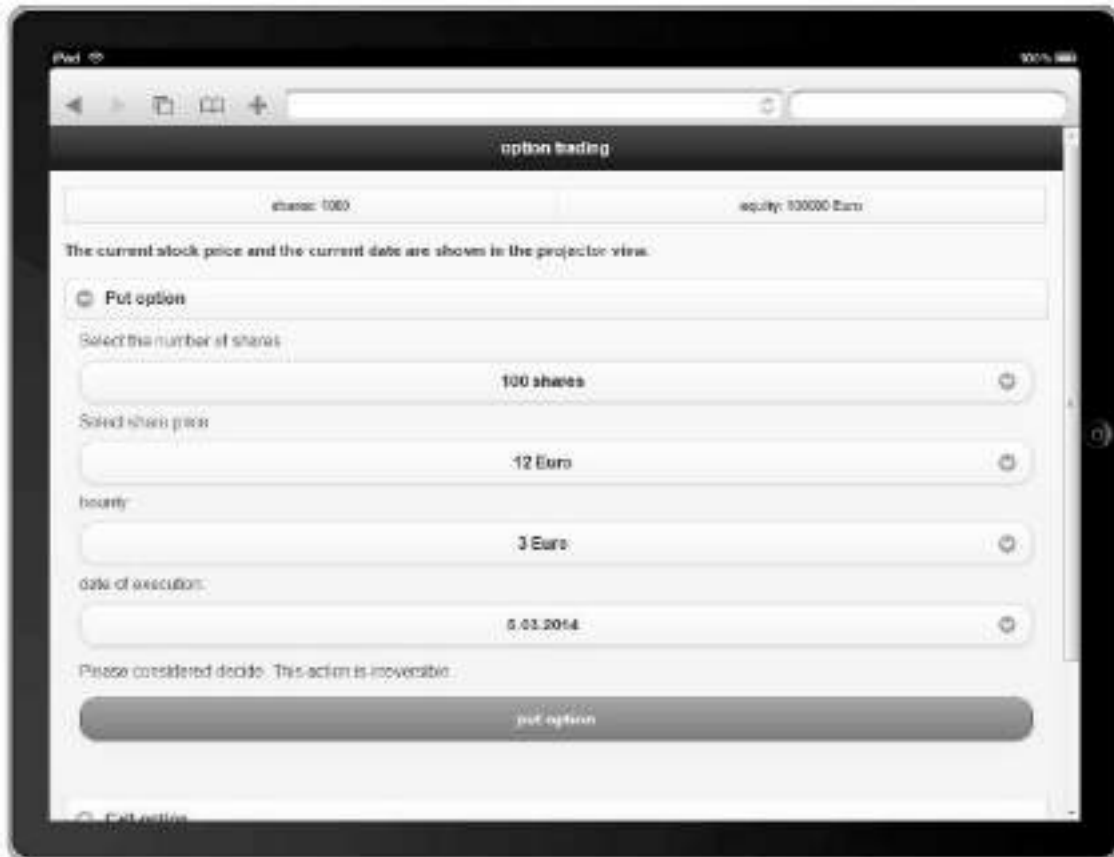


Figure 1: Participants view

Design of the Research

During the winter term 2013/12 an intervention study to analyze the effect of MTED modules on knowledge acquisition of students in university lectures was conducted. Overall, two variants were developed for the individual lectures. In the first variant (interventional group), interactive exercises were integrated into the lecture via mobile devices. For example, in the lecture "Economics I", the following modules were included:

Module A1: Leverage effect

- The participants determine over several periods the amount of the debt financing in conjunction with a case description and experience the effects on equity, equity ratio, return on equity, return on assets and other financial indicators.

Modul A2: Trading with options

- Participants take part in a simulation and can place and purchase options on a market in real time. With the projector current market events will be displayed.

Modul A3: Criticism of the leverage effect

- The participants have previously tested the leverage effect in the module A1. Afterwards each participant has to prefer one point of criticism. At the end, the module provides a rated list of criticisms of the leverage effect (Aulinger et al., 2009).

Modul A4: new shares and corporate bonds

- In the context of a case description, the participants learn about the relative financial costs of an issue of new shares compared to the issue of corporate bonds.

In the second variant (control group), the lecture was carried out without interventions, such that only the implementation of the interactive exercises was varied. At the current time, the MTED modules are being tested in two lectures on the topics of investment, financing and accounting with a total of 331 students. In order to collect information on various constructs, the use of the MTED modules was evaluated with the use of

standardized survey forms. In the first section of the lecture, a pre-test was carried out, where data on motivation, prior knowledge, self-evaluation, acceptance of mobile devices, concentration and learning preferences was collected. In the subsequent three lectures, two interactive exercises including a feedback phase were carried out in each case, after which they were evaluated with the use of a survey form at the end of the lecture. By doing so, a comprehensive amount of data could be collected for the analysis of cognitive and non-cognitive effects. At the end of the semester, a test of the students' knowledge will be carried out via the final exam. The data collected is expected to allow possible effects arising from the use of interactive exercises to be identified at the end of the comparative semester.

Results

What follows below is a presentation of the initial results for the module "trading with options", as the overall data collection has not yet been completed. This module was covered in the lecture "Economics I". There were 43 male and 54 female students who participated ($n = 97$). The majority of the participants was between 21 and 23 years of age and in their third to fourth semester. In addition, the pre-test showed that most of the participants preferred textual explanations to mathematical ones when attempting to acquire the knowledge in the lecture.

table 2: Which representation would you prefer, if you acquire content for the lecture?

	fully agree	somewhat agree	rather disagree	do not agree at all
mathematical formulas (for example: calculation of interest)	4.1 %	23.7 %	42.3 %	29.9 %
technical texts and application examples	32 %	62.9 %	3.1 %	1.0 %
graphics and images (for example, a curve for the cost comparison method)	23.7 %	49.5 %	19.6 %	5.2 %

Based on these basic parameters, the participants' prior knowledge of the topics covered in the lecture was also assessed in the pre-test. Most of the participants felt that they had very little prior knowledge of business studies ($> 90\%$). At the same time as the pre-test, a specialized test was also carried out to ascertain the level of prior knowledge students had on the following topics: Basic Terms (G), Investment Basics (IG), Investment Methods (IM), Financing Basics (FG) and Financing Methods (FM).

table 3: Test prior knowledge: How many questions were answered correctly in subject areas?

G	IG	FG	IM	FM
37.29 %	35.82 %	23.34 %	35.88 %	4.04 %

Table 3 shows that, contrary to their self-assessment, the participants did have some prior knowledge of the topics of the lecture. This is probably due to the fact that some of these topics were covered in foundation lectures that these students attended earlier on. However, the poor performance in "Financing Methods" was striking. Due to this, the decision was made to include the module "trading with options" in the lecture. In addition to information on prior knowledge, it was also necessary to collect information on the extent to which the participants were willing to accept the use of mobile devices. From the results of the pre-test, it was possible to ascertain that most of the participants were willing to do test exercises on their mobile devices during the lecture. At the same time, the uncertainty among the participants, who had no specific information on the use of the interactive exercises at the beginning, was also apparent from the acceptance survey. The surveys conducted at the end of the interventions showed that the acceptance of the use of mobile devices to facilitate the integration of exercises increased with the amount of information participants received on the process. In addition to these basic parameters, the extent of the influence of the interactive exercises on the concentration and motivation of the participants was also examined. Most of the participants indicated that their concentration declined during the course of the lecture. Similarly, further surveys showed that neither the topic nor the lecturer had a significant influence on the participants' motivation.

table 4: Results of the motivation of participants in the first three lectures.

fully agree	somewhat agree	rather disagree	do not agree at all	not specified
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The subject of the lecture motivates me to an engagement with the contents.	2.1 %	24.7 %	56.7 %	15.5 %	1 %
The lecturer of the course motivated me to an intensive engagement with the contents.	4.1 %	27.8 %	57.7 %	10.3 %	0.1 %

Based on the results of the pre-test, effects could be identified using the data from the module "trading with options". An evaluation of the trading strategies showed that 39 participants were able to increase the initial value of their \$100.000 portfolio with the use of stock options, while 14 incurred losses from exercising their stock options. In total, the participants placed 242 options on the market, of which 160 were acquired and 120 were accepted on the execution date. Table 5 shows which options were placed on the individual trading dates on average:

table 5: Average results of the placement of options in the module "trading with options"

execution date	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
number	320,37	181.25	200	173.33	177.77	292.30	189.47	233.33	193	189.65
price	20.37	17.75	15.53	22.4	21.11	25.46	30.15	24.56	27.47	27.10
bounty	4.42	3.125	2.26	5.26	5.11	6.15	6.15	7.63	9.03	10.03
current share price	18	15	19	20	32	21	45	45	12	19

Although many options were placed on the first trading date, the participants probably realized that this strategy was not very productive, and over time the number of stocks per option was reduced. During the transition from day 5 to day 6, the influence of the positive forecast of the stock prices for day 5 became apparent, resulting in more options being placed on the market. Furthermore, the results showed that the participants based the placements of their options on current share prices and the forecast for the stock market price. At the same time, the error rate when placing options and the valuation of the options on the trading date also decreased. This behavior allows one to conclude that the participants had understood what a "strike price" is and were able to estimate it correctly on the trading date. In conclusion, an analysis of the data suggests that most of the participants were able to "logically" set the parameters "shares", "share price", "bounty" and "date of execution" by taking into account the current market situation, and that they had acquired an understanding of these basic concepts. Moreover, the participants also reported that in addition to their motivation, their interest in the topic of financial derivatives had also increased. The impact on concentration is not clearly evident (cf. figure 2). The module "trading with options" was conducted in the second third of the course. This visualization shows that the concentration is considerably affected by the intervention. On the one hand, the concentration is improved in the second third of the lecture, on the other hand, there is a distinct redistribution of the concentration.

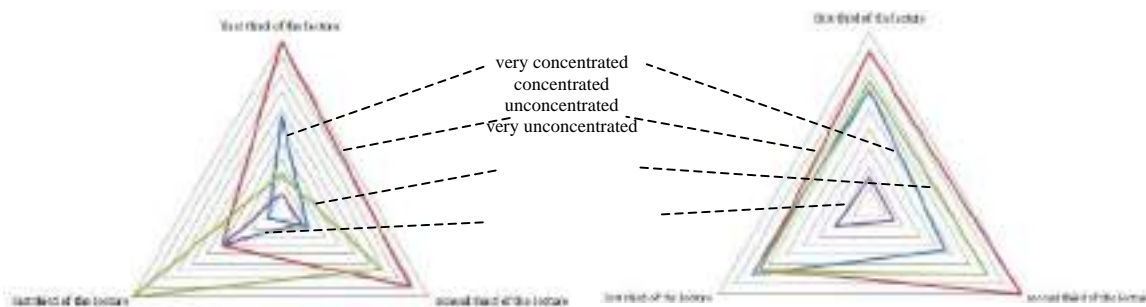


figure 2: Comparison of the concentration from the pre-test (left) with the concentration in the lecture, in which the module "trading with options" was tested (right)

Prospect

With the MTED project a pedagogic and technical overall concept to present interactive simulations in lectures was developed. Altogether twelve interactive exercises could be implemented and evaluated in six lecture units. Through the first analyzes of the data collected positive effects of this interactive exercises can be identified. The results of the simulation "trading with options" show that technical terms of a lecture can be applied directly by the students. In addition, the application has a positive impact on the motivation and concentration. Final results with regards to knowledge acquisition, cognitive and non-cognitive skills will be available after evaluation of the control group in February 2015.

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VET Teacher Preparation in Slovakia and the New VET Professionals - Entrepreneurship Trainers for VET

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Abstract

High level youth unemployment rate is the common problem of many countries. Demands for a highly skilled workforce for the European economy are new and demanding challenges for the teacher and training community. There is a common need to update VET-teachers' qualifications and competences in the EU. This article deals with VET teacher preparation in Slovakia and briefly describes partial results of ENTANGLE (Entrepreneurship Trainers for VET: A Novel Generation Learning approach) project in which the authors participate. The project has an innovative practical approach to stimulating entrepreneurship among students in VET institutions by providing their teachers with the tools and materials to educate inspire and motivate their students for them to be able to pursue a career as an entrepreneur. The project aims at reaching the biggest number of VET teachers possible and start a lively discussion with them on entrepreneurship teaching and policies in the EU.

Keywords.

Introduction

Vocational education and training has in recent years gained important role in the European social and political agenda. Today's and tomorrow's demands for a highly skilled workforce for the European economy are new and demanding challenges for the teacher and training community. New skills and competencies are needed for success and those skills should be a component part of education.

Nowadays, many European countries indicate high unemployment among young people. Slovakia is an extremely open economy with total annual export and import over 200 % of GDP. Since its independence Slovakia has been all the time characterized by a strong share of employed in industry, regardless changes in other sectors, e.g. a growth in the service sector and dramatic decrease of employed people in agriculture (from 256,489 as of 31st December 1992 to 84,900 in 2009 (LFS), according to the Statistical Office). In 2010, also ISCED 3-4 educated aged 20-24 feature extremely high unemployment rate with 30.6 % - the sixth highest in the EU far over the EU 27 average (18.1 %). Unemployment hits elderly and young people extraordinarily hard as their employability is perceived as lower compared to other age groups by employers. Employers prefer experienced middle age workers who are again available at the market due the crisis and therefore young and elderly people are even more disadvantaged since 2008. (ENTANGLE, summary country reports, 2013, p. 8) "Current economic crisis is considered a truly profound crisis". (Ambrozy, 2010, p. 7) As different parts of the world are experiencing dramatic changes from economic fluctuations, government revolutions, technological innovations, and generational transitions, there is arising a new role of VET in sustaining entrepreneurship and economic development. Quality education is increasingly important for individual countries since it is one of the key factors for economic competitiveness in the global knowledge-based economy. The task of the modern country and education is to increase the competence of the employees, to maintain internationally competitive research and development base and to improve the application of knowledge for the benefit of the society. The system of vocational education contributes to social and economic development. Pressure on continuous changes in vocational education will continue. Increasing competition between providers of education and the demand lasts. Information and knowledge have become the determination factors of economic growth, which very often becomes the synonym of increasing the living standard, connected with the ability of economic subject to save and replace the growth factors and increase competition ability. (Svitačová, Kováčiková, 2010, p. 1786)

Methods and procedures

The goal of the paper is to analyze the system of VET teacher preparation in Slovakia and briefly describe partial results of ENTANGLE project (Entrepreneurship Trainers for VET: A Novel Generation Learning approach) in which the authors participate as a partner of international consortium. The project has an innovative practical approach to stimulating entrepreneurship among students in VET institutions by providing their teachers with the tools and materials to educate inspire and motivate their students for them to be able to pursue a career as an entrepreneur. The ENTANGLE project addresses entrepreneurship in (Secondary) Vocational Education institutes. The project aims at reaching the biggest number of VET teachers possible and start a lively discussion with them on entrepreneurship teaching and policies in the EU.

A review and analysis of relevant text documents and a qualitative methodology is employed.

All partners wrote a country report, which includes general information about the country, demographical and economic statistics about the target group and a qualitative analysis in the form of a summary of a questionnaire from the VET teachers and students. In the paper are summarized only the results of Slovakian partner.

Key points of educational system in Slovakia

Although slightly changed in the 1990s and in 2008, the Slovak education system is still substantially based on the Czechoslovak system as established by a fundamental reform from the 1970s. It featured a strong secondary VET originally designed for 85% of respective age cohort, complemented by a slim, strongly academically oriented general education stream and restrictive access to tertiary education. The education system was designed to supply qualified secondary VET graduates with at least ISCED 3C education level. Thus, the Slovak education system still features a high share of secondary VET graduates and a low share of early school leavers. Many secondary VET school graduates enter universities that dramatically expanded in number of institutions as well as students. Bachelor studies aimed at entering the labour market are however rare and students massively progress to master studies. Post-secondary studies offered by secondary VET schools leading to higher professional level of education (ISCED 5B), although originally highly valued by the labour market, has been weakening, in particular in comparison to university studies boom. Initially, only universities were recognised by legislation as higher education institutions, which hampered development of a non-university segment of tertiary education. (CEDEFOP, 2012)

Compulsory education in Slovakia is 10 years and takes the longest to end of the school year in which child reaches 16 years of age. The tenth year of compulsory school pupils take to attend the high school. The structure of educational system consists of pre-primary education (facilities for pre-school children) primary education (elementary school 1st level, classes 1st- 4th), lower secondary education (elementary school 2nd level, classes 5th - 9th or the lower stage of 8 year gymnasia- prima-quart). Upper secondary education is divided into grammar schools (gymnasia), vocational specialized schools, conservatories (artistic schools). After completion of basic school, students, typically at the age of 15, make their choice of secondary school. They can decide for VET at secondary specialized schools, for conservatory or for grammar school. Tertiary education is provided by universities.

Continuing education includes further professional education, not only to schools and educational institutions but also enterprises to workplaces, as well as civic education and interest. Education in schools belongs to a subsystem of formal education. Further education belongs to a subsystem of non-formal education. Adult education belongs to both subsystems education. Adult education in both subsystems is implemented as an organized activity directed to acquisition of knowledge, skills and abilities required for the performance of specific activities, in both subsystems is carried out institutional, and is structured according to the objectives, learning time and support for learning. This is done well in school along the main direction of education, but also in other educational institutions, enterprises, workplaces. On adult education in the current period a considerable degree of participating school system (subsystem formal education). In addition to its primary function while providing a second chance for those who for some reason could not get an education or skills during schooling.

The further education takes place in institutions of further education in the form of various short-term and long-term educational activities: seminars, training programs, courses, part-time studies in secondary schools and universities, complementary, extension, special, or retraining studies. At present, besides secondary schools and higher education institutions nearly 300 various educational establishments provide the further education. The further education is accredited on the basis of the Accreditation Commission of the Ministry of Education for the Further Education.

The accreditation, as the state verification of the competence of an educational institution, is granted by the Ministry of Education on the basis of the approval by its Accreditation Commission. The accreditation is conditional on the relevant professional educational orientation of the institution, project submitted by this institution, which must meet all requirements, appropriate educational documentation of the educational activity, qualified staffing and the appropriate material and technical facilities of this institution. The accreditation is granted for five years. Graduates from accredited further education courses are issued certificates by the respective educational institution, which are valid on the whole territory of Slovakia. The expenditures for the further education are covered partially by participants themselves and partially from the funds of employers, from special-purpose subsidies, from the budget of the Centre of Labour (only for accredited retraining education), from budgets of local self-administration, from contributions by foundations and from other sources.

Despite strong progress in reforming VET since 2008 in Slovakia two weak points have remained unaddressed and must be therefore permanently stressed:

- Low investment in education causes lower quality of equipment and low attractiveness of IVET for young professionals to become teachers or trainers. Thus, even best shaped qualification documents are insufficient provided a quality training staff is not available.

- Low investment in VET research and labour market analyses hampers understanding of labour market needs. Data on transition of graduates into work and national employers' surveys are the most urgently missing tools to identify skills needs and skill gaps at workplace level. (CEDEFOP, 2012, p. 40)

General country analysis

European countries have some similarities and differences as well. Each country has the own economic and political development, but many of them, as was said earlier, have the same actual problem – high level youth unemployment rate. This phenomenon is intensified especially after 2008, when the economic crisis began and continues to this day. The following table provides information about the youth unemployment rate in the partner countries of the project.

Table 1: Youth unemployment rate of each partner's country (Entangle R6 country report WP2, 2013, p. 10)

Country	2010	2011	2012
Cyprus	16,6	22,4	27,8
Netherland	8,7	7,6	9,5
Lithuania	35,3	32,2	26,4
Slovakia	33,9	33,5	34
Spain	41,6	46,4	53,2

The basic pillar VET trainings are clearly reducing youth unemployment.

Entrepreneurship is option how to overcome the contemporary situation; it is a necessary condition for economic growth and development. Modern states converge in treating entrepreneurship as a key economic resource. But entrepreneurship is especially important in the period of structural change and changing global division of labour. Entrepreneurship according to the current demands is important part of education and especially of vocational education. There is a common need to develop and update VET-teachers' qualifications and competences in the EU. There are many reasons, for example: globalization meaning that industries and services need new abilities to meet competition inside and outside the EU; the population in the EU is ageing; the changing vocational qualifications; the pool of unskilled or semi-skilled labour and their willingness to learn new skills are challenging.

VET teachers

The changing nature of the VET practitioner and the constant evolution of the VET sector itself poses challenges to those involved in the many forms of VET teacher preparation in Slovakia. The quality and attention to learning and teaching integral to the professional development of these VET trainee teachers impacts on how they in turn will work with their own students. A range of models are employed to train VET teachers. UNESCO (2001) recommended that vocational teachers should be of the same status as other teachers, and that their preparation for teaching should be over three years.

Access to the teachers' qualification is generally regulated by and subject to the control of a ministerial authority. In almost all EU countries, to qualify as a teacher of vocational training, it is necessary to have a higher education degree followed by teacher training regulated at national level. In some cases the higher education degree can be replaced by a nationally recognized vocational qualification. In most countries the qualifications required of trainers or workplace instructors have not been formally defined. Neither do there appear to be any specific training paths to become a trainer of continuing training in a company or in a training organization. (Cort P., Härkönen A., Volmari K, 2004, p. 23) Teachers contrast with workplace trainers and instructors. While national regulations impose (varying) requirements on staff involved in initial vocational training, there is no formal definition of the qualifications or formal training required to take part in continuing training. The same situation is in Slovakia.

Teachers and trainers in Slovakia

IVET staff is dominantly bound to the education institutions. There are traditionally three categories of VET school teachers officially recognized by the education sector legislation: teachers of general subjects, teachers of vocational subjects and teachers of practical training. The latter category of teachers is involved in practical lessons at school, e.g., in laboratories and practical lessons connected to workplaces specified within curricula and aimed at applying theoretical knowledge gained during theoretical subjects. Trainers are responsible for assisting in gaining respective skills (predominantly manual) during practical training. Although VET in Slovakia is dominantly school-based, in some cases practical training is offered outside the school. Based on an agreement between a school and a company, practical training can be provided directly by the company in its own premises and by its own staff, but under the supervision of the school. These professionals are often called instructors to differentiate between them and trainers from schools.

Teacher training is traditionally offered by universities. VET teachers, who are university graduates from other than teacher programs look for receiving full teacher

qualification by completing complementary pedagogical studies aimed at acquiring of pedagogical competence. All higher education institutions have redesigned their programs in line with the Bologna process and submitted the reconstructed study programs for accreditation. The reform also contributed to emergence of new programs, „*inter alia*“, bachelor studies for VET trainers. Although formal requirements for secondary VET school trainers remained unchanged and tertiary education is not required in contrast to teachers, VET trainers enter universities to achieve a Bachelor degree, allowing them also better remuneration in public sector jobs (including schools). The traditional option to acquire pedagogical competence via non tertiary complementary pedagogical studies has remained preserved, however, losing attractiveness for trainers.

Act No. 317/2009 Coll. on pedagogical staff and professional staff introduced the credit system for standards driven continuing training. Accreditation of continuing training programs is carried out by Accreditation Council for Continuing Training of Pedagogical and Professional Staff established in November 2009 as an advisory body to MŠVVŠ. The law also specifies personal and qualification prerequisites concerning all categories of pedagogical and professional staff for four career levels representing a career path: beginner, independent worker, worker with the first and the second attestation.

Training of secondary school teachers

Secondary school teachers of specific subjects are trained at various university faculties according to their field of study in teacher study programmes. The course lasts for five years and leads to a state final examination. It is offered by: Faculties of Arts, Humanities, Natural Sciences, Physical Education and Sports, and Faculties of Education. Graduates of Technical Universities, Universities of Economics and of the University of Agriculture who wish to teach the subjects of their field of study at secondary school level can follow pedagogical training in accredited Complementary pedagogical study program at the university. For example at Slovak University of Agriculture since 1964 students from different faculties have been trained and acquired the qualification of "Teachers" which gives them the chance to progress in the field of agricultural education and training. This qualification also gives the opportunity of the students of SUA to advance in the area of pedagogy.

Complementary pedagogical studies for teachers of vocational subjects are organized according to the law. Applicants have to be MSc graduates (e.g. of agriculture, forestry, horticulture or similar specialisations) it is organised mostly as a 4 semester combined study finished by final exam and it is possible to study also concurrently with corresponding MSc course at university (parallel study). Graduates obtain pedagogical qualification for teaching respective vocational subjects at secondary schools. The study program of Complementary pedagogical studies is at least 200 hours and lasts maximum 36 months, it is divided to 3

modules: pedagogical-psychological, module of special didactics, educational practice and module in field specialization.

Increasing teacher competences

Up-to-date requirements for the educational content which formulate the expert in his field: the educational content shall be in accordance with the demands of the labour market; modern module programmes shall be introduced; people shall be boosted to self-plan their lifelong learning and their career progress;

The courses for students are aimed at introducing extra skills for the future in relation to the specialties they have chosen. Students have to develop new competencies and skills needed for their future profession and therefore the theme of competences in education is very often used in educational theory and also in the practice. There are many various discussions about key competencies in education and teacher professional competencies.

Although a focus on key competences can be seen in the 2007 LLL strategy, a new LLL strategy adopted in 2011 highlighted their importance again with the criticism that the earlier strategy covered this issue “only at low level” and did not develop “the method of their acquisition”. The Action plan to the 2011 LLL strategy indicated in its Measure 4.2 creating a multimedia platform in support of autonomous improvement of key competences by means of learning opportunities provided by this platform. The following key competences are explicitly stressed: communication in foreign languages,

digital competence, social and civic competences and entrepreneurship. (CEDEFOP, 2012, p. 34) As seen from the strategy, we can highlight the entrepreneurship among the competences needed to develop in educational systems with regard to our project. To achieve quality education is needed also focus on teacher development.

Authors Cort, Härkönen, Volmari (2004) point to some of the skills and knowledge teachers need to acquire and teacher training to provide. These include:

- new pedagogical skills in line with the learner centered approach of modern pedagogical theory (‘pedagogical update’) and on-the-job learning techniques now being offered to trainees;
- up-to-date ‘vocational’ skills related to modern technologies and work practices (‘vocational update’);
- awareness of the needs of business and employers;
- skills for team working and networking;
- managerial, organisational and communications skills.

Pedagogical and vocational skills; pedagogical and vocational update

Teachers and trainers in VET require two distinct sets of skills. They need *pedagogical skills*: ability to analyse and identify student needs, ability to design training programmes to meet these needs, ability to teach and ability to assess the educational and professional outcome of this teaching. These are *generic skills* needed by all teachers regardless of the discipline in which they work.

VET teachers also need *vocational skills* and knowledge. They need to understand and perform the tasks trainees will be asked to perform when they leave school and begin work – and also have a firm grounding in the theory underlying these skills.

In the past, VET teachers acquired their pedagogical and vocational skills at the beginning of their careers. Today this is no longer possible. National VET systems are in continuous change. Educational theory suggests innovative teaching methods, some involving the use of technology. And the workplace is changing faster still, both in terms both of technology and working practices.

In this new situation, it is essential that teachers should continuously *update* their pedagogical and vocational skills. In what follows we will refer to these processes as *pedagogical update* and *vocational update*. (Cort P., Härkönen A., Volmari K., 2004, p. 10)

New target groups: VET teachers today have to deal with more diverse target groups than ever before. One of the effects of lifelong learning is an increasing number of adults entering VET programs. A critical challenge for VET is to find ways of teaching adults which take proper account of their previous professional and life experience, their variable skills and their attitudes, which may be very different to those of younger people. In some cases it may be necessary to deal with significant resistance to learning. *Changing paradigms in educational theory*: recent years have seen rapid changes in educational theory which now focuses on learning rather than techniques for ‘transmitting’ information by teachers. The teacher’s role becomes that of a ‘coach’ or ‘facilitator’. This calls upon teachers to plan and differentiate their teaching to take account of students’ different learning styles. Optimal teaching requires teachers to apply a broad range of teaching methods, including project

work, workshops, case studies, etc. The challenge for VET is how to integrate these methods into national VET systems and to equip teachers to use the new methods in their day-to-day classroom practice.

ICT development: one of the key technological developments of the last three decades has been the rapid development of ICT which has invaded every field of business and now has a significant impact on education. Today all VET teachers require general skills in ICT – not just because their students will need ICT skills to meet the needs of the labour market – but because teachers themselves are increasingly expected to use ICT as a teaching tool, as well as for administration. To keep up with students and their demands VET teachers need to find innovative ways of using a computer in their jobs.

Teachers using ICT “can motivate students, curriculum demonstrate, demonstration induce problematic situation. The advantage of using these technologies are: speed, accuracy, operability, easy to operate. In addition, ICT can not only listen and inform, but also to approximate various technical knowledge in addition to their pupils can directly manipulate.” (Host’ovecký, Štubňa, 2012, pg. 139)

This means they have to become familiar not only with e-learning but also with ‘blended models’ in which e-learning is integrated with classroom teaching, group work, seminars, etc. This poses the problem of how best to provide teachers with the technical and non-technical skills they need to take advantage of these opportunities.

Labour market development: The institutions that provide vocational education and training exist to serve the business community, which demands that young people leaving vocational training should have immediately useful skills. If teachers fail to keep up to date with new technologies and new working practices, vocational schools will produce candidates who do not have the skills the labour market requires. One of the key challenges facing VET is how to guarantee that teachers’ ‘vocational skills’ keep up to date with developments in business.

Another challenge, also stemming from developments in the labour market, is how to keep existing teachers and how to attract suitable candidates for the teaching profession. In a ‘knowledge society’ the teaching profession is of central importance. The ideal of lifelong learning cannot be achieved without professional teachers. This is a challenge in which both government and professional organisations have a vital role to play.

Internationalisation: internationalising VET teacher skills is a serious challenge. Market developments imply that to an increasing extent national VET systems are called upon to include an international dimension in the training they provide. Also the action programmes promoted by the EU Commission bring this dimension into the classroom. For teachers, areas of critical importance include language skills, knowledge of other countries, knowledge of trades and trade requirements in other countries, intercultural communicative skills, etc. (Cort P., Härkönen A., Volmari K., 2004, p. 13-14)

Results

These partial results were achieved in the Work Package 2 of the Entangle Project. **Entangle consortium is composed of seven partners from six European Union countries.** The consortium consists of training material and methodology developers, business training and support organisations, VET organisations, universities that train future VET teachers and the EU-wide network association of VET providers (**Fundación Maimona - Spain, First Elements Euroconsultants Ltd. – Cyprus, EfVET –European Forum of technical and Vocational Education and Training, European Leadership Institute –ELIN- Lithuania, CETEI- under Joan XXIII Foundation- Spain, Faculty of Economics and Management – Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra- Slovakia)**

The aim of the project is to equip VET teachers to teach students the emerging skills of entrepreneurship with a focus on the (start-up) micro enterprise. VET students who finish their studies are usually expected to continue their education elsewhere or start a job. Some former students however start up their own firm. Most teachers are unaware of this next step a student takes after graduation. Relations between teachers and world of work should be improved, especially the relations between VET teachers and former VET students of (start-up) micro firms. By applying the results of this project in VET institutes:

- 1) teachers gain insight to competences that are required for the entrepreneurs of today and tomorrow,
- 2) teachers can involve entrepreneurs (former students) in the classroom and together address the students of today, and
- 3) teachers can better interest, support and educate VET students to pursue a career as an entrepreneur.

The ENTANGLE project entered in 2013 its second year of activity and thus started to take shape. In the last year, partners have been conducted a research in their countries to determine the current situation of entrepreneurship teaching in vocational education. This included the collection of background information on education systems, curricula, and conducting interviews with both VET teachers and students to get fresh information right from the work floor.

A series of materials were then analysed in depth to determine the best way to use them developing the ENTANGLE Training Materials. Those were the following: the VIPIA training tool – which is a training package for would-be entrepreneurs, the BDF Methodology, additional materials provided by partners and the conclusions of the brainstorming sessions. As a result, a map on how to use the materials has been developed using the basis of the BMC model which is a tool used to analyse business model or to plan a business model innovation. (Newsletter #2, 2014, p. 1)

In the next steps VET teachers in all partners' countries will test the course in order to provide partners with suggestions to make it usable in different contexts. A draft of the course for teachers was discussed during the project meetings. The main reference for that is the model, that will be supported by ICT and pedagogical tools.

The consortium was able to monitor the situation of entrepreneurship practices and entrepreneurial teaching in the partners countries. Qualitative research used a questionnaire broadly distributed in VET institutes and collected the opinions of teachers and students.

The survey results highlighted a great difference among (and sometimes even within) partners' countries. In particular as regards:

- Law facilities in order to create an enterprise
- Entrepreneurial approach
- Different levels of government help for developing business
- Influence of the education system in boosting the entrepreneurial spirit

However, lacks of the system and the wishes perceived by teachers and students had quite of lot of surprising similarities. The following quotations are an example of that: (T=teacher; S=student). (Newsletter #2, 2014, p. 2)

Do you think that knowledge of the VET lectors is helpful for starting business?

T-ES1: Yes, but teachers need more training on this issue.

T-ES2: Yes, but only if the teacher has been directly related to business creation, or if he/she has worked in a company.

T-LT1: Yes, but most of schools lack human resources thus entrepreneurship must be delivered by teachers who are not active in this field.

S-LT2: Yes, but teachers who teach entrepreneurship usually have never had a business themselves

S-CY1: Teachers certainly contribute to the start –up of an enterprise because their knowledge and this experience help a lot.

T-SK1: Yes, but there is lack of entrepreneurship education contained in our curriculum during the study.

Sometimes teachers think instead that the responsibility is more on students:

T-ES3: Yes, we transmit them the knowledge. But students do not have either the maturity or the intention necessities to start a business.

Entrepreneurship is often not offered as part of the VET curricula, but even with it is, there's not enough practical orientation to the labour market.

A very positive result for the ENTANGLE consortium is represented by many proposals done by teachers, which are in the direction of the project outcomes and objectives.

T-ES6: It is necessary to introduce units related with entrepreneurship in the training programs.

T-ES3: It is necessary to train VET teachers in entrepreneurship, especially to those teachers from areas that are not directly related to the business world.

T-ES4: It is necessary to increase the hours devoted to training entrepreneurship, so this way in the near future entrepreneurial culture would be considered as an important part of education.

T-LT3: Entrepreneurship being the secondary occupation means no time for making engaging classes, a comprehensive portal with tips & tricks would help a lot.

T-NL1: It would be great to have materials that lead up to constructing a true practical final result, like a business model

In general, teachers would like to acquire the knowledge about specific content about business models, ICT tools and pedagogy; instead students' expectations are to improve soft skills and to receive more concrete ideas.

Qualitative Analyses - VET teachers in Slovakia – results from questionnaires:

We were finding several categories of the qualitative research and selected following theoretical groups: valuation of VET study, number of lessons, range of the practical training, study program, quality of VET lecturers, socio-economic situation in country, added value of VET study.

1. valuation of VET study:

The documents that the student obtains when finishing the entrepreneurial course, would be the actual diploma as it is integrated in the education system (For those courses that have the entrepreneurial courses in their education) or students gain Certificate after completing the entrepreneurship education.

2. number of lessons:

Amount of contact lesson really varies: since 4 till 90. It is up to the subject and study program.

3. range of the practical training

The answers to this question vary a lot between the teachers, because it depends on each subject. Ratio between theoretical and practical lessons is following: 70:30.

4. study program:

The answer to this question depends on the subject that each teacher imparts. Type of study program is followed: pedagogy, psychology, educational technologies, engineering pedagogy, Course consisting of The Elements of Management, Company Administration, Accountancy, Calculations and Costs and Financial Management.

5. quality of VET lecturers:

Knowledge of the VET lecturers is contributive for starting business (for example theoretical information, experiences, evaluating of business plans, etc.). Students receive theoretical information for business and advices for praxis. Teachers give students their experiences etc. Creating, discussing and evaluating of own business plan is contributive for starting business. Practice teacher can point out problems practical.

6. socio-economic situation in country:

Mentions about the risk of failure and its legal and social consequences in the context of entrepreneurship in Slovakia:- the risk of failure is high and the legal and economic consequences are proportionate to the risk. The situation is getting worse because of economic crisis. It is possible to start again (by failure), the entrepreneur have always chance for success. The risk of failure is here nowadays, but it is possible to start again and chance for success always is here. Current climate for start-up according to VET Lecturers: Here is possibility for entrepreneurship, but the situation is getting worse. the worsening of conditions for doing business, the low index of the business environment, the persistent economic crisis, insufficient activity of the Government, not addressed barriers to business, low clarity and stability legislation, low aid from country to business

7. added value of VET study:

Yes, knowledge of the VET lecturers is contributive for starting business (for example theoretical information, experiences, evaluating of business plans, etc.). Students receive theoretical information for business and advices for praxis. Teachers give students their experiences etc. Creating, discussing and evaluating of own business plan is contributive for starting business. Practice teacher can point out problems practical.

Qualitative Analyses- VET students in Slovakia – results from questionnaires:

We were finding several categories of the qualitative research and selected following theoretical groups: motivation of the attending, outputs of VET study, expectation of VET study, satisfaction with the study program.

1. motivation of the attending:

That study will be contributive for them, they don't have time for university study, if he or she was long time as unemployed, so decided to do something or they want to study something because didn't get to the university. Most of the students chose their education based on the personal interest, the broad subjects that were offered, the practical approach that the VET institution offers and because some subjects, were only offered by a specific VET institution. The entrepreneurial courses are actually part of the overall study and compulsory. Therefore, the students attend the course.

2. outputs of VET study:

Some students plan to begin start-up, but afraid whether business idea will be fruitful and will be successful.

3. expectation of VET study:

They don't know what can expect from the VET study, it's up to the age of respondents. Older people know that need information's, younger people kill time at the course.

4. satisfaction with the study program:

VET students have mention that VET lectors have only theoretical knowledge, not practical, so that's factor cause that VET lectors aren't contributive for starting business.

On the other hand VET students are satisfied with the level of course.

Conclusion

Summary for VET teacher

In most countries, students attend VET courses to get certified. In some countries do not give a certificate. In most countries, programs VET courses on entrepreneurship, but must also provide that the labor market is asking for, that such courses technical orientation. The level and quality of VET teachers is mean and basically sufficient. Students feel that they lack practical business experience. Can anyone advise them to start a business, who had never been taken. This is a key question. On the other hand, echoed the opinion that the legal theorist, follows more rules, laws and the possibility to get the money to start a business, so it is actually beneficial to the student. VET teachers are generally helpful, but too theoretical. Socio-economic situation is almost identical in all partner countries. After the crisis began in 2008, a similar situation occurs, unemployment is increasing. (ENTANGLE Consortium, 2013, p. 20)

Summary for VET student

Students are attending VET courses for various reasons. For example, in Spain there sending their family. Getting the course is easier than getting into college. In the Netherlands, are considered the course to be very practical. Students are satisfied with the programs and many of them would also like to start a business. Problem is that they do not know in what way they would like to do business. At this point it is necessary to reflect on the justification study to start a business. Potential student should know what he wanted to do a VET institution would have only had to show the way how to do it. It should not just be studying killer time. Their expectations are reasonable sometimes a bit exaggerated. Improve your softskills, getting business ideas making money. (ENTANGLE Consortium , 2013, p. 24)

To conclude the results we can say that there are many similarities between partner countries of the project despite there are also some differences. But the common aim is to improve quality of vocational education for the future social and economic prosperity of the countries.

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Community Development and Divergent Forces in Philippine State Universities and Colleges: Developing a Protocol in Evaluating Extension Projects Towards Community Empowerment

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Abstract

Divergent paradigms operate in SUCs, which influence the performance of extension projects towards attainment of full empowerment as the ultimate goal implied by the universally-accepted definition of community development. In particular, a livelihood and environment project of Cebu Normal University implemented in Caputatan Norte, Medillin, Cebu was assessed based on five (5) primary parameters and two (2) secondary parameters. A novel protocol using Delphi Method shows was developed and used for this particular study, which could be adapted in evaluating the performance of community extension projects.

In this particular case, the performance of CNU livelihood and environment project falls between “demonstration” and “community organizing”. The evaluation shows that there is still a need to reinforce activities to the ultimate goal. However, it is also implied that the secondary parameters are more robust indicators in assessing the outcomes of the project implementation towards full community empowerment.

Keywords. Community Development, Empowerment, Self-Sufficiency, Dependency, Extension Programs

Introduction

Paradigms are important foundations in decision making and outcomes. In fact, they are central to the way decisions we make and the nature of outcomes. In community development, a paradigm is very important as it provides a framework for decisions made in a development project and the evaluation of its outcomes.

According to Dadzie (2005), Community Development is a “development [that] is the unfolding of people’s individual and social imagination in defining goals and inventing ways to approach them.... [and] is the continuing process of the liberation of peoples and societies.” In this context, community empowerment is central to the formulation and implementation of a project. It is the ultimate goal. Henceforth, it implies that the emphasis of community development paradigm is on the process of implementation to attain this goal.

On the other hand, Philippine State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) are mandated to “promote and enhance the extension function of HEIs” *viz.* instruction and research functions (Philippine Republic Act 8292, RA 7722). The three-fold functions of SUCs, and hence the faculty members as extension workers, provide limited time and resources allocated for extension projects. This hinders attainment of community empowerment since a large portion of faculty members’ time and the SUCs’ resources are devoted to the performance in instruction and research. The trilogy of functions in SUCs promotes short-term outcomes-based projects.

Henceforth, these two concepts (community empowerment and SUCs Trilogy of Functions) operate opposite to each other in the SUC context, which I call as Divergent Forces Paradigm (DFP). DFP is used as the framework of this study. Within this context, a fundamental question needs to be addressed: *Would community empowerment be maximized given the divergence of community development paradigm and the SUC trilogy of functions?*

Responding to this question is very essential in that SUCs are obligated to fulfill these three-fold functions, yet it is also important for them to promote the universally-accepted definition of community development (*i.e.* community empowerment) through meaningful extension projects. Determining the influence of the movement between these two paradigms would determine the project’s performance, *i.e.* either promoting self-sufficiency or dependency.

In particular, this study focuses on the Livelihood and Environment (bio-intensive organic gardening) Extension Project under the E-HELP (Education, Health, Environment, Livelihood, and Peace) Program of Cebu Normal University. This project is aimed at providing economic alleviation and enhancing health conditions of

the people of *Barangay* Caputatan Norte, Medillin, North of Cebu through the implementation of a bio-intensive gardening method (Laplap 2009). A *barangay* is the smallest political unit in the Philippines.

This study assessed the performance of the Livelihood and Environment (bio-intensive organic gardening) Extension Project of Cebu Normal University based on the universally-accepted definition of community development—i.e. developing communities that are self-sufficient and self-reliant (community empowerment).

This question was answered using two types of parameters: 1) extension styles employed on the priority or primary parameters (i.e. Development concept of Extension, Program Objectives Formulation, Project Objectives Formulation, Program/Project Phases, and Evaluation Plan); and 2) outcomes of the secondary parameters relative to the objectives of the extension project. It provides hypothetical outcomes by shifting the emphasis between the Community Development Paradigm (represented by the primary parameters) and the SUCs Trilogy of Functions (presented by the secondary parameters).

Apart from evaluating the performance of this particular project, this study provides a new protocol with which other extension projects may be evaluated using the *Divergent Forces Paradigm*.

Theoretical-conceptual framework

In State Universities and Colleges, as like other HEIs, the Trilogy of Functions (Instruction-Research-Extension) is one paradigm which strongly influences the emphasis of extension projects. Given the bulk of time and resources required to fulfill all the three functions, it promotes extension activities which emphasizes on outcomes. On the other hand, the universally-accepted definition of community development is to promote community empowerment (Dadzie 2005), which focuses on the process.

According to Dadzie (2005), "Development is the unfolding of people's individual and social imagination in defining goals and inventing ways to approach them. Development is the continuing process of the liberation of peoples and societies. There is development when they are able to assert their autonomy and, in self-reliance, to carry out activities of interest to them. To develop is to be or to become. Not only to have." K.K.S. Dadzie, Director General for International Economic Cooperative for the United Nations.

Community empowerment as promoted by the UN PCV (2005) emphasizes on the process to attain its ultimate goal of community empowerment, and considers participation as a *means (or process)*. In contrast, the SUC's Trilogy of Functions is rather straightforward and it emphasizes on the outcomes. It treats participation as an *end (or outcome)*.

These two forces operating in Philippine State Universities and Colleges (SUCs) are situated in opposite poles, exerting influence and push the performance of an extension project towards community empowerment at one end, and dependency at the other end. Simply put, the tug-of-war between these forces pushes the performance within the *outcome- Process continuum*, or *dependency—self-sufficiency continuum*. I call this as the *Divergent Forces Paradigm in Community Development*. Figure 1 shows the theoretical-conceptual framework of the study.

The end result of the tug-of-war of these two forces was measured using both the priority (or primary) parameters, and the secondary parameters. In particular, this study focused on five priority or primary parameters: 1) Development concept of Extension; 2) Program Objectives Formulation; 3) Project Objectives Formulation; 4) Program/Project Phases; and 5) Evaluation Plan. On the other hand, the evaluation of the secondary parameters was focused on two indicators of actual community involvement: 1) Household Involvement in the Project Implementation and 2) Community Participation in future activities.

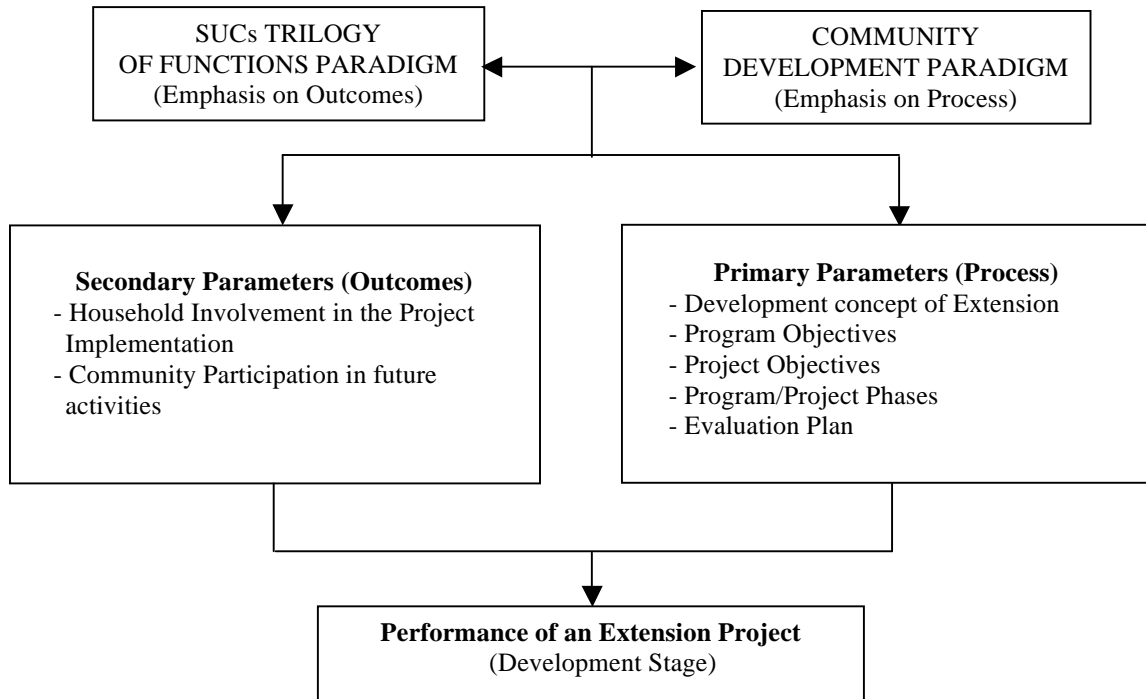


Figure 1. Theoretical-Conceptual Framework of the Study

Both the primary and secondary parameters indicate the performance of the extension project as a whole. The performance is measured by the stage of community development that it promotes. Based on the universally-accepted paradigm of community development, the extension styles the program/project promotes could be translated into any of the four (4) stages of community development, from dependency to self-sufficiency (UN PCV 2005), as follows: 1. Direct Service, 2) Demonstration, 3) Organizing with Others, and 4) Indirect Service. This paradigm is shown in figure 2.

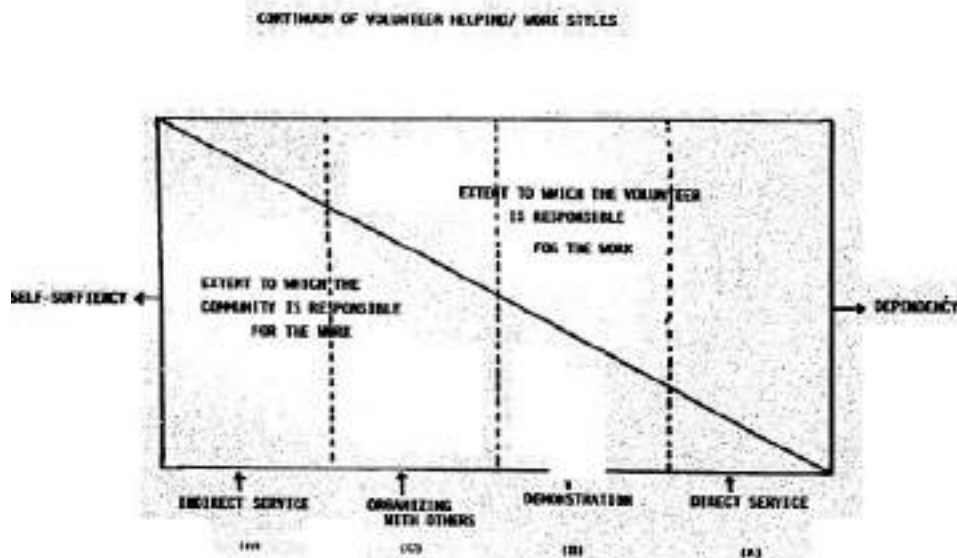


Figure 2. UN PCV Stages (adapted from Dadzie, 2009).

Methodology

Evaluation of Framework of Primary and Secondary Parameters

Five (5) extension workers who were trained on community development (they serve as experts for this process) were gathered. The process of scoring employed the Delphi technique. Based on the UN PCV framework shown in Figure 2, the rubrics shown in table 1 were used. The rubrics served as guide for the experts in scoring the primary and secondary parameters. Generally, the scoring was capped at 3 rounds max, when majority of the experts reached one particular score, with variance no more than 1 standard point. The largest variance was only 0.50 (standard deviation less than 1.0) attaining close to uniform scores from five (5) experts.

Table 1. Rubrics Used in Evaluating Performance of Primary and Secondary Parameters.

Rating	Project Performance based on Extension Style	Description (based on the IEC for the United Nations)
4	Indirect Service	The volunteer responds to a range of situations and problems raised in volunteer work by helping others solve their own problems; the volunteer does not direct any of the work but concentrates on helping the people define and refine their perceived need. Help is given only on request, rarely initiated by the volunteer. The volunteer may even come and go, leaving the project to do something else and thus reinforcing the autonomy of the group. The way the volunteer works is primarily clarifying, asking questions, listening a lot, and facilitating.
3	Organizing with Others	The volunteer encourages and stimulates promising counterparts and others in the community, generally-although not always-working with people rather than directly on projects. The focus is on building leadership and helping a group or organization develop which will continue the work, the primary work is behind the scenes using influence, assisting as a resource in developing alternative solutions which the people choose or generate themselves, serving in a training capacity, occasionally serving as a model in doing work, and so on.
2	Demonstration	The volunteer spends most of the time demonstrating to others how to do something, but also spends a lot of time doing it him/herself. Most often the responsibility is shared with one or two counterparts. The work is a combination of direct service and training /demonstrations, often with the volunteer sharing some responsibilities with a promising local leader or an assigned counterpart.
1	Direct Service	Volunteer mostly does the work, gets a project organized, provides a needed service where none exists, and generally takes the initiative for making things happen. In most instances, this means that the volunteer takes responsibility for the action – and even if involved, will look to the volunteer for action and leadership.

Computing for the Composite Score of Primary Parameters

The computation for the composite score of the primary parameters is given by:

$$Y_1 = \alpha X_1 + \beta X_2 + \gamma X_3 + \delta X_4 + \varepsilon X_5$$

Where: Y_1 =composite score of primary parameters
 X_1 =Development concept of Extension $\alpha = 0.10$
 X_2 =Program Objectives $\beta = 0.15$
 X_3 =Project Objectives $\gamma = 0.15$
 X_4 = Program/Project Phases $\delta = 0.30$
 X_5 =Evaluation Plan $\varepsilon = 0.30$

Computing for the Composite Score of Secondary Parameters

The computation for the composite score of the secondary parameters is given by:

$$Y_2 = \lambda X_6 + \phi X_7$$

Where: X_6 =Household Involvement in the Implementation $\lambda = 0.60$
 X_7 = Community Participation in future activities $\varphi = 0.40$

The coefficients of X_i ($i=7$) was determined by first ranking the parameters (5 items for primary parameters, and 2 for secondary parameters). The ranking was done with extension workers who were knowledgeable on community empowerment who served as “experts”, using the Delphi technique.

Computing for the Project Performance: The Outcome-Process Frontier

The performance (Z_i) of the extension project was determined by aggregating the composite scores of Primary (Y_1) and Secondary Parameters (Y_2), and is given by:

$$Z_i = Y_1 + Y_2$$

Where: Z_i = Project Performance based on Extension Style, $i = 5$

Five different performances are represented by the varying emphasis between primary and secondary parameters, as follows:

- $Z_i = Y_1$ (100% primary parameters composite score)
- $Z_2 = 0.75Y_1 + 0.25Y_2$ (75% primary and 25% secondary)
- $Z_i = 0.50Y_1 + 0.50Y_2$ (50% primary and 50% secondary)
- $Z_4 = 0.25Y_1 + 0.75Y_2$ (25% primary and 75% secondary)
- $Z_i = Y_2$ (100% secondary parameters composite score)

The computed Z_i of the project determines its performance as situated within the dependency—self-sufficiency continuum.

Results and discussion

The results show that the extension styles employed are either “demonstration” or “community organizing”, with several components showing temporary impacts towards empowerment. Table 2 shows the development concept of the extension worker of the project.

Table 2. Development Concept of Extension Workers (X_1).

Items	Mean*	Project Performance based on Extension Style
1. A development worker should proceed with vegetable garden and school construction projects which most people’s ‘real’ needs, even though the need they themselves feel and express may be different <i>(negative statement)</i> .	1.20 (± 0.447)	Demonstration (lower bound)**
2. A development worker’s views should be responsive to the local people’s expressed needs instead of the central government’s, no matter what the difference may be.	3.80 (± 0.447)	Indirect Service
3. The world hunger situation mandates rapid change which can only be affected by using the best available agricultural technologies <i>(negative statement)</i> .	2.00 (± 0.707)	Demonstration
4. It is more important to help develop local leadership, working with one or two people who will carry on, than to get a lot of project work done which depends on volunteer knowhow and drive.	3.80 (± 0.447)	Indirect Service

cont...

Table 2. Development Concept of Extension Workers ...

Items	Mean*	Project Performance based on Extension Style
5. the most effective volunteer is the one who understands his host community's weaknesses and helps the people to understand (them) by reasoning rather than any imposition from above.	3.80 (± 0.447)	Indirect Service
6. Providing agricultural and health education in schools is a more effective means of unlocking the seemingly hopeless developmental problems of the third world than attempting to change adult attitudes and ideas which have been deeply ingrained through years of experience (<i>negative statement</i>).	1.20 (± 0.447)	Demonstration (lower bound)**
MEAN	2.63 (± 0.274)	Community Organizing

*scoring system of negative statements is opposite.

** impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves, they will return to default state.

The development concept of extension workers is not clearly defined towards community empowerment. For example, while they support the idea that the community's needs must be given preference, they also embrace imposition of what should be the development for the local community by strongly agreeing on the statements which signify top-down approach. On the other hand, program objectives reflect the extension styles promoted with regards community development, as shown in Table 3. Almost all of the objectives were geared towards the second stage of development – demonstration.

Table 3. Development Orientation of Program Objectives (X_2).

Program Objectives	Mean	Project Performance based on Extension Style
1. Demonstrate reliance in initiating appropriate solutions to problems arising from education, health, environment, livelihood and peace.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
2. Uplift quality education in terms of improvement in education indicators.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
3. Reinforce knowledge and skills of uneducated community people.	2.00 (± 0.707)	Demonstration
4. Demonstrate independent delivery of education among community people.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
5. Improve health status of community people.	2.20 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
6. Enhance health-seeking behaviors of the community people.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
7. To equip community people with environment-friendly practices.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
8. To instill knowledge and awareness on environmental protection.	1.60 (± 0.548)	Demonstration
9. To equip and hone economically-needed skills of the community people in aid to augment household income.	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
10. To increase the marketability of the community people in job hunting.	2.00 (± 0.000)	Demonstration
11. To maintain a peaceful and harmonious environment that is conducive for healthy human living interaction.	2.80 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing
MEAN	1.93 (± 0.277)	Demonstration

*impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to prior stage.

Of the 11 objectives of the E-HELP Program, two (2) promoted community organizing which develop local strength towards community empowerment. However, one objective shows rating at the lower bound, meaning that sustainability in this aspect cannot be assured. This stage still has the tendency to go back to the lower stage

if it will not be re-enforced to give emphasis on the process. With regards the development orientations of the project objectives, it is interesting to note that the project has succeeded in encouraging community organizing, as shown in table 4.

Table 4. Development Orientation of Project Objectives (X_3).

Project Objectives	Mean	Project Performance based on Extension Style
1. Household Involvement in the Project Implementation	3.00 (± 0.707)	Community Organizing
2. Community Participation in future activities	2.80 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing
MEAN	2.90 (± 0.418)	Community Organizing

In both objectives, experts agreed that the project promoted community organizing. This is supported by the fact that the extension workers focused on developing local capability by identifying and training a local leaders (identified as Animators) who are expected to lead the community towards full empowerment. But still, this performance does not yet warrant indirect service provisions given that CNU extension workers still provide significant amount of time and resources. With regards the implementation of the project, different stages took varying styles but dominated by the demonstration extension style (Table 5).

Table 5. Development Orientation of Implementation Phases (X_4).

Phases	Mean	Project Performance based on Extension Style
1. Survey of the Area/Sitio for BIG by the extension workers	1.20 (± 0.447)	Demonstration (lower bound)*
2. Building a Nursery for the Seedlings by extension workers and identified local leaders	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
3. Plant Identification by extension workers	2.00 (± 0.707)	Demonstration
4. Classification of Plants extension workers	1.80 (± 0.447)	Demonstration
5. Planting of the Identified Plants in "Bio-Intensive Garden" (BIG) in the nursery extension workers and local	2.20 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
6. Harvesting of Plant	3.20 (± 0.447)	Indirect Service (lower bound)*
7. Marketing of Plants	3.80 (± 0.447)	Indirect Service
MEAN	2.29 (± 0.267)	Community Organizing (lower bound)*

* impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to default state.

The implementation of the project promotes demonstration, which do not necessarily result long-term community empowerment. Given the nature of the implementation phases, the local community still depends on the existence of the extension workers. What is problematic with this approach is that local community may intermittently take their responsibilities for as long as they see that they are being monitored by the extension workers. Otherwise, efforts from the local leaders may not be sufficient to affect sustainable community organizing. However, this can also be sustained depending on the commitment of the local leaders to bring the whole community towards full empowerment.

Related to the preceding discussion, local communities still need to be continuously monitored to initiate community organizing. Table 6 shows the extension performance of the project evaluation plan wherein the local community is capable of community organizing, but with effective monitoring by the extension workers. In the absence of such monitoring, local community still have the tendency to go back to dependency. To abate

such scenario, there is a need to reinforce emphasis on the process to push the local community towards self-sufficiency and empowerment.

Table 6. Development Orientation of Evaluation Plan (X_5).

Phases	Mean	Project Performance based on Extension Style
A periodic monitoring of the planting time, growth and harvesting will be done by extension workers in the duration of and until the termination of the project	2.20 (± 0.447)	Community Organizing (lower bound)*

* impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to default state.

For the secondary parameters, the objectives of the project are: 1) to teach the bio-intensive gardening method to the local community, and 2) to provide additional income through community gardening. In these objectives, the project extension performance fall within the “demonstration” stage, with the first objective attaining a mean score of 1.20(± 0.447) (X_6) and the second objective with mean score of 1.80(± 0.447) (X_7). The first objective has the tendency to revert to direct service (and hence promotes dependency among the local community) if not to be reinforced with an emphasis on the process where local community provide counterparts.

In totality, the composite performances of the parameters are shown in **table 7**. The composite performance of the primary parameters was towards community organizing, albeit in the lower bound. On the other hand, secondary parameters fall short in that they encouraged community dependency, with a rating falling within the “demonstration” stage.

Table 7. Composite ratings of primary and secondary parameters.

Parameters	Composite Rating	Project Performance based on Extension Style
Primary	2.34	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
Secondary	1.44	Demonstration (lower bound)*

* impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to default state.

Both primary and secondary parameters provided extension services in which extension workers demonstrated to the local communities how things were done. This is apparent with the fact that they were the ones who actually did most of the work, and sharing some workloads to animators who are viewed as the counterpart from the local community.

Depending on the weights given to primary and secondary parameters, the project performance ranges from “demonstration” (*the extension workers are mainly responsible for the work*) and “community organizing” (*the community is mainly responsible for the work*). Nevertheless, the project has not reached the stage where it should provide indirect service to promote full community empowerment, as shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Project Performance taking into account weights of primary and secondary parameters.

Varying combinations of emphasis between primary and secondary parameters	Project Rating	Project Performance based on Extension Style
Z1 (100% Primary)	2.34	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
Z2 (75% Primary and 25% Secondary)	2.11	Community Organizing (lower bound)*
Z3 (50% Primary and 50% Secondary)	1.89	Demonstration
Z4 (25% Primary and 75% Secondary)	1.66	Demonstration
Z5 (100% Secondary)	1.44	Demonstration (lower bound)*

* Impact of the extension style is temporary. When the community is left by themselves will return to default state.

If full weights were given to secondary parameters, the performance of the project leans towards encouraging dependency through emphasis on direct services. On the other hand, if full weights were allocated on primary parameters, the project performance leans towards community organizing (at the lower bound) as the maximum extension style it emphasized. Either way, the project performance fell short of the ultimate goal of the universally-accepted definition of community development. This implies that the project formulation and implementation still need to give more emphasis on the process from which full community empowerment will be attained.

Personal communications with extension workers and the director of CNU extension program provide empirical evidences of the target community's (i.e. Barangay Caputatan Norte) capability in community organizing (where the community is responsible for the work) as evidenced by the awards they received for participating in various events that are linked with this extension project, such as the E-GWEN (expanded Green and Wholesome Environment that Nurtures, a development project of the Cebu Province and Ramon Aboitiz Foundation, Inc. or RAFI) award as Outstanding Barangay under the Clean and Green Project, and other awards given by the Municipality of Medillin during the Nutrition Month held last July 2012. These are manifestations of effective community organizing by the local leaders. However, there is still a need to monitor progress of the community and re-enforce more activities focusing on the project processes that would involve the community to reach the height of self-sufficiency and self-reliance. The strength of the Caputatan Norte on community organizing, however, may not be sustainable because activities focusing on the process still needs to be re-enforced in order to push the local community further towards full empowerment. Otherwise, all efforts may be put in vain since a change in leadership may revert back the community into the Demonstration stage in the absence of an effective leadership, with only the identified *animators* continuing on with these activities.

In a larger context, the emphasis on top-bottom approach used in extension works in the Philippines is reflective of the policies the country has promulgated and enacted. For instance, SUCs are mandated to "(m) to establish research and extension centers of the SUC where such will promote the development of the latter;"... "(u) to set up the adoption of modern and innovative modes of transmitting knowledge such as the use of information technology, the dual system, open learning, community laboratory, etc., for the promotion of greater access to higher education.." (RA 8292). These provisions are focused on the development of the SUC and the transmission of information from SUCs, which clearly manifests a top-down approach when extension works are carried out in communities. The performance of the Bio-intensive gardening based on the development paradigm used in this study is a reflection of such mandate.

Conclusion

The force which is exerted by the emphasis of SUCs on the Trilogy of Functions (competing demands to simultaneously perform on Instruction, Research and Extension) is more evident than the force towards attaining community empowerment. The Livelihood and Environment Extension Project fell short of promoting complete autonomy (self-reliance, and hence full empowerment). However, the project successfully inculcates community organizing as the strength of the target community, *albeit* in the short term. There is a need to en-enforce the activities implemented for the community to be fully empowered. Furthermore, the protocol developed in this study can be used in evaluating any community extension projects to determine its success towards community empowerment.

Recommendations

The importance of this assessment is primarily to provide venues for improvement to attain full community empowerment. In this regard, the following recommendations are given:

- 1) There is a need to re-orient extension workers on the universally-accepted definition of community development. This is crucial because the mindset of the extension workers prior to entry to local communities will strong influence how the project would go about. The ultimate goal should be towards full community empowerment, rather than merely organizing the community;
- 2) Development orientation of the community must be pushed further towards community empowerment. The program should take the bottom-top approach, soliciting from the community what they feel they need, rather than deciding and imposing what the implementers feel the community needs;
- 3) The project should encourage community views on how the project should be implemented, rather than imposing on them what they need to learn. The project should explore gardening and planting techniques

which the local communities have been practicing, and capitalizing on it so that local communities will feel that they own the project, and hence encouraging community dynamics towards full empowerment;

- 4) Actual implementation of phases of the project should move beyond mere demonstration and community organizing. There is a need to provide activities focusing on processes so as to ultimately sustain the project even with minimal indirect assistance from the extension workers and CNU as the implementer; and
- 5) Monitoring and progress of the project should be done by the local community to assess the performance of their gardening. In this way, they will be able to find ways on how to improve their practices. Ultimately, the local community will be empowered to carry on the project without external intervention.

Acknowledgement

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Age 22: Now What Do I Do? : Providing Tools For Students With Autism in Order To Enhance Their Opportunities For Success In The Outside World

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Abstract

Over the past decade, colleges and universities across the United States have increasingly accommodated students with moderate to severe special needs. These students, particularly those on the autism spectrum, would previously have been judged as being unteachable in post- secondary education. Are these students adequately prepared for higher education learning and the workplace environment they will soon encounter? In order for them to be able to successfully negotiate the outside world, there must be a shift in teacher education, from an emphasis on the development of discrete academic skills to one which includes a process-oriented approach targeting social skills, time and stress management, organizational skills, opportunities for “outside of school” experiences which will allow them to have a “life of preference” and the use of technological aids which will facilitate the development of new ways of learning outside the classroom.

Keywords.

Introduction

For me, the question of what the future holds for children diagnosed with autism spectrum disorders is personal, very personal.

Patrick was my much admired and appreciated Teaching Assistant for a large undergraduate university course that I taught. One term, when a member of my immediate family suddenly became seriously ill, it was Patrick who often showed up, unannounced, at my office, to provide whatever extra help he could, knowing that, between my responsibilities at home and school, I was most likely “drowning” in work. After graduation, Patrick married Karen and later became the father of his first child, “Allan,” who is now five years old. Since Patrick often referred to himself as my second son, I regarded Allan as, in some respects, my first grandchild.

Initially, Allan appeared to be an active, responsive, curious infant. However, between the ages of two and two and a half, he began to show signs of regression in terms of his desire and ability to communicate. At the age of three, after a referral by the family pediatrician for an early intervention assessment and a subsequent neurological evaluation, Allan was diagnosed as having autism. I will never forget the anguish in Patrick’s voice when he told my husband and me the news. He sat, slumped over with his head in his hands and said, “I just can’t bear the thought of my son not being able to function in the world as a happy, independent, productive individual” (Personal communication with Patrick M., 2011).

What could and will the future hold for a young child with autism, such as Allan? Is it conceivable that, as suggested by Szalavitz (2013), he might “age out” of autism and lead a “normal,” fulfilling life? In an interview, Temple Grandin, a well-known researcher, author and speaker, noted that, “the thing about being autistic is that you gradually get less and less autistic because you keep learning, you keep learning how to behave” (Weiss, 2010).

Of course, the prognosis for Allan is dependent upon numerous factors, including the type and severity of his autistic-related behavior, the extent and relevance of his educational program, the time and support provided by his family, the attitudes and expectations of those around him and other resources made available to him in his home, school and community.

Is there hope for Allan? Recent trends in the field of autism provide reason for optimism even though the number of young children diagnosed continues to increase (now a ratio of less than 1 in 88 children). However, it is believed that this increase is, at least in part, the result of an increased awareness in the medical, educational and broader community of the spectrum of disorders and key behaviors associated with the various syndromes. As noted by Wang (2012), earlier and more accurate diagnosis and treatment, even for children as young as one year of age, improve the odds of intervention being effective and lasting.

Also significant is evidence, based on what has been learned in the field by researchers, educators and other professionals, of a shift away from an emphasis on the teaching of discrete, concrete academic skills (that is, the remedial “drill and kill” of basics such as those measured by DIBELS: Dynamic Indicators of Basic Literacy Skills) towards an approach which centers on the development of process-oriented skills such as functional interpersonal/social skills, organizational skills, time allocation strategies and stress management techniques. For example, the findings of a 2010 study of toddlers, published in the *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, indicated that the targeting of social skills which focused on improving “interpersonal synchrony” resulted in reduced autism symptoms (Wang, 2012). In terms of serving the needs of older students with ASDs (Autism Spectrum Disorders), Alderman (2012) describes a highly successful high school program, Tutorial: A Program for Independence, in which role play is used to directly teach social skills, allowing students to improve their social awareness, to more effectively interact socially, and, thus prepare more effectively for a life after graduation. As well, students at this high school are encouraged to become involved in a variety of after-school activities, where regular education volunteer peers interact with them, providing opportunities for the development and practice of age-appropriate social behaviors.

Another example of a holistic education of enablement is the Pioneer Valley Regional School District in Northfield, Massachusetts where, as stated in a list of core values, it is mandated that all students in the system have equal opportunities to engage in real world tasks and learn to adapt to new situations and technologies in preparing to meet the challenges of the 21st century. (Pioneer Core Values, Pioneer Valley Regional School, Oct. 26, 2010: www.pioneervalley.k12.ma.us) Here, the role of all personnel in the district extends beyond the school day. Teachers, staff, the student body and volunteers in the community work together to ensure that students with special needs, including those with ASDs, engage in a range of after-school and other out-of-school

activities. This gives them the opportunity for the breadth and depth of experiences that will enable them to make informed decisions when choosing careers and leisure activities in the outside world. In Pioneer Valley, this is referred to as allowing students to have a “life of preference.”

Another positive, hopeful trend that has manifested itself within the last decade is the increase in numbers of students with ASDs who are attending colleges and universities as full time students. These are students who would previously not have been admitted to these institutions, as they would have been viewed as being “unteachable” and unable to deal with the academic demands of higher education. Yet, with the support of special services now available at colleges and universities (as mandated by the U.S. Congress in the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990), students with ASDs are experiencing success as learners at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. The tools that provide support at all levels of schooling now go beyond the alternative and augmentative communication devices of past decades. Numerous websites and apps are being designed specifically for those on the autism spectrum by technology giants such as Apple and Google, organizations such as Autism Speaks, news organizations such as CNN, and even local jurisdictions such as the City of Boston (see Harmon, 2010). Electronic devices such as smartphones and tablets are used by students with autism as well as their families, educators and therapists, to facilitate new ways for them to acquire information and skills which are critical to their ability to function and fully engage in the real world.

And how will all the above impact Allan’s chances of becoming that happy, independent, productive adult his father hopes he will become?

First, the key is how we, as citizens in our communities, view individuals with autism. Do we see them as being “abnormal” or just as people who view and deal with the world in a somewhat different way? Temple Grandin views those now labeled as Aspergers as being those who, in the past, were called nerds, geeks and dorks. “There’s just a point where it’s just a normal personality variation” (Weiss, 2010, p.A11).

A documentary shown recently on the American Public Broadcasting System provides a view of autism from the perspective of those identified as being autistic. Wolf, one of the individuals profiled, reflects on his view of neurotypicals (a term used by autistics to describe non-autistics), saying that he does not want to be “one of them.” He’s not particularly impressed with the idea of being neurotypical as a better way of life. Rather, to him, they just have a different way of living, one that he respects but would not want to emulate. He describes how abused and hurt he has been throughout his life as a result of people trying to make him “normal.” Someone who’s going to try and cure him because he makes that person feel uncomfortable should “deal with themselves,” he says, because he, Wolf, is not uncomfortable with himself. To him, he just represents a different way of viewing and dealing with the world (Larsen, 2011).

At the conclusion of the documentary the director, Adam Larsen, emphasizes the point that those portrayed in the film do not want to be cured but, rather, are quite comfortable in their way of thinking and being. In his view, while much has been and is being done to address and support the needs of those who are severely autistic, focusing on a cure takes away energy and resources from support systems. His hope is that we, as a society, will develop a broader understanding of humanity and begin to question the concept of “normalcy.” “Everyone has something to offer and that’s important. Just because one’s neurology is different doesn’t mean that it’s less valued” (Larsen, 2011).

With the numbers of individuals identified as being autistic continuing to increase, is it possible that this population will soon represent the new norm? Interestingly, there is research to suggest that the way the mind of those with autism functions may advantage them in the coming world. In the article, *The Upside of Autism*, Lehrer describes autism as “not merely a list of deficits. Rather, it represents an alternate way of making sense of the world, a cognitive difference that, in many instances, comes with unexpected benefits” (Lehrer, 2012). He cites a study carried out at the University College London which gives those with autism a perceptual edge as compared with neurotypicals, allowing them a real world advantage in the evolving information age.

Temple Grandin would advise Patrick to “fill up” Allan’s database. The tech companies of Silicon Valley, she says, are “heaven on earth for the geeks and the nerds. And I want to see more and more of these smart kids going into the technology industry and inventing things” (Weiss, 2010). One example of this is Wolf, the man portrayed in the documentary, *Neurotypical*, who earns his living as an information technology specialist.

In conclusion, when I think of Allan, I see his diagnosis as something that, rather than putting limits on my perceptions of his capacity and potential, leads me to have high expectations for him in terms of his future opportunities. My advice to Patrick is to work with Allan's teachers and therapists to identify and target key social skills that will lead to improvements in his "interpersonal synchrony," to provide Allan with an ongoing variety of experiences with peers (neurotypical as well as autistic) to give him a background that will allow him to make informed choices as he gets older (i.e., have a life of preference), and introduce and encourage his development of the skills he will need to use all manner of technological supports available now and in the future.

My hope is that Allan will thrive and that his father's wish for him to become a happy, independent, and productive individual will be realized.

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List of autism app articles/webpages

Developers dive in to create a wealth of autism apps

<http://articles.latimes.com/2013/apr/30/business/la-fi-apple-autism-20130430>

Autism apps

<http://heartyspin.com/autism-apps/>

iPad app helps children with autism learn life skills

<http://www.eweek.com/mobile/ipad-app-helps-children-with-autism-learn-life-skills/>

Autism apps

<http://www.autismspeaks.org/autism-apps>

8 top apps for autism learners

<http://thejournal.com/articles/2011/12/05apps-for-autistic-learners.aspx>

Analysis of Nigerian Secondary School Students Reading Habits: Implication for Teacher Education Curriculum for English as A Second Language

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Abstract

The study examined the reading habits of junior secondary school students in Kaduna state of Nigeria and its implication for teacher education curriculum for English as a second language. One hundred students in junior secondary schools were used for the study. A reading habit inventory (RHI) containing ten items was used to find out the extent to which students read and the frequency in which they read. The study revealed that students do not do extensive reading on their own. They do not read outside the recommended texts. It was recommended that teachers should promote students reading culture to strengthen their learning capabilities. The library period on the time table should be utilised to enhance reading on the part of students. It was also recommended that since teachers cannot give what they do not have, teacher training colleges should incorporate intensive and extensive reading skills in English as a second language curriculum. This will enable teachers transfer such skills with ease to their students.

Keywords.

Introduction

Reading is one of the fundamental language skills which should be taught at all levels of education. Reading is the foundation upon which other academic skills are built. It is one of the major avenues for acquiring

information. According to Tella and Akande (2007) the ability to read is at the heart of self education and lifelong learning. Olaofe (2013) posits that reading is the most effective weapon against intolerance, under development and ignorance. Civilization according to him is tied to investment on reading. It is central to academic and intellectual development of learners at all levels. Reading is basic to literacy and personal ability to attain self education and self confidence in tackling problems associated with diverse human experience.

The most important skill teachers can develop in their students is the ability to read fluently. This is because once students can read, they will be able to cope with the academic demands associated with schooling. Reading is the tool they need for a lifetime of learning and growth. Reading is a fundamental part of existence. There is absolutely no day that one does not read something such as street signs, signboards, handbills, billboards, reports, emails, medication labels, newspapers, magazines, text messages etc. Reading is the not only a fundamental part of the world but a fundamental part of education and also a fundamental factor in language development leading children to the good skills and habits necessary for lifelong achievement and success.

This study aims at analyzing Nigerian Secondary Students' reading habits with implication for teacher education curriculum for English as a second language.

Statement of the Problem

Researchers such as Odumuh 1997, Oyetunde 2009, Yusuf 2010, and Olaofe 2013, have expressed concerns over the poor reading habit of Nigerian students and how kids and young adults are not reading. This situation calls for close examination with a view to finding out what accounts for the poor reading habits in our youths of today. Reading habits of Nigerian students are a matter of concern in our educational and national development, stating further that in a developing country like Nigeria, the concept of reading habits should be relegated to the background. It has a role to play in the development of the individual. Reading habits should be promoted from an early age. Students should imbibe good habits during their formative years. Many questions have been raised by teachers, parents and students themselves as to why students perform so poorly academically. Even the Federal, State and Local governments have shown concern over this in recent times by introducing free and sometimes low priced books for primary and secondary schools. Although this was meant to create the desire for students to read, it has not helped the situation much because students do not read these books. Many of the students complained of lack of time and conducive environment to read. Others who try to read complained of lack of understanding. There is no doubt that these complaints evidently point to one fact, that is, lack of good reading habits. It is this problem that has motivated this researcher to carry out this study, as it appears to be one of the root causes of the dwindling educational standard in Nigeria.

Review of related literature

Reading according to Oyetunde (2009) is the ability to obtain information from print, that is the ability to make sense of the content of what is read. Reading goes beyond being able to pronounce the words on a page, memorise words or recite the letters of the alphabet. Evidence of reading includes the ability to answer questions on what is read, the ability to retell what is read, the ability to explain in one's own words what is read, or the ability to apply or use the information obtained from what is read.

Reading has been described by Anderson (1982) as the act of translating symbols or letters into words or sentences that have meaning to an individual. It is also understanding of what is seen in a text, which is the ability of a reader to take incoming visual information, process that information and obtain meaning from it. Reading requires strong and efficient skills to make learning successful because students require cognitive skills to process information properly. Academic activity such as school work, homework become frustrating if special attention is not given to factors affecting the reading habits of students.

The significance of teaching students to read in order to develop their potentials cannot be over-emphasized even in the era of information and communication technology. It is widely believed that the enterprise of developing reading behaviour has to start at an early part of one's life and there should be a conducive reading environment to stimulate lifelong reading.

Secondary school students according to Adetunji (2007) most often associate reading with academic task and not for knowledge and pleasure. This does not enable the students who have reading skill to maximise the activity for self and social development.

Sanacore (1990) emphasised that the reader's interest and behaviour is determined by a number of factors such as social values of their society, school, family and environments, each factor has its own function and promotes the development of reader personalities. Alarm over secondary school students reading habits in the

United Kingdom was raised in the guardian.com 2013 where a survey of 300, new pupils revealed that children are choosing books well below their reading age.

There is something seriously amiss with the way children are encouraged to read in secondary schools with many reading books with an average reading age as much as four years below their actual age. The report on “What kids are reading”, looked at the reading habits of 300,144 children in 1605 primary and secondary schools in the UK, and found out that children above year six are not challenged enough by the books they read. The seven and eight year olds were reading books with an average reading age of 8.8 by year nine. The 13 and 14 year old students were reading books with an average age of 10. The average book difficulty rises as pupils get older but not in proportion to the rate at which the pupils should be improving in reading.

In America, approximately 75% of students find reading in third grade difficult, also 9th grade education in South Africa study show that one in five schools has a library, although western cape school has an average library for two evening schools. Statistics reported in 2003 that grade 3 pupils in South Africa scored an average of 54% in literacy test and 39% in reading test, the reason for this shocking result was promoted by poor reading culture in South Africa.

Objective of the study

To identify the reading habits of students in Junior Secondary Schools in Kaduna State, Nigeria.

Research Question

What are the various reading habits of students in Junior Secondary Schools in Kaduna State, Nigeria?

Methodology

Six randomly selected Junior Secondary Schools were used for the study. One hundred students were used for the study. A Reading Habit Inventory (RHI) containing ten (10) items was used to find out the extent to which students read and the frequency in which they read.

Data Presentation

Item 1: I visit the school library to read books and other books of interest

Table 1: Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	20	60	20
02	20	50	30
03	20	60	20
04	10	70	20
05	10	80	10
06	20	60	20

Items 2: I visit the school library to do my assignments

Table2: Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	40	30	30
02	30	20	50
03	20	40	4
04	30	40	30
05	20	60	20
06	10	60	30

Table 2 reveals that most students visit the library to do their assignments.

Items 3: I read books on the reference section of the library to improve my general knowledge

Table 3 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	20	40	40
02	20	30	50
03	30	40	30
04	10	50	40
05	20	30	50
06	10	40	50

Table 3 shows that majority of students rarely read books on the reference section.

Items 4: I borrow books from the library

Table 4 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	30	40	30
02	20	30	50
03	20	40	30
04	20	40	40
05	30	40	30
06	20	50	30

Table 4 reveals that most students rarely or never borrow books from the library. A few students however, borrow books from the library.

Items 5: I point to words with my finger or biro while reading

Table 5 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	50	30	20
02	60	30	10
03	50	30	20
04	50	30	20
05	50	30	20
06	50	30	20

Table 5 reveals that majority of the students points to words with their fingers or biro while reading.

Items 6: I move my lips while reading (vocalization)

Table 6 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	60	20	20
02	70	10	20
03	80	10	10
04	50	20	30
05	60	20	20
06	70	10	20

Table 6 reveals that majority of students move their lips while reading which means they vocalise.

Items 7: I read newspapers, magazines and other materials of interest at my leisure time

Table 7 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	10	50	40
02	20	30	50
03	20	40	40
04	10	60	30
05	20	70	10
06	10	50	40

Table 7 reveals that majority of students rarely or never read newspapers, magazines and other materials of interest at their leisure.

Items 8: I watch movies and other interesting programmes on Television

Table 8 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	70	30	0
02	80	20	0
03	90	10	0
04	70	30	0
05	80	20	0
06	90	10	0

Table 8 reveals that majority of students watch movies and other interesting programmes on television rather than read books.

Items 9: I play games on play station, X BOX, PSP, GSM phone

Table 9 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	60	30	10
02	50	30	20
03	70	20	10
04	50	40	10
05	60	30	10
06	60	20	20

Table 9 reveals that majority of students play games on play station, X BOX, PSP, and GSM phone rather than read books.

Items 10: I see my teachers reading in the library or staff room

Table 10 Frequency

School	Always	Rarely	Never
01	20	20	60
02	10	60	30
03	20	40	40
04	10	50	40
05	20	30	50
06			

Table 10 reveals that majority of students rarely or never see their teachers reading in the library or staff room. Which means teachers are not acting as role models for students to emulate. They are not encouraging their students to imbibe good reading habits.

Summary of findings

The result of the study revealed the following:

- Majority of students do not read story books or other books of interest during their leisure time at home. They prefer to chat, hang around with friends, play with their GSM phones, play stations or do stuff on the

internet.

- Majority of students read only when they are compelled to read in school during library periods, they however visit the library to do their assignments.
- Majority of students do not like to read materials not relevant to their subjects.
- Most students rarely or do not use reference materials in the school library.
- Most students rarely or never borrow books from the library probably because they are not interested.
- Majority of students point to words with their fingers or biro while reading. This tends to slow their reading.
- Majority of students move their lips while reading. This means they vocalize. This tends to slow their reading comprehension.
- Majority of students rarely or never read newspapers, magazines and other materials of interest at their leisure time.
- Majority of students watch movies and other interesting shows on television rather than read books.
- Majority of students play games on play station, X BOX, PSP and GSM phones rather than read books.
- Majority of students rarely or never see their teacher reading in the library or staff room. This means teachers are not encouraging students to imbibe good reading habits.

Conclusion

On the basis of the findings of this study, one can conclude in line with Adetunji (2007), Edoh (2012) and Ofuani (2009) that most secondary schools students in Kaduna, Nigeria, have poor reading habits. The indiscriminate use of electronic facilities in the home is not helping matters, in fact, it will continue to worsen the reading habits of secondary school students in Nigeria, unless a positive and drastic step is taken towards the right direction. A complete 360⁰ turn around in the interest of the future of Nigerian children should be the starting point. "Operation read a book a day, readers are leaders" fliers and bill boards should be mounted in strategic places. A public awareness campaign should also be embarked upon in Kaduna using print and electronic media in order to re-orientate children, youths and the general public on the benefits of activating good reading habits.

Implication for Teacher Education Curriculum for English as a Second Language

The implication of the findings of this research for English as a second language (ESL) is that there is need for a comprehensive and meaningful reading instruction to be integrated into the ESL curriculum. The present Teacher Education Curriculum appears inadequate in terms of content about the nature of the reading process, basic principles of reading instruction and what to do in order to meaningfully teach students how to read. Intensive and extensive reading activity should be included in the teacher education curriculum to motivate teachers-in-training to cultivate good reading habits which could in turn, be passed down to their students in the classroom. Such extensive reading activities would equip teachers-in-training with the potentials to motivate, lead and foster learners along the path of independence in reading and language learning. Furthermore, they can provide very effective platform for promoting good reading habits in learners at the basic education levels.

Recommendations

- Parents should monitor their children/ward at home by reducing their exposure to the use of electronic facilities, such as television, satellite dish, internet, play station, XBOX, PSP, and mobile phone etc.
- Students should be encouraged to spend more time reading. "Reading hour" should be provided on the time table. Schools should equally provide reading rooms for children to read. The library period already on the time table in some schools should be observed regularly. The school should be well located and functional so that students can make good use of it.
- Procedure for borrowing books should be flexible to stimulate students' reading interest.
- Teachers should organise competition among students to motivate them to read. Students should be encouraged to read newspapers as this will help to improve reading habits, knowledge and awareness.
- Teacher cannot give what they do not have, therefore, teacher training colleges and other relevant institutions should incorporate extensive reading skills in English as a second language curriculum. This will enable teachers transfer such skills with ease to their students.
- Teachers should be good role models. They should be seen in the library or staff room reading and not chatting. Teachers must be avid readers themselves in order to ignite a lifelong reading habit in their students.
- Secondary school students often associate reading with academic task and not for knowledge and pleasure.

This does not enable the students who have good reading habits to maximise the activity for self and lifelong learning and development.

- Students should be encouraged to read newspapers as this will help to improve reading habits, knowledge and awareness.
- Government and other stakeholders should collaborate to revitalise school libraries to make it attractive to students. Library is the engine room of any academic institution. It is indispensable if academic excellence is to be achieved.
- Teachers should motivate students to read and encourage them to use reading materials to improve themselves and their social environment.
- Teachers should discourage students with poor reading habits from pointing to words with fingers or moving the lips while reading. Such habits do not help reading but slows it down.

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Appendix 1

Analysis of Nigerian Secondary School Students’ reading habits

Reading Habit Inventory (RHI)

Please tick [] the appropriate column

S/No	Item	Frequency		
		Always	Rarely	Never
1	I visit the school library to read story books and other books of interest			
2	I visit the school library to do my assignment			
3	I read books on the reference section of the library to improve my general knowledge			
4	I borrow books from the library			
5	I point to words with my finger or biro while reading			
6	I move my lips while reading (vocalization)			
7	I read newspapers, magazines and other materials of interest at my leisure time			
8	I watch movies and other interesting shows on TV			
9	I play games on play station, XBOX, PSP, GSM phone			
10	I see my teachers reading in the library or staffroom			

Okul Öncesi Öğretmen Adaylarının Mesleki Kaygı Düzeylerinin Çeşitli Değişkenler Açısından İncelenmesi

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Özet

21. yüzyılda öğretmenlerden daha donanımlı olmaları beklenmektedir. Bu donanım hem mesleki hem kişisel olmak üzere çok yönlü süreçleri içermektedir. Örneğin öğretmenlerden bir yandan yeterli bilgi ve beceri donanımına sahip olmaları beklenirken bir yandan da insan ilişkileri ve iletişim becerisi yüksek bireyler olmaları

beklenmektedir. Gelecek kuşakları yetiştirecek olan öğretmenlerin meslekteki başarıları mesleklerine karşı hissettikleri mesleki kaygılarından arınmış olmalarına bağlıdır. Bu çalışmada okul öncesi öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygı düzeyleri çeşitli değişkenler (sınıf düzeyi, cinsiyet ve mezun oldukları lise türü) açısından incelenmiştir. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Ana bilim dalında eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) öğretmen adayı oluşturmuştur. Araştırmanın verileri öğretmen adaylarıyla yapılan görüşmelerle elde edilmiştir. Araştırma hem nitel hem de nicel bir araştırma olup; 269 öğretmen adayının sorulara verdikleri cevaplar önce betimsel analiz yöntemiyle ortaya çıkarılmış, daha sonra öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgileri ile bu betimsel analizler SPSS programına aktarılıp analiz edilmiştir. Bulgular öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyi, cinsiyet ve mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler. Okul Öncesi Eğitim, Öğretmen Eğitimi, Mesleki Kaygı Düzeyleri

Giriş

21. yüzyılda öğretmenlerden daha donanımlı olmaları beklenmektedir. Bu donanım hem mesleki hem kişisel olmak üzere çok yönlü süreçleri içermektedir. Örneğin öğretmenlerden bir yandan yeterli bilgi ve beceri donanımına sahip olmaları beklenirken bir yandan da insan ilişkileri ve iletişim becerisi yüksek bireyler olmaları beklenmektedir.

Okul öncesi öğretmenlerinin ise diğer branşlardan farklı olarak branşa özgü farklı bazı görev ve sorumlulukları vardır. Okulla ilk tanışan çocuk için ve özellikle küçük yaş gruplarındaki bazı çocuklar için bu görevler farklılaşabilmektedir. Tüm dünyada ve ülkemizde 0–6 yaş grubu çocuklar sayıları hızla artan bir oranda okul öncesi eğitim almaktadır. Okul öncesi eğitim küçük çocuklara evlerinin dışında ilk kurumsal deneyimi yaşatmakta ve çocukların eğitime ilişkin değer ve inançlarının şekillenmesinde etkili olmaktadır. Okul öncesi eğitimde kalitenin oluşmasında ve çocukların bu ilkokul deneyimlerini olumlu kılmakta en kritik rol, programın uygulayıcısı olan öğretmene düşmektedir (Alisinanoğlu ve Kesicioğlu, 2010: 585-600).

Öğretmen yeterliğine dönük olarak yapılan yerli ve yabancı çalışmalarda, öğretmenlerin kendine güven duyması veya kendi yeterlikleri hakkında olumlu algılamaları/görüşleri ile öğrencilerinin başarı düzeyi, güdülenmesi ve öğrencilerinin yeterlikleri arasında pozitif ilişkiler olduğu savunulmaktadır (Diken, 2004). Bazı çalışmalarda ise gelecek kuşakları yetiştirecek olan öğretmenlerin ayakları üzerine sağlam basarak mesleklerine başlamalarının ve meslekte başarılı olmalarının büyük oranda mesleklerine karşı hissettikleri mesleki kaygılarından arınmış olmalarına bağlı olduğu ifade edilmektedir (Taşgın, 2006: 679-686).

Işık (1996) kaygıyı tehdit edici bir durum karşısında birey tarafından hissedilen huzursuzluk ve endişe durumu olarak tanımlamıştır. Kaygının sözlük anlamları ise; “üzüntü, endişe duyulan düşünce, tasa”, “bireylerin, toplumsal kümelerin herhangi bir güçlü istek ya da güdülerinin gerçekleşmemesi olasılığı karşısında duydukları tedirginlik”, “güçlü bir istek ya da dürtünün amacına ulaşamayacak gibi gözüküğü durumlarda beliren tedirgin edici bir duygu” (TDK, 2009: 1115) olarak karşımıza çıkmaktadır.

Öğretmen adaylarının mesleğe ilişkin kaygıları belirli zamanlarda belirli noktalarda yoğunlaşır. Fuller’e (1969) göre, bu kaygıları ben-merkezli kaygılar, görev-merkezli kaygılar ve öğrenci-merkezli kaygılar olmak üzere üç grup altında toplamak mümkündür.

Ben-merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını, bireyin kendisi oluşturur. Ben-merkezli kaygıları taşıyan bir öğretmen adayı, öğretmenlik mesleğini başarı ile sürdürüp sürdüremeyeceği endişesini taşır ve bu nedenle de sürekli olarak yoğun bir stres altındadır. Görev-merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını, bireyin öğreticilik görevi oluşturur. Görev-merkezli kaygıları taşıyan bir öğretmen adayı, iyi bir öğretici olabilme kaygısı içindedir ve bu nedenle de alanında kullanabileceği yeni öğretim yöntemlerini, materyallerini ve araç-gereçlerini araştırmaya başlar. Öğrenci-merkezli kaygıların odak noktasını ise, öğrenciler oluşturur. Öğrenci-merkezli kaygıları taşıyan bir öğretmen adayı, öğretim ile ilgili düşüncelerinde ve tasarımlarında daha çok öğrenci merkezlidir. Böyle bir öğretmen adayı her öğrencinin zihinsel, duygusal ve sosyal ihtiyaçlarını en iyi nasıl karşılayabileceğini merak etmeye ve araştırmaya başlar. (Cabı ve Yalçınalp, 2013: 86)

Mesleki kaygı ile ilgili mevcut literatür incelendiğinde, bu konuda yapılmış çeşitli araştırmalara rastlamak mümkündür. Taşgın (2006) beden öğretmenliğinde okuyan öğretmen adaylarının cinsiyetlerinin mesleki kaygılarını etkileyip etkilemediğini araştırmıştır. Araştırma sonucunda bayan öğretmen adaylarının ben-merkezli ve görev-merkezli kaygı düzeylerinin erkeklerden daha yüksek olduğunu, öğrenci merkezli kaygı düzeyinde ise

anamlı bir fark olmadıđını ortaya koymuřtur. Kse'nin (2006) ise yaptıđı bir arařtırmada, farklı üniversitelerin mzik đretmenliđi blmlerinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının tařıdıkları mesleki kayđı dzeylerini kayđı alanları bakımından tespit etmiřtir. Arařtırmanın sonucunda mzik đretmeni adaylarının ben-merkezli kayđı dzeyi ortalamasını 32,19, grev-merkezli kayđı dzeyi ortalamasını 32,32, đrenci-merkezli kayđı dzeyi ortalamasını ise 33,29 olarak ortaya koymuřtur. Arařtırmacı alıřmasının sonucunda mzik đretmeni adaylarının ç kayđı alanında da mesleki kayđı dzeylerinin dřk olduđunu ifade etmiřtir. nalđı ve Alaz'ın (2008) 'cođrafya đretmenliđinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının kayđı dzeylerini farklı deđiřkenler aracılıđıyla lmř ve tm kayđı trlerinde bayan adayların kayđı dzeyi ortalamasının erkeklerinkinden daha yksek olduđunu belirtmiřtir. Ancak cinsiyet faktrnn ben-grev ve đrenci merkezli kayđı trlerinde anlamlı farklılıđa yol amadıđını tespit etmiřtir. Cabı ve Yalınalp (2009), đretmen adaylarının đretmenlik mesleđine ynelik kayđıların belirlenmesi amacıyla yaptıkları nitel bir alıřmada đretmen adaylarında đrenci ile iletiřim, iř bulma, okul yařantısı, ekonomik yařantı, mesleki kabul ve evre ile ilgili kayđılar olduđunu tespit etmiřlerdir. Dilma (2010) ise arařtırmasında grsel sanatlar đretmenliđinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđılarını cinsiyet, ailelerin gelir dzeyleri ve mezun oldukları lise trne gre anlamlı farklılık gsterip gstermediđi sorusuna cevap aramıřtır. Arařtırmacı bulgularında cinsiyet deđiřkeninin kayđı trlerinde anlamlı farklılıđa yol amadıđını, grsel sanatlar đretmenliđinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđı dzeylerinin dřk olduđunu ifade etmiřtir. Bozdam ve Tařđın (2011) farklı đretmenlik blmlerinde okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđı dzeylerini farklı deđiřkenler aısından incelemiřler ve đretmen adaylarının kayđı dzeylerinin cinsiyet ve yetiřtikleri yer deđiřkenlerine gre anlamlı dzeyde farklılařmadıđını, buna karřılık mesleki kayđı dzeylerinin yař ve branř deđiřkenlerine gre anlamlı bir řekilde farklılařtıđını ortaya koymuřlardır. Bir bařka alıřmada ise ubuku ve Dnmez (2011) farklı branřlardaki đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđılarının eřitli deđiřkenler aısından incelemiřler, đretmen adaylarının grev merkezli kayđılarının en fazla, ben merkezli kayđılarının ise en dřk dzeyde olduđunu tespit etmiřlerdir. Benzer řekilde Dursun ve Karagn (2012) beden eđitimi ve spor đretmenliđi son sınıfta okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđı dzeylerini eřitli deđiřkenler aısından deđerlendirmiř, sonu olarak đretmen adaylarının sahip oldukları kayđı trlerinin ekonomik durum, akademik ortalama, mezun oldukları lise tr ve cinsiyet aısından anlamlı bir řekilde farklılařmadıđını ancak ben merkezli kayđıları zerinde yař deđiřkeninin etkili olduđunu ortaya koymuřlardır.

đretmen adayları yeterliliklerin nemli bir kısmını lisans eđitimi ile edinirler. Bu dnemde đretmen adayları alan bilgisinin yanında meslekle ilgili deđer ve tutumlar kazanırlar (Lasek ve Wiesenbergova, 2007). đretim programlarının ieriklerinin yanı sıra, đretmenin derse, đretmenlik mesleđine, alana ve okula karřı farklı tutum ve davranıřları; đretmen adayının bařarısı, derse ilgisi, motivasyonu ve tutumunu etkilemektedir (Iřık, Yaman ve Soran, 2005:110-116). Bu nedenle nitelikli bireylerin yetiřtirilmesinde grev alacak đretmen adaylarının, sahip oldukları mesleki kayđıların belirlenip bunlara ynelik nlemlerin alınması, đretmen yetiřtiren kurumların bu konu ile ilgili farkındalıklarının arttırılması ve mesleki kayđıların azaltılmasında nleyici alıřmaların yapılması aısından nem tařır (Dursun ve Karagn, 2012: 96). Bu dođrultuda bu alıřmada okul ncesi đretmenliđi blmnde okuyan đretmen adaylarının mesleki kayđılarının eřitli deđiřkenler aısından incelenmesi amalanmıřtır.

Bu arařtırmada okul ncesi đretmen adaylarının sınıf dzeyi, cinsiyet ve mezun olduđu lise gibi deđiřkenlere gre mesleki kayđı dzeylerinin deđiřip deđiřmediđi sorusu ana problemi kapsamında ařađıdaki alt problemlere cevap aranmıřtır:

- Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları sınıf düzeyi değişkenine göre değişmekte midir?
- Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları cinsiyete göre değişmekte midir?
- Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmekte midir?

Metod

Bu bölümde; araştırmada yer alan çalışma grubu, araştırmanın veri toplama araçları, verilerin toplanma süreci ve analizi yer almaktadır.

Çalışma Grubu

Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu, 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) 269 öğretmen adayı oluşturmuştur. Çalışma grubu ile ilgili ayrıntılı bilgiler Tablo 1'de gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 1. Öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgilerinin dağılımı

		f	%
Sınıf	1. Sınıf	91	33.8
	2. Sınıf	106	39.4
	3. Sınıf	48	17.8
	4. Sınıf	24	8.9
	Toplam	269	100.0
Cinsiyet	Bayan	236	87.7
	Erkek	33	12.3
	Toplam	269	100.0
Mezun olduğu lise	Genel (Düz) Lise	68	25.3
	Anadolu öğretmen lisesi	27	10.0
	Anadolu Lisesi	83	30.9
	Meslek lisesi/Teknik lise	91	33.8
	Toplam	269	100.0

Veri Toplama Aracı

Araştırmada veri toplama aracı olarak görüşme formu kullanılmıştır. Görüşme formu iki bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde katılımcıların demografik bilgileri ile ilgili sorular, ikinci bölümde ise öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile ilgili 10 açık uçlu soru bulunmaktadır. Görüşme formunun birinci bölümünde katılımcıların sınıf düzeyi, cinsiyeti ve mezun oldukları lise türü yer almaktadır. İkinci bölümde öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi, velilerle iletişim, çocuklarla iletişim, yönetici ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim, çocukların okula uyumları, çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması, kaynaştırma öğrencileri, atandıklarında karşılaşacakları ortam ile öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerinin planlanması ve yürütülmesi konusundaki mesleki kaygıları ile ilgili açık uçlu sorular yer almaktadır. Görüşme formu geliştirilmeden önce öğretmen adaylarıyla ön görüşmeler yapılmış ve bu görüşmeler sonucunda veri toplama aracındaki sorular şekillendirilmiştir. Geliştirilen görüşme formunun geçerlik ve güvenilirlik çalışması için alan uzmanı ve eğitim bilimi öğretimi elemanlarının görüşü alınmış, uzmanlardan gelen dönütler sonucunda bazı maddeler çıkarılmış bazı maddelerde ise düzenlemeler yapılmıştır.

Verilerin Toplanması

Araştırmacılar, geliştirdikleri görüşme formunu 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Eğitimi Ana bilim dalında eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) 269 öğretmen adayına uygulamışlardır.

Verilerin Analizi

Araştırma hem nitel hem de nicel bir araştırma olup; 269 öğretmen adayının sorulara verdikleri cevaplar önce betimsel analiz yöntemiyle ortaya çıkarılmış, daha sonra öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgileri ile bu betimsel analizler SPSS programına aktarılıp kay-kare testi yapılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular

Bu bölümde okulöncesi öğretmen adaylarının sınıf düzeyi, cinsiyet ve mezun oldukları lise türü gibi değişkenlere göre mesleki kaygı düzeylerinin değişip değişmediği sorusu, alt problemlere göre açıklanmıştır.

1) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile sınıf düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki

Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeylerine göre değişip değişmediğini tespit etmek için kay-kare testi yapılmıştır. Yapılan kay-kare testinin sonuçları Tablo 2’de gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 2. Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeylerine göre kay-kare testi (Chi-square Test χ^2) sonuçları

	1.Sınıf		Hayır		2.Sınıf		Hayır		3.Sınıf		Hayır		4.Sınıf		Hayır		X ²	P
	Evet	%	f	%	Evet	%	f	%	Evet	%	f	%	Evet	%	f	%		
Sınıf yönetimi	5	62.	3	37.	4	39.	6	60.	2	45.	2	54.	1	58.	1	41.	11.37	.01
Veliler ile iletişim	3	33	6	67	5	50	5	50	2	56.	2	43.	1	58.	1	41.	10.40	.01
Çocuklarla iletişim	2	25.	1	74.	3	34	3	66	7	25	1	75	4	4.2	2	95.	7.289	.06
Yönetici ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim	1	20.	7	79.	3	30.	7	69.	1	39.	2	60.	1	41.	1	58.	7.289	.06
Çocukların okula uyumları	4	45.	4	54.	7	70.	3	29.	3	70.	1	29.	1	54.	1	45.	15.08	.00
Çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama	2	30.	6	69.	5	54.	4	45.	1	39.	2	60.	1	54.	1	45.	12.79	.00
Kaynaştırma öğrencileri Atandıkları yerde karşılaştacakları ortam	4	47.	4	52.	6	64.	3	35.	3	72.	1	27.	1	62.	9	37.	10.30	.01
Öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme	1	14.	7	85.	5	55.	4	44.	2	60.	1	39.	9	37.	1	62.	43.90	.00
	3	3	8	7	9	7	7	3	9	4	9	6	9	5	5	5	1	0

P < 0.05

Yapılan kay-kare testi sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular birinci sınıfta (%62,6) ve dördüncü sınıfta (%58,3) öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının, diğer sınıf düzeylerindeki öğretmen adaylarından, sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini daha yeterli hissettiklerini göstermektedir. Sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini en az yeterli hisseden grup ise, ikinci sınıf düzeyinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarıdır (%39,6).

Öğretmen adaylarının velilerle iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular sınıf düzeyi arttıkça veliler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygının da arttığını göstermektedir. Buna karşılık öğretmen adaylarının, çocuklarla iletişim ile yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre değişmediği görülmektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula uyumları konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda (%45,2) olduğunu, kaygı düzeyinin ikinci sınıf (%70,8) ve üçüncü sınıfta (%70,8) arttığını ancak dördüncü sınıf düzeyinde (%54,2) bu kaygının tekrar azaldığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda (%30,8) olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının bu konu hakkındaki kaygı düzeyleri ikinci sınıf (%54,7) ve dördüncü sınıfta (%54,2) daha fazladır.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri ile ilgili mesleki kaygıları ve sınıf düzeyleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgulara göre; kaynaştırma öğrencileri ile ilgili kaygı en az birinci sınıflarda (%47,3), en çok ise dördüncü sınıflarda (%62,5) vardır.

Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; bu kaygının birinci sınıftan (%45,1) üçüncü sınıfa (%72,9) doğru arttığını, son sınıfta (%66,7) ise üçüncü sınıfa göre biraz daha azaldığını ortaya koymaktadır.

Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; bu kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda (%14,3) olduğunu, kaygı düzeyinin birinci sınıftan üçüncü sınıfa (%60,4) doğru arttığını, ancak dördüncü sınıfta (%37,5) üçüncü sınıfa nispeten azaldığını göstermektedir.

2) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile cinsiyetleri arasındaki ilişki

Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyetlerine göre değişip değişmediğini tespit etmek için kay-kare testi yapılmıştır. Yapılan kay-kare testinin sonuçları Tablo 3'te verilmiştir:

Tablo 3. Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyetlerine göre kay-kare testi (Chi-square Test X^2) sonuçları

	Bayan		Hayır		Erkek		Hayır		X2	p
	Evet	%	f	%	Evet	%	f	%		
Sınıf yönetimi	115	48.7	121	51.3	20	60.6	13	39.4	1.634	.201
Veliler ile iletişim	108	45.8	128	54.2	16	48.5	17	51.5	.086	.769
Çocuklarla iletişim	61	25.8	175	74.2	11	33.3	22	66.7	.828	.363
Yönetici ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim	72	30.5	164	69.5	8	24.2	25	75.8	.544	.461
Çocukların okula uyumları	139	58.9	97	41.1	25	75.8	8	24.2	3.458	.063
Çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama	96	40.7	140	59.3	22	66.7	11	33.3	7.941	.005
Kaynaştırma öğrencileri	143	60.6	93	39.4	18	54.5	15	45.5	.441	.507
Atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam	144	61	92	39	15	45.5	18	54.5	2.901	.089
Öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini	97	41.1	139	58.9	13	39.4	20	60.6	.035	.852

planlama ve yürütme

P <0.05

Yapılan kay-kare testi sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının velilerle iletişim, çocuklarla iletişim ve yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre değişmediği tespit edilmiştir.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula uyumları konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının da cinsiyete göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının erkek öğretmen adaylarında (%66.7) daha fazla olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri ve adaylarının atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam ilgili mesleki kaygıları ve cinsiyetleri arasında bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaşmadığı tespit edilmiştir.

3) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile mezun oldukları lise türü arasındaki ilişki

Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişip değişmediğini tespit etmek için kay-kare testi yapılmıştır. Yapılan kay-kare testinin sonuçları Tablo 4'te gösterilmiştir:

Tablo 3. Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre kay-kare testi (Chi-square Test X^2) sonuçları

	Genel Lise				Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi				Anadolu Lisesi				Meslek Lisesi/Teknik Lise				X2	p
	Evet f	%	Hayır f	%	Evet f	%	Hayır f	%	Evet f	%	Hayır f	%	Evet f	%	Hayır f	%		
Sınıf yönetimi	38	55.9	30	44.1	13	48.2	14	51.8	24	28.9	59	71.1	60	65.9	31	34.1	24.976	.000
Veliler ile iletişim	34	50	34	50	10	37	17	63	35	42.2	48	57.8	45	49.5	46	50.5	2.236	.525
Çocuklarla iletişim	21	30.9	47	69.1	8	29.6	19	70.4	28	33.7	55	66.3	15	16.5	76	83.5	7.666	.053
Yönetici ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim	13	19.1	55	80.9	6	22.2	21	77.8	33	39.8	50	60.2	28	30.8	63	60.2	8.436	.038
Çocukların okula uyumları	48	70.6	20	29.4	19	70.4	8	29.6	58	69.9	25	30.1	39	42.9	52	57.1	18.960	.000
Çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama	31	45.6	37	54.4	18	66.7	9	33.3	43	51.8	40	48.2	26	28.6	65	71.4	16.553	.001
Kaynaştırma öğrencileri	40	58.8	28	41.2	13	48.2	14	51.8	53	63.9	30	36.1	55	60.4	36	39.6	2.136	.545
Atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam	41	60.3	27	39.7	14	51.9	13	48.1	51	61.5	32	38.5	53	58.2	38	41.8	.844	.839
Öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme	40	58.8	28	41.2	9	33.3	18	66.7	43	51.8	40	48.2	18	19.8	73	80.2	30.556	.000

P <0.05

Yapılan kay-kare testi sonucunda öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular sınıf yönetimi konusunda en fazla meslek lisesi/teknik lise mezunu olan öğretmen adaylarının kendilerini yeterli hissettiklerini göstermektedir (%65.9).

Öğretmen adaylarının velilerle iletişim ve çocuklarla iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur. Buna karşılık öğretmen adaylarının yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular; yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim hakkındaki

mesleki kaygının en fazla anadolu lisesi mezunu öğretmen adaylarında (%.39.8) , en az ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (% 19.1) olduğunu göstermektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula uyumları konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (%42.9), en fazla ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (% 70.6) bulunduğunu ortaya koymaktadır.

Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (%28.6) olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bu konu hakkındaki kaygı düzeyinin en fazla olduğu grup ise anadolu öğretmen lisesinden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarıdır (%66.7).

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri ile ilgili mesleki kaygıları ve mezun oldukları lise türü arasında anlamlı bir ilişki bulunamamıştır. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmediği tespit edilmiştir.

Öğretmen adaylarının öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı tespit edilmiştir. Bulgular; bu kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik lise mezunu öğretmen adaylarında (% 19.8) en fazla ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında (%58.8) olduğunu göstermektedir.

Sonuç ve Öneriler

Bu araştırmada 2012-2013 eğitim öğretim yılında Kastamonu Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Okulöncesi Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'nda eğitimine devam eden (1,2,3 ve 4. sınıf) öğretmen adayları yer almıştır. Araştırma hem nitel hem de nicel bir araştırma olup; 269 öğretmen adayının sorulara verdikleri cevaplar önce betimsel analiz yöntemiyle ortaya çıkarılmış, daha sonra öğretmen adaylarının demografik bilgileri ile bu betimsel analizler SPSS programına aktarılıp analiz edilmiştir. Araştırmada genel olarak aşağıdaki sonuçlar ortaya çıkmıştır.

1) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile sınıf düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki

Araştırma bulguları birinci ve dördüncü sınıfta öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarının diğer sınıf düzeylerindeki öğretmen adaylarından sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini daha yeterli hissettiklerini göstermektedir. Sınıf yönetimi konusunda kendilerini en az yeterli hisseden grup ise ikinci sınıf düzeyinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarıdır. Öğretmen adaylarının bu konu hakkındaki cevapları ayrıntılı olarak incelendiğinde bulguların bu şekilde olmasının birinci sınıfların bu konu ile ilgili uygulamalardaki zorluklarla henüz karşılaşmamış olmalarından, son sınıfların ise bu konu ile ilgili yeterli deneyim ve bilgi sahibi olmalarından kaynaklandığı tespit edilmiştir.

Bulgular sınıf düzeyi arttıkça veliler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygının da arttığını göstermektedir. Bulguların bu şekilde olmasının öğretmen adaylarının uygulamalarda karşılaştıkları olumsuz örneklerden kaynaklanabileceği düşünülmektedir. Buna karşılık öğretmen adaylarının, çocuklarla iletişim ile yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenlerle iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının sınıf düzeyine göre değişmediği görülmektedir.

Bulgular; çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda olduğunu, kaygı düzeyinin ikinci ve üçüncü sınıfta giderek arttığını ancak dördüncü sınıf düzeyinde bu kaygının tekrar azaldığını ortaya koymaktadır. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının cevaplarından yola çıkılarak; birinci sınıfların kaygılarının az olmasının bu konu ile ilgili uygulamalardaki zorluklarla henüz yeterince karşılaşmamış olmalarından, son sınıfların ise bu konu ile ilgili yeterli deneyim ve bilgi sahibi olmaları sebebiyle özgüvenlerinin artmış olmasından kaynaklandığı söylenebilir.

Bulgular çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının bu konu hakkındaki kaygı düzeyleri ikinci ve dördüncü sınıfta daha

fazladır. Benzer şekilde kaynaştırma öğrencileri ile ilgili kaygı en az birinci sınıflarda, en çok ise dördüncü sınıflarda vardır. Birinci sınıfların bu alanlardaki özgüven fazlalığının deneyim eksikliklerinden ve uygulamalardaki zorluklarla henüz yeterince karşılaşmamış olmalarından kaynaklanabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının atandıklarında karşılaşacakları ortam ile ilgili kaygının birinci sınıftan üçüncü sınıfa doğru arttığını, son sınıfta ise üçüncü sınıfa göre biraz daha azaldığı tespit edilmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarında mezuniyet yaklaştıkça atanma ve görev yapacakları ortam ile kaygılarının artıyor olması olağandır. Son sınıf öğrencilerindeki kaygı azalmasının sebebi olarak ise atanma kaygısının, gidecekleri yerin özellikleri ile ilgili kaygılarından daha baskın olması gösterilebilir. Benzer şekilde öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki kaygının en az birinci sınıflarda olduğu, kaygı düzeyinin birinci sınıftan üçüncü sınıfa doğru arttığı ancak dördüncü sınıfta üçüncü sınıfa nispeten azaldığı görülmektedir.

2) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile cinsiyetleri arasındaki ilişki

Öğretmen adaylarının sınıf yönetimi, velilerle iletişim, çocuklarla iletişim ve yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre değişmediği tespit edilmiştir. Benzer şekilde öğretmen adaylarının çocukların okula uyumları konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının da cinsiyete göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur.

Öğretmen adaylarının çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusundaki mesleki kaygıları ile ilgili bulgular; erkek öğretmen adaylarında bu kaygının daha fazla olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Erkek öğretmen adayların açıklamaları incelendiğinde, erkek öğretmen adaylarının kaygılarının özellikle kız öğrencilerin tuvalet ihtiyacını karşılama konusunda yoğunlaştığı görülmektedir.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri, atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam ile öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının cinsiyete göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaşmadığı tespit edilmiştir.

3) Öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygıları ile mezun oldukları lise türü arasındaki ilişki

Araştırma bulguları sınıf yönetimi konusunda meslek lisesi/teknik lise mezunu olan öğretmen adaylarının kendilerini diğer öğretmen adaylarından daha yeterli hissettiklerini göstermektedir.

Öğretmen adaylarının velilerle iletişim ve çocuklarla iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmediği ortaya koyulmuştur. Buna karşılık öğretmen adaylarının yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre anlamlı bir şekilde farklılaştığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular; yöneticiler ve diğer öğretmenler ile iletişim hakkındaki mesleki kaygının en fazla anadolu lisesi mezunu öğretmen adaylarında, en az ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında olduğunu göstermektedir.

Bulgular; çocukların okula uyumları ile ilgili kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında, en fazla ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında bulunduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Öğretmen adaylarının cevapları incelendiğinde meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarındaki özgüvenin yeterince deneyim sahibi olmalarından kaynaklandığı ortaya çıkmaktadır. Benzer şekilde bulgular çocukların özbakım ihtiyaçlarının karşılanması ile ilgili kaygının en az meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. Bu konu hakkındaki kaygı düzeyinin en fazla olduğu grup ise anadolu öğretmen lisesinden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarıdır.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının kaynaştırma öğrencileri ve atandıkları yerde karşılaşacakları ortam konusundaki mesleki kaygılarının mezun oldukları lise türüne göre değişmediği tespit edilmiştir.

Araştırma sonuçları; öğrenme ve öğretme süreçlerini planlama ve yürütme konusundaki mesleki kaygıların en az meslek lisesi/teknik lise mezunu öğretmen adaylarında, en fazla ise genel liseden mezun olan öğretmen adaylarında olduğunu göstermektedir. Öğretmen adaylarının cevapları incelendiğinde meslek lisesi/teknik liseden mezun olanların bu konudaki kaygılarının az olmasının, uygulama deneyimlerinin fazla olmasından kaynaklandığı söylenebilir.

Araştırma sonuçları dikkate alınarak aşağıdaki öneriler getirilebilir:

Öğretmen adaylarının verdikleri cevaplarda birinci ve dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin benzer cevap vermeleri, birinci sınıfların mesleği tanıma konusunda yeterince bilgi ve deneyim sahibi olmamalarına bağlanmaktadır. bu sonuç araştırmacıları eğitim fakültelerinde yürütülen okul deneyimi derslerinin geçmiş yıllarda olduğu gibi birinci sınıfta olması gerektiği düşüncesine itmiştir. Çünkü bireyler hayatları boyunca yapacakları mesleğin özelliklerini henüz eğitim hayatlarının başında tanımalıdır.

Okulöncesi öğretmenlerinin eğitim hizmeti görevlerinin yanında kısmen de olsa diğer branşlardan farklı olarak bakım görevleri de bulunmaktadır. Özellikle ana okullarındaki 3-4 yaş grubundaki çocukların bazı özbakım becerilerini henüz kazanmamış olmaları erkek öğretmen adaylarını kaygılandırmaktadır. Bu yüzden erkek okulöncesi öğretmenlerinin ilk okullarda bulunan anasınıflarında ya da ana okullarındaki 5 yaş grubunda istihdam edilmeleri önerilmektedir.

Araştırma sonuçları kızsleslek lisesi mezunu öğretmen adaylarının mesleki kaygı düzeylerinin daha düşük olduğunu göstermiştir. Öğretmenlik mesleği bilgi değil beceri mesleğidir. Bu araştırma sonucu dikkate alındığında bireylerin kademeli olarak mesleklere yönelmelerinin, onların seçtiği mesleklere karşı kaygılarının düşük olmasına neden olacağı söylenebilir. Bu yüzden birçok meslek grubunda kademeli olarak mesleklere yönelme şeklindeki yönelmelerin kaygı düzeyini düşüreceği ve daha donanımlı meslek sahibi bireyler ortaya çıkaracağı düşünülmektedir. Ayrıca öğretmenlik mesleğinin beceri mesleği olması noktasından hareketle eğitim fakültelerine girişlerde ÖSYM'nin yaptığı merkezi sınavların yanında, mülakat gibş çeşitli sınavlar dizisinin de olması gerekmektedir.

Kaynaklar

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Applying Response-to-Intervention in Elementary Schools: Perceptions of Primary Administrators

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Abstract

We examined perceptions of Response-to-Intervention held by five administrators in elementary schools within a district committed to its implementation. We interviewed participants about school philosophy and RTI, intervention decision criteria, services, and collaboration at each tier. Findings revealed RTI processes matching descriptions in the literature, especially for assessment, tier design, and interventions. Notably, RTI implementation seemed to represent an evolution from existing practices rather than a sudden transformation, decision-making processes associated with assessment and tier-to-tier movement were still developing, and collaboration was both impacted by RTI and was critical for its success. Future research should closely examine student assessment relative to decision-making, the interface between general and special education, and ways leadership can support differentiated instruction in general education. An implication of our work is that studies like this are needed to examine schools where RTI is evolving out of previous practices rather than being generated by ongoing, intensive research.

Keywords. Response-to-intervention, evidence-based practices, learning disability diagnosis, academic assessment, behavioral assessment, three-tiers model

Introduction

The purpose of the study reported here was to gain an understanding of how Response-To-Intervention (RTI) is being implemented at the elementary level in schools that are committed to the RTI process. The research reported here provides a glimpse into how elementary schools structure the RTI tiers, how they make decisions about student movement between tiers; what results occur as a consequence of using RTI; and how school professionals interact with each other during these processes. In this paper, we report briefly on our method, we present a summary of selected results, and we discuss implications for future research.

Method

Our research involved using interviews to examine perceptions of RTI that were held by five administrators with oversight responsibilities in elementary schools within a single school district in the rocky mountain region of the United States of America. These administrators included three school principals, a Director of Special Education, and a Coordinator of RTI effort. These administrators were asked to describe their school philosophies and relate these to RTI, describe the interventions that occur in relation to their multilevel RTI structures, and identify critical decision processes and who makes those decisions.

Results

We first note that the experiences reported in this study come from a single district that is at a particular point in its journey toward realizing the vision of RTI. The study is also confined to the elementary level. Finally, the perceptions of these participants about practices are those of administrators. While knowing the views of persons with administrative responsibilities is important (e.g., Shepherd & Salemier, 2011; Werts et al., 2009), practitioners responsible for delivering services might present different and important perspectives.

Summarizing first the responses to questions about building philosophy and RTI, there was an emphasis on all students being part of RTI; on all students accessing general curriculum and receiving needed interventions; on meeting academic and behavioral needs, with a goal of a year or more of growth for each student; and on

collaboration. In the language of institutional ethnography, these define “ruling work” for teachers and others. For these administrators, the need to realize in practice these five points impacted how they monitored, supported, and evaluated work within their schools. As noted by one of the district-level participants (Johnson), “We use performance data of students to determine if we’re being effective or not. If [it] is not effective then the district needs to intervene with the building, give more support and directives.”

With respect to intervention practices, these were characterized with respect to both within- and between-tiers. We found that these administrators described practices within tiers in the direction one might expect given the way they have been defined in the literature: Tier 1 emphasized core curriculum in the classroom; Tier 2 emphasized interventions designed to assist at-risk students in realizing better access to the core curriculum, employing various published curriculum; and Tier 3 was largely special education services designed to serve identified students. We noted an emphasis on reading and math in the way RTI was discussed, with behavioral issues mentioned much less often. The expression “double dipping” was used to describe Tier 2 interventions, addressing both the situation of a student needing a “refresher” and the student with an apparent skill deficit. In the language of institutional ethnography, these participants were describing the “work practices of everyday life” of teachers and others.

The decision processes that were described by these participants asserted that teachers were to use quantitative information, collected at all three tiers, especially information derived from regular benchmark data collected three times per year on all students, and more frequently gathered progress monitoring data for those students receiving interventions, using the District-approved AIMSweb® system. However, the discussion of decision-making processes is where we were most likely to observe what could be described as “fault lines” in the vernacular of institutional ethnography: places where the RTI model and actual practices sometimes expressed discrepancies or processes in flux. These included uncertainties over the optimal objective criteria for making intervention change decisions; evidence of reliance in some situations on subjective data, a practice that may have varied in degree between schools who were at different points in their own development; issues that arose over the interpretations of appropriate Tier-level services when a student transferred between schools; and questions about the meaning and validity of progress monitoring data as a measure of growth in students receiving interventions.

Finally, the participants emphasized collaboration among general educators, between general educators and intervention service providers, and between general educators and both special educators and related service providers. When presenting the processing interchanges that occurred, the participants described how collaboration became more intense as a student moved from Tier 1, to Tier 2, to Tier 3, and how there were increasingly more and different players as one moved between these same tiers. The participants suggested by their comments that collaboration had been happening before RTI entered the picture, but that its quality and frequency were now greater as a function of the RTI expectations.

Discussion

We offer three interpretations of our own, derived from our conversations with these five administrators. First, the implementation and evolution of RTI in this District can best be described as a reshaping and extension of past practices rather than an abrupt implementation of something quite new and different. What seemed most apparent to us is that past practices around teacher decision-making, interventions, collaboration, and student placement have become more standardized, now occurring with potentially greater fidelity and with increased accountability as a result of the introduction of an RTI framework. It is perhaps in the formalization of data collection that we saw the most dramatic change with respect to the reported day-to-day activities of teachers and others in this District. Yet, we wonder about the reach of data-based decision-making in relation to instructional interventions and student placement: Can data gathered on student progress be used to address critical questions of service adequacy in the larger picture of relationships between general and special education? Or, do these data simply drive a cycle in which interventions become more or less intense and/or more or less isolated when benchmark and progress monitoring data yield differential results? We also wonder about what would have been reported by these same administrators if instead of Tier 3 being mostly about special education it had been more of an extension of general education, as described in some models (e.g., Burns & Scholin, 2013).

Second, we were uncertain about the degree to which teachers providing intervention services, most notably at Tier 3, were attentive to student success in general education, as opposed to focusing mostly on skill remediation data as indices of their productivity. This issue lies at the heart of the RTI concept, because it appears to us that what could really distinguish RTI from more traditional special education approaches is reliance on general education progress and not necessarily on skill remediation per se for ascertaining school and

teacher accountability. In a related vein, we remain uncertain about the extent students receiving interventions, especially in Tier 3, are receiving levels of access to core curriculum that differ substantially from pre-RTI practices.

Third and finally, we were impressed with the strength of the resolve of these participants with respect to their support of collaboration. Without exception, the critical significance of providing administrative encouragement for interdisciplinary communication and coordinated service provision was emphasized. All of these individuals described changes that have occurred in ongoing collaboration between teachers and others in the District, and all spoke to the need for continuing to move in this direction in the future.

In terms of future research, we need studies of perceptions of persons more directly connected with the delivery of instruction, and in districts expressing varying levels of commitment to RTI. Hence, along with additional studies of how administrators perceive, understand, and support RTI, there is a need for more studies like that of Greenfield et al. (2010), which examined how practitioners perceive, understand, and reportedly implement these procedures. There is also a need for observational studies of RTI implementation, and studies of both perceptions and practices at the secondary level. In all cases, an objective of this research is to acquire an understanding of how RTI looks in actual practice. We believe that the institutional ethnography methodologies used here could contribute to this research.

We particularly stress the need for research that examines how practices at the different tiers are similar to, or distinct from, each other with respect to decision-making, instructional strategies and the curriculum used, and the potential impact of these similarities and differences on student progress in the general curriculum. For example, we believe that more research similar to that of Shapiro et al. (2012) is needed to better understand how teachers and others make between tier placement decisions at all tier levels, and the consequences of these decisions for students over the course of their school careers.

There was the perception on the part of these administrators that, while the RTI process appeared to increase their resolve in disability identification, its impact on “closing the gap” between successful and struggling learners remained uncertain. This district was making a determined effort to use RTI to achieve this purpose; however, it was too early to tell whether this objective was being realized. We emphasize that the issue here is not whether implementing an ideal and highly controlled RTI process results in gap minimization but rather whether the natural implementations of RTI in schools can achieve this end.

Finally, we note that these participants described intervention processes that usually involved enhancements in instructional time, instructional intensity, and targeted curricular materials. Although it was addressed, less attention was paid to how they supported and monitored interventions occurring within general education in which differentiation, lesson and material adaptations, and/or embedding provide the basis for working with struggling learners with and without disabilities. More research is needed on how leadership can support and monitor as part of their service delivery model teacher accommodations and lesson differentiation within general education. This kind of research is much needed, given that successful progress in the general curriculum is a goal of instruction within an RTI framework.

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Culture and Foreign Language Teaching

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Abstract

Why is it that communication with persons from other cultures so often is frustrating with misunderstanding? The answer to this question lies on the fact that people simply expect that being human, having common requirements of food, shelter, security etc. makes everyone alike. However they neglect the idea that values, beliefs, customs and attitudes are different from one culture to another. Foreign language learning is foreign culture learning. That is to say, learning a language involves not only learning the alphabet, the meaning of words, the rules of grammar, but also the culture of it in order to avoid misunderstanding in intercultural communication. Therefore, while designing foreign language curriculum and syllabus, the textbooks have important functions. Textbook writers should have a comparative look at foreign and native cultures. In this way learners unconsciously internalize and distinguish the cultural elements in the text. Foreign language learners should intercultural be aware of both their own culture and more importantly, that of others. Otherwise they will interpret the foreign language messages based on their own culture which may result in misunderstanding.

Keywords. Communicative competence; Foreign language learning and culture; Textbooks in foreign language culture learning

Introduction

Why is it that communication with persons from other cultures so often is frustrating with misunderstanding?

It is often thought that the group to which a person belongs is 'different'. People simply expect that being human and having common requirements of food, shelter, security and so on makes everyone alike. However, they neglect the idea or fact that the values, beliefs and attitudes surrounding them are different from culture to culture. Therefore, if someone acts or looks different from them, they evaluate the fact as 'wrong'.

Of course language plays an important role in this fact: Vocabulary, syntax, idioms, slang, dialects and so on cause difficulty in the target language. Mostly new language learners cling to just one meaning of a word or phrase in the new language, regardless of context. Language is a way of marking cultural identity. The meanings of a particular language point to the culture of a particular social group, and the analysis of those meanings, their comprehension by learners and other speakers involves the analysis and comprehension of that culture (Fenging Gao, 2006). As a matter of fact language learning is culture learning and consequently language teaching is culture teaching. So, when we come to the question about culture how can we evaluate it? We can say that culture is manifested at different layers of depth, ranging from inner core (family) basic assumptions and values through outer core attitudes, beliefs and social conventions and to surface –level behavioral manifestations.

As Oatey (2000) proposes culture is a fuzzy set of attitudes, beliefs, behavioral conventions, and basic assumptions and values that are shared by a group of people and that influence each member's interpretations of the meaning of other people's behavior.

Therefore, culture learning is a key factor in being able to use and master a foreign linguistic system.

How do we teach the culture of the target language?

First of all we have to draw a distinction between grammatical competence and communicative competence. Learning a language involves not only learning the alphabet, the meaning and arrangement of words, the rules of grammar but also learning the new languages of body, behavior and cultural custom (Gao, 2006 p.61).

Different culture may have different conventions as to what is appropriate behavior, in what contexts. Lack of relevant knowledge may cause intercultural misunderstanding (Hinde, 1997). In order to avoid misunderstanding in intercultural communication, good communication competence is indispensable.

On the other hand, foreign language learners should intercultural be aware of both their own culture and more importantly, that of others. Otherwise they will interpret the foreign language messages based on their own

culture (Rabatjazi, 2008). (Mayer 1991). So, in Hymes (1972) words grammatical competence is not enough for a good command of a foreign language, but also the ability to use language appropriately must be acquired.

According to Van Ek's model (1986) communicative ability comprises six competences:

1. *Linguistic competence*: the ability to produce and interpret meaningful utterances which are formed in accordance with the rules of the language;
2. *Sociolinguistic competence*: the awareness of ways in which the choice of language forms is determined by such conditions as setting, relationship etc.
3. *Discourse competence*: the ability to use appropriate strategy in the construction and interpretation of texts;
4. *Strategic competence*: when communication is difficult, we have to find ways of 'getting our meanings across' such as rephrasing, asking for clarification;
5. *Socio-cultural competence*: being in one specific reference frame.
6. *Social competence*: involves both the will and the skill to interact with others, involving motivation, attitudes, self-confidence, empathy and the ability to handle social situations.

Moreover, nonverbal language including gestures, body language, facial expressions are also culturally and socially remarkable from one language to another. From this point of view foreign language teaching is concerned with communication which is more than exchange of information and sending messages; focusing on establishing and maintaining relationship it often involves the indirectness of politeness.

How to teach intercultural communication in the classroom?

Developing students' skills in intercultural communication is necessary part of language teaching. For this purpose, EFT curriculum and textbooks are expected to reflex a range of cultural context and to include intercultural elements.

As Rabatjazi puts forward to have a valid and affective outcome of foreign language teaching process, a special attention should be given to curriculum planning and syllabus design. The curriculum, according to him is more than a syllabus where both terms are frequently used in a variety of ways, as syllabus is a list of what is to be thought, sometimes including a list of appropriate materials, whereas curriculum involves a proposal for ordering what is to be thought in order to arrive at specific objectives which may be integrated into the curriculum.

As designing foreign language curriculum and syllabus appears challenging and requires a lot of time and energy to focus on linguistic and cultural aspects to be covered; textbooks should not only reflect the target culture but also the source culture and international cultures. Therefore, a text book has important functions on several levels:

1. A text book is considered to be a TEACHER in the sense that it contains material that is intended to instruct students directly about the target culture.
2. A text book is considered to be a MAP in the sense that it clearly gives an overview of the structured programme of linguistic and cultural elements to be covered in a specific period of time.
3. A text book is considered as a RESOURCE in the sense that a set of materials and activities from which the most appropriate or useful items are selected is presented.
4. Text books are also regarded as a TRAINER in the sense that it teaches not only the teachers but also the students how to proceed.
5. As an AUTHORITY a textbook appears very reliable, valid and written by experts.

In short, we can say that textbooks culturally designed are an important angle of the triangle of teaching and the other angles are teachers and students (Cortazzi and Jin, 2000).

Selection of texts

Moreover, the texts selected to serve as textbooks for the students should be interesting, informative and enlightening. To achieve this writers must be experienced in sociology, anthropology, science and culture, should be encouraged.

As Byram 1997 and Kramsch 1998 argued the textbooks should be loaded not only with the culture of the target language, but with native language culture as well in order to developed students' perspectives to view the world in order to make them intercultural speakers. Therefore, finding similarities and differences can help

learners to get a general view of the two cultures. As a result, learners unconsciously internalize and distinguish the cultural elements in the texts.

Moreover, culture is subject to changes as language is. Overtime it changes and transforms into a new form. People live the new life with new forms. So textbooks should be inclusive of contemporary cultures as well.

Conclusion

As a conclusion, communication is more than exchange of information and sending message. Learning foreign languages, if done under the guidance of an up-to-date teacher, is a long-term process that opens the richness of other ways of looking at the world and human communication. Therefore, the integration of language and culture learning by using the language as a medium for the continuing socialization of students in a process which is not intended to imitate and replicate the socialization of non-native speaker teachers, but rather to developed students' cultural competence from its existing stage by changing it into intercultural competence. As a matter of fact, a true representation of a culture and people depends on the writers' cultural awareness and their philosophy of education..

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Understanding IN SHA ALLAH in Cross-Cultural Communication

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Abstract

In Sha Allah is one of the most common phrases in the Arabic and generally Muslim societies in Asia and Africa. The term, which literally translates to ‘if it is God’s will,’ has a distinct literal meaning in Anglo-Saxon English language communication, but in reality under the cultural cap where it is used, *In Sha Allah* can mean a multitude of emotions both positive and negative and more importantly well beyond the literal translation of the phrase in English. Through this paper the readers are offered a glimpse into one Arabic-speaking culture and its workings, which are quite different from the more direct and absolute mechanisms typical in Western cultures. Furthermore, in recent years, as there has been a push to better understand the Arab cultures and their beliefs, a phrase like *In Sha Allah* can help immensely to bridge the communication gap between different cultures and help create harmonious societies.

Keywords.

Introduction

Today, in many parts of the world, everyday culture is swayed by international influences. Irving (2005) states that globalization, a continuously growing confluence of culture and economics, has led to many social and political implications, and communication has greatly been affected by this process. Whether right or wrong, globalization seems unstoppable. Mass tourism, the interdependency of world markets and the Internet with its efficient and instant links to even the remotest corners of the globe have all contributed to an up-growth in cross-cultural communication. Hence, in the course of their daily lives more and more people all over the world are confronted with the task of communicating with people from cultures very different from their own. English, often not native to either speaker, is most frequently the language employed, i.e. the lingua franca. Yet the language itself is often the least important aspect; intercultural awareness and tolerance play a central role in making global communication work.

The concept of cross-cultural competence is neither static nor the direct result of being educated and trained. Hammer, Bennet & Wiseman (2003) see cross-cultural competence as widely perceived and being crucial for people to interact effectively and appropriately with members of different cultures. Furthermore, it cross-cultural competence not innate with people, nor does it accidentally occur while working and/or living in a foreign country. Spitzberg (2000) refers to motivation, culturally appropriate behavior and local knowledge as the three important components for cross-cultural competence. The author is of the opinion that these competencies are developed gradually by experience and hence, will never be complete.

Growing up in Germany, I was always interested in exploring foreign cultures and understanding the nuances that makes one group of people a little different from another group of people. Although I have visited more than forty countries during my vacation travels over the years, where in some cases I was able to appreciate briefly the differences between the local’s ways of life and my own, it was only in 2008, when I moved to the United Arab Emirates (U.A.E.), that I was for the first time able to truly immerse myself into a clearly different culture than my own. In the appendix to this paper, I have listed eight unique cross-cultural communication dialogues from my workplace and my English Language Learning (ELL) classroom that I have experienced over the years while working and teaching in the U.A.E. In the following pages, I will discuss and analyze these examples and illustrate unique cross-cultural differences between a Western-born and raised education professional and her workplace colleagues and U.A.E.-born students.

For the purposes of this paper, I use the term “Muslim” to refer to people who practice Islam, “Arab” to refer to people who are ethnically Arab and “Emirati” to denote citizens of the U.A.E. Most of the people I am referencing are from the Middle East, North Africa or are Muslims from the Indian subcontinent. It should be

noted that groups of people who practice other religions but are born and raised in these countries may share similar cultural influences.

Culture and Context

Al-Issa (2005) states that “to understand the causes of classroom cultural conflicts, an understanding of the different cultural patterns between Eastern (i.e., Arabs) and Western (i.e., North Americans and Western European) cultures is a prerequisite” (p. 151). The cultural patterns of individualism versus collectivism and high-context versus low-context can often be used to illustrate these classroom conflicts or differences. Individualism is associated with traditions or perspectives that emphasize “the primacy of the individual and his or her rights, independence, and relationship with other individuals” (Forsyth, 2006, p. 77). Collectivism, on the other hand, is an ideology that emphasizes the group or community over the individual (Forsyth, 2006). High context and low context cultures, as defined by the anthropologist Edward T. Hall in his seminal work, *Beyond Culture* (1976), refer to people’s tendency to favor more or less linguistic support for messages. In a high context culture, like the U.A.E., things are often left unsaid and the group uses their shared experiences and expectations to decipher the missing language. In a low context culture, the person speaking needs to be much more explicit and individual word choices are less important. The following analysis of the dialogues will clearly engender cultural inferences that may form a useful guide for future workplace and classroom interactions of a similar kind.

Culture is difference, variability and a potential source of conflict when one culture comes into contact with another. It is not an expendable fifth skill in addition to the four general language skills, which are speaking, reading, listening and writing. Korhonen (2002) argues that it is important to appreciate the relationship of language and culture in teaching. He states that successful second language acquisition is accompanied by second culture acquisition, for example linguistic competence is accompanied by cross-cultural competence. Therefore, it is wrong to assume that ELL teachers succeed by teaching the four skills without considering the culture. On one hand, intercultural knowledge evidently completes the language teacher’s competence, while on the other hand it serves as a necessary asset for students to support their emerging language abilities. Eventually, cultural awareness of a certain context becomes an educational overall objective and therefore must be viewed both, as enabling language proficiency and as being a mandatory learning outcome resulting in the reflection on language proficiency.

Context is the overarching concept, which subsumes many other variables including the setting, the teacher, the learner, instructional methods, instructional materials, and assessment approaches. Williams (2001) asserts that language has no function independent of the context in which it is used, thus language always refers to something beyond itself: the cultural context. This cultural context defines the language patterns being used when particular persons come together under certain circumstances at a particular time and place. Wierzbicka (1997) argues that there is a very close link between the life of a society and the lexicon of the language spoken by its members. Understanding the context means the people know certain cultural meanings associated with, for example, time, place, person, and circumstance. Javidan (2008a) states that this understanding prescribes behavior appropriate to those circumstances. In essence, one does not need to be familiar with the other person in order to communicate, but one does need to understand the context. This, of course, becomes far more problematical in cross-cultural encounters.

Understanding IN SHA ALLAH:

A Muslim believes that God’s hand is present in every occurrence on earth. Nothing can happen without God ordaining it. Williams (2008) states that Muslims often proclaim that such and such will happen ‘if God wills’ (*In Sha Allah*). Predominantly for Muslims, God alone controls the future and therefore any attempt to lay down what shall happen in the future, such as agreeing on a date or time or finishing a report, is presumptuous and, for some very religious Muslims, borders on the blasphemous. In historical terms, traditional life in the desert or at sea was without detailed maps and equipment and ‘time’ was dictated by the sun and the call to prayer. Confidence in God’s ordained will played a vital role in the orderly continuance of daily life.

In Sha Allah is one of the most common phrases in Arabic and was originally meant as a qualifier to an intention. The term, which literally translates to ‘if it is God’s will,’ is not typically used in Anglo-Saxon English language communication, but in the Arab region’s colloquial English communication it often is used to refer to an event that may or may not happen in the future. In linguistics, this may be considered as one of the untranslatable phrases since it is not that the words cannot be literally explained in another language (like

English) but because the essence of the phrase is lost as it crosses from one cultural language interpretation to another.

Intonation and stress patterns of speech, while using the term *In Sha Allah*, lead to very important distinguishing characteristics in its meaning and reference when it is used in the Arab region's spoken English communication. The term is also used in written form but the variations of interpretation are not as profound in that instance.

FOUR CONTEXTUAL EXPLANATIONS OF IN SHA ALLAH:

Through my years of living in the U.A.E., and based on various lengthy discussions with the local Emirati people, I have concluded that there are typically four different contextual explanations for the use of the term *In Sha Allah* in the Arabic context:

Type 1: Something only happens if Allah (God) wills it to happen

Type 2: To defer responsibility for an event or situation

Type 3: To cover uncertainty

Type 4: To respectfully say that something cannot be done

It should be noted that the four types listed above are generally associated with the following four guiding principles that Muslims believe in:

Faith in the Will of Allah (Walking in the footsteps of life per God's will): Type 1 above
Acceptance to the Will of Allah (Understanding and submitting to the will of God): Type 2 above
Confidence in the Will of Allah (Trusting in God in times of uncertainty): Type 3 above
Forbearance to the Will of Allah (Respectfully declining a request from someone): Type 4 above

Based on my previous ELL teaching experience in the region, consider the example of two students, Fatima and Mariam, who are preparing for their final English examination for the term. Both of the female students come from religiously conservative backgrounds. Fatima does not miss any English classes, works diligently, participates actively in classroom discussions and submits all the assignments on time. In contrast, Mariam does not attend class regularly, does not submit all the assignments and is generally an unmotivated student. One day before the final exam, I asked them after class whether they think they will do well in the impending exam. Both replied, "In Sha Allah, I will do well." Obviously, both had different mental interpretations of the words *In Sha Allah*. Fatima, who had studied hard throughout the term and therefore had prepared herself well, said *In Sha Allah* with confidence and certainty, while Mariam who didn't take studying English seriously used the words *In Sha Allah* less affirmatively. Fatima's utterance of the phrase *In Sha Allah* can be interpreted as a combination of Type 1 and Type 3 context as discussed above, while Mariam's response, depending on her intonation and speed of voice, rather referred to a combination of Type 2 and Type 3.

However the term *In Sha Allah* is not always used in the ways discussed in the above example, meaning in many instances, when there is no hope of something happening, it is thrown in for reasons of politeness and good measure (Type 4). In conversations between Arabs and Westerners, an indicator for an event rather not happening in the future is a pause between the end of the sentence and the *In Sha Allah* phrase.

Genc and Bada (2005) argue that there are a variety of challenges while exchanging messages and ideas through communication boundaries between people, especially when communicating with each other in different cultural settings. Depending on the context, the phrase *In Sha Allah* can be amusing or frustrating for Westerners while engaging with Arabs because it can signal that whatever is intended may or may not be done. The limitation in this situation stems from the range of positive to negative interpretations of this unique regional phrase (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 2009).

Discussion About the Cross-Cultural Communication Dialogues

The first dialogue (Appendix, 1) can take place in any part of the world among football fans, except for the use of the term *In Sha Allah*. The main difference between this conversation in the U.A.E. and, for example, a similar conversation in a Western country is the fact that God's will is expressly conveyed while discussing the prospects for the football match. While the same range of outcomes and uncertainty are applicable to a football match played in any part of the world, Muslims will more clearly submit and defer to God's final will to such an event taking place in the future.

The second dialogue (Appendix, 2) is a typical example of the use of the term in daily life in this region. In most other cultures outside the Arab world, such a mundane event as meeting at a designated time in the future for social interaction will not require the express consent of God, but Muslims will often defer to God's will to

keep true to their faith and beliefs. This is probably something that is uttered almost automatically because of years of use and practice.

The third dialogue (Appendix, 3) is something that I consider to be a characteristic outcome of the collectivist and high-context culture of this region. The Arabic language is rather polite and there is no absolute outcome that can be taken for granted forever, since only God has absolute control over what happens in the future. Arabs will typically never close any conversation in a completely negative vein. While this is an extremely kind and pious gesture on their part, Westerners often misunderstand this as meaning that their conversation can still progress forward in the near future, which is often not the case.

The fourth dialogue (Appendix, 4) demonstrates that Arabs will often accept a negative outcome with the same level of spiritual belief as they do positive outcomes and contend that everything happens per the will of God.

The fifth dialogue (Appendix, 5) is a typical collective response to such a request from a teacher in potentially all types of classrooms in this region. The literal translation to English can be confusing to a Western teacher because he or she will wonder why God's will is so important when students need to prepare for an exam. While there are unlimited indigenous explanations for this, it is accurate to assume that different students in the classroom are using the term to mean different things about their prospects for the exam from confidence to trepidation, but all under the guidance of God's will.

Ahmed's energetic response (Appendix, 6) to his teacher unfortunately does not provide sufficient clues about his actual level of motivation to prepare diligently for the final exam. *In Sha Allah* offers a certain level of freedom to Ahmed to defer to God's will and the inherent uncertainty about the future where he can justify his actions to himself and his family irrespective of his actual level of effort towards the final exam.

The students in their response to the teacher (Appendix, 7) in dialogue seven are again able to hide behind the multitude of emotions, both positive and uncertain, that can be conveyed via *In Sha Allah*. Here it should simply be noted that students in the U.A.E. classroom will probably learn new concepts with similar levels of variation as they would in any other part of the world but they may convey this message differently than students from other cultures if the literal Anglo-Saxon English translation of their response is noted.

Per the collectivist and low-context culture in which Rashid was raised (Appendix, 8), his response to his teacher, even if it is a lie to a Western observer, is somewhat justified. Rashid expects his teacher to understand that other priorities like family or farm commitments might take precedence for him, since he is from a collectivist society. It should be noted here that collectivism should not be misunderstood as a proxy for generally timid behavior, in fact I have experienced that family honor and respect often supersede other considerations in times of distress or even embarrassment.

Conclusion

Devout Muslims utter *In Sha Allah* whenever they make a statement about any plan to do something because they request God's blessing for the activity and they also accept that God may have other plans for the outcome.

With these eight dialogues I have tried to make a genuine effort to illustrate the significant cross-cultural communication differences that can arise in the workplace or in classroom interactions between a Western-born and raised education professional and her workplace colleagues and U.A.E.-born students. In spite of my six years of experience in living and working in this part of the world, I still run into situations where I do not completely understand the cultural nuances and the Arabs interpret my behavior as that expected of a typical Westerner.

Every education professional should make all efforts to better understand the culture of their students if the student's culture is different from their own. In the long-run, efforts to bridge the student-teacher cultural gap will result in a better classroom environment with more engaged students. Eventually all this extra effort will result in improved student achievement and mutual appreciation between the two parties.

Ideally, a modern education professional should directly or indirectly not just help his or her students to develop the technical skills related to their vocation but also make them culturally competent learners so they can thrive in the globalized world. I also sincerely hope that through better understanding the meaning and relevance of a phrase like *In Sha Allah*, outsiders will further appreciate and respect Arab cultures and beliefs which can help immensely to bridge cross-cultural communication challenges at all levels.

APPENDIX (CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION DIALOGUES)

1. Context: Conversation between colleagues at work
Spoken: The Al Ain football team will win the match on Sunday, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 1 (Faith) & 3 (Confidence)
2. Context: Conversation between friends
Spoken: We will meet for tea and shisha at five o' clock, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 1 (Faith)
3. Context: Salesman and a prospective client
John (salesman): You missed our meeting this afternoon, can we reschedule?
Ali (client): Maybe in the future sometime we will meet again, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 4 (Forbearance)
4. Context: Overheard conversation between a husband and wife about a broken TV screen
Husband: It's unfortunate but this happened in spite of professional packaging
Wife: We can get it repaired, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 1 (Faith) & 2 (Acceptance)
5. Context: Teacher to her students in a classroom
Teacher: Please prepare well for tomorrow's exam
Students (in chorus): In Sha Allah, Miss, we will
Context Type: 1 (Faith), 2 (Acceptance) & 3 (Confidence)
6. Context: Teacher to one student, when returning a test
Teacher: Ahmed, you have failed again, will you prepare more for the final?
Ahmed (energetically): In Sha Allah, Miss, I will work hard
Context Type: 1 (Faith) & 2 (Acceptance)
7. Context: Teacher to her students in a classroom
Teacher: Can you apply today's grammar lesson in a sentence now?
Students (in chorus): In Sha Allah, Miss, we can do it easily
Context Type: 1 (Faith), 2 (Acceptance) & 3 (Confidence)
8. Context: Teacher to her student on the phone, who misses class regularly
Teacher: Rashid, will you be coming to school tomorrow for my exam?
Rashid (knowing well he has other plans for the next day): I will try my best, In Sha Allah
Context Type: 4 (Forbearance)

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Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterliklerini Kazandırma Durumuna İlişkin Öğretmen Adayı Görüşleri

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Özet

Bu araştırmanın amacı öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmenlik mesleği genel yeterliklerini kazandırma durumuna ilişkin öğretmen aday görüşlerinin belirlenmesidir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda eğitim fakültelerinde verilen öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kişisel ve mesleki değerler, öğrenciyi tanıma, öğrenme ve öğretme süreci, öğrenmeyi, gelişimi izleme ve değerlendirme, okul-aile ve toplum ilişkileri ve program ve içerik bilgisi boyutlarında ne tür yeterlikler kazandırdığı belirlenmeye çalışılmıştır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu amaçlı örnekleme yöntemlerinden maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme ve ölçüt örnekleme teknikleri birlikte kullanılarak, Adıyaman Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinin Sınıf Öğretmenliği, Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği, İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği, Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretmenliği, Türkçe Öğretmenliği, Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği ve Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık ana bilim dallarında eğitim alan son sınıf öğrencileri arasından seçilen 21 öğretmen adayı oluşturulmuştur. Veriler, Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri çerçevesinde geliştirilmiş olan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme formu ile toplanmıştır. Verilerin analizinde betimsel analiz tekniği kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada, öğretmenlik eğitiminin öğretmen adaylarına kişisel ve mesleki değerler, öğrenme ve öğretme süreci, program ve içerik bilgisi boyutlarında birtakım yeterlikler kazandırdığı; ancak öğrenciyi tanıma, öğrenmeyi, gelişimi izleme ve değerlendirme, okul-aile ve toplum ilişkileri boyutlarında zayıf kaldığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler. Öğretmenlik Eğitimi, Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri.

Giriş

Öğretmenlik, dünyanın en eski mesleklerinden biridir. İlkçağlarda insanlığı eğitime misyonu üstlenmiş olan din adamlarının yerini, öğrenciyi bakış açısının değişmesi ve formal eğitim kurumlarının gelişmesi ile örgün eğitim kurumlarında, belirli ilkeler çerçevesinde eğitim almış olan öğretmenlerin aldığı bilinmektedir. Bilgi üretme ve bilginin kullanılmasının var olan bilgileri ezberlemekten anlamlı görüldüğü 21.yüzyılda, eğitim kurumlarından ve eğitim sürecinden beklentilerin değişmesi öğretmene bakış açısının ve öğretmenden beklentilerin de değişmesini sağlamıştır. Bilgi çağıyla başlayan değişim; küreselleşme, işbirliği ve rekabet, eleştirel düşünme, dijital teknoloji kullanımı, bilgi kullanımı ve yaratıcılık gibi 21. yüzyıl becerileri (Özcan, 2013:9) nitelikli öğretmene duyulan ihtiyacı artırmıştır.

Öğretmenlik mesleğinin niteliğinin geliştirilmesi, öğretmenlerin sahip olması gereken genel yeterliklerin bilinmesi ve bunların hizmet öncesi ve hizmet içi dönemde öğretmen adayları ve öğretmenlere kazandırılması ile mümkün görünmektedir (MEB, 2006:1). Bu doğrultuda öğretmenlik eğitiminin niteliğinin geliştirilmesi için Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, Yükseköğretim Kurumu ve konu ile ilgilenen bilim insanları öğretmenlik eğitimi konusunda çeşitli araştırmalara ve projelere yönelmiştir.

YÖK-MEB, Öğretmen Yetiştirme ve Eğitimi Genel Müdürlüğü ve EARGED işbirliği ile öğretmenlik mesleğini, etkili ve verimli biçimde yerine getirebilmek için sahip olunması gereken genel bilgi, beceri ve tutumlardan oluşan Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri,

- A. Kişisel ve Meslekî Değerler - Meslekî Gelişim,
- B. Öğrenciyi Tanıma,
- C. Öğrenme ve Öğretme Süreci,

- D. Öğrenmeyi, Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme,
- E. Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri,
- F. Program ve İçerik Bilgisi

olmak üzere 6 ana yeterlik alanını kapsayacak şekilde oluşturulmuş ve bu yeterliklere ilişkin 39 alt yeterlik ve 244 performans göstergesi belirlenmiştir. Bu araştırmada, öğretmenlik mesleğinin niteliğinin yükseltilmesi amacı ile öğretmenlik mesleği genel yeterliklerinin hizmet öncesi dönemde öğretmen adaylarına kazandırılma durumu incelenmeye çalışılmıştır.

Araştırmanın Amacı

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmenlik mesleği genel yeterliklerini kazandırma durumuna ilişkin öğretmen adayları görüşlerinin belirlenmesidir. Araştırmanın alt problemleri ise şunlardır:

- Öğretmenlik eğitimi öğretmen adaylarına,
- 1) Kişisel ve mesleki değerler, mesleki gelişim,
 - 2) Öğrenciyi tanıma ,
 - 3) Öğrenme ve öğretme süreci ,
 - 4) Öğrenmeyi, gelişimi izleme ve değerlendirme ,
 - 5) Okul-aile ve toplum ilişkileri ve
 - 6) Program ve içerik bilgisi boyutlarında ne tür yeterlikler kazandırmaktadır?

Yöntem

Çalışma Grubu

Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu 2013-2014 eğitim-öğretim yılında, Adıyaman Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinde öğrenim gören öğretmen adayları oluşturmaktadır. Çalışma grubunun belirlenmesi aşamasında öncelikle amaçlı örnekleme yöntemlerinden maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme yapılarak Adıyaman Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesinin Sınıf Öğretmenliği, Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretmenliği, Fen Bilgisi Öğretmenliği, Türkçe Öğretmenliği, İlköğretim Matematik Öğretmenliği, Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği ve Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışma ana bilim dallarında eğitim alan öğretmen adaylarından oluşan bir grup belirlenmiştir. Daha sonra ölçüt örnekleme yöntemi ile her bir ana bilim dalından üç öğretmen adayını belirlenerek toplam 21 öğretmen adayını ile görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışma grubunda yer alan öğretmen adaylarının belirlenmesinde temel alınan ölçütler ise şu şekildedir:

- Son sınıf öğrencisi olmak (Okul Deneyimi uygulamalarını gerçekleştirmiş olmak)
- Akademik not ortalaması 3.00 (4 üzerinden)'ün üzerinde olmak.

Çalışma Grubuna Ait Özellikler

Araştırmaya katılan öğretmen adaylarının 11'i bayan, 10'u erkektir. Öğretmen adaylarının akademik not ortalaması 3.08-3.57 arasında değişmektedir.

Verilerin Toplanması ve Analizi

Verilerin toplanması aşamasında “Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri” temel olarak oluşturulmuş olan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme formu kullanılmıştır. Oluşturulan yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme formu, kapsam, anlaşılabilirlik ve hitap edilen kitleye uygunluk ölçütleri açısından değerlendirilmek üzere iki alan uzmanına sunulmuştur. Alınan uzman görüşleri doğrultusunda formlara son hali verilerek 2014 yılı Ocak ayında öğretmen adayları ile her biri 20-30 dakika süren görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Görüşmelerin ses kayıt cihazı ile kayıt altına alınması sağlanmıştır. Ancak 6 öğretmen adayını ses kaydının alınmasını istemediği için bunlarla gerçekleştirilen görüşmeler esnasında araştırmacı not almıştır.

Verilerin toplanması ve analizi sürecinde geçerlik ve güvenilirliğin sağlanması amacıyla farklı yöntemlere başvurulmuştur. Öncelikle araştırmanın iç geçerliğinin (inandırıcılık) sağlanması amacıyla, uzman görüşüne başvurulmuş ve katılımcı teyidi yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Dış geçerliğin (aktarılabirlik) sağlanması amacıyla ise amaçlı örnekleme yöntemi kullanılarak, farklı ana bilim dallarında öğrenim gören öğretmen adaylarına ulaşılmaya çalışılmış, bu şekilde farklı veri kaynakları araştırma kapsamına alınmıştır. Ayrıca yine dış geçerliğin

sağlanması amacıyla araştırmanın genellenebilirliğini artırmak için sürekli katılımcıların görüşlerine doğrudan atıfta bulunularak ayrıntılı betimleme yapılması sağlanmıştır. Güvenirliğin sağlanması aşamasında ise öncelikle iç güvenirliğin (tutarlık) sağlanması amacıyla Yıldırım ve Şimşek (2006)'in belirtmiş olduğu önceden oluşturulmuş ve ayrıntılı olarak betimlenmiş bir çerçeveye (Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri) bağlı kalınarak veriler analiz edilmiştir. Dış güvenirliğin (teyit incelemesi) sağlanması amacıyla ise araştırma verilerinin toplanması ve analizi süreçlerinin ayrıntılı bir biçimde tanımlanmasına dikkat edilmiştir.

Verilerin analizi aşamasında öğretmen adayları ile gerçekleştirilen görüşmelere ait ses kayıtlarının transkripsiyonları yapılarak ulaşılan ham veriler Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri çerçevesinde betimsel analiz yöntemi ile analiz edilmiştir.

Bulgular ve Yorum

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler, Mesleki Gelişim Yeterliklerine İlişkin Bulgular ve Yorum

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler ile Mesleki Gelişim” boyutundaki yeterliklere ilişkin öğretmen adayları görüşleri incelendiğinde “Öğrencilere Değer Verme, Anlama ve Saygı Gösterme”, “Öğrencilerin Öğrenebileceğine İnanma”, “Ulusal ve Evrensel Değerlere Önem Verme”, “Kişisel Gelişim Sağlama” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindikleri, ancak “Öz Değerlendirme Yapma”, “Mesleki Gelişimleri İzleme ve Katkı Sağlama”, “Okulun İyileştirilmesine Katkı Sağlama” ve “Mesleki Yasaları İzleme, Görev ve Sorumlulukları Yerine Getirme” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin kazanımları edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 1. Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler, Mesleki Gelişim Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 1: Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler Mesleki Gelişim Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Öğrencilere Değer Verme, Anlama ve Saygı Gösterme	-Öğrencilere yaşlarına/yaşantılarına uygun eğitsel ortamlar sunma -Sevgi-Saygıya dayalı bir sınıf ortamı oluşturma -Eğitsel materyallerin seçiminde öğrencilerin özelliklerine dikkat etme
Öğrencilerin Öğrenebileceğine İnanma	Öğrencilerin düzeylerine uygun/gerçekçi amaçlar belirleme -İmkân sunulduğunda her öğrencinin başarılı olacağına inanma -Öğrencilerin farklı öğrenme özelliklerinin olduğunu bilme
Ulusal ve Evrensel Değerlere Önem Verme	-Sınıf içi ve dışı etkinlikleri düzenlerken öğrencilerin kültürel farklılıklarını dikkate alma -İnsan haklarına uygun biçimde davranma -Demokratik olma
Öz Değerlendirme Yapma	-
Kişisel Gelişim Sağlama	-Teknoloji, bilim, kültür-sanat alanındaki gelişmeleri takip etme -Kişisel bakımına ve sağlığına özen gösterme
Mesleki Gelişimleri İzleme ve Katkı Sağlama	-
Okulun İyileştirilmesine ve Geliştirilmesine Katkı Sağlama	-
Mesleki Yasaları İzleme, Görev ve Sorumlulukları Yerine Getirme	-

“Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler, Mesleki Gelişim” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen adayı “bizler gerek almış olduğumuz teorik dersler yoluyla, gerekse öğretim elemanlarının bize yaklaşım tarzlarını örnek alarak kendi öğrencilerimize nasıl davranmamız gerektiğine ilişkin bir görüş sahibi olduk, onlara her şeyden önce insan olmanın önemini öğretecek bir eğitim vermenin her şeyden önemli olduğunu öğrendik” şeklinde görüş belirtirken bir başka öğretmen adayı “...bir öğretmenin başarısı öğrencinin kapasitesini bilmesine bağlıdır. Eğer bir öğretmen sınıfındaki tüm öğrencilerinin tıp fakültesini kazanmasını istiyorsa ve hepsini bu şekilde bir eğitimden geçirmek istiyorsa esas başarısızlık orada başlar. Her öğrencinin öğrenme kapasitesi farklıdır, her öğrencinin seçeceği meslek farklıdır, hayata bakış açısı farklıdır. Öğretmenler bunun bilincinde olarak her öğrenciye kendilerine uygun amaçlar belirlemeye çalışmalıdır. Ben almış olduğum “Okul Deneyimi” dersindeki edindiğim tecrübelerle, öğretmen olduğumda ilk dikkat edeceğim konunun bu olduğunu düşünüyorum” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Öğrenciyi Tanıma

Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Öğrenciyi Tanıma” boyutundaki yeterliklere ilişkin öğretmen aday görüşleri incelendiğinde “Gelişim Özelliklerini Tanıma”, “İlgi ve İhtiyaçları Dikkate Alma”, “Öğrenciyi Rehberlik Etme”, “Öğrenciyi Değer Verme” ve “Dersi Planlama” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 2. “Öğrenciyi Tanıma” Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Oluşturulan Alt Tema Ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 2: Öğrenciyi Tanıma Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Gelişim Özelliklerini Tanıma	-Öğrencilerin gelişim dönemlerinin farkında olma -Bireysel farklılıklara önem verme
İlgi ve İhtiyaçları Dikkate Alma	-Eğitim-öğretim sürecinin planlanmasında bireysel farklılıkları dikkate alma
Öğrenciyi Değer Verme	-Öğrencilerin sahip oldukları değerlere saygı gösterme -Öğrencilere isimleri ile hitap etme -Öğrencilerin fikirlerine saygılı olma
Öğrenciyi Rehberlik Etme	-Öğrencinin kişisel gelişimi için aile ve uzmanlarla işbirliği yapmanın önemine inanma -Öğrencinin güçlü ve zayıf yönlerini fark etme ve bunları geliştirecek imkanlar sunma
Dersi Planlama	-Öğrencilerin ilgi ve ihtiyaçları doğrultusunda plan hazırlama, -Kullanılacak yöntem ve tekniklerin bilgisine sahip olma

“Öğrenciyi Tanıma” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen aday “dört yıl boyunca aldığımız tüm eğitim derslerinde en çok vurgulanan konu her öğrencinin farklı yaşlarda farklı özelliklerinin olduğuydu. Yani öğrencilerin içinde buldukları yaşlara göre öğrenciler farklı davranışlarda bulunabilir. Öğretmenler, öğrencilerin gelişim dönemlerinin özelliklerinin farkında olarak adım attıkları takdirde daha kaliteli bir eğitim-öğretim süreci gerçekleşmiş olur diyebiliriz” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen aday “almış olduğum öğretmenlik eğitimi özellikle bu son sınıfta öğrencileri daha yakından tanıma fırsatı verdi bana. Staja gittiğimde öğrencileri yakından gözleme imkanım oldu. Özellikle Rehberlik dersinde almış olduğum bilgiler öğrencilerin hangi yaş seviyesinde hangi ilgi ve ihtiyaçları olduğunun farkına varmamı sağladı. Öğrencilerin belirli dönemlerde göstermiş oldukları davranışların hepsinin gelişim dönemleriyle ilişkili olduğunu, bu yüzden onlara kızarak Cevza vermek yerine bu süreçlerini sağlıklı bir şekilde geçimlerini sağlamak amacıyla destek olmamız gerektiğini anladım” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Öğrenme- Öğretme

Süreci Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Öğrenme-Öğretme Süreci” boyutundaki yeterliklere ilişkin öğretmen aday görüşleri incelendiğinde “Materyal Hazırlama”, “Öğrenme Ortamlarını Düzenleme”, “Bireysel Farklılıkları Dikkate Alarak Öğretimi Çeşitlendirme” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindikleri, ancak “Ders Dışı Etkinlikler Düzenleme”, “Zaman Yönetimi”, “Davranış Yönetimi” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin kazanımları edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 3. Öğrenme-Öğretme Süreci Yeterlilik Alanına İlişkin Oluşturan Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 3: Öğrenme- Öğretme Süreci Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Materyal Hazırlama	-Bireysel farklılıklar çerçevesinde dersi çeşitli materyallerle zenginleştirme -Farklı duyu organlarına hitap eden materyaller geliştirme
Öğrenme Ortamlarını Düzenleme	-Sınıf ortamını ulaşılacak hedefler doğrultusunda dizayn etme -Sınıfı cazip öğrenme merkezi haline getirme
Ders Dışı Etkinlikler Düzenleme	-
Bireysel Farklılıkları Dikkate Alarak Öğretimi Çeşitlendirme	- Yöntemlerini belirlerken bireysel farklılıkları dikkate alma -Öğrenci merkezli stratejiler kullanma
Zaman Yönetimi	-
Davranış Yönetimi	-

“Öğrenme-Öğretme Süreci” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen aday “...öğretim derslerimiz var, Türkçe Öğretimi, Matematik Öğretimi gibi. Bu derslerde konu

anlatımlarımız vardı, anlatacağımız konuyu hazırlarken, kaçınıcı sınıfa hitap ediyorsak o yaş seviyesine uygun materyaller hazırlıyorduk, ayrıca hazırladığımız materyalin, öğrencinin sadece bir duyu organına değil, birden fazla duyu organına hitap ediyor olmasına özen gösteriyorduk, konunun daha anlaşılır olmasını sağlamak için ya da öğrencilerin öğrenmelerini daha kalıcı hale getirmek için. Bunun yanı sıra her ne kadar tüm kademelerde sunuş yoluyla öğretim yöntemi kullanılsa da bu yöntemin bütün konulara uygulanmasının yanlış olduğunu öğrendim...” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen adayı “kendi adıma konuşayım eğer sınıf tek düzeyse dersten hiçbir şey anlamam, uyurum. Bu birçok araştırma ile de ispatlanmış bir durum. Hele de öğretmen olarak 6-13 yaş aralığındaki bir hedef kitle ile karşı karşıyaysanız, işiniz çok zor. Aldığımız derslerde de hocalarımız çoğu zaman söyledi eğer sınıfınızı öğrencileriniz için eğlenceli hale getirmezseniz başarılı olamazsınız...” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Öğrenmeyi- Gelişimi

İzleme ve Değerlendirme Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme” boyutundaki yeterliklere ilişkin öğretmen adayı görüşleri incelendiğinde “Ölçme ve Değerlendirme Yöntem ve Tekniklerini Belirleme”, alanına ilişkin birtakım kazanımlar edindikleri ancak, “Değişik Ölçme Tekniklerini Kullanarak Öğrencinin Öğrenmelerini Ölçme”, “Verileri Analiz Ederek Yorumlama”, “Sonuçlara Göre Öğrenme-Öğretme Sürecini Gözden Geçirme” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin kazanımları edinmedikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 4. Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme Yeterliliğine İlişkin Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 4: Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Ölçme ve değerlendirme yöntem ve tekniklerini belirleme	-Amaçlara ulaşma durumunu belirlemek için kullanılacak yöntem ve teknikleri belirleme -Farklı ölçme-değerlendirme yöntem ve teknikler hakkında bilgi sahibi olma
Değişik ölçme tekniklerini kullanarak öğrencinin öğrenmelerini ölçme	-
Verileri analiz ederek yorumlama, öğrencinin gelişimi ve öğrenmesi hakkında geri bildirim sağlama	-
Sonuçlara göre öğrenme-öğretme sürecini gözden geçirme	-

“Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen adayı “*alanımız normal sınıf öğretmenleri gibi ya da branş öğretmenleri gibi süreç değerlendirmesi yapmaya ya da akran değerlendirmesi yapmaya çok müsait değil. Biz daha çok öğrencilerin tutumları ya da davranışları ile ilgili konularla ilgili olduğumuz için ölçme değerlendirme yaparken tutum testleri geliştirmemiz , bunları uygulamamız ve sonuçlarını yorumlamamız gerekiyor. Almış olduğum derslerle testleri nasıl geliştireceğimi öğrendiğimi düşünüyorum*” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen adayı “*eğitim fakültesine ilk başladığımda en sağlıklı ölçme değerlendirme tekniğinin çoktan seçmeli sorulara dayalı yöntem olduğunu düşünüyordum. Ama bu yöntemin öğrencilerin kendilerini ifade etme becerileri üzerinde oldukça olumsuz etkileri olduğunu öğrendim. Hatta almış olduğum derslere ilişkin yapılan sınavlarda da çoktan seçmeli sorulardan oluşan sınavların bana bir şey kazandırmadığını gördüm. Hem süreci hem ürünü değerlendirmeye yönelik yöntem ve tekniklerin neler olduğunu ve bu ölçme araçlarını nasıl geliştireceğimi öğrendim*” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri” boyutundaki yeterliliklere ilişkin öğretmen adayı görüşleri incelendiğinde “Çevreyi Tanıma” alt yeterlik alanına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindiklerini, ancak “Okulu Kültür Merkezi Durumuna Getirme”, “Aileyi Tanıma ve Aile İlişkilerde Tarafsızlık”, “Aile Katılımı ve İşbirliğini Sağlama” alt yeterlilik alanlarında herhangi bir kazanım edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 5. Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 5: Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri
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Alt Temalar	Kavramsal Kodlar
Çevreyi tanıma	-Ders planını oluştururken çevre olanaklarını dikkate alma
Çevre olanaklarından yararlanma	-Çevre sorunlarına karşı duyarlı olma
Okulu kültür merkezi durumuna getirme	-Amaçlara ulaşmada çevre olanaklarından yararlanma
Aileyi tanıma ve aile ile ilişkilerde tarafsızlık	-
Aile katılımı ve işbirliğini sağlama	-

“Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen adayı “*Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları*” dersinde topluma hizmet etme noktasında bazı girişimlerimiz oldu ancak bu uygulamalar okul ve içinde bulunduğu toplumun kaynaştırılmasından çok bizim topluma hizmet edebileceğimiz uygulamalarla sınırlı kaldı, örneğin hastanelere gidip yaşlılara yardımcı olmak gibi...” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen adayı “...aldığımız eğitim, köy öğretmeni olduğumuzda öğrenciler için hazırlayacağımız etkinliklerin içinde buldukları bölgenin şartlarına göre oluşturulması gerektiğini öğretti, yine aynı şekilde her bölgenin kendine has özellikleri olduğunu ve etkinliklerimizi planlarken daha esnek olmamız gerektiğini, okulun çevresinde bulunan imkanları öğrencilerin başarılarını artırmak için nasıl kullanmamız gerektiğini öğretti” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Öğretmenlik Eğitiminin Öğretmen Adaylarına Kazandırmış Olduğu Program ve İçerik Bilgisi Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Bulgular

Öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına kazandırmış olduğu “Program ve İçerik Bilgisi” boyutundaki yeterliliklere ilişkin öğretmen adayı görüşleri incelendiğinde “Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaçları ve İlkeleri”, “Özel Alan Öğretim Programı Bilgisi ve Uygulama Becerisi” alt yeterlik alanlarına ilişkin birtakım kazanımları edindiklerini, ancak “Özel Alan Öğretim Programını İzleme, Değerlendirme ve Geliştirme” alt yeterlik alanına ilişkin herhangi bir kazanım edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir.

Tablo 6. Program ve İçerik Bilgisi Yeterlik Alanına İlişkin Tema, Alt Tema ve Kavramsal Kodlar

Tema 6: Program ve İçerik Bilgisi	Kavramsal Kodlar
Alt Temalar	
Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaçları ve İlkeleri	-Türk Milli Eğitim Sisteminin dayandığı temel ilkelerin bilgisine sahip olma
Özel alan öğretim programı bilgisi ve uygulama becerisi	-Özel alan öğretim programının ilkeleri hakkında bilgi sahibi olma
Özel alan öğretim programını izleme, değerlendirme ve geliştirme	-

“Program ve İçerik Bilgisi” yeterlik alanına ait edinmiş oldukları kazanımlara ilişkin görüş belirten bir öğretmen adayı “Türk Eğitim Sistemi ve Okul Yönetimi dersimizde bize Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaçları ve İlkelerini öğretti hocalarımız, ama bize gösterilen dersler genelde daha çok akademik gibi, halbuki biz 5.,6., 7. ve 8. sınıfların dersine gireceğiz. Yani üniversitede gösterilen alana yönelik dersler biraz daha ilköğretim programı doğrultusunda olabilir” şeklinde görüş belirtirken, bir başka öğretmen adayı “...aldığımız eğitim, köy öğretmeni olduğumuzda öğrenciler için hazırlayacağımız etkinliklerin içinde buldukları bölgenin şartlarına göre oluşturulması gerektiğini öğretti, yine aynı şekilde her bölgenin kendine has özellikleri olduğunu ve etkinliklerimizi planlarken daha esnek olmamız gerektiğini, okulun çevresinde bulunan imkanları öğrencilerin başarılarını artırmak için nasıl kullanmamız gerektiğini öğretti” şeklinde görüş belirtmiştir.

Tartışma, Sonuç ve Öneriler

Araştırmada, öğretmenlik eğitiminin, öğretmen adaylarına, Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterliklerinden Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler-Mesleki Gelişim boyutunda, daha çok öğretim elemanlarının örnek alınması ile edinilmiş olan Kişisel ve Mesleki Değerler boyuna ilişkin birtakım yeterlikleri kazandırdığı, ancak mesleki gelişimlerini sağlamaya yönelik Mesleki Yayınların Takip Edilmesi, Mesleki Yasaların Bilgisi, Okul Gelişimine Katkı Sağlanması gibi yeterlik alanlarındaki kazanımları edindirmediği görülmektedir. Bu bulgu, öğretmen adaylarının henüz mesleğe başlamadıkları için mesleki yayınları takip etmediklerini ve mesleki yasaların bilgisine sahip olmadıklarını düşündürmektedir. Bunun yanı sıra Eğitim Fakültelerinin lisans programlarında öğretmen adaylarına mesleki gelişimlerini sağlamaya yönelik etkinliklere yeterince yer verilmediği sonucuna ulaşılabilir. Nitekim Gürbüzürk ve Koç (2012) tarafından yapılan araştırmada da öğretmen adaylarının meslekleri ile ilgili yeni gelişmeleri/yayınları takip etme yönünden kendilerini “kısmen yeterli” gördükleri sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Benzer şekilde Numanoğlu ve Bayır (2009), öğretmenlik eğitiminin öğretmen adaylarına Mesleki Yasaları İzleme, Görev ve Sorumlulukları Yerine Getirme alt yeterlik performans göstergelerini kazandırma durumunun düşük düzeyde olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının almış

oldukları eğitimin, Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterlikleri Öğrenciyi Tanıma basamağında, Öğrencilerin Gelişim Özelliklerinin Farkında Olma, İlgili Ve İhtiyaçları Dikkate Alma, Öğrenciye Değer Verme, Öğrenciye Rehberlik Etme ve Dersi Planlama kazanımlarını edindirdiği görülmektedir. Bu durum öğretmen adaylarına verilen öğretmenlik meslek bilgisi derslerinin önemsendiğini göstermektedir. Benzer şekilde Gelen ve Özen (2008) yaptıkları araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının öğrenciyi tanıma alanındaki yeterliklere sahip oldukları sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Ayrıca Şahin Taşkın ve Hacıömeroğlu (2010) da öğretmenlik meslek bilgisi derslerinin öğretmen adaylarının profesyonel gelişimleri üzerindeki etkisini inceledikleri araştırmalarında, öğretmen adaylarının, meslek bilgisi derslerinin profesyonel gelişimleri üzerindeki olumlu etkisi olduğu sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

Araştırmada, öğretmen adaylarının almış oldukları öğretmenlik eğitimi ile Öğretmenlik Mesleği Genel Yeterliklerinden Öğrenme- Öğretme Süreci boyutunda, Materyal Hazırlama, Öğrenme Ortamlarını Düzenleme ve Bireysel Farklılıkları Dikkate Alarak Öğretimi Çeşitlendirme alanlarında birtakım yeterlikler kazandıklarını ifade ettikleri görülmektedir. Bu durum, “alan bilgisi” derslerinde gerçekleştirdikleri uygulamaların öğretmen adaylarının Öğrenme-Öğretme Sürecine ilişkin yeterlikleri kazanmasında etkili olduğu sonucuna ulaştırabilir. Araştırmanın bu bulgusuna paralel olarak Acer (2011), öğretmen adayları ile yaptığı araştırmasında, materyal geliştirme dersi ile, öğretmen adaylarının, eğitim materyallerinin, öğrencilerin gelişim düzeyine uygun olarak eğitim ortamında nasıl kullanılacağına ilişkin kazanımlar elde ettiği sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Uyangör ve Kobak (2012) ise öğretmen adaylarının akademik başarıları ve sahip oldukları öğretmen yeterlikleri arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemeye yönelik yaptıkları araştırmalarında öğretmen adaylarının ders dışı etkinlikler düzenleme boyutunda “çok az yeterli”, dersi planlama, materyal hazırlama, öğrenme ortamlarını düzenleme, bireysel farklılıkları dikkate alarak öğretimi çeşitlendirme, zaman yönetimi ve davranış yönetimi boyutlarında “yeterli” oldukları sonucuna ulaşmıştır.

Araştırmanın bir diğer bulgusu, öğretmenlik eğitiminin öğretmen adaylarına Öğrenmeyi Gelişimi İzleme ve Değerlendirme alanında kazandırmış olduğu yeterliklerin “Ölçme ve Değerlendirme Yöntem ve Tekniklerinin Belirlenmesi” boyutunda olduğudur. Ancak “Değişik Ölçme Tekniklerini Kullanarak Öğrencinin Öğrenmelerini Ölçme”, “Verileri Analiz Ederek Yorumlama, Öğrencinin Gelişimi ve Öğrenmesi Hakkında Geri Bildirim Sağlama” ve “Sonuçlara Göre Öğrenme-Öğretme Sürecini Gözden Geçirme” alt yeterlikleri alanındaki yeterliklere ait kazanımları edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir. Bu durum öğretmen adaylarına verilen “Öğretimi Planlama ve Değerlendirme” derslerinin etkili olmamasından kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Araştırmaya ait bu bulgu Yeşilyurt (2012)’un araştırması ile paralellik göstermektedir. Yeşilyurt (2012) tarafından yapılan araştırmada, öğretmen adaylarının ölçme ve değerlendirme alanının temel kavramlar ile ölçme teknikleri boyutlarına ilişkin yeterlik algısının “yeterli”, istatistiksel çözümleme ve raporlaştırma boyutuna ilişkin yeterlik algılarının ise “orta düzeyde yeterli” olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Benzer şekilde Birgin ve Gürbüz (2008) yaptıkları araştırmada, sınıf öğretmeni adaylarının “ölçme ve değerlendirme” kavramlarıyla ilgili tanımlara ilişkin yeterli düzeyde bilgi sahibi oldukları, alternatif ölçme-değerlendirme yaklaşımları hakkındaki bilgilerinin yeterli düzeyde olmadığı sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Coşkun, Gelen, Öztürk (2009) tarafından yapılan araştırmada ise Türkçe öğretmeni adayları, öğretimi planlama, uygulama ve değerlendirme alanlarındaki yeterlik algılarının çoğunun yeterli düzeyde olmadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Araştırmada öğretmen adaylarının, Okul- Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri yeterlik alanındaki kazanımlarından yalnızca “Çevreyi Tanıma” ve “Çevre Olanaklarından Yararlanma” boyutlarında kazanımlarının olduğu görülmektedir. Bu durumun öğretmen adaylarının hizmet öncesi dönemde, okul çevresini tanımaya yönelik gerçekleştirdikleri etkinliklerin yalnızca “Okul Deneyimi” ve “Topluma Hizmet Uygulamaları” dersleri ile sınırlı olması ve uygulamaya yönelik etkinliklere yeterince yer verilmemesi ile ilişkili olduğu düşünülebilir. Araştırmanın bu bulgusu Numanoğlu ve Bayır (2009)’ın öğretmen adaylarının “Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri” alanındaki yeterliklerinin “düşük düzeyde” olduğu sonucu ile paralellik göstermektedir. Ancak Gelen ve Özer (2008), araştırmalarında öğretmen adaylarının “Okul-Aile ve Toplum İlişkileri” boyutundaki yeterliklere sahip oldukları sonucuna ulaşmışlardır. Araştırmada son olarak Program ve İçerik Bilgisi yeterlik alanında öğretmen adaylarının “Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaçları ve İlkeleri” ve “Özel Alan Öğretim Programı Bilgisi”ne sahip oldukları ancak “Özel Alan Öğretim Programı Uygulama Becerisi” ve “Özel Alan Öğretim Programını İzleme, Değerlendirme ve Geliştirme” becerisi edinmediklerini belirttikleri görülmektedir. Bu durum, Özel Alan Öğretim Programını Uygulamaya yönelik etkinliklere programda yeterince yer verilmemesi ile açıklanabilir. Numanoğlu ve Bayır (2009) da araştırmalarında öğretmen adaylarının Türk Milli Eğitiminin Amaç ve İlkeleri boyutundaki yeterliklere sahip olduğu, ancak Özel Alan Öğretim Programı Uygulama Becerisi konusunda eksik kaldıkları sonucuna ulaşmışlardır.

Araştırmada genel olarak, öğretmen adaylarına verilen öğretmenlik eğitiminin teorik/bilgiye dayalı yeterliklerin kazandırılmasında etkili olduğu ancak uygulamaya yönelik yeterliklerin kazandırılmasında eksik kaldığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Ayrıca alan bilgisi derslerinin, öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik tecrübesi edinmesi sürecine önemli katkıları olduğu görülmüştür. Bunun yanı sıra Rehberlik gibi teoriye dayalı ve Okul Deneyimi gibi uygulamaya yönelik Öğretmenlik Meslek Bilgisi derslerinin öğretmen adaylarına, hizmet öncesi dönemde, mesleğe ilişkin önemli katkılar sağladığı görülmüştür. Bu bağlamda, Eğitim Fakültelerinin programlarında yer alan uygulamalı derslerin ağırlıklarının artırılması ve öğretmen adaylarına uygulamalar yoluyla öğretmenlik tecrübesi edinecekleri ortamların sağlanması önerilmektedir.

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E-Öğrenme Öğrenme Ortamları

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Özet

Gelişen teknoloji ile birlikte e-öğrenme (çevrimiçi öğrenme) denilen internet altyapısının katkısıyla yeni öğrenme ortamları oluşmaktadır. e-Öğrenme, gittikçe kabul gören evrensel bir kavram haline almaya başlamıştır. E-Öğrenme aynı zamanda önemli bilgilere ulaştıran bilgi sistemlerini elektronik ortamda destekleyen bir terimi de ifade etmektedir. E-Öğrenmeyle birlikte m-Öğrenmeden de söz etmek gerekir, zira m-Öğrenme mobil öğrenme demektir ki, günümüzde bilgisayar ortamında uygulanan sistemlerin önemli bir kısmı mobil olarak akıllı telefonlar tarafından da kullanılabilir. Bu iki sistemin bir araya gelmesinden “mobil e-öğrenme” (me-öğrenme) mümkün olabilmektedir, bu yüzden artık “me-öğrenme” de yeni bir öğrenme ortamı olarak eğitim ve öğretimde yerini almaya başlayacaktır. e-öğrenme ortamı (çevrimiçi ortam), aynı zamanda Hiper Öğrenme Ortamı (Hyper Learning Environment) olarak da adlandırılır. Ayrıca Harmanlanmış öğrenme Ortamından da söz etmek gerekir; bu öğrenme ortamının en kısa ifadeyle Kerres ve Witt (2003) tarafından “yüz yüze öğrenmeyle teknoloji destekli öğrenmenin birleştirilmesidir” şeklinde tanımlanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler.

Giriş

Kişinin içinde bulunduğu öğrenme ortamının çok daha ilgi çekici duruma gelmesi ve eğitimciler tarafından ele alınıp incelenmesi, gelişen teknolojiye paralel olarak artma ve değişme göstermiştir. Günümüzde, bilgi ve iletişim teknolojisi araçlarının her geçen gün yenilenmesi ve gelişmesiyle birlikte giderek artan kullanımı; yeni bir yaşam şekli beraberinde getirmiştir ve “Bilgi Toplumu”nun oluşumuna zemin hazırlamıştır. Gelişen teknoloji ile birlikte sınıf duvarlarının çoğu kez ortadan kalktığı bir durum ile yeni öğrenme ortamlarından söz etmek mümkün olmuştur.

Gelişen teknoloji ile birlikte e-öğrenme (çevrimiçi öğrenme) denilen internet altyapısının katkısıyla yeni öğrenme ortamları oluşmaktadır. e-Öğrenme, gittikçe kabul gören evrensel bir kavram haline almaya başlamıştır. *e-Öğrenme, internet gibi bir ağ üzerinden eğitim ve öğretimi destekleyen çevrimiçi öğrenme demektir.* e-Öğrenme, aynı zamanda herhangi bir zamanda ve herhangi bir öğrenmeye de imkân vermektedir. E-Öğrenme aynı zamanda önemli bilgilere ulaştıran bilgi sistemlerini elektronik ortamda destekleyen bir terimi de ifade etmektedir. E-Öğrenmeyle birlikte m-Öğrenmeden de söz etmek gerekir, zira m-Öğrenme mobil öğrenme demektir ki, günümüzde bilgisayar ortamında uygulanan sistemlerin önemli bir kısmı mobil olarak akıllı telefonlar tarafından da kullanılabilir. Bu iki sistemin bir araya gelmesinden “mobil e-öğrenme” (me-öğrenme) mümkün olabilmektedir, bu yüzden artık “me-öğrenme” de yeni bir öğrenme ortamı olarak eğitim ve öğretimde yerini almaya başlayacaktır. Bu yeni öğrenme ortamının hem okuyucunun kendi hem de öğretim hedeflerini karşılayacak yeni ortama uyumluluğu desteklemesi gerekir. Mesela simülasyon gibi interaktif uygulamalar, zaman kaydırmalı ve gerçek zamanlı tartışmalar, video, sesli konferans ve birçok öğrenme araçlarıyla desteklenmelidir.

Genel olarak bir ortak e-öğrenme ortamının geliştirilmesi ve tasarımını içeren bir metod, öğrenme sürecinin geliştiren bir model düzenli bir belirtim tekniğini kullanmalı ve aynı zamanda kullanıcıların istedikleri her yerde bazı modelleri uygulamak ve çalıştırmak için ortak e-öğrenme ortamını da sunmalıdır. Bir e-öğrenme ortamı, birden fazla kullanıcının bilgi üretebildiği ve paylaşabildiği bir sosyal alan olarak da kullanılabilir. Bu sosyal alan içinde başlıca kullanıcılar olan öğretmen, öğrenci, alan uzmanı ve yöneticilerden oluşan her kullanıcının bir hiyerarşisi olmalıdır.

Hiper Öğrenme Ortamı (Hyper Learning Environment)

E-öğrenme ortamı (çevrimiçi ortam), aynı zamanda Hiper Öğrenme Ortamı (Hyper Learning Environment) olarak da adlandırılır. Dolayısıyla yukarıda ifade ettiğimiz açıklamalar aynı zamanda Hiper Öğrenme ortamını da izah etmektedir. Hiper Öğrenme, İnternet/İntranet (yerel ağ) ya da bir bilgisayar ağı üzerinden, bireyin kendi

kendine öğrenmesini gerçekleştiren, bilgiye ulaşmada zaman ve mekân sınırı tanımayan, eş-zamanlı ya da eş-zamansız olarak diğer öğrenenler ve öğretmenler ile iletişim kurabilen, bilgisayar teknolojisinin sağladığı görsel ve işitsel araçlar ile etkileşim kurulabilen, sosyo-ekonomik statü engellerini ortadan kaldıran ve bireylere yaşam boyu eğitimin üstünlüğünden yararlanma imkânı sağlayan bir öğrenme ortamıdır.

Gelişen öğrenme ortamlarında birkaç çeşit Hipermedya sisteminden söz etmek mümkündür. Uyarlanabilir Hipermedia sistemleri, başlıca şu kategorilere ayrılır: Eğitimsel Hipermedia, Online Bilgi Sistemleri, Online Yardım Sistemleri, Geri Bildirimli Bilgi Sistemleri ve Kurumsal Hipermedia. Burada bizi daha çok ilgilendiren Eğitimsel Hipermedyadır.

Uyarlanabilir hiper ortamlar, kullanıcının çeşitli özelliklerini yansıtan bir kullanıcı modeli oluşturarak, bu model doğrultusunda kullanıcılara kişiselleştirilmiş seçenekleri otomatik olarak sunan sistemlerdir. Uygun bilgiye erişimi kısıtlamadan aşırı bilgi yüklemesini azaltmayı amaçlayan uyarlanabilir sistemlerin aşağıda belirtilen üç kistası yerine getirmesi gereklidir.

- Bir hiper metin veya hipermedya sistemi olmalı,
- Bir kullanıcı modeli içermeli ve
- Sistem bu modeli kullanarak, çeşitli yönleriyle kullanıcıya uyarlanabilmelidir.

Web tabanlı Hipermedya sitemlerinde uyarlama, öğrenenin sistemle iletişimi boyunca uygun kullanıcı modeller tarafından sağlanır. Değişik yönlerden gelen eksik bilgi, hali hazırda uyarlanabilir sistemlerin yapılarından kaynaklanmaktadır. Bu durum özellikle de geleneksel ortamlarda kullanıldığında ve web üzerinde tıklanarak yapılan gezintilerde ortaya çıkmaktadır. Şaşılacak bir durum da şudur ki, mevcut uyarlanabilir Hipermedya modellerindeki bilgi kusurlarının belirgin bir şekilde görmezden gelinmesidir. Halbuki sanal ortam operatörü, öğrenme ve öğretime uygun bir sanal ortamı oluşturmak için öğrenen veya kullanıcılar tarafından kendisine gönderilen talepleri her daim almalıdır. Yönetici, öğrenenlerden gelen talepler ve kısıtlamaları toplayıp bunun karşılığında gereken uyarlamaları yapmalıdır.

Harmanlanmış Öğrenme Ortamı (Blended/Mixed Learning Environment).

Harmanlanmış öğrenme modelleri, eğitim ve öğretim için farklı dağıtım yöntemleri ile farklı öğrenme stillerini kolaylaştırmak için kullanılan bir metot olarak tanımlanır. Harmanlanmış öğrenmenin tanımı en kısa ifadeyle Kerres ve Witt (2003) tarafından “*yüz yüze öğrenmeyle teknoloji destekli öğrenmenin birleştirilmesidir*” şeklinde tanımlanmıştır. Hem öğrenci-öğrenci hem de öğrenci-öğretmen etkileşimiyle beraber, çevrimiçi öğrenmenin faydalı yanlarının alınarak öğrenmenin gerçekleştirilmesi olarak ortaya konan bu öğrenmede, bazı dersler veya konular eş zamanlı verilirken, diğerlerinin farklı zamanlı verilmesi söz konusudur. Uluslararası alanda “blended”, “hybrid” veya “mixed”; Türkçede ise “harmanlanmış” veya “karma” öğrenme olarak adlandırılan bu öğrenme ortamı; yüz yüze öğrenme ile elektronik veya uzaktan öğrenmeyi bütünleştirme, farklı öğrenme kuramlarını, yöntem ve tekniklerini birleştirme, sınıftaki öğrenme sürecini çeşitli çevrimiçi teknolojiler ile destekleme şeklinde tanımlanabilmektedir.

Harmanlanmış öğrenme, şu unsurların birleşiminden oluşur:

- Mültimedya teknolojisi
- CD ROM video grupları
- Sanal sınıf
- Sesli ileti, mail ve (canlı bağlantılı) konferans konuşma
- Online metin animasyonu ve video grupları

Bütün bunlar geleneksel öğretim sınıflarıyla toplu olarak çalıştırılmalı, bir ondan bir bundan destek alınmalıdır. Öğrenme stilleri, bu durumda insanların öğrenmeleri için birçok yolu göstermektedir. Harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamı, yeni öğrenen tiplerini kapsayan teknoloji kullanımı yoluyla sınıf içi faaliyetler oluşturmak için kullanılır.

Osguthorpe ve Graham (2003), öğretmenlerin harmanlanmış ortamları tasarlarlarken benimseyebilecekleri altı hedef belirlemişlerdir. Bu hedefler şöyle sıralanmaktadır:

Pedagojik zenginlik (Pedagogical richness) : Bütün öğrenme ortamlarında olduğu gibi harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamlarında da asıl amaç, öğrencinin öğrenmesini arttırmaktır. Harmanlanmış ortamlarda çevrimiçi teknolojilerin kullanımı ile herhangi bir etkinlik için sınıfta kullanılan bazı zamanlar boşa çıkabilir. Örneğin sınıfta sunulacak olan bir Powerpoint sunusu önceden web sitesine konulması ile öğrencilerin sunuya göz atarak derse hazırlıklı gelmeleri sağlanabilir. Böylece sınıfta sunu yapmak için harcanacak olan zaman yerine konuyu derinlemesine inceleyerek tartışma veya konuya ilişkin örnek olay ve problemleri çözme fırsatı yakalanmış

olacaktır. Bu açıdan bakıldığında çeşitli çevrimiçi ortamlar sayesinde sınıfta daha zengin ve farklı öğrenme-öğretim yöntemlerini kullanmaya vakit kalacağını söyleyebiliriz.

Bilgiye erişim (Access to knowledge): Öğretmenler, öğrencilerin bilgiye erişimini artırabilmek için harmanlanmış ortamları kullanabilirler. Öğrencilerin kitapları okuyarak veya internet üzerinden araştırma yaparak ulaşamayacakları veya ulaşmaları için çok fazla zaman ve emek harcamaları gerektiren bilgiler, öğretmen tarafından derlenerek dersin web sitesinde yayınlanabilir. Örneğin öğretim tasarımı konusu ile ilgili farklı modeller ve bu modellerle ilgili farklı uzmanların görüş ve tespitleri, farklı sınıf ortamlarında ve bu farklı öğretim tasarımı modellerinin nasıl uygulandığına ilişkin video çekimleri gibi bilgiler dersin web sitesinde yayınlanarak öğrencilerin hem farklı bilgilere hem de farklı bakış açılarına ulaşabilmeleri sağlanabilir.

Sosyal etkileşim (Social interaction): Öğrenme sosyal bir ortamda etkileşim ile gerçekleşmektedir. Öğrencilerin herhangi bir problemi paylaşmaları, kavramlar ve fikirler üzerinde tartışıp görüş bildirmeleri, kendi fikirlerini savunurken diğer arkadaşlarının fikirlerini de etkin bir şekilde dinleyerek öğrenmeleri vb. becerileri kazanmaları etkileşimli ortamlar sayesinde gerçekleştirilebilmektedir. Tek başına çevrimiçi sistemler etkileşim açısından halen zayıf kalmakta, yüz-yüze etkileşim ise sadece sınıf ortamındaki ders saati ile sınırlı kalmaktadır. Harmanlanmış öğrenme ile sosyal etkileşim, farklı zaman ve mekânlarda farklı ortamlarda (sınıf, forum vb...) sağlanabilmektedir.

Öğrenenin kontrolü (Personal agency-Learner control): Öğrenenlerin kendi öğrenme süreçlerinde seçimler yapabilmeleri, ne çalışacakları ve nasıl çalışacakları hakkında karar verebilmeleri için fırsatlar tanınmalıdır. Öğrenene farklı düzeylerde kendi öğrenmesini kontrol etme fırsatı sunulmalıdır. Harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamları, öğrenenler için kişisel seçim yapma ve karar verme konusunda farklı seçenekler sağlayabilir. Örneğin; öğretmen, konuya ilişkin geliştirdiği ders notlarını metin, görsel veya animasyon gibi farklı ortamlar kullanarak dersin web sitesine yükleyebilir ve öğrenciler de tercih ettikleri ortam ile kendi öğrenme hızlarında öğrenmeyi seçebilirler. Ya da öğretmen sınıfı tartışma veya forum gibi çevrimiçi tartışmaları kullanarak öğrencinin tercih ettiği ortamda tartışmaya katılmasını destekleyebilir. Bu örnekler elbette çoğaltılabilir. Aslında öğrenme ortamı ne kadar zengin tasarlanırsa, öğrencinin öğrenme sürecini kontrol etmesi amacıyla farklı seçimler yapmasına imkân tanınabilmektedir.

Maliyet etkililiği (Cost effectiveness): Harmanlanmış ortamlar, sınıfta harcanan zamanı mümkün olduğunca aza indirebileceğinden dolayı maliyeti de en aza indirebilmektedir. Öğrencilerin, dersin web sitesinden edindikleri temel bilgiler veya alıştırmalar ve etkinlikler yoluyla kazandıkları beceriler ile hazır bulunuşluk düzeyleri arttıkça, sınıf ortamında öğretmen konuyu tekrar anlatmak yerine, öğrencilerin anlamakta zorlandıkları veya yapamadıkları noktalarda onlara geri bildirim verebilir. Öğretmen, öğrencilerin kazandıkları bilgi ve becerilerin gerçek hayata transferini sağlayabilecek öğrenme etkinliklerini gerçekleştirebilir ve tartışmalar yaptırabilir. Bu sayede dört saat sınıfta işlenen bir ders, iki saat sınıfta ve iki saat ise çevrimiçi ortamda işlenecek şekilde düzenlenebilir. Bu da tam zamanlı çalışan öğretmenlerin yerine, yarı zamanlı çalışan öğretmenlerin yaygınlaşması, sınıf ortamının getirdiği diğer maliyetlerin düşmesi gibi çeşitli maliyetlerin azalmasını ve zamanın daha etkili kullanılmasını sağlayabilir.

Yeniden gözden geçirip düzeltme kolaylığı (Ease of revision): Çoğu harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamları, öğretmenlerin kendileri tarafından tasarlanır ve geliştirilir. Çevrimiçi ortamda sunulan bilgiler rahatlıkla değiştirilebilir, yeni bilgiler eklenebilir ya da güncellemeler kolaylıkla yapılabilir. Bütün bunları yapabilmek için öğretmenlerin çok detaylı programlama bilgisine sahip olmasına da gerek yoktur. Harmanlanmış bir sistemin tekrar düzenlenmesindeki kolaylık; zaman içerisinde geliştirilen farklı materyallerin, etkinliklerin ve uygulamaların sisteme rahatlıkla eklenebilmesine imkân tanımakta ve öğrenme ortamının daha zengin olmasını sağlamaktadır.

Yukarıda kısaca açıklanan bütün bu esaslar aslında harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamlarının birer avantajı ve güçlü yanı olarak da anlaşılabilir. Harmanlanmış bir öğrenme ortamı tasarlayıp geliştiren öğretmenler, yukarıda açıklanan hususları göz önüne aldıklarında daha etkili ortamlar tasarlayabileceklerdir.

Harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamının sağladığı başka avantajlardan da söz edilebilir. Bunları şöyle özetlemek mümkündür:

- 1) Öğrenci, aynı anda pek çok hedefe yönelebilir ve odaklanabilir.
- 2) Öğrenci, özel öğretmenlerle etkileşime geçebilir.
- 3) Öğrenci, akranlarıyla etkileşime geçebilir.
- 4) Öğrenci, öğrenme materyallerine kolayca erişebilir.
- 5) Çeşitli tekniklerle, değişik teknolojilerden en üst düzeyde istifade edilebilir.

Harmanlanmış Öğrenme Ortamının Avantajları

Tek bir bilgi dağıtım yöntemi her türlü eğitim için ideal değildir. Bir şey için hem farklı konu hem de farklı eğitim yöntemleri gereklidir. Harmanlanmış öğrenme ortamları şu avantajları sayılmaktadır:

- 1) Öğretim için geniş ulaşım yolları
- 2) Kolay uygulama
- 3) Maliyette verimlilik
- 4) Etkin sonuç
- 5) Değişik ihtiyaçları bulma
- 6) Olumlu eğitim tepkileri geliştirmek.

Sonuç

Teknolojinin sağladığı yeni öğrenme ortamları, genel eğitim için yeni avantaj ve imkânlar ortaya koyduğu gibi, bütün bunların din eğitimi alanında da kullanılması mümkündür. Günümüzde din eğitimi alanında kısmen kullanılan e-öğrenme veya diğer adıyla Hiper Öğrenme Ortamının daha da yaygınlaşması ve daha geniş sahalarda kullanılması beklenmektedir.

Eğitim alanında ortaya çıkan yeni öğrenme ortamlarının Din Eğitimi alanında da kısmen uygulanabildiği görülmektedir. Özellikle İlahiyat Fakültelerince desteklenen ve yürütülen İLİTAM Programlarında kısmen çoklu ortam denilen Hiper Öğrenme ortamının birçok derste uygulandığı bilinmektedir. Web destekli bu öğrenme ortamının bütün derslere yaygınlaştırılabileceği gibi, sınıf ortamına da taşınarak örgün eğitim içerisinde de Harmanlanmış Öğrenme Ortamının gerçekleştirilebileceği bir öğrenme ortamına rahatlıkla dönüştürülebilir.

Din eğitiminin her alanında, İmam Hatip Liselerinde, İlahiyat Fakültelerinde, Diyanet İşleri Başkanlığı Hizmetiçi Eğitim faaliyetlerinde hem Hiper Öğrenme Ortamı hem de Harmanlanmış Öğrenme Ortamı rahatlıkla uygulanabilir. Zira bu öğrenme ortamları hem bilginin süratli bir şekilde ve zaman engeli ortadan kaldırılarak paylaşmayı sağlamakta hem de maliyetleri düşürdüğünden iktisatlı olmaktadır.

Türkiye genelinde Din Eğitimi hizmeti veren okul, fakülte ve kurumların istifade edebileceği ortak bir portal oluşturulmalı ve burada her dersin uzmanlarınca hazırlanmış, simülasyon, zaman kaydırmalı ve gerçek zamanlı tartışmalar, video, sesli konferans ve benzeri sunular konulmalı ve öğrencilerin istifadesine sunulmalıdır.

Bunun yanında benzer ders içeriklerine sahip diğer İslam Ülkeleriyle de işbirliğine geçilerek ortak bir “Din Eğitimi İşbirliği Örgütü” kurulmalı, bu işbirliği çerçevesinde din eğitimi alanında gerçekleştirilen eğitim uygulamaları ve tecrübeleri paylaşılmalı ve aynı zamanda ortak web portalları oluşturularak işbirliğine katılan her ülkenin öğrencilerinin bunlardan istifade etmeleri sağlanabilmelidir.

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Advancing Excellence in Character and Competence in Service to Humanity

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Abstract

The study on Revitalizing the Philippine Army Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) Program of Instruction (POI) in the Context of the Internal Peace and Security Plan (IPSP) reviewed related literature and secondary data; conducted key informant surveys among University of the Philippines Los Baños (UPLB) students and National Service Training Program (NSTP) Faculty from 13 regions of the Philippines; and, analyzed secondary and raw primary data using descriptive and quantitative (Chi-square test) procedures, on selected elements of National Security of the IPSP. The conclusions include: a) the PA ROTC POI can be revitalized by adjusting its hour allocations in consideration of the NSTP Common Module; and, b) the non-parametric quantitative test of significance using the Chi-square test affirmed significantly that aggregately the respondents' suggested projects/activities on Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and "Others" were moving towards a significant consensus that these suggested projects can revitalize the PA ROTC POI.

Keywords.

Introduction

Background of the Study

The Students' Transformation and Enrichment for Truth-Values Integration and Promotion (STET-VIP) Incorporated is a Non-Government Organization (NGO) duly accredited by the Philippine Commission on Higher Education (CHED), Department of National Defense (DND), and the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) to carry out the NSTP stipulated under Republic Act 9163. The NSTP is a program aimed at enhancing civic consciousness and defense preparedness in the youth by developing the ethics of service and patriotism while undergoing training in any of its three program components, namely: ROTC, Civic Welfare Training Service (CWTS), and Literacy Training Service (LTS). The ROTC as a component of the NSTP is "designed to provide military training to tertiary level students in order to motivate, train, organize, and mobilize them for national defense preparedness." The PA Reserve Force Expansion Program of the Army Reserve Command (ARESCOM) considerably hinges on the ROTC enrollment. Thus, STET-VIP Inc. conducted this study in support of the Armed Forces of the Philippines (AFP) – IPSP "Bayanihan" and the ARESKOM PA Reserve Force Expansion Program by addressing the need to revitalize the ROTC POI and increase the ROTC enrollment.

Statement of the Problem

The main problem of the study is: **What activities and projects can revitalize the PA ROTC POI to increase student enrollment?** More specifically, the study sought to answer the following:

- What activities/projects on *ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, and moral-spiritual consensus* were suggested by the respondents for inclusion to the PA ROTC POI as perceived by UPLB students and NSTP faculty members from thirteen regions of the Philippines?
- What other activities and projects did the respondents want to carry out aside from those pertaining to ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, and moral-spiritual consensus?
- Among the activities and projects identified by the respondents, what were the priority activities suggested by most respondents for each of the three elements of national security?
- What were the significant differences between the responses of UPLB students and NSTP faculty members from thirteen regions of the Philippines?

Scope and Delimitation

As stated in the national strategic guidance of the IPSP culled from His Excellency, President Benigno Simeon C. Aquino III “the current vision of the national leadership for the Philippines is a country with a re-awakened sense of propriety, organized and widely shared rapid expansion of the economy, mobilized the people’s skills, responsibly harnessed natural resources, and public institutions rebuilt on the strong solidarity of our society, and its communities”. Given this broad policy, consultations from various stakeholders must be done to arrive at a responsive, relevant, and comprehensive national security policy. It is to this end that the scope of this study intends to contribute through the PA-ARESCOM ROTC.

There are seven (7) elements of national security listed by the National Security Council (NSC) of the Philippines and adopted by IPSP as the “significant characteristics of the area of operation” under Strategic Environment. Only three (3) of these seven (7) elements were included in this study namely: ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, and moral-spiritual consensus. The remaining four (4) elements which were not included in the study are: territorial integrity, socio-political stability, economic solidarity, and external peace. As to the AFP-IPSP “Bayanihan” **Winning the Peace**, its **strategic approach** of people-centered security and the **strategic imperative** of “involvement of all stakeholders in the pursuit of internal peace and national security” were used in this study. The study did not include the **strategic approach** of “whole nation approach” nor did it deal with the strategic imperative “adherence to human rights, international humanitarian law, and the rule of law”. Hence, the delimitation of the study in so far as the AFP-IPSP “*Bayanihan*” is concerned.

Conceptual Framework

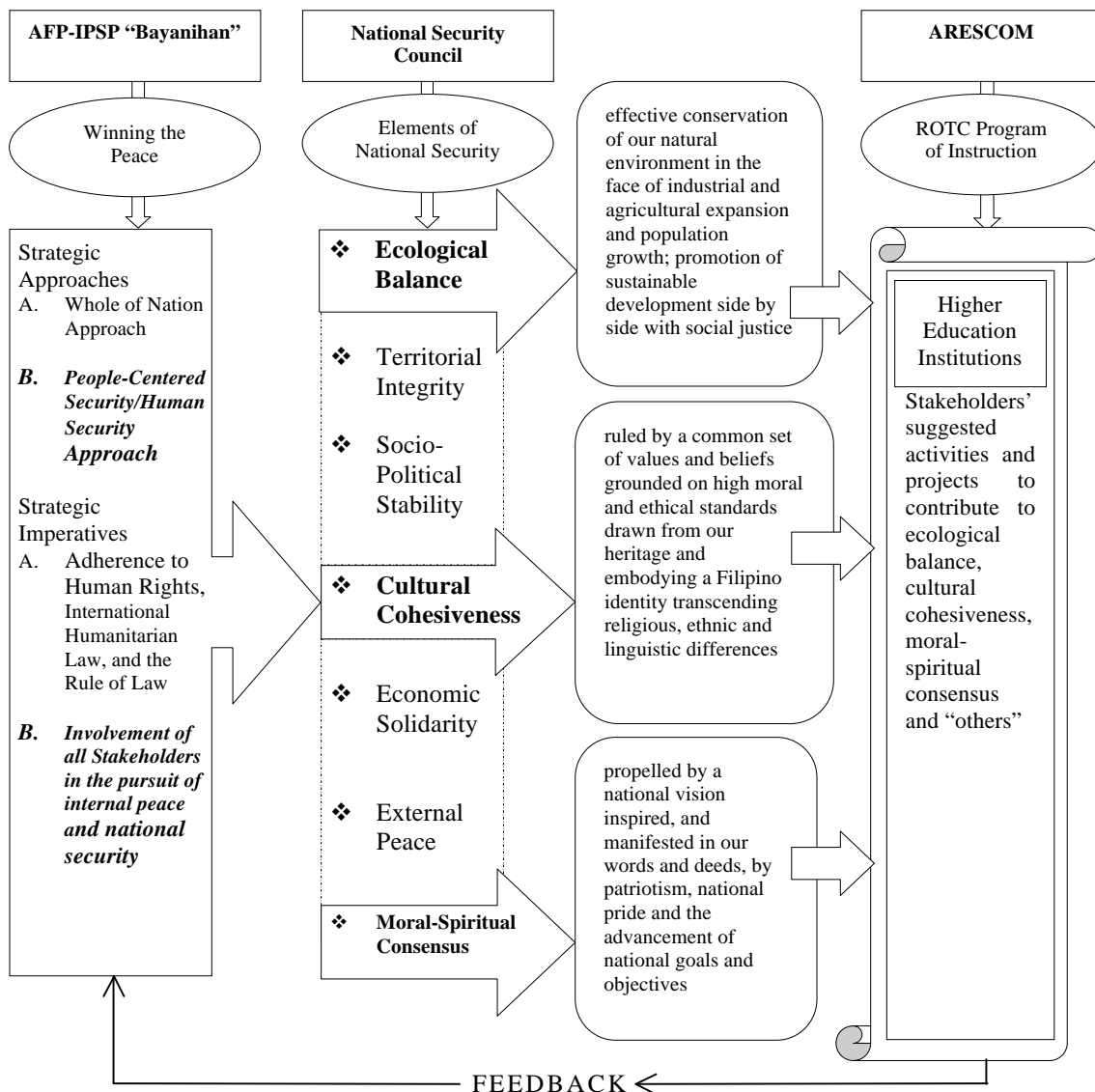


Figure1. A Conceptual Framework on Revitalizing the Philippine Army ROTC Program of Instruction in the context of ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, moral-spiritual consensus and “others”.

Figure 1 illustrates the interrelationships among a) AFP-IPSP “Bayanihan”; b) NSC’s Elements of National Security; and c) the ROTC Program of the Philippine Army. In keeping with DND Secretary Hon. Sec. Voltaire Gazmin’s noble invitation to “take part in the shaping of our nation’s peace and security” and in order to address ARESKOM’s concern for the downtrend of the ROTC enrolment and taking into consideration its implications to the Reserve Force Expansion Program there is a need to engage Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) to support the IPSP through the ROTC Program.

The full support of HEIs through the implementation of the PA ROTC Program can play a major role in the realization of the IPSP Bayanihan at the community level. Using the Civil Military Operations (CMO) activities of the ROTC students, the IPSP Bayanihan can be operational at the barangay level where the HEIs carry out NSTP activities, particularly on ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, moral-spiritual consensus, and others.

The feedback mechanism from HEIs’ PA ROTC Program can provide significant inputs to IPSP Bayanihan’s strategic approaches and imperatives to achieve the ultimate goal of winning the peace. Through encouraging and supporting ROTC activities promoting ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness and moral-spiritual consensus, HEI’s will not only contribute to IPSP but increase ROTC enrolment as well. Thus, to generate HEI’s support, assistance and participation, a survey on the NSTP Faculty members’ suggested activities and projects to contribute to the afore-mentioned three elements of national security was conducted.

Methods and Procedures

The method of research used in this study was both descriptive and quantitative using non parametric variables. Open-ended survey questionnaires were distributed to two groups of respondents namely, UPLB Students and NSTP Faculty Members from 13 regions of the Philippines to identify projects and activities which they believe can contribute to the realization of the three elements of national security namely: *ecological balance*; *cultural cohesiveness*; and *moral-spiritual consensus*. Respondents were asked to suggest as many activities and projects as they can for ROTC students to carry out in order to contribute to the aforementioned three elements of national security. In addition to these three elements of national security another column labelled as *others* was included. This was done to give the respondents a free hand to include activities/projects which they believed should be included in the ROTC POI.

The same survey questionnaire was answered by 65 NSTP faculty members from 13 Regions of the Philippines. These respondents participated in the 56th STET-VIP NSTP CAT/NSP Qualifying Course for Coordinators, Instructor-Facilitators, Volunteers and Stakeholders at Maryridge Healing and Renewal House, Iruhin West, Tagaytay City on April 29 to May 1, 2012.

The sampling frame for undergraduate students consists of 156 students from the eight (8) colleges of UPLB. A random sample of respondents was taken from each sampling unit. The total population of the sampling frame is 10,433. The sample size is about 1.5% or 156 students proportionately distributed among the sample units of the colleges.

From the open-ended responses of both UPLB Students and NSTP Faculty Members content analysis was undertaken. Common responses were grouped into frequency distribution where descriptive analysis was done. From the responses of the two groups, contingency tables were generated for non-parametric quantitative analysis using the Chi-square Test of Independence.

Results

The frequency distribution by total number of UPLB Students' Suggested Activities/Projects per Element (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus) and "Others" indicated that modally, (33%) UPLB Students had more suggested activities for Ecological Balance than the other elements of Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and "Others" suggested activities, which shared around 1/5 each of all responses (Table 1).

Table 1. Frequency Distribution by Total Number of UPLB Students' Suggested Activities/Projects per Element (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness,

Moral-Spiritual Consensus) and "Others"

Elements	Frequency	Percent Distribution (%)
I. Ecological Balance	221	33
II. Cultural Cohesiveness	161	24
III. Moral-Spiritual Consensus	137	21
IV. Other Suggested Activities/Projects	142	22
TOTAL	661	100

On the other hand, the frequency distribution by total number of NSTP Faculty Members' Suggested Activities/Projects per Element (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and "Others") also indicated that they have more suggestions on Ecological Balance (46%) as compared to the other elements of Cultural Cohesiveness (24%), Moral-Spiritual Consensus (23%) and 7% for "Others" (Table 2).

Table 2. Frequency Distribution by Total Number of NSTP Faculty Members' Suggested Activities/Projects per Element (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus) and "Others"

Elements	Frequency	Percent Distribution (%)
I. Ecological Balance	134	46
II. Cultural Cohesiveness	71	24
III. Moral-Spiritual Consensus	68	23
IV. Other Suggested Activities/Projects	20	7
TOTAL	293	100

The Chi-square (χ^2) test was used to evaluate the statistical significance of independence of the suggested activities/projects among the selected groups (UPLB Students and NSTP Faculty Members). In testing for independence of suggested activities/projects by specific respondent group, the analysis used the basic χ^2 test of significance.

The responses of the four elements taken together as suggested by the UPLB students and NSTP Faculty Members indicated that the χ^2 test was very highly significant at 1% alpha. The calculated χ^2_c was high at 34.52, while the tabular χ^2 was 11.35 at alpha 1%. These results provide that the responses/suggested activities/projects by the two groups of respondents are statistically significant (Table 3).

Table 3. Observed and Expected Frequencies of UPLB Students and

NSTP Faculty Members from 13 Regions on the Four Elements (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus) and "Others"

Respondent	Elements				Total
	Ecological Balance	Cultural Cohesiveness	Moral-Spiritual Consensus	Others	
UPLB Students	221 (245.9)	161 (160.7)	137 (142)	142 (112.2)	661
NSTP Faculty	134 (109)	71 (71.3)	68 (62.9)	20 (49.8)	293
TOTAL	355	232	205	162	954

Note:() Expected Frequencies

Chi-square independence test

Ho: $R+ = R-$; the responses/suggested activities/projects by the two groups of respondents are independent

Ha: $R+ \neq R-$; the responses/suggested activities/projects by the two groups respondents are not independent

Test Statistics: Chi-square at alpha = 5% and 1%

Decision Rule: Reject Ho if chi-square computed > tabular value (alpha, 3) fail to reject otherwise

Computations:

chi-square computed, $\chi_c^2 = 34.52$

chi-square tabular, $\chi_{(.05,3)}^2 = 7.82$

chi-square tabular, $\chi_{(.01,3)}^2 = 11.35$

Decision: Since $34.52 > 11.35$, reject Ho.

Conclusion: At alpha = 1%, the responses/suggested activities/projects by the two groups of respondents are statistically significant

In summary, both the descriptive and quantitative non parametric analysis demonstrated that most of the suggested activities/projects by the UPLB students and NSTP faculty members were statistically significant and is not independent from each other. There is therefore enough logic to consider the suggested activities/projects on Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and “Others” to be included in the ROTC POI to generate more ROTC enrollees.

Conclusions

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions were deduced:

- There are three major elements of National Security (Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, and Moral-Spiritual Consensus) for which respondents were asked to enumerate their suggestions on what projects/activities should be included in the PA ROTC POI. For Ecological Balance, the projects/activities can be categorized into four: 1) Information, Education, and Communication Campaigns, 2) Fund Raising, 3) Carrying-out Specific Environmental Activities or Projects, and 4) Holistic/Broad Project Proposals/Monitoring of Existing Projects. For Cultural Cohesiveness, the projects/activities fall into four categories, namely: 1) Cultural Presentations and Showcasing of Local Products, 2) Bayanihan/Socio-Cultural Activities, 3) Seminars/Lectures/Competitions, and 4) Community Development Work/Outreach Programs with Indigenous People. In terms of Moral-Spiritual Consensus, suggested projects/activities can be divided into four major categories: 1) Convention/Seminars/Speaking Contest/Film-Making on Patriotism, National Pride, Ethics, Political Lectures and Drills and Public Display of ROTC Activities, 2) Team Building/Leadership Trainings/Prayer Meetings, 3) IEC Materials Featuring National Concerns/Heroes, and 4) Field Trips/Camp Nights/Sport Activities and Community Service.
- There were other suggested activities respondents were interested in carrying out which they perceive do not necessarily fall under Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, and Moral-Spiritual Consensus. These include Feeding Programs, Fun-Runs, First Aid Seminars, Fashion Shows, and Government watchdog type undertakings.
- Both UPLB students and NSTP faculty respondents prioritized the same type of activities for two elements

of national security, namely, Ecological Balance and Cultural Cohesiveness. In Ecological Balance, respondents were interested in carrying-out specific environmental activities such as tree planting/nurturing. The respondents also expressed cultural presentations and the showcasing of local products as priorities under Cultural Cohesiveness. As for Moral-Spiritual Consensus, UPLB students were interested mainly in field trips, camp nights, sport activities, and community service while NSTP faculty prioritized conventions, seminars, speaking contests, film-making on patriotism, national pride, ethics, political lectures, drills, and public display of ROTC activities.

- The difference between the responses of UPLB students and NSTP faculty members lies in their priority of activities under the national security element of Moral-Spiritual Consensus. UPLB students were interested mainly in field trips, camp nights, sport activities, and community service while NSTP faculty prioritized conventions, seminars, speaking contests, film-making on patriotism, national pride, ethics, political lectures, drills, and public display of ROTC activities.
- The non-parametric test of independence of responses using the Chi-square test, affirmed significantly that the suggested projects on Ecological Balance, Moral-Spiritual Consensus and “Others”, (except Cultural Cohesiveness) were moving towards a consistent consensus that these suggested projects will revitalize the ROTC POI. Aggregately, for the four elements taken together, the Chi-Square test demonstrated very high level of statistical level of confidence of one (1) percent at 3 degrees of freedom for the χ^2 test.
- All the chi-square tests were significant, except for Cultural Cohesiveness. The chi-square test’s insignificant finding on cultural cohesiveness affirms the NSC’s statement on external threats, among others: “Ethnic, religious and cultural conflict pervades many regions and nations, including our own. It is constantly exacerbated by mass poverty, limited access to resources, denial of human rights, lack of national integration and international issues.”
- While the nature of ROTC is “defense preparedness,” engaging the ROTC students in activities contributory to ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness, and moral-spiritual consensus, can harness their military discipline, advance their character development, patriotism, and nationalism as they contribute to AFP IPSP Bayanihan’s Winning the Peace.
- The current PA ROTC POI hour allocations can be adjusted to include IPSP-NSC’s three elements of National Security, namely: Ecological Balance, Cultural Cohesiveness, and Moral-Spiritual Consensus; Corresponding adjustments can also be made in the current PA ROTC POI towards the revitalized PA ROTC POI.

Given the above conclusions, STET-VIP Inc. as a social development NGO accredited by the Philippine Council for NGO Certification (PCNC) reaffirms its commitment in carrying out undertakings towards ***advancing excellence in character and competence in service to humanity***. Thus, the Virtues In Pinoy (VIPinoy) movement was launched on May 1, 2012. The STET VIPinoy refers to a Filipino with the exemplary practice of the four cardinal virtues of prudence, justice, temperance, and the three theological virtues of faith, hope, and love over an extended period of time out of just and worthy service by contributing to ecological balance, cultural cohesiveness and moral-spiritual consensus. Finally, it is with faith in humanity that STET-VIP Inc. ardently hopes that for love of all, through institutions at the local, national, and international levels, ***virtues in global citizenry*** be a reality.

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A Comparison of Habit Formation of First Graders Swith and Without Preschool Education

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Abstract

Habits are behaviors that are constant, make the people's lives easier and increase their life quality. There are critical habits that the pre-school children must gain and must turn them into habits in this period. The behaviors which haven't been internalized in this period will hardly be a habit in the ensuing years. The critical behaviors which haven't turned into a habit will affect the children badly in the future years. In this study, the habits which must be gained in the pre-school period and how they will be earned have been studied. The habits which must be gained in the pre-school period have been addressed in the subtitles. Continuity of habits of the 1st grade students who had a pre-school education before was evaluated by the help of "habit rating scale". The survey results were analyzed using SPSS 17.0 statistical software.

Keywords. Early childhood education, habits, toilet habits, nutrition habits

Introduction

Behaviors that constitute basis for gaining habits begin with the birth of a child, become explicit by being enhanced in the early childhood and elementary school periods .Main factors of gaining habits are determination, regularity and sensibility which are seen while a mother provides her child's nourishment, hygiene and love needs. If child's experiences are positive in this first period, it might be easier for the child to adopt favorable behaviors in the period of gaining permanent and actual habits .On the contrary, If mother does not feed her child timely, not start to move to relax her child when the child wets himself or feels pain or not show any positive reaction to show her love towards her child, all of these attitudes and behaviors may cause child to perceive the other people and outside world negatively .Kids whose first experiences with their mothers are not so good, may be counted as candidate for being individuals who escape from people and don't trust them, even bear hostility toward people in their future life .It should not be forgotten that first experiences will affect children lifelong. First habits gained by children who don't have healthy interaction with their parents, are far away from being positive behaviors that make them fit into the society as well (Oktay, 2002).

As every adult, children also live with their habits. Behaviors obtained throughout lifetime, are behaviors that are extending over a period of time and especially obtained by repetition. Habits are beneficial as long as they make life easier. Sometimes we see that behaviors transforming into habits make one's life tougher and sometimes make one's life easier and more flexible. Whether it makes our lives easier or not, man starts to get a set of habits. What is important in this point is helping of parents and teachers to children in making proper behaviors, habit .When we consider that learning begins with birth and last lifelong, children start to get their basic habits in family environment and keep enhancing and adding new habits to their habits obtained through

the pre-school education and schooling. In this process ,parents and teachers' supporting the child positively, their being role-model in child's getting new behaviors and following a systematic way while the child is gaining habits, have importance because bringing a positive behavior or changing an undesirable behavior is a patience and labor demanding process(Civelek,2008).

Classrooms are well -arranged places for behavior management because they are relatively restricted environment and teacher can usually check children's behavior in a strict way(Bacharach and Baumeister,2003).However, we should notice the difference that children will get behaviors that parents don't do at home as habit more hardly. For instances; a child whose parents don't brush their teeth will be more resistant to brushing with regard to a child whose parents brush their teeth. Teachers' being in cooperation with parents from the beginning moment of gaining habits will make this process easier.

Being consistent, systematic and patient should be the most important support point of parents and teachers. As children grow older, it will be necessary for parents to develop creative strategies for protecting their children and teaching them appropriate behaviors. Children integrate their parents attitude and expectations into their behaviors with consistent nature and instruction (Özmert, 2006). It shouldn't be forgotten that habits gaining's first step is obtaining behavior. First of all, behavior should be obtained properly then it should be turned into a habit. In addition, the most effective way for gaining target behavior is being a model, especially for children in 2-7 age range since it is incarnated enough (Mackenzie, 2010). Bringing good habits for children is responsibility of Parents and Teachers. Parents' behavior will play an important role in children's personality. Parents and teachers playing this role should be model in obtaining good habits by being aware of the seriousness of the situation (Yavuzer, 1998).

Cleaning Habit: The most important means of keeping an individual and other people healthy is cleaning. Cleaning is not just body cleaning, keeping everything and everyplace clean is requirement of being clean. In order to be preserved from diseases threatening individual health, personal and environmental cleaning is necessary. Children, 24-30 months old, should be provided with an environment to do cleaning practices taught mostly doing personally by parents, teachers or educator. For example, washing his hand should be a habit of a child after making his toilet and before touching the food (Megep, 2009).

Dressing Habit: 36-72 months old children are at a level that they can practice skills related to dressing and undressing. Parents at home, teacher in education environment should behave patiently and guide kids in some activities that they can do on their own such as dressing, clothe folding or hanging them and if needs be, parents and teacher should support children. Children's dressing on their own will improve every passing day as in children's learning eating, trying to draw picture skills. You can also utilize children's toys while making children obtain this habit. A kid trying to dress his dolls will try same act on himself. Especially girls like dressing their dolls (Megep, 2009).

Toilet Habit: Although Children have individual differences, they get ready to take potty training when they are 18 months old. When they are 36 months old, most of them will be gained toilet habit but once again there are individual differences. However some children may not be ready to get potty training until they are 4 years old. Even though they got potty training, sometimes day wetting and bedwetting may be seen for some children. To get this habit, children may be forced to sit on the potty after each meal for a few minutes. A careful mother may understand that his child needs toilet by looking at his child's behaviors. In this kind of situations, if we let the child relieve himself with the help of potty without giving any chance to wet himself, then this act is going to be habit of the child, therefore, when the child needs toilet, he will use potty then finally he will use bathroom. (Yavuzer, 2011)

Sleeping habit: Babies sleep more than twenty hours of their time in the following weeks of the birth. As they grow, sleep need decreases. The 13-15 hours need for sleep from 6 months old to one year old decreases 12-13 hours at the age of 1,5. At the age of 6, the need is 10-12 hours and after the age of 10 it is 10 hours. (Saygılı, 2012). Regular sleeping has important role in child's healthy growth. There should be sleeping hours in pre-school education and at home during daytime, children with difficulty in sleeping should lay to relax in that time. After-dinner nap is indispensable for lots of children in early childhood especially first years of this period. In colloquial language, there are some sayings such as, "Children grow while sleeping" and "Uyusunda Büyüsün". Since growth hormone is released while sleeping, regular and enough sleep is important in children's growing. If Children, who are constantly astir during the daytime, don't rest, these children may have attention deficit, deficiency of social development, hyper-activity and restlessness. Most of the time, this situation leaves teachers and parents in a difficult situation. Psychical and mental development deficiency is unavoidable for those who don't take enough night sleep. That's why children should be provided with enough night, daytime sleep and resting (Aktürk, Z, Turgut, A. 2013).

Habit of obeying socials rules: Social skills are behavioral patterns, basis of which are constituted during the pre-school period. Awaiting one's turn, serving others, seeking one's right without hurting someone else, expressing your happiness and anger by caring others' emotions, postponing your desires, etc. Behaviors should be given to the children in the behavior training program including social and emotional aims as part of curriculum after these behaviors are obtained, students will use them whenever needed. Teacher should use positive reinforcement to students' appropriate and timely behaviors to make students obtain this behavior as a habit. Teacher should take necessary precautions to let students live their emotions and disappointments caused by other students, by not allowing these disappointments to turn into hospitality and conflict and should develop activities to bring social skills. (Aktürk, Z, Turgut A. 2013)

Nutritional Habit: Pre-school period is an important process for development of healthy nutritional habit. Nutritional habits are generally formed by those taking care of the child. These habits are finishing one's plate, dessert eating, eating meat regularly and using of food as a reward (Branen and Fletcher, 1999). Having

nutritional habit means that an individual takes necessary amount of nutrition. Proper diet is so important for psychical and mental development of children especially for those who are infant. Sometimes, nutritional habit, necessary thing to man to survive, comes up as a vital educational problem. The child, who doesn't have breakfast habit, will have some kind of problems such as starvation, tiredness, weakness in school. These problems will pose a big obstacle to focus in activities. Since hungry one has low level of energy, it will affect even the social life of the person.

The Objective of the Study

Target of this study is comparing in terms of habit training of first grade students who went to the Nursery School and students that didn't go the preschool in 2012-2013 school year in Malatya

The importance of the Study

Early childhood, known as golden years of the life is the most critical period to get some habits, shaping our life and to ensure continuity of these habits. In this period, giving planned and systematic training of habits may help children to make good habits, expected by society, turn into behaviors in the next years. There are not so many studies about commitment of students who took their training from educational establishment, giving this training in a planned and systematic way. Drawing attention to the importance of habit training, given in preschool education, is aimed with this study.

Problem Sentence

Are there any explicit differences in habits between first grade students who went to the preschool and those who didn't go in 2012-2013 school year in Malatya?

Assumptions of the study

It is assumed that students' parents who take place in the study, give correct answer to the quantitative data collection vehicle and answer should be related to the subject of the study.

Limitedness of the study: In the study, Students were chosen by random sampling way from 5 different schools' 1st grade students in Malatya. 45 students taken preschool and 45 students not taken preschool were given call for their parents and 80 of them returned call. The study is restricted with 80 students whose parent return call.

Method

Research Model: This study has the characteristic of Survey modeling. Survey Model is a research approach aiming to describe a situation which was existent in the past or it is still existent with its existing form. Case, individual or object being subject to the study are defined with their own situation and as they is (Karasar, 2002)

Population and Sample

1st grade students studying 2012-2013 spring semester of school year in Malatya constitute population for this study. Since it is not possible to reach the whole population, Sampling is chosen to be carried out and 5 elementary school in Malatya is taken as sample due to their reliability and convenience. 90 students, some of whom went to Preschool and some didn't are asked to fill in the questionnaire in these schools and this research includes 80 of them who accepted to take part in the survey. 40 of them went to the preschool and 40 of them didn't.

Data Collection Tool

The first thing done in the study is literature review and field study and survey methods were used to reach the information. A questionnaire were formed which had been never used before to survey habits that students obtain in the preschool period. The questionnaire was subjected to the applied pre assessment. Acceptability and reliability of the questionnaire were tested. According to results, 2 questions were changed and acceptability was realized. In The study, Habits were categorized in 6 sub-category. These are Cleaning Habit (skin, face, hand, foot, hair, mouth and dental), dressing habit, Toilet habit, sleep and rest habit, habit of obeying social rules. Each Sub-category consists of 5 article and 4 point likert scale was used. In the scale, expressions "Never",

“Sometimes”, “Often” ,”Always” were used in an order .All questions were coded in a positive way. Each sub-category’s point average was calculated and evaluated. All of the questionnaire forms were given to the parent of student by teachers.

Evaluation and Analysis of Data:

To get the result of the research, Data of the survey was analyzed and evaluated by using SPSS17,0 analysis package software

Results and Commentaries

Findings and Comments

Table1.Distributuion by Gender of Participants:

Gender of the participant	f	%
Female	56	70,0
Male	24	30,0
Toplam	80	100,0

As it is seen in the table, 56 of the Participants (%70) are female and 24 of them (%30) are male.

Table2 Participants’ Distribution by age

Age Of The Participants	f	%
Between 20 – 30	22	27,5
Between 31 – 40	46	57,5
Between 41 – 50	11	13,8
51 +	1	1,3
Total	80	100

As it is seen in the table,22(%27,5) of the Participants are in the 22-30 age range,46(%57,5) of them are in the age range of 31-40,11(13,8) of them are in the age range of 41-50 and one (%1,3) of them is above the age of 51.

Table 3 Participants’ Distribution by Educational Status:

Educational Status of The participant	f	%
Higher Education	3	3,8
University	12	15,0
Technical college	8	10,0
High School	19	23,8
Secondary School	18	22,5
Primary school	20	25,0
Totaltttr	80	100,0

As it is seen in the Table,3(%3,8) of the participants are Master Degree Taken,12(%15) of them are post-graduate,8(%10) of them academy graduate,19(%23,8) of the high school graduate,18(%22,5)of them are secondary school graduate,20(%25) of them are elementary school graduate.

Table 4 Participants’ Distribution by Economic Conditions:

Economic Condition of The participant	f	%
Lower than 450 TL	4	5,0
Between 451-750 TL	15	18,8
Between 751-1700 TL	39	48,8
Between 1701-2500 TL	15	18,8
2501TL and +	7	8,8
Total	80	100,0

As it is seen in the table, 4(5%) of the participants are earning 450TL and less, 15(18,8%) of them are earning between 451-750TL, 39 of them(48,8%) are earning between 751-1700TL, 15(18,8%) of them are earning between 1701-2500TL and 7(8,8%) of them are earning 2500TL and more.

Findings related to the habits of Children who received Preschool education and those who didn't

Table 5 Findings related to the cleaning habit:

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	15,00	3,29	78	5,22	.00
Didn't receive	40	17,98	1,48			

*p < 0,05

In Table 5, Subcategory of "Cleaning Habit" s average of students who didn't go to the preschool is stated as 15($\bar{X} = 15,00$) and its standard deviation is 3,29(S=3,29). Average of Students that went the preschool is 17,98($\bar{X} = 17,98$) and its standard deviation is stated as 1,48(S=1,48). According to the results, statistically significant difference (t=5,22, p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of Cleaning Habit. As it is evident from that, cleaning training which is given in preschool establishments took effect in the 1st grade. It is found that some cleaning habits is harder to be obtained by those who didn't go preschool.

Table 6 Findings related to the dressing habit

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	17,25	3,06	78	3,33	.00
Didn't receive	40	19,00	1,30			

*p < 0,05

In Table 6, subcategory of "Dressing Habit" s average of students who didn't go to the preschool is 17,25($\bar{X} = 17,25$) and its standard deviation is stated as 3,06(S=3,06). Average of students who went to the preschool is 19,00($\bar{X} = 19,00$) and its standard deviation is stated as 1,30(S=1,30). According to these results, statistically significant difference (t=3,33, p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of dressing habit. It is a sign of that dressing habit training which is given in preschool education is important.

Table 7 Findings related to Toilet Habit

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	18,60	2,05	78	2,93	.00
Didn't receive	40	19,63	0,84			

*p < 0,05

In Table 7, subcategory of "Toilet Habit" s average of students who didn't go to the preschool is 18,60($\bar{X} = 18,60$) and its standard deviation is stated as 2,05(S=2,05). Average of students who went to the preschool is 19,63($\bar{X} = 19,63$) and its standard deviation is stated as 0,84(S=0,84). According to these results, statistically significant difference (t=2,93, p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory toilet habit. Early childhood children postpone their toilet especially when they focus

on games. Even sometimes they wet their clothes since they hold their urine so much. This situation is very usual for kids. Sometimes warning them about this may be beneficial(Aktürk,Z.,Turgut,A.2013).Preschool Education Establishments which frequently give these kind of warnings and help to students to get toilet behaviour , have an important place for continuity of this behaviour.

Table8 Findings related to the sleep and rest habit:

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	16,13	3,67	78	2,42	.02
Didn't receive	40	18,85	6,10			

*p < 0,05

In the table8, subcategory of "Sleep and rest habit" s average of students who didn't go to the preschool is 16,13(\bar{X} =16,13) and its standard deviation is stated as 3,67(S=3,67).Average of the students who went to the preschool is 18,85

(\bar{X} =18,85), its standard deviation is stated 6,10(S=6,10) . According to these results, statistically significant difference(t=2,42,p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of sleep and rest habit. After -dinner nap is indispensable for lots of children in early childhood especially first years of this period. In colloquial language, there are some sayings such as ,"Children grow while sleeping" and "Sleep, Grow up". Since growth hormone is released while sleeping, regular and enough sleep is important in children's growing. If Children, who are constantly astir during the daytime, don't rest, these children may have attention deficit, deficiency of social development, hyper-activity and restlessness (Aktürk, Z, Turgut A.2013).It is apparent that Students who went preschool ,obtain such a important habit better than those who didn't go preschool.

Table9 Findings related to the habit of obeying social rules:

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	16,15	3,31	78	2,19	.03
Didn't receive	40	17,55	2,33			

*p < 0,05

In Table 9,subcategory of "Habit of obeying social rules" s average of students who went to the preschool is 16,15(\bar{X} =16,15) and its standard deviation is stated as 3,31(S=3,31). Average of the students who didn't go to the preschool is 17,55(\bar{X} =17,55), its standard deviation is stated 2,33(S=2,33). According to these results, statistically significant difference(t=2,19,p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of "Habit of Obeying Social Rules". It is measured that Individuals who graduated from preschool are more sensitive to obeying social rules.

Table 10 Findings related to the nutritional habit

Preschool Education	N	X	SS	Sd	t	p
Received	40	13,20	3,74	78	3,30	.00
Didn't receive	40	15,58	2,60			

*p < 0,05

In 10, subcategory of "Nutritional Habit's average of students who didn't go to the preschool is 13,20(\bar{X} =13,20) and its standard deviation is stated as 3,74(S=3,74).Average of the students who went to the preschool is 15,58

(\bar{X} =15,58), its standard deviation is stated 2,60(S=2,60) . According to these results, statistically significant difference(t=3,30,p<0,05) was found between those who went preschool and those who didn't in the subcategory of Nutritional Habit. When kids live with obese people in their family, their risk of being obese is high .This situation may result from preschool period children's taking parents or other family members as a model while forming their Nutritional Habit. To prevent obesity of Children ,parents' adiposity state should be checked and precautions should be taken(Yabancı and ark.2009).That's why nutritional habit given in preschool has an important place in fighting against the obesity which is one of the ever-increasing problems of our country.

Results and Suggestions

Results

This study of compilation which takes as a subject how and which habits will be given to the preschool period children, emphasizes on the behaviors that should be turned into habit. It is displayed how important preschool education is for obtaining habits. Our Habits are behaviors that affect our society deeply. It is not accidental to make a mention of eating habit, Toilet habit or Cleaning habit even when describing a nationality. We should ensure that the habits which we think they are affecting the society should be given to the society and in this way we should hand down these nice habits to the next generation. As long as every parent and teacher is aware of this, they will never be a wrong model to kids. Children growing with right models will grow up as an individual having good habits and they will live healthier and happier life. Period of 0-6 age range named as preschool period is one of the most critical period of life in which development and growing is in the fastest phase. It is known that habits ,skills and knowledge obtained in this period has continuing effects on future years of life. We need a systematic training in obtaining some habits, shaping our lives. Preschool educational institutions were established to give this systematic training in a planned and scheduled way to the individuals. When the survey results were considered, there is a scientifically significant difference between 1st grade students who went preschool and those who didn't. In other words ,habits which are essential to be obtained, such as Cleaning Habit(Skin, face, hand, food, hair, mouth, dental),dressing habit, sleep and rest habit, toilet habit ,the habit of obeying social rules were obtained by Students who went to the Preschool and result of success in obtaining these habits were significant. It shows that preschool education makes a positive contribution to the process of individuals' habit obtaining.

Suggestions

Following the results of this study, we emphasized that how important preschool period is for children to gaining habits and these habits will be more permanent with planned and systematic training. Thus, we can give some habits more permanently to our kids under the roof of a preschool educational institutions in the preschool period which is the most critical period for habit gaining. Due to limited opportunity and time, this study was done based on short term observation and with a small sample for serving as an example. If the education given in preschool institutions will be examined with systematic observation ranging to several years. The results obtained may be more reliable and valid. Despite everything, Parents and teachers of students going preschool should cooperate to benefit from the Preschool period known as golden years of life in the most effective way because practice of habits training given in preschool is performed in family environment. For this reason, Parents' following a way of training which is promoter to the habit education given in the school, will be helpful. When the result of the study is considered, it is seen that preschool education is significant in giving some favorable habits. Instead of training only in the preschool education institutions, Habits may be given in home and social life by carrying out different education programs with parents. This is directly proportionate to the importance given to the preschool educational institutions. Therefore, % 100 Schooling can be achieved with Preschool education's being included in compulsory education.

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Transformation from Teacher-Centered To Subject-Centered Mathematics Education

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Abstract

Collective learning and multiplying understandings are some of the phenomena which my students and I have experienced in a mathematics classroom a few semesters back. In this paper, I will attempt to ground these classroom experiences in the complexity theory of teaching and learning as outlined by Davis & Sumara (2007), and try to describe how the complexity theory of teaching and learning, in turn, informed my classroom practices. I will also outline some alternative ideas based on a post-modern perspective with several focus points on the concepts of connectedness, non-linearity, holarchy, and creating spaces for an inclusive community of learners.

Keywords.

Introduction

The perpetual fear of the unknown and uncertainty, and the comfort of the known and familiar certainty combined together create the basis for the Western obsession with control, which is aimed at eliminating uncertainty (Quinn, 1995). Tentacles of this obsession with control pervade at many levels and in a number of aspects of our society. Needless to say, this obsession with control dominates our educational system and tightly grasps our classrooms as well. Most teachers, in general, are very reluctant and afraid of letting go of control in their classrooms. Teacher identities and desire for control in classrooms are often tied in together. According to Scott (2008), three broad categories are proposed for teacher identities. These proposed teacher identities can be outlined as retrospective, with strong classification and framing tendencies; prospective, with strong concerns for efficiency, and decentered identities, with either instrumental or therapeutic tendencies. Decentered teachers identities situate teachers in principled discourses about the purpose of education, and are inclusive in nature (Scott, 2008). A decentered teacher identity is one of the facets of the notion of control in a classroom environment.

The power to control or to have a control in a classroom environment or a classroom community can be perceived as having some security or feeling more secure in the classroom. However, the idea of controlling a classroom community tightly, in turn, creates an apparent dualistic distinction between the controller, the teacher, and the controlled, the student. As a possible result of this dualistic distinction, and rigid boundaries between the students and the teachers in a classroom created by our desire to have control, several issues and concerns including, but not limited to, mutual trust, respect, cooperation, and creativity might emerge, and negatively affect the growth of the students and the teacher, individually and the group, collectively.

My own narrative in terms of how I was to teach a calculus course is, in essence, somewhat similar to, but yet based on a deeper and more personal dilemma than that of the narratives described by Meier & Rishel (1998), who express their narratives for having a desire to “do something different” regarding teaching their calculus course. I suspect my narrative can be traced back to a bifurcation point in my teaching limit cycle of “doing the same.” According to the systems theory, when or how a bifurcation point occurs cannot be precisely predicted. When small changes are fed back into a complex, non-linear system at some point the interruption of a limit cycle and subsequent bifurcation point(s) occur. I suspect that as a result of personal reflections on my studies of systems theory, several feedback loops have been forming in terms of my teaching practices. I felt strongly, in the sense of Palmer’s (2007) notion of “divided no more”, about changing how I was teaching calculus and transform the classroom environment of which my students and I were to be a part. My personal need and the subsequent decision to live “divided no more” are centered on the concept of theory informing practice, not on the intent of assaulting or criticizing my colleagues, whom I happen to notice, when walking in the hallways, engaged in transmitting information in lecture-and-listen classroom settings. But it is rather an observation of, at

a personal level, how strong and powerful it can be to name and claim one's identity and integrity. I have once come across a phrase which read "there is nothing more powerful than an idea whose time has come." Although I have often pondered, and time to time reflected on this phrase, I realize that only now I can truly relate to the feelings of the person who might have articulated these feelings so eloquently.

According to Catalano (1995), any transformation from a teacher-centered classroom is considered to be a fundamental change, and that it will meet with resistance in several ways. Resistance from some colleagues can be expressed as a judgment that any classroom other than a teacher-centered classroom must be without sufficient rigor. Since most of the teachers have received their formal training in the teacher-center model, many teachers tend to believe that they should certainly teach as they were taught in order to have rigor. Catalano (1995) asserts that far too often rigor is the last refuge for ineffective teaching. One of the aims of sharing my experience of the calculus classroom environment in this paper is based on the Green's (1988) concept of going from a personal sphere to a public sphere in the hopes of reaching other colleagues, teachers, and individuals to form a community of congruence that offer mutual support and opportunity to develop a shared vision.

Literature Review and Background

Generally, the content in calculus courses is linearly and hierarchically ordered as to start with limits, then in detail to discuss derivatives, and to end the course with integral calculus. I propose to dispute the conventional curricular approach and its implied assumptions regarding teaching calculus via lecture-and-listen mode as a sequence of disjoint topics padded with a series of techniques, and offer a different vantage point. The conventional approach of lecture-and-listen mode of teaching calculus might lead students to view calculus as a fragmented list of formulae and procedures taught in isolation without any interconnectedness established among the main ideas and concepts. This particular view of calculus created and promoted by the current lecture-and-listen classroom practices impresses upon our students, while they are in the classroom and still long after, an image of calculus as a disconnected collection of formulae. Needless to say, this distorted image of calculus also may lead to the common sentiment about calculus among general populace that can be summarized by the following passage taken from Peterson (1998), who states that "[t]here is something about calculus that can evoke a mixture of both wonder and dread."

Many teaching methods used in calculus, especially prior to the calculus reform movement of the 1990s, can be qualified to be structuralistic in nature (Tall, 1996). The structuralistic approach is based on the principle of transmission, especially via lecture-and-listen mode, of a logical structure within a scientific system. The popularity of this approach is attributed by Doorman (2005) to the fact that the theories themselves seem elegant and compact description of what is to be learned. Even though a structuralistic approach to the teaching of calculus combined with lecture-and-listen classroom practices and deficit-based evaluations seem to be "less messy" in comparison to what I propose here, the problems associated with a structuralistic approach to teaching of calculus are well documented in the literature (Doorman, 2005). The "perfect" lesson plans created, implemented according to a script, and transmitted in a lecture-and-listen classroom environment tend to be mostly at the expense of the potential contingencies of the classroom as a collective learning community. It is important to qualify the last sentence, however, by indicating that I am not taking a dualistic stance and imply that lesson plans are useless and should be discarded for good. Organizing learning in a classroom environment is just as important and requires a considerable amount of advance preparation on the part of the teacher. The concept of intermittence as outlined by Briggs & Peat (1999) in their *Seven Lessons of Chaos* to intertwine the two approaches as needed seems to be what we may consider here in lieu of a dualistic either or approach.

Theoretical Framework

It is very difficult for researchers to communicate the nature of new ideas without a framework on which to base new classroom practices. A framework can also be a useful tool in helping teachers understand the types of thinking that need to be fostered in students. Even though it was originally developed in the fields of mathematics and physical sciences, complex systems theory has been also widely proposed as a new theoretical framework in social and cognitive sciences, including language learning (Harshbarger, 2007). For the most part, the classroom practices presented here are grounded in the complexity theory of teaching and learning as outlined by Davis & Sumara (2007), Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al (2004), and Davis, Sumara and Luce-Kapler (2000).

Complexity science points out that hardly any event or activity can be reduced to being just a "thing" in isolation. Teaching, being not an exception, is not reducible to what a teacher does and/both does not do in a classroom. As a result of this realization about the nature of teaching, there seems to be a need to make a

commitment to an open and inclusive pedagogical approach which values students' opinions, seeks and welcomes students' contributions to the classroom community of learners. This open and inclusive pedagogy was described by Davis & Sumara (2007) as being "oriented toward unimagined and not-yet-imaginable possibilities." Davis & Sumara were not simply interested in finding a neat encapsulation. Their interest was to integrate some of the elements of complexity theory into the teacher's role in learning, and outline "some of the specific guidelines that complexity thinking offers on how to enhance the possibilities of collectives by ensuring that the conditions for complex-self organization are in place". Next, I will proceed to offer several segments of my own calculus classroom experiences, and try to tie them to the framework offered by Davis & Sumara (2007).

Complexity of Teaching and Learning Calculus

The classroom environment, which I envision, is based on small group learning strategies and activities specifically designed to foster the main traits of an integrated calculus curriculum in order to develop students' understandings through sustained interaction, conversation, and discussion. This vision, in essence, aligns nicely also with Doll's (1993) post-modernist and process oriented ideas of curriculum built from the base of a constructivist and experiential epistemology. The commitment on my part to an open and inclusive pedagogical approach, which values students' opinions, seeks, and welcomes students' contributions to the classroom community of learners, needed to be communicated to my students during the first class meeting. Not being used to any other type of an environment except the traditional lecture-and-listen mode, it took some time for my students to begin to realize that an unconventional approach and a classroom environment were shaping up. I also paid specific attention to carefully fostering, and developing a sense of belonging, mutual respect and responsibility by designing collective experiences such as collaborative activities and group presentations based on those activities. According to Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al. (2004), the aims of schooling, from a point of view of complexity research, shift our mindset to thinking in terms of being parts of larger social, cultural, technological, and ecological systems. I was committed to have a classroom environment toward helping individuals contribute and, maybe more importantly, have a sense of belonging to a community of learners. Breaking away from the role of teacher as a figure with centralized control and increasing neighbor and group interactions were some of the critical ideas on which I needed to focus. I believe that a genuine sense of belonging, on the part of students and teacher, and being responsible to and for one another are the necessary conditions for more ambitious learning in a classroom environment.

Based on what Whitehead (1929) suggested on avoiding an education filled with inert ideas, I decided that I should be introducing the few and important main ideas of calculus into my students' education, and as a community of learners, including myself as the teacher and a part of that community, investigate these main ideas as they are "thrown into every imaginable possible combination", as well as the relations among these main ideas. I decided not to sweat the small stuff or have us bogged down in the proofs or in the rote memorization of formulae. I took up Whitehead (1929) on his suggestion and I did abandon "the fatal habit of cramming the students with theorems, which they do not understand and will never use." For example, the concept of rate of change and the differentiation of a few fundamental polynomials, $\sin x$ and $\cos x$ were achieved easily with the aid of geometry. This approach, to which I affectionately and colloquially refer as "don't sweat the small stuff", resulted in creating spaces to discuss concepts which really influence thought.

Palmer (2007) argued for a pedagogical circle to be neither teacher-centered nor student-centered, but subject-centered. I considered this subject-centered pedagogical circle to be very suitable to our classroom environment, and I shared this idea with my students. It should be noted, however, that a subject-centered pedagogical circle does not by any means imply that students are ignored. On the contrary, a subject-centered approach, as Palmer (2007) envisions it, has strong implications for opening spaces where students can have an ongoing conversation with the subject and with each others. In order to open such spaces, I, as a teacher, realized that I needed to break away from the old habit of "covering the field" via lecture-and-listen mode and to strive to teach more with less. Hence, I aim to create spaces and simultaneously investigate the subject in a much deeper level than just at a glance.

Following some of the practices suggested by Wheatley (1991) on establishing learning environments conducive for students to construct their own mathematics in social settings, I used, in particular, problem centered learning with the intention of providing opportunities for learners to share their ideas for solutions both within small groups and within the whole community of learners in the classroom by way of group presentations. I encouraged students to select the problems they would like to investigate from a variety of sources including, but not limited to, the pool of problems I have collected and created over the years. Several of the students were also in a variety of engineering courses and chose problems from their respective engineering

fields of study. I also encouraged students to form their own small groups consisting of two or three people. By encouraging students to make those decisions regarding their learning and classroom environment, I aimed to break away from the deeply entrenched modernist assumption that the teacher should be in control of the classroom, learning, and the outcomes. Doll (1993) views self-organization to be the central concept around which a post-modern education emerges. Following up on this idea Fleener (2002) points out that “self-organization occurs not when there is a control...” The modernist assumption that the teacher should be in control is so entrenched among us as individuals and in society that it took some time for a good number of my students to get comfortable with the “unconventional” approach. Three weeks into the semester, a couple of my students were disturbed enough by this emerging classroom environment to ask me, on two different occasions; one privately and one publicly in class, if “this was going to be how the class would be taught the entire semester and if I was going to start teaching them.” Upon sharing my response, as well as my philosophy, which was, in essence, that we were all learners and teachers in a collective community of learners, the two students unfortunately switched over to another section of the course. A third student, about six or seven weeks into the semester, indicated being misadvised into enrolling into calculus without indeed needing the course, and dropped the course.

Breaking away from the deeply entrenched modernist assumption that the teacher should be in control of the classroom required me to be flexible, and also stay responsive to the needs and the contributions of my students. For example, in investigating one of the student selected problems we all embarked on a grand tour of ideas from critical points and inflection points to implementation of rational zeros theorem and onto synthetic division and Descartes’ rule of sign change, and finally to Newton’s Method all in only one problem and over a period of several days of immersion. I thought of this particular segment of our classroom experience to be a vivid illustration and a strong evidence of a widely accepted learning theory based on social constructivism, which views learning as building schemas, picking up concepts, procedures, skills, and making sense of these by establishing links among them over time (Begg, 2004). The collective sense of accomplishment generated, as a result of such an experience of teaching and learning, among the members of the community of learners would not have been possible if the students were not to have a say in selecting the problems which they would want to investigate. I certainly would not have picked such a “messy” problem had I been following a linear lesson plan that was teacher controlled and objective-driven. As Davis & Sumara (2007) indicated, “the lesson plan had to be non-linear to allow for unexpected changes.” The predictability and certainty we have grown accustomed to expecting from a mechanistic system is not a valid expectation or assumption of the behavior of a complex learning system, as was the case for this particular community of learners in a calculus classroom. Hence, it is only natural to have neither reasonable predictability nor any certainty in the classroom, unless the classroom as a learning system is forced to be a closed system and made to yield to control and prediction. Davis & Sumara (2007) indicated that the living systems, as well as human systems, “resist prediction because they constantly interact with one another and actively learn and adapt.” If a system such as a community of learners in a calculus class is forced to yield to control and prediction, the life support for the system is significantly severed and the collective learning process and growth as a community of learners gradually diminish.

I would like to offer another brief segment of my own calculus classroom experiences, which I think may be a parallel to the example of “multiplying understandings” offered by Davis & Sumara (2007) who posed the question “What is multiplication?” As a short essay assignment, I posed the question “What is a derivative?” to my twenty or so calculus students, all engineering majors. They were given about 15-20 minutes to generate their responses. Generally speaking, I found that most of my students struggled not with a response to the question, but rather with the question itself, as was the case for students with whom Davis & Sumara were working. Several of my students were insistent on giving an example of a particular function, expression, etc. and were wanting to illustrate the derivative numerically, graphically or symbolically (i.e., process of finding the derivative-differentiation). They were having difficulties writing about what a derivative was, because they were focusing on the how aspect, on the skills, rather than the what aspect of the derivative as a concept.

The diverse educational backgrounds of the students in our classroom ranged from two or three students already with B.S. degrees to a few sophomores, and a few freshman students just out of high school. Davis and Sumara (2007) described internal redundancy, the complement of diversity, as a common ground of participants in subject matter as well as culture, language, history and expectation. At times in our calculus classroom some level of the internal redundancy, especially in subject matter, was necessary in order for this diverse community of learners to be able to contribute to the collective learning system individually, as well as a group, collectively. The development of some common vocabulary, concepts, meaning-makings and experiences are necessary for meaningful interactions to take place in the classroom environment. For example, a certain redundancy in factoring of algebraic expressions and the function notation are required prior to discussing the essential ideas of calculus. More often than not, this redundancy is to be (re)-established at the beginning of many calculus classes.

I have found myself having to do just that a couple of times during the semester in order to break off the limit cycle in the collective self-organization so that the classroom system could bifurcate into a different level of the evolution of teaching and learning.

In terms of the problem selection and assignments, it was not certainly a case of no guidelines, but the nature of the guidelines was not constraining or restrictive. The guidelines were provided for what possibilities were there to investigate as opposed to what was not acceptable. Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al. (2004) articulated this paradoxically as “enabling constraints.” The students were to prepare their problem solving presentations to illustrate their understanding and share their findings; they were not to do just anything. And the students had the freedom within the limitations set out in the guiding rules. When these guiding rules are organized appropriately, in neither too narrow nor too open ways, they allow for unpredictable and often imaginative outcomes (Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al., 2004). I was not expecting at all, but pleasantly surprised, that a group of my students did develop their presentations as video clips and loaded them up to YouTube.

By way of having frequent problem solution presentations in our classroom environment, I aimed to allow opportunities for the different ideas and thought patterns of my students around the subject matter to interact with one another in a dynamic and non-linear state. These types of collective dynamics, in which the individual ideas bump into and bounce off each other, were identified by Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al. (2004) as “neighboring interactions.” They pointed out that these dynamic interactions offered the very real potential for innovative and insightful knowledge to emerge. Based on these dynamic interactions, several ideas for various types of formulation and notation were developed collectively. For example, an unconventional formulation for the Chain rule emerged, as opposed to the conventional function composition (i.e., $(f \circ g)' = f' \circ g \cdot g'$) and the Leibniz (i.e., $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$) notations. Instead, the Chain rule emerged from the dynamic interaction of ideas during the classroom presentations was based on the notions of inner and outer functions, and was somewhat unconventionally formulated as $O'(I(x)) \cdot I'(x)$. The problem solution presentations were done in a group format with two students presenting two problems. This particular format of presentations seemed to encourage students not only to combine several of their ideas together but also to incorporate the ideas of others as well. I regard these diverse contributions as forming a considerable basis for the generation of knowledge among the community of learners. I would tend to agree with Bowsfield, Breckenridge, Davis, et al. (2004) that this particular approach to generating knowledge among the community of learners by the community of learners shifts the role of teacher from a controller to an integral participator in a recursive process of opening up spaces for not-yet-imaginable new possibilities while exploring the existent spaces.

Conclusions and Implications for Future Research

In this study, I investigated an alternative approach to a lecture-and-listen mode mathematics classroom. The alternative approach I explored was based on the complexity theory of teaching and learning. Even though one can never be sure of one’s influences, I hope, in accord with the butterfly effect concept, that the experiences I shared here may be taken up by other mathematics classrooms and amplified until it transforms the entire community of mathematics classrooms into something new.

We need to be mindful of and responsive to the experiences that frame learners’ cognitive developments in a classroom environment. Teaching mathematics solely based on rules and as purely mechanical and repetitive drill exercises will neither engage nor interest learners in our efforts to support and sustain a community of learners in a classroom environment. Mathematical content knowledge for teachers also plays an important role in helping learners’ cognitive development. Being prepared as a teacher with a substantial amount of knowledge base in mathematics instills confidence in teachers to move away freely from a scripted lesson plan and venture into exploring the unknown territories of mathematical topics with the students. The explorations into these unknown borderland territories are best illustrated for me by the Mandelbrot fractal set metaphor articulated by Fleener (2002). Treading through the very fine border between the known and unknown territories of the Mandelbrot set provides a vivid representation of a post-modernist mathematics classroom in which teaching and learning takes place in the borderland between the known and unknown territories of various mathematical ideas and concepts.

There are ample amount of teaching and learning activities in the literature with an emphasis on developing an appreciation for and deeper understanding of various mathematics concepts among students and pre-service teachers. On the other hand, creation of one’s own material, albeit a challenge, is a much needed process, especially if one desires to seek further insight. However, it is important to realize that there are no best practices or an ideal set of activities. A suitable set of activities for one particular group at a given time might be

completely inappropriate at another time, even for the same group, let alone being inappropriate for another group at another time.

Assessment is considered by many researchers to be an integral part of any curriculum development. The traditional deficit based assessment practices and exam questions seem to be focusing much more on the final product. Re-conceptualizing of assessment practices, which focus on and reward for the process and progress just as much as the final product, as well as reflecting on what we value and assessing what we value need to be an integral part of the classroom environment. The accidental and intentional characters of teaching suggest a Janus-faced like aspect for the teaching profession. These two characters of teaching are to be considered not as an either/or setting but as a both/and circumstance.

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Design is Our Nature Disseminating Design Practices in K12 Education

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Abstract

Creativity and innovation matter in today's global economy. Yet diversity of human creativity is lost as students drop out of school and disengage from our educational systems. To ensure responsiveness and resiliency, teacher education needs new pedagogy to connect students' tacit knowledge with the essential skills necessary for productive and purposeful lives. Teachers need adaptable assessment methods and agile approaches to contemporize curriculum to retain human creativity. Design connects traditional subjects with real practices and integrates individual's creativity with possibilities. It delivers motivation and passion with productivity. Design As Nature Workshops support teachers as designers with introduction of hands on activities, new 21st century STEAM skills and eLearning virtual field trips, digital interactivity and global connections. The eLearning designopedia, NEXT.cc, disseminates design opportunities networking k12 to college nurturing imagination, enhancing learning moments and improving outcomes.

Keywords. Creativity, Innovation, Design Education, Teacher Education, 21st Century Learning

Introduction

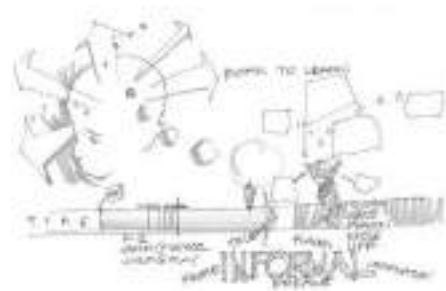


Figure 1: We are born to learn. NEXT.cc 2014

WE ARE BORN DESIGNERS

We are born to learn. We are born to create. We are born designers. Our brains through 7 million years and 350,000 generations have been wired with over one hundred billion neurons set to learn 24 hours a day. Inside we hold the repository of everything human- the skills that have developed and the music, writing, dance, art and stories that have been told. All of this is ready to be awakened in our imagination. Scientists now know that parts of our brain lie waiting to be triggered in certain stages of our life by certain events; if we miss these triggers much of the potential to awaken this imagination disappears. Before children sit in desks in school to learn, they trigger imagination through everyday play, exploration and problem solving. They learn on their own through informal learning, or the tacit knowledge that each of us brings to light by who we are, the talents we have, the people we know, the places we visit, the music we listen to and the dreams we dream.



Figure 2: Nine Scales of Human Intention, NEX.T.cc

WE ARE ALL CREATIVE

Our research celebrates education's need to nurture curiosity and imagination with a mandate to connect children's informal learning with directed instruction to motivate life long learners and engaged citizens. It is founded on the fact that creativity is an inherent human trait that knows no specific, race, creed, age or income. It respects education's intent to support each individual's potential for a life of purpose. This approach, prefaced years ago by Dr. Howard Gardner demands that teachers be equipped with a variety of strategies and techniques to choreograph learning for each individual (Gardner 1983). Design is human intention and forms the basis for how humans evolve, create and coexist in the world. Most people live in designed worlds. Many people spend ninety percent of their lives indoors surrounded by designed objects, leaving to take a designed object to another environment designed by someone, somewhere, sometime. Our research aims at increasing awareness of the necessity of design learning and disseminating design opportunities (curriculum, pedagogy and assessments) to reach teachers (and their students). As Herbert A. Simon, pioneer of computer science and artificial intelligence writes, "Everyone designs who devises course of action aimed at changing existing situations into preferred ones." This, for most of us, is a life of purpose.

The need for design learning is great. Design learning connects potential of each student with purpose or opportunities for successful contribution to the world. Unfortunately the majority of United States population is denied design. It is not introduced in K12 education (Davis, 2008). Currently only three states have art and design standards (Wisconsin, Michigan and New Jersey). Most teachers have never been exposed to the creative design fields that make up the built environment. Meredith Davis, author of *Design As A Catalyst for Learning* reports that design education is (was) basically non existent in the US (Davis, 2008). Her NEH study discovered that K12 educators were not trained to introduce design as an investigative research tool critical to human ecology. Design, if it was introduced, was simply aesthetic and formal rather than the messy confluence of investigation and iteration, trial and error. Less than half of middle school students have access to art, much less design, instruction. Music, drama and art budgets are among the first to be cut in terms of time and budgets. In addition, almost half of US children are bussed to school and bussed home afterwards omitting exploring the outdoors except in diminished short spurts during recess on denatured asphalt playgrounds. Where is responsibility for the built and natural environments, human well-being and sustainable future cultivated? Where and when is all education environmental(Orr, 2004)? Where and when in schools is creativity nurtured and allowed to flourish?

Every day thousands of students in the United States drop out of school. Our current educational system, forged in the 19th century, is based more on directed instruction than on connection to informal learning or each child's interest, talents and potential. Teaching emphasizes assessments and grades rather than on nurturing passion to learn, play and create (Wagner, 2012). Education is, in its current common core state, with all good

intentions, flattening human creative potential and diversity to solve problems facing our sustainable future. Other countries such as New Zealand are shifting effective teaching from delivery of instruction to make learners fit into a system of testing assessment to building an education system and curriculum around the potential of the learner (Bolstad & Gilbert, 2012). In addition, learners develop desire and aptitude for continuous learning even after school. They are equipped with cultural and linguistic diversity in preparation for global practices.

Americans for the Arts report that if a child fails even one class in middle school they are 50% more likely to drop out of high school making the middle school years formative to success in school and possibly in life. In support of nurturing creativity, they report that students who take art in middle school are four times as likely to be successful in high school (AFA, 2012, p. 03). Students with creativity education are more likely to attend college. They are more likely to succeed in the workplace and in life. Education needs to embrace creativity allowing students to use what they know (AFA, 2012). In addition, 93% of Americans believe that the arts are key to a well-rounded education (AFA, 2005, p. 23). As or more important is the finding that 72% of employers site creativity as an important ingredient for new hires (AFA, 2012, p.13).

Sir Ken Robinson in *Changing Education Paradigms* (RSA Animate, 2011) reports that while almost all young children claim to be creative the numbers drop off drastically by middle school and high school. In addition Americans for the Arts report that arts education is declining most rapidly in underserved populations (AFA, 2011). Our research in over one hundred workshops with teachers reveals what IDEO founders, Tom and David Kelly, and many Design Thinking Entrepreneurs report, “We’ve been so excited to find at IDEO and the d.school at Stanford that it turns out people are all kind of wildly creative.” (O’Leary, 2013). Moving learning from directed instruction to student led inquiry raises ‘the need to know’ and creates motivation in the classroom. Project Based Learning, another active learning strategy, cultivates student responsibility, ownership and choice in selecting projects to develop.



Figure 3: People of all age, income, race and creed, are creative. NEXT.cc 2014

DESIGN IS 21st CENTURY LIBERAL ARTS EDUCATION

Design introduces creativity and critical thinking. To be a designer, one naturally develops criticality. A charming example is presented in Expeditionary Learning’s Video, Austin’s Butterfly: Building Excellence in Student Work-Models, Critique and Descriptive Feedback(Berger 2010). First grade children are shown giving feedback about a student’s butterfly drawing. This process shows the ability of children to look more closely, form perceptions, offer critique and realize differences and excellence. Design is the continuous cycle of looking, developing perspective, forming feedback, changing course. It develops conceptualization, critical thinking and resilience. This introspection and careful looking of youth can be nurtured at any age.

More challenging is creativity and its messy, yet rigorous, investigation. It does not fit neatly into 50 minute periods that then must shift to another topic. Creativity flourishes on melding information from diverse fields and approaches, experimenting, exploring, testing and trialing. Designers call this ‘informed design’. New Next Generation Science Standards ask teachers to integrate engineering and technology into science education. While this is an exciting move for design, few teachers are equipped to work fluidly between physical modeling and testing and creative use of the broad band of new and emerging digital tools. This is the practice of STEAM by Design. The designing mind connects Dr. Howard Gardner’s Five Minds For The Future- Respectful, Synthesizing, Creative and Ethical (Gardner, 2006). Gardner writes about acquiring mastery in a discipline taking ten years; this matches with Gladwell’s “ten thousand hours’ for innovation (Gladwell, 2011). Design is always redesigning itself, looking to new tools and new ways of knowing. It demands continuous learning.

Design attaches itself to ever changing situations demanding resilient responses. Design incorporates creativity and critical thinking, messy investigations, material testing and construction of ideas and solutions. Design opens minds to life long learning.



Figure 4: The designing mind connects Gardner’s five minds for the future. NEXT.cc 2014

Design builds a work ethic. Design, in its approach to looking at the world, proposes the need to investigate, experiment, test and share ideas over a period of time with diverse audiences. It moves the imagination fluidly from divergent to convergent thinking conceptualizing ideas, responding to diverse criteria, synthesizing information and driving to share ideas and see ideas realized. The design process by its very nature builds perseverance and focus.

Design learning melds teaching with student led inquiry. As FutureLab and Microsoft’s Enquiring Minds report states, “...it is a distinctive approach to teaching and learning which takes seriously the knowledge, ideas, interests and skills that students bring into school” (Morgan, J., Williamson, B. Lee, Tash & Facer, K., 2010, p. 9). Design introduces systems thinking, or the connection and influence of at least the next smaller and next larger scale in subjects. Systems thinkers expand specific empirical knowledge to local and then global practices, pulling learning from a point in time to a horizontal stretching of information, association and understanding. Design introduces systems thinking as it considers complex information from diverse fields as interconnected.

Design employs dynamic processes that exercise imagination, challenge critical thinking, develop and mature skills. Design in K12 leads to many areas of expertise for life long learning and practice. Some emerging design fields employ high school graduates directly. Some design professions require additional schooling and internships. Design practice becomes a life long acquisition of knowledge and expertise.

Design cultivates engagement. As teachers and students become engaged in projects they communicate and collaborate. They learn together. Teachers become facilitator and life long learners. Learning together builds community. As students invest in projects, they want to share their projects and activate change. Design, by necessity, is the 21st century liberal arts education. It moves from what one knows to what one can do with that knowing. The Design Learning Network started by Doris Wells-Papanak draws upon Dr. Betty Garner’s cognitive research in “Getting to Got It!”. For K12 learning they both calls this the “Learn Think Do” approach. This approach, spread out over interconnected steps of exploration, experimentation, conceptualization, ideation, iteration, prototyping, etc., is the core of design.

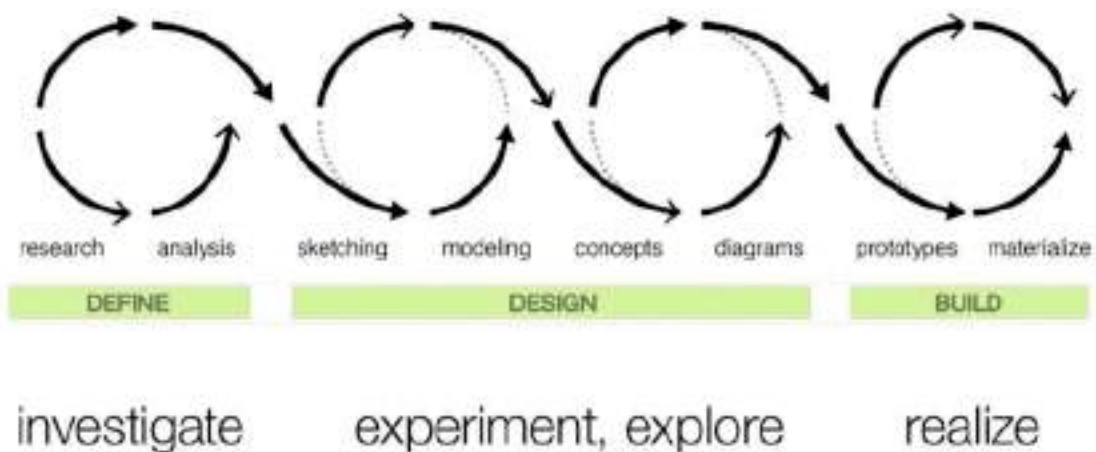


Figure 5: The define, design, build process. NEXT.cc 2014

Design opens the environment, both the built and natural, as fertile exploration and experimentation ground for 21st century K12 pedagogy. Drawing upon Dr. Howard Gardner's Five Minds for the Future, design integrates the disciplinary mind, the respectful mind, the synthesizing mind, the creating mind, and the ethical mind (Gardner, 2006). Introducing what design is, what design does, and why design is important with place based activities draws individuals informal learning knowledge together with K12 directed instruction to establish the foundations for life long learning (Keane & Keane, 2009).

A 2012 National Governor's Association Report promotes the importance of design linking art with science with the environment for cultural sustainability. **New Engines of Growth: Five Roles for Arts, Design and Culture (NGA, 2010)** presents the importance of art and creativity education in K12 as a driver to produce students who will be better prepared in the workforce. They also predict that art, culture and design will form creative knowledge clusters that can catalyze cultural districts and initiate community revitalization. Designing design education to nurture imagination across broad bands of population strengthens the collaborative culture of communities with direct affinities to specific places and specific schools.

DESIGNING TEACHER EDUCATION

Designing education changes teacher education, assessment and curriculum. The Grattan Report details how countries that score the highest in PISA standards have revamped teacher education (Grattan Institute, 2012). To educate for resiliency, adaptability and creativity, teacher education needs design pedagogy, new assessment methods and new approaches. The report finds that the top four ranking countries have created a "strong culture of teacher education, research, collaboration, mentoring, feedback and sustained professional development" (Grattan Institute, 2012). Not surprisingly, this sounds very much like the culture of a design studio, where aspiring students collaborate, research, receive and give mentoring and feedback and begin sustained professional development!

The Partnership for 21st Century Skills Framework (Partnership 2009), asks that global themes such as the environment, health and well-being, and the economy be presented with traditional school subjects challenging application of students' baseline knowledge to global issues. These complex issues face society today and need to be present in everyday teaching. Developing a personal affinity with place and continued exposure to site specific outdoor experiences are key in developing 21st century eco literacy. Designers are involved in mediating human interactions with constructed systems in the natural environment.

Dr. Yong Zhao's book, *World Class Learners: Educating Creative and Entrepreneurial Students*, champions the importance of second language instruction. Second languages introduce students to other cultures and other economies. The Fulbright Program, founded by the late Senator William Fulbright in 1946 requested cross cultural pollination and exchange; encouragingly, the percentage of students studying abroad has grown to 10% of the US College Student population in the last few years. Design offers avenues to become acquainted with other cultures through study, travel, and work abroad. Design offers access to international individuals and practices that are responding to specific culture, place and climate. Teachers (and their students) given the opportunity to take virtual field trips, play geography games, 'travel' to other other cities, meet careers and classes on the opposite side of the globe, expand curiosity about other while broadening understanding of human diversity.



Figure 6: 21st century learning introduces systems relationships between our economy, culture and environment. NEXT.cc

In addition, a growing awareness of our planet's changing climate charges the need for heightened environmental skills and sensibilities. Digital tools and methodologies of inquiry can be incorporated in the classroom and outside of on the school campus. New tools for making and learning contribute new ways of knowing. Design practices are continuously involved in developing and utilizing new tools for research, iteration and construction. With ubiquitous cell phone use and home computers on the rise, schools need to be wired to allow access to learning online. Teachers can be empowered to use technologies with friendly, non-intimidating introduction to creative incorporations of technology in everyday instruction.

The EU Open Discovery Space (ODS) project addresses the challenge of modernizing school education by connecting teachers, students, parents and policymakers in creation of a pan- European e-learning environment Their goal is to promote more flexible and creative ways of learning to improve the way educational content is produced, accessed and used. Opening up institutional learning to the public, with free access to tools, knowledge and systems, is a step in the right direction to nurturing creativity. The power of the web can deliver high quality learning curriculum directly to individual teachers and students. The Internet of Things (for children) asks collaborators to share openly resources, methodologies, strategies, digital knowledge and curriculum to introduce everyday use of technology in humane ways. Design of learning systems is a way of facilitating open and generous sharing of knowledge.

DISSEMINATING DESIGN OPPORTUNITIES

While education seems to separate art as creativity education from traditional subjects such as language, math, science, etc., global design practices work cohesively across subjects to create systems, products, experiences and environments. Architecture is an integrating discipline that does not separate art from science, language from health, math from the environment. Design fields, or fields that produce what humans needs, use and celebrate, do not treat creativity as an elective.

Next Generation Science Standards' new focus on engineering practices is transformative. The integration of engineering and technology into the structure of science education will raise engineering and design to the same level as scientific inquiry. Design, like engineering, imagines the future through an iterative process with parameters. (NEXT.cc).

Our research builds upon our design experience teaching art, architecture and design students at the undergraduate and graduate levels at The School of the Art Institute of Chicago and the University of Wisconsin Milwaukee. As architects, trained and experienced in design that includes science with art, technology with engineering, the natural with the built, a trans disciplinary approach to teaching and learning is our nature. We started a Young Architects Club at the University of Wisconsin Milwaukee where inner city youths were bussed to the campus for a Saturday workshop. We drew with them, introduced vocabulary, tested materials and explored modeling and building. We introduced built environment education in elementary, middle and high school career days in local public school districts. Quick subject introduction followed by hands on activities spurred curiosity, interest, and excitement about project based learning (outside of the art room). In addition, when a local school referendum called for maintenance and replacement, we worked with students, teachers and community professionals to raise awareness of reusable energy sources, best storm water management practices, urban agriculture beds, outdoor learning experiences and the importance of prioritizing the environment across the curriculum. Our high school received a Green and Healthy School Certification for installing solar panels, photovoltaics, bioswales and a water filtering athletic field.



Figure 7: Project based workshop for ESL students without access to art instruction.

DESIGNING ACCESS TO DESIGN THINKING AND MAKING

“A good education system should provide all who want to learn with access to available resources at any time in their lives...” Illich (1971)

NEXT.cc is an eLearning designopedia created by principals, teachers, architects, artists and college art, art education, design and architecture students (MIT, Harvard, NYIT, CCAC, Parsons, SAIC, UWM). Available 24/7, it introduces informal learning curriculum connected with art, design, science and environment practices to design denied teachers (and students) in remote classrooms. Participants move from the computer into the community and learn about themselves, their neighbors, and their friends as they engage history and culture of place and explore sustainable design possibilities (NEXT.cc, 2014).



Figure 8: NEXT.cc introduces TOOLS, LANGUAGES, DISCOVERY, DESIGN Opportunities.

Blurring learning with play, work and fun, NEXT.cc's Journeys offer TOOLS, LANGUAGES, DISCOVERY and DESIGN activities connecting across the consilience of nine connected scales - nano, pattern, object, space, architecture, neighborhood, urban, region, world. Mixing standards assessed disciplinary core ideas, which previously dominated instruction, with science and engineering practices and cross cutting concepts allows students to generate personalized responses, test ideas and learn from convergent and divergent thinking. Self directed exploration of journeys awakens curiosity and supports imagination at work in creative applications in the classroom, on the school campus and out in the school community. Journeys link topically with virtual field trips, museums, institutions, and contemporary global practices bringing creative economies to remote classrooms all over the world.

Since 2007, we delivered over one hundred teacher and student workshops in the Midwest. We learned with the teachers the need to introduce digital tools in non-intimidating ways. We learned to connect design journeys and activities to required Art and Design and North American Environmental Education Standards. We connected Next Generation Science Standards to correlate with 21st century skills. We created cluster models of curriculum for schools. Cluster models create curricular opportunities for teachers of different subjects to join together to work as facilitators in assisting student led projects .



Figure 9: Design introduces trans disciplinary project learning that clusters work from two or more classes in projects connected to the community. NEXT.cc & DLI 2009.

Teachers became empowered to use creative digital tools to spark interest, play games and awake attention and build motivation. Teachers invested in place base project learning and raised appreciation of the value of connecting their teaching with the school community's culture, economy and environment. Teachers became life long learners and move from directed instructors to collaborative facilitators of students led inquiry. As follow up, we work with teachers to develop projects on the school grounds that introduce sustainable practices. We work with teachers to inspire projects specific to school communities that strengthen school culture. NEXT.cc's topical links generate excitement, raise enthusiasm and increase 21st century aptitudes. Teachers coordinated new journeys to expand their instruction and alternative assessments for short, medium and long-term projects. Teachers changed the choreography of the classroom.



Figure 10: Teachers are introduced to phased STEAM projects that blur the boundaries of learning, work, play and fun. NEXT.cc & ASM 2013.

NEXT.cc's integrative journeys deepen project research and connect real world careers for students. NEXT.cc combines visual, digital and hand skill development with vocabulary acquisition maturing students' abilities to create, communicate and collaborate. NEXT.cc becomes a weekly eLearning exploration of possibilities and practices informing student inquiry. Teachers and students continue free access to the design resources of NEXT.cc during homeroom, after school clubs, conservation and enrichment clubs. NEXT.cc is assigned over the summer for portfolio development.

TEACHERS ARE INVIGORATED WITH DESIGN PRACTICES

Teachers need first hand experience of design projects to gain confidence as creators, makers and problem solvers. Teachers need opportunities to find, analyze and apply knowledge from a range of curricular subjects to generate solutions to complex problems. Teachers need encouragement to connect classroom teaching with careers and industry partners in the school community. Teachers need introduction to easy to learn digital tools

and techniques to stay one step ahead of their students. Teachers need practice at developing design assessments for project based learning. The shift from grading correct answers to reflecting on outcomes and evaluating design takes practice. Most teachers have critical eyes and insights and can easily engage in critique of each others work. They understand and appreciate design's role in connecting with community and with current issues. They see that design allows for active learning opportunities.

After experiencing high energy hands on workshops with a series of design challenges, teachers report that they understand the relevancy in design learning. They enjoy the range of activities integral to thinking about design, brainstorming ideas, testing ideas and constructing ideas. They learn basic tools for initiating design thinking, comparing approaches, empathizing with users, evaluating outcomes. They can communicate their concepts and ideas. They are excited to use new digital tools and to become skilled in using them. Teachers move quickly from choreographer of instruction to coaches of learning.

CONCLUSION

Education plays a highly important role in creating a sufficient and sustainable economy. Design education, specifically, encourages teachers to look at their creative side and develop an innovative approach to their teaching. Teaching design encourages learning from the world, engaging the world and finding ways to improve the world. Using design as K12 methodology channels student led interest and experiences into ideas that inform the content and daily process of teaching and learning. A commitment to personalised learning, embracing diversity, rethinking learners' and teachers' roles, forging new partnerships — all fueled by disciplined innovation and new technologies — are identified as the key dimensions of a redesigned, connected and coherent 'learning system'. Teaching teachers and children design principles builds basic knowledge and confidence to become an involved citizen. Design for students involves not only a visual, artistic approach, but also a hands-on, **tactile** way of learning that puts students out into the world connecting with their interests and informal learning capabilities in the built and natural environments. By creating common knowledge of design, individuals evolve into educated adults that can confidently take part in designing their community through collaboration in addressing local and global issues.

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The Impact of Teaching Biomimicry to Enhance Thinking Skills for Students of Art Education in Higher Education

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Abstract

This paper studies the impact of teaching biomimicry to enhance thinking skills for students of art education in higher education. Descriptive, analytical and experimental methods are used in this research. The results of the study are expected to be beneficial for the development of students' performance in higher Education. The study sample consists of 30 students of the third level, batch 2012 – 2013, from the faculty of Education at the University of Khartoum: Republic of the Sudan.

Biomimicry has a number of major benefits. Firstly, it offers spiritual development as it is an area that enables us to meditate and appreciate God's creation. Secondly, this subject makes students realize that nothing is superfluous in nature: everything in nature has a purpose and a function. Thirdly, this subject can positively impact early year's education. The results showed that biomimicry has long-lasting effects skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking. Finally, these results indicated that biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills. This skill is crucial for today's visually dominant society. This research has a number of practical recommendations for example, teachers should be teaching the subject of biomimicry to students of art education in higher education.

Keywords. Teaching biomimicry, art education, higher education, thinking skills.

Introduction

Nature is inventive, synchronised and methodical. Furthermore, our natural world has stimulated and inspired human beings throughout history. Nature can teach mankind about various systems, materials, structures and designs. The term biomimicry stems from two Greek words 'Bios' which means life and 'Mimesis' that means imitation. The term biomimetics, which was coined by Otto H. Schmitt (Schmitt 1969), represents the studies and imitation of nature's methods, mechanisms and processes. Biomimicry involves emulating successes within the natural world and this is a growing area of research within fields such as architecture, design, electronics, biology and engineering. This multi-disciplinary approach operates on the basic belief that within its 3.8 billion year history, nature has already found solutions to a myriad number of problems.

Primitive human tribes and cultures were dependent on nature to provide them with food, clothing, medicine etc. Nowadays society seems reliant on the industrial world yet this often lacks sustainability and regeneration. Biomimicry is a new way of observing and appreciating nature. It introduces an era based not on what we can extract from the natural world, but on what we can learn from it (Benyus, 2002).

Life on Earth has evolved throughout its 3.8 billion years of existence. In comparison, humans have been present for only a tiny fraction of this time period. Excluding humans, Earth's inhabitants have endured billions of years of life without consuming their ecological resources. Species alive today hold the secret to survival. These species have learned how to survive, evolve, and adapt to their surroundings throughout time. Creating a built environment, which functions more like the natural world may address human caused problems such as the depletion of natural resources, global warming, pollution, overpopulation, starvation, etc. (Benyus, 1997).

Background

Janine Benyus coined the term “biomimicry” in 1997 when she published her book *Biomimicry: Innovation Inspired by Nature*. She created this term by combining bios, which refers to life or living things, and mimicry, which means to copy or emulate. Biomimicry simply means copying life.

Benyus describes biomimicry as “the conscience emulation of nature’s genius.” “Conscience” implies intent to integrate nature into your design process. “Emulation” suggests that biomimicry goes beyond mimicking nature’s shapes and forms; it is about extracting the best ideas and the strategies from nature and incorporating them in our designs. “Nature’s genius” reminds us that the forms, processes, and systems found in nature are truly ingenious compared to our own technologies. As Thomas Edison once said, “Until man duplicates a blade of grass, nature can laugh at his so-called scientific knowledge.”

For design practitioners, biomimicry is a sustainable design tool based on emulating strategies used by living things to perform functions our technologies need to perform – everything from creating color to generating energy. Biomimicry, like nature, is continually evolving and can help to improve designs. There are three levels of mimicry; the organism, behavior and ecosystem. Indeed, a crucial part of biomimicry is mimicking ecosystems as described by Benyus (1997) and Vincent (2007). Ecomimicry is a term that describes this mimicking process within design (Lourenci et al., 2004, Russell, 2004).

There are two main approaches to using biomimicry as a design process. These are design looking to biology or biology influencing design (Biomimicry Guild, 2007). Firstly, design looking to biology involves designers observing the natural world for solutions to their specific problems. What would nature do? An example of this approach is the Bionic Car. The prototype of this car was based on the aerodynamic boxfish. Due to biomimicry the car is more fuel-efficient as it mimics the boxfish. McKosky (2002) indicates that it is fundamental to consider the natural form, process and system that can be found naturally within nature and then mimic its process (McKosky, 2012).

Secondly, biology influences design which is reliant on architects/designers possessing an inherent understanding of biological/ecological research. For example, the self-cleaning ability of lotus flower was applied and utilized to enable buildings to be self-cleaning. Mimicking existing ecosystems and species provides a stimulating vision of our future world and the way in which humans’ lives can be intertwined with other habitats.

Innovation Inspired by Nature

Nature is the foremost superior designer. Janine Benyus 2002, is one of the leading researchers in the field of Biomimicry and she recognized that modern society is removed from nature compared to our descendants. In her book *Biomimicry: Innovation Inspired by Nature* Benyus proposes principles in her work that govern natural design and processes such as: Nature as Model; Nature as Measure and Nature as Mentor. Firstly, she suggests that biomimicry can be used as a model/design solution to solve human problems and rejuvenate our weathering world (Nature as model). Biomimicry is a new science that studies models within nature and then imitates or takes inspiration from these designs to solve human problems. Biomimicry can be used as a tool to create more sustainable design solutions. For example, consider the Eastgate Centre in Harare, Zimbabwe, which demonstrates biomimicry principles and is ecologically sensitive. This concrete structure has no conventional air-conditioning yet regulates itself by utilising design methods inspired by the self-cooling mounds of African termites. Learning from the termite model has helped humans create sustainable buildings.

Secondly, Biomimicry uses a standard (Nature as Measure) to evaluate the effectiveness of our concepts and designs. Nature can be viewed as a measure. Biomimicry uses an ecological standard to review the validity and reliability of our innovations. After 3.8 billion years of evolution nature has learned these three fundamental principles: what works; what is appropriate and what lasts. Nature has taught us that designs that work remain in use: they last. Finally, Nature is seen as a teacher, a mentor that enables us to view and appreciate nature (Benyus, 1997). This is an incredibly competent universe with an array of successful living examples freely available for us to learn from.

Nature's creatures and the texture of their skin can teach us a lot about life's genius. For example, the texture of sharkskin has provided design inspiration for medical technologists and even swimsuit designers. The texture of their skin is ingenious as it consists of dermal denticles or "little skin teeth" which serve a number of functions. Firstly, this texture is streamlined and the denticles result in water moving more effectively over the shark. Fraunhofer Institute developed a paint based on the textured skin of sharks that could be applied to planes and ships to make them more efficient. In addition, the designers of the Speedo Fatskin swimsuit took their

inspiration from nature as their design mimics a shark's skin, which enables it to reduce water drag hence making the swimmer quicker.

Secondly, sharkskin also proved to be an effective defense against bacteria. The texture can reduce the incidence of microorganisms and hospital-acquired infections such as MRSA. Dr Brennan and Sharklet technology demonstrated a biometric technology inspired by the texture of sharkskin. The impression/texture of these dermal denticles are organised in a diamond pattern with tiny riblets. They are deliberately created to inhibit the growth of microorganisms from settling.

In addition, the surface texture of the Blue Morpho butterfly is similar to roof tiles with overlapping ridges, which enable water and dirt to literally roll off the wings. The microscopic texture of these wings has enabled researchers to develop surfaces, which enhance fluid flow and prevent surfaces from getting dirty. This natural genius can be mimicked and used in a variety of surfaces for aircraft and medical equipment. In a similar way to sharkskin, this texture could prevent the growth of bacteria. Textures in nature require designers to think about purposes and reasons for designs. Biomimicry can teach design students that everything in nature has a function.

The idea of thinking skills as being fundamental to learning has a long and illustrious history. There is a considerable canon on the subject, much of it influenced recently by the work of Robert Fisher (1995a, 1995b, 1998, 2000) who seeks to establish approaches to help children develop critical, creative and imaginative states of mind. He argues that this can be achieved by improving their thinking skills, thus helping them make more sense of their learning and their lives. This study links into Fisher's work and argues that through a study of biomimicry we need to encourage students to think critically why certain textures like spots/lines exist in nature and then how biomimicry can be applied in their own designs.

Ultimately, the role of designer encompasses problem solving. Designers must apply thinking skills and creative ability to discover unique solutions to collective questions. These questions may consist of how to best market a brand, how to connect with a specific target audience or how to correspond across ethnic boundaries (Simmons, 2011). Yet in today's world there are fundamental issues in modern society such as the need for community, and sustainability (McKosky, 2012). However, there are still millions of people and potential clients who have never heard of biomimicry or find it hard to see its purpose. Future designers and educators should be informed of this approach and the exciting role it could and should play in our society. Using nature as a model, mentor and measure may provide maintainable and ecological solutions for this generation and upcoming generations.

Importance of the study

- 1) The researcher is expecting to teach the subject of biomimicry to students of art education in higher education, whereby enhancing the design process.
- 2) The study will provide teachers with an effective strategy to develop their performance and improve the current teaching methods.
- 3) The researcher predicts that this study enables an area for further studies to develop different strategies in the field of teaching biomimicry.
- 4) This study recognizes the importance of teaching students about texture and the purpose of textures within nature. If they study texture they may then find the benefits.

Objectives of the Study

- 1) To identify the impact of teaching biomimicry to enhancing thinking skills for students of art education in higher education
- 2) To develop means and methods to ensure the development of student's skills.
- 3) Development of a scientific program based on Biomimicry containing complete information to assist the teacher.
- 4) Introducing new methods that help teachers develop their understanding and teaching methods concerning biomimicry.
- 5) Think of other things in nature that we could use as inspiration to develop student abilities.

Hypotheses of the Study

- 1) Biomimicry has long-lasting effects which includes the development of skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students.
- 2) Biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills.

Methodology of the Study

The descriptive analytical and experimental methods were used in this research. The target population consists of students from the Faculty of Education, University of Khartoum: Republic of the Sudan. The study sample consists of 30 randomly selected students from the Faculty of Education: students of years (2012 – 2013).

Firstly, the 30 students were asked to draw a texture design such as a carpet, blanket or clothing. This test was marked out of 10 using the criteria below. Then there was a 2-week wash out period. After this period, the specific biomimicry program was taught which included the theory of biomimicry, examples from nature; independent research on the Internet; references and visits to explore for themselves different textures in nature. Each student was then given the same task to undertake: draw another design based on texture. The task was marked out of 10 marks. The task was chosen as a valid measure of critical thinking.

The total score for the test is 10 marks and the marks were distributed as follows:

- 1) Idea and design. Three marks.
- 2) Utilization of nature. Three marks.
- 3) Implementation of biomimicry. Four marks.

A teacher from the school that was not directly involved in researching this project marked the task work. A discussion with the students after the test also revealed that students were more confident with their designs after being participants in the Biomimicry program and they explained their ideas thoroughly. They also indicated that in the future they would use nature to help them think and develop their design choices.

The collected data was analyzed by the statistical program (STATISTICAL PACKAGE FOR SOCIAL SCIENCE, SPSS) using the appropriate statistical treatments. The T- test for independent data was conducted to verify the significant differences between test scores before and after the implementation of the Biomimicry program.

Results and Discussion

Data analysis of the first hypothesis

Biomimicry has long-lasting effects skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students.

Table 1 Statistics Test

Variable	Sample Size	Arithmetic Mean	Standard
Experimental Before	30	4.30	1.00
Experimental After	30	7.63	1.88

Table 2 T. Test for two samples

Variable	T. Test Value	Degree of Freedom	Potential Value
Before – After	-17.028	29	0.00

Since the potential value = (0.000) is less than (0.05), it means there is a significant difference between the students' test grades before and after the biomimicry program.

The above tables (1-2) showed that there is a significant difference between the students of the experimental group before and after the implementation of the program through the potential value, which amounted to (0.000). This potential value is less than the level of error allowed (0.05%) for the benefit after applying the program through the arithmetic mean value, which is amounted to (7.63) that is greater than the arithmetic mean value before implementing the program, amounting to (4.30).

Through analyzing the results, the researchers noted that before the implementation of the biomimicry program the students were not able to apply thinking skills, and did not use nature in their design. The results showed there is a significant difference between group's performance before and after the program. This confirms that the students' self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students improved after the biomimicry lesson.

Data analysis of the second hypothesis

Biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills.

Table 3 Statistics Test

Variable	Sample Size	Arithmetic Mean	Standard
Experimental Before	30	1.71	1.59
Experimental After	30	7.76	1.13

Table 4 T. Test for two samples

Variable	T. Test Value	Degree of Freedom	Potential Value
Before – After	-19.12	29	0.00

The above tables (3-4) demonstrate there is a significant difference between the performance of the experimental group before and after the implementation of the program through the potential value, which amounted to (0.000). This value is less than the level of error allowed (0.05%) after applying the program through the arithmetic mean value, which is amounted to (7.76) that is greater than the arithmetic mean value before implementing the program, amounting to (1.71).

Since P. (Value = 0.000) is less than (0.05%), this means that there are significant differences before and after the test which confirms that teaching biomimicry enhance thinking skills for students of art education in higher education. The results of the study indicated that the use of biomimicry has effectively improved the learning process.

Results of the study indicated that the use of multiple teaching aids have effectively improved the learning process. The results showed there is a significant difference between group's performance before and after the program. This confirms that the students' design decisions and thinking skills improved among the students.

After an analysis of the results both hypothesis can be accepted. Firstly, biomimicry has long-lasting effects which includes the development of skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students. Secondly, Biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills.

The results revealed that the students' design decisions and thinking skills for students improved after the Biomimicry program. Therefore, it could be argued that this program assisted the students' designs, boosting their creativity and thinking skills. Biomimicry can teach design students that everything in nature has a function. The test asked them to think about the purpose their texture could be used for e.g. clothes or curtains and studying this subject will help their thought processes as they will look to nature as their teacher because nature has everything. Designers worldwide are working together to integrate the principles of biomimicry and sustainability into all aspects of design (McKoskey, 2012). The complexity of real life systems must be appreciated so that designers can utilize the wisdom of nature.

The work of Robert Fisher has been supported in this study as thinking skills are crucial to all students to enable them to develop a better understanding of themselves as learners. The implementation of biomimicry into the art education curriculum could prove productive to pedagogical approaches involving the development and encouragement of thinking skills. Through a study of biomimicry students will question why the zebra has stripes whilst other animals have spots because each texture has a different function depending on the purpose of that animal or the environment in which they live. Students can utilise the genius of nature and harness their own creativity.

This study has demonstrated that students will practice applying biomimicry to arrive at sustainable design solutions. To accomplish this objective, students must understand that utilizing biomimicry as an instrument is more complex than simply viewing one aspect of nature as a design model, measure, and mentor. Since nature functions as a whole structure with many different interconnected elements, biomimetic designs must use an integrated systems thinking approach to include disciplines such as biology, biophysics, and material science (John et al., 2005).

Practical recommendations from this research include the need to consider this topic as a main component of the design education system. Design students indicated the need to establish and impart a fundamental teaching module that focuses on inspiration transmitted through nature. The findings revealed that students were

interested in this topic as an aid to the development of their designs. Lecturers should advocate looking at nature in new ways and ultimately this can inspire and motivate their students.

Results

- 1) There is a significant difference between group's performance before and after the program, in addition is a significant difference between the experimental group and control group before and after the test. This confirms that the biomimicry has long-lasting effects which includes the development of skills such as self-reflection, critical and creative thinking for students.
- 2) There are significant differences between group's performance before and after the program, in addition is a significant difference between the experimental group and control group before and after the test. This confirms that the biomimicry could positively impact students' design decisions and thinking skills.

Recommendations

In the light of the results obtained the researchers recommends the following:

- Teachers should be teaching the subject of biomimicry for students of art education in higher education.
- The students should be encouraged to conduct mini-debates on biomimicry and elements of nature such as texture in order to develop their thinking skills.

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Students' Emotional Responses Related to the Teaching Activity

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Abstract

In this paper, the author deals with students' emotional responses that occur during the teaching process. The author distinguishes two broad categories of students' emotional responses. The first category consists of academic emotions, while achievement emotions stand out as a separate category. Emotions play an important role in the classroom since students remember emotionally appealing contents longer and devote to them more studiously. Also, with the help of attitudes associated with emotional judgements, academic achievement can be predicted. Students are more successful in learning activities in which they feel joy and pleasure as opposed to boredom. Within this broad area, the author focuses on the positive functions of students' negative responses, and singles out only those emotional responses that are most important for the teaching activities: pleasure, boredom, apathy, the feeling of not being accepted, rejection, inferiority, worthlessness, worry, trust, doubt, pride and self-esteem.

Keywords. Students' emotional responses, teaching, achievement emotions, academic emotions

Introduction

It is known that the teaching process is full of emotional responses. Some authors distinguish between positive and negative (Chabot and Chabot, 2009). Everyone is familiar with the emotional responses to teaching such as: shyness, fear, dissatisfaction, envy, disappointment, hope and satisfaction, rejection, inferiority, worthlessness, worry, trust, doubt, pride and self respect. All these can be categorized into the emotional reactions directed towards the subject of the teaching process (students, teachers, parents) and the emotional reactions between the participants of the teaching process (students relations). From the point of view of the school pedagogy it is interesting to distinguish between the emotional reactions that happen inside the teaching process and those that engage outside school. From the didactic perspective it is interesting to observe the emotional reactions that occur during the teaching process (boredom, excitement) and those related to the results of the teaching process (fear, anger, sadness). In this paper the author will use the term academic emotions when referring to them. Reinhard Pekrun 2006. Uses this term to refer to all emotions that occur during teaching process and its evaluation, in other words all emotions experienced by students in the school environment. "Academic emotions are defined as emotions closely related to the process and results of the learning process." (Pekrun, 2006:316) The author of academic emotions distinguishes them according to different criteria. According to the direction of emotional responses he differentiates between those that are related to the teaching activities (emotional responses that appear during learning process or during teaching process such as enjoyment of subject or boredom during lesson) and those related to the result of the teaching process (the emotion of achievement). The latter type can be called exam emotional responses since they are related to the emotions students go through immediately before, during or after the examination process. The emotional reactions of students during the teaching process are not new but until recently this hasn't received enough attention in educational studies. This comes as no surprise considering the focus on the cognitive and the perception of emotional as something irrational and outside reason. Although it is popularly said that "the heart wants what the heart wants" without being in touch with the reason, the real truth is different, the ratio cannot function without the support of emotions (Slunjski, 2013:14)

Pestalozzi insisted on the importance of the unity of heart, mind and hands in the learning process. This perspective is supported by the recent discoveries in the field of neuroscience that are more welcomed into the field of pedagogy and didactics. Researches point towards the key role emotions play in the process of thinking, memorizing and learning. (Salovey, Sluyter, 1994; Boller, 1999; Bogner, 2009; Burman, 2001). The research of the emotional responses of students in the teaching process reveals that the dominant emotions are boredom and fear and that the negative emotions are overall predominant. (Kolak, Majcen: 2011; Bogner, 2012) It is also

possible to change this and achieve the dominance of positive emotions. Students are more successful in learning process where they feel joy and comfort rather than boredom and emotionally more attractive content is more easily remembered and stays in the memory longer time while students address such content with more attention and dedication. Buckley and Sarni (according to Macklem, 2008) point out that the attitudes closely related to emotional experiences are indicative of academic success, where the student with more negative emotions towards school also have weaker academic results. Thus all those included in the making of the teaching process share responsibility of creating an atmosphere which encourages positive emotions.

The dynamics of teaching process and students' emotional responses

The teaching process is complex and there is a connection between its dynamics and the students' emotional reactions (Kolak, 2010) The dynamics of the teaching process is explained as "didactic-methodical solution of the methodological scheme of the movement of the objective reality" (Poljak 1967:17) The representatives of the new school pointed out that the teaching has to be active and dynamic. Herbart also pointed out the problem of dynamics in the teaching process and he gives the methodological basis of the quadruple structure of articulation: clarity, association, system and method. Some authors point out that education is never static but rather always dynamic and that this should be reflected in the teaching process (Kerschensteiner, according to Zaninovic, 1988) while others pay special attention to distribution and exchange of activities to avoid boredom (Ferriere, 1935) Analysis of the dynamics of the teaching process will easily show its close relation to the students' activities in the teaching process. Competent lesson planning significantly contributes to the dynamics of the teaching process and provides a solution to the demanding complexity of its task. In order to achieve this it is necessary to use different methods and tools, different media in the classroom, create a positive learning atmosphere in the classroom as well as use different sociological forms in the teaching process. Some didactics scholars direct to the development of skills that will improve the dynamics of the teaching process (Kyriacou, 2001; Jones, 2007) Human brain remembers information acquired through positive emotions and it suppresses and forgets the information acquired through negative emotions. This mechanism is especially obvious in the teaching process because the students remember longer the contents introduced in the pleasant teaching climate. (Suzic, 2008). Research has shown that those students who took part in an interactive learning process after six months show statistically significantly better results although the initial results of the experimental and control group were similar (Suzic, 1981). Other researches also show the importance of students' emotional response in the teaching process (Crossman, 2007) The dynamics of the teaching process is closely related to the emotion of boredom during the teaching process. Some researches show that boredom is one of the most common students' responses during the teaching process. We can easily conclude that in this case the demand for the dynamic teaching process hasn't been met since it is hard to cause boredom in a dynamic environment. In a wide research conducted for the purpose of evaluation of the experimental introduction of some elements into the Croatian educational standard (Sakic, 2006) students were asked about boredom during the teaching process. It is encouraging to see that the average results were found below the neutral range of the scale towards the values that indicate rare occurrence of boredom. The results show the difference between younger and older students where the older students are significantly less represented in the responses that indicate they are never bored. Opinions also differ with regard to the beginning or the end of the school year, one third is never bored at the beginning while at the end it is only one fourth that is not bored during lesson. The feeling of boredom is a kind of frustration experienced by the subject (student) in those situations that he or she interprets as without satisfaction for any of his or her desires (Milivojevic, 2007)

Boredom is physiologically related to certain changes in the nervous system causing disbalance between basic nervous processes – stimulation and control. Feeling of boredom is related to control of the nervous system since the monotonous activities stimulate always the same areas of the brain which causes saturation in them and is manifested through increase of breaking and control (Poljak, 1967) There are two types of boredom that may appear in the teaching process: situational and structural. Structural boredom is less interesting from the didactic point of view. It represents subjective manifestation due to the students individual disorder in the structure of desires. In this group belong those students that are hard to engage in spite of the diverse didactic solutions. Hence this type of boredom would belong to the domain of the school pedagog. Situational boredom is more significant for the teaching process. In this case the student is aware of his or her needs and desires but for some reason cannot get out of the situation they are in. Reasons for that can be both intrinsic and external. Though the external reasons are usually considered to be situational, eg. hospitals, prisons, sometimes the school has the same effect on the student due to the dynamics of the teaching process. When the student is considering leaving class because he or she is bored but at the same time is aware that this would lead to certain sanctions, we are talking about intrinsic reasons. Usually students stay in class in spite of the feeling of boredom, but there is

apparent agitation. This can be recognized by unnecessary actions and behaviour: rocking on a chair, tapping fingers, scribbling, biting fingernails...The purpose of agitation is wasting away of the emotional tension caused by boredom. This often interrupts the teaching process and creates a new problem of indiscipline. Although boredom is predominant in adolescence it is present in all phases and periods of education.

Students' emotional responses in the teaching process

When defining emotions Oatley and Jenkins (2003) stress the process of evaluation and consider the category of awareness as irrelevant. They say emotion is "usually caused by intentional or spontaneous evaluation of an event related to an important goal; it is felt as positive when the objective is being realised and negative when its realisation is obstructed" (Oatley, Jenkins, 2003: 93) The word emotion comes from the Latin verb *motere*, to move. Emotion has the word motion inside it. Emotions drive us to certain actions and at the heart of emotion is the ability to act. Hence our primary emotions (fear, anger, sadness, disgust, contempt, surprise, joy) are important for survival. Each of these emotions has its characteristics and can be found in all cultures regardless of race, language or religion.

For example, fear is caused by a potential danger and it drives us to escape; anger drives us to attack when there's an obstacle on the way to realisation of our goals. Sadness is related to loss and it causes withdrawal, and the feeling of disgust causes rejection. Surprise is activated in an unexpected situation and joy occurs in desirable situations and causes bonding. The following Table 1 gives an outline of these emotional responses regarding teaching context and school system and it is focused on the positive aspects of students' negative emotional responses.

Table 1: Positive function of students' negative response (Kolak, 2013)

Emotion	Teaching situation	Students' positive action
Concern	Student is concerned because he/she thinks he /she did poorly at the exam.	This mobilizes the student to revise the material covered in the exam and to practise more. The student finds the best solution in the present for the problems that may occur in future.
Sadness	Student is sad because he/she cannot enroll in the school of choice due to poor exam results.	Student makes reconstruction of value system. He distances himself from the imagined desire and affirms the real possibilities. He finds a school that suits the situation.
Anger	Student is angry with a classmate who interrupted him during exam.	The goal of anger is to drive the other person to change his behaviour. The student shows the sense of self esteem through anger.
Guilt	The student didn't complete his part of the project so the whole team got a lower grade.	The discomfort of the feeling of guilt drives the student to change the behaviour that caused it. He wants to recompensate, apologizes and accepts his responsibility.
Jitters	Student has jitters before a public performance.	This drives the student to thorough preparations and consultations .
Envy	Student wants to have the abilities and talents like his classmates, eg. in sports.	Envy helps the student to identify his own desire. He joins a sport activity in free time.

Oatley and Jenkins (2003) see emotions as central to human life and as structures that " govern our lives, especially our relationships with others" (Oatley and Jenkins, 2003: 124) Hence it is important what are students' emotional responses towards school and the teaching process because this will influence their behaviour. Magda Arnold has introduced the term of evaluation of significance as key factor in studying the shaping of emotions and she based it on Aristotle's theory that emotions are based on evaluation of events in view of their importance within personal and interpersonal life (Jenkins, Oatley and Stein, 1998). Frijda (according to Oatley and Jenkins) stresses the necessary condition in determining the occurrence of emotions to be the change in attitude towards action. Many authors (Goleman, 1997; Chabot and Chabot, 2009) agree that each emotion supposes inclination towards action. Campos and assistants (according to Oatley and Jenkins, 2003) define emotions as processes

which "establish, maintain, change or end the relationship between the individual and his surroundings in matters important to the individual" (2003:122) while Frijda (1986) considers emotions to be the result of interaction with real or expected consequences of events that the subject considers important and that they can be expressed directly or indirectly, the object being to influence the behaviour of others. Milivojevic (2007) agrees that emotions always appear as reactions to certain occurrence and for him emotion has the meaning of qualitatively personal reaction to a life situation hence he uses the term emotional response, which is accepted and applied in this paper. The teaching process is a place of many events and experiences that include success and failure, comfort and discomfort, complaints and praises, unexpected results and sudden events. These present opportunities for different positive and negative emotional responses that can cause certain behaviour. Thus success usually leads to happiness and enthusiasm which lead to further motivation and interest while failure can cause sadness and withdrawal which are reflected in lack of motivation for participation in the teaching process. Pleasant emotions such as curiosity, joy and enthusiasm help the learning process and make it more successful, while the state of vulnerability (usually related to exams and testing) blocks the higher cognitive functions, in other words, students find it hard to think clearly (Miljkovic and Rijavec, 2009). Joy is a special type of satisfaction directed towards the future. It occurs when there is a high probability of fulfillment of a desire in the near future (Milivojevic, 2007). The student can feel joy upon completing an exam for which he will earn a high grade. The student is content if one of his desires has been fulfilled during the teaching process. The student can solve a task successfully, in practical science projects or group projects...For the emotional response of satisfaction it is important that the student has a desire. The purpose is to award the student for the type of behaviour that led to the fulfillment of the desire. In the teaching process we sometimes find the emotional response of indifference which is defined as absence of emotion. If the student has no needs or desires, as well as no values he wants to protect, we say he is indifferent. In pedagogy it is important to differentiate between situational and structural indifference. Structural indifference cannot be dealt with in the frame of pedagogy, while situational indifference can be affected by different methodological scenarios. Thus it is important to differentiate between suitable and unsuitable indifference (Milivojevic, 2007) Unsuitable one is found at those situations where it is expected from the student to have emotional response while suitable indifference is linked to certain characteristics of the student's personality so we usually describe that particular student as calm. Student can feel worried during the teaching process. He is anxious that some circumstances during the teaching process might endanger his values or something he considers his responsibility (eg. he is the team leader in a group project and he estimates that the team will not be able to meet all the objectives). The purpose of concern is to activate those potentials that might change the undesirable outcome in the future. The student is searching for a solution in the present that will decrease or prevent the unwanted outcome in the future. Pride is one of the pleasant emotional responses in students during the teaching process. The student is proud in those situations that make him feel he contributed towards a positive image in the eyes of authority (usually a teacher), for example he has successfully completed a given task. This emotional response is very important in the teaching process because it allows the student to create a positive self image since it has been confirmed by the authority, the teacher. In this particular emotional response the role of the teacher is very important. This is especially true in the first years of primary education. When later during the education process the student separates his self image from others' opinions he becomes capable of feeling self approval and self respect. Respect is then reflected in other relationships, towards people as well as things. The theory of human rights stresses that every human being has the right to dignity which means that being human gives us the right to exist and be respected (Milivojevic, 2007) The student respects those teachers and classmates who have the qualities he finds highly valuable and important. In analogy, he feels self respect when he identifies those same values in himself. If the teaching process puts the student in such situations and challenges through which the student can confirm his personal values, the student will develop the feeling of self respect which is of great importance for his future development.

Emotional responses between students

The teaching process in the school system is organised in hierarchical subsystems. One of them are classes of peer groups. In peer groups the students satisfy the need for intimacy, form self image, develop social skills, learn to help, share and cooperate. Class groups have great importance in students' development since during the primary school years the group becomes an important social context. Even though children as young as two years old sometimes adjust their behaviour in the interest of the group, the true socialization begins in the primary school years (Vasta, Heith, Miller 2005) Emotionally important events in a class are more often related to the students' relationships than to the teachers (Ulich, 2001; acc. to Kiper, Mischke, 2008) so they are of crucial importance in creating the teaching process. A class typically consists of a larger number of students, although

this number varies. Typically these students haven't known each other prior to that so we can say it is an artificially created group. This group will spend several hours together every day over a long period of time in a very close and direct contact. Therefore it is no surprise that the emotional responses that occur in these relationships are extremely important for the functioning of the educational process. In practise they are usually diagnosed through different sociometric techniques (Kolak, 2013) that help determine the student's status in the class. Coie recognizes five categories when talking about status in the peer group. These are: the popular student, the rejected student, the neglected student, the controversial student and the average student (acc.to Klarin, 2006) Other authors (MacDonald, 1991; Legault, 1993; Torrey, Wright, 1996; Kolak, 2010) single out four categories with regard to the degree of preference or rejection of the student by others. The student with many negative nominations is a rejected student. The student with a few positive and a few negative nominations is an isolated student. The student with many positive and many negative nominations is said to be controversial. The student with many positive nominations is called star student. The status of the student in a particular class greatly influences the emotional responses of that student during the teaching process. According to the cognitive-developmental approach peers are an important motivator in the educational process. Piaget and Kohlberg point out that the ability of accepting others' opinions comes out of the cognitive conflict with one's peers (Vizek-Vidovic, 2003) while Vigotski's theory stresses the educational influence of the more competent peers. Scholars who support the cognitive-developmental theories claim that the students' perception of peers shapes their behaviour towards them. According to the social learning theory peers are a behavioral model, they reward or sanction certain actions and represent one of the criteria of self efficacy (Vasta, Heith, Miller, 2005). Most important negative emotional responses among peers to be considered in the teaching process are the emotional response of unacceptance, rejection, inferiority and worthlessness. Unacceptance and rejection are normal parts of the emotional response spectrum (Milivojevic, 2007.) and it is normal to go through them. In the emotional responses among peers the problem arises if the response of rejection and unacceptance lead to feelings of inferiority and worthlessness. There are cases of rejection of one student by another student or group of other students that include ignoring and humiliation. The presence of dehumanizing labeling deeply affects the self image of the student. The student feels inferior because he is convinced he does not have the necessary qualities present in other peers. Further on there is a negative response of a higher degree – the feeling of worthlessness. The student feels worthless when he perceives he has no qualities necessary to belong to the peer group. The emotional response of trust or doubt are also present among peers. When the student perceives that others' intentions are good, that they are capable and responsible the student has the emotional response of trust. When he sees others as mean, incompetent and unreliable, he feels suspicion. Both trust and suspicion help the student to find his place inside the class.

Conclusion

The growing importance of emotional responses in the school system has followed many researches and discoveries of neuroscience. Didactics and pedagogy have come to recognize these factors in shaping teaching scenarios. Since emotions are at the root of all human behaviour it is quite unusual that they are coming at the focus of educational studies only recently. Understanding the emotional responses will help dealing with different types of problems in the learning process. There are many indicators that show close relation between students' emotional responses and their academic achievement. This is the field of "emotional pedagogy" which promotes the approach based on studying emotional responses since they precede the learning process.

This paper dealt with those emotional responses that are related to the teaching process. The greatest challenge in this segment is the feeling of boredom as a negative emotional response that affects the dynamics of the teaching process. Since we cannot protect the teaching process from the negative emotional responses it is necessary to direct these towards their positive function as well as use evaluation and diagnostic tools for those emotional reactions that are indicative of more serious problems and hinder the learning process and the development of a positive self- image.

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Organizational Dynamics in Declining US Male College Enrollments

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Abstract

Academic journals have witnessed an increasing body of research investigating gender ratios in U.S. college enrollments. Since the mid-1990s, the popular press has also been publishing articles on the declining percentage of men in U.S. college enrollment. There is also an international component to this issue: countries such as Germany, England, and Australia have begun to look more closely at their male college enrollments. The present study consists of three phases. Phase I consisted of focus groups conducted with male college students. Phase II, reported in this article, reviews relevant literature. Phase III will incorporate quantitative survey research methodologies for data collection. This article includes research that reviews what is being done on college campuses in the United States, specifically California, to address the issue of male college enrollments in higher education. Research presented includes A.A. degree-granting junior colleges, and M.A.-granting and Ph.D. granting colleges in Northern and Southern California, and investigates what organizational interventions are addressing changing college enrollments. Research shows that California public higher education has yet to become actively involved in this issue.

Keywords.

Introduction

The topic of men's enrollment stagnation in higher education has gained increasing attention in both the popular press and academic research journals. Men's share of total college enrollment has fallen steadily from a high of 71% to 43% in 2005. The issue has also received attention in countries other than the United States. Stories in the popular press typically give the national numbers with hyperbole that implies a crisis. Some examples can be found in *The New York Times*, such as "Addressing the Gender Gap in College Aspirations". The articles; point out that for every 100 woman enrolled there are 77 men; for every 100 women that graduate only 73 men accomplish that goal. The issue of a racial component has also been written about, such as in the article. "Colleges Struggle to Help Black Men Stay Enrolled," which discusses enrollment at Medgar Evers College (Brooklyn, New York) where 97% of male students are black and the number of male students is only 22% of the total enrolment. These articles and others have created a panic that Mills (2003)calls "backlash blockbusters."

Both the popular press and academic journals point a real issue in higher education and society. The stagnation of male college enrollments will have real consequences for society. If men lack the education and credentials to assume leadership roles with their female counterparts in society, how will this affect men and society? What types of careers will be available to men without college degrees or credentials? How will the new roles of men without college degrees and credentials play out in society? How will mate selection and other societal functions play out in a world with fewer men obtaining degrees? These trends will bring about "uncertainties about men's social position and status". Social locations will also occur with this societal dynamic as noted: "This trend could have serious implications for returns in the labor market as well as social outcomes such as marriage and fertility" (Long, 2004).

A related concern about declining male educational attainment has been reported in the U.S. popular media. Incidents such as the shootings at Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado, has "placed boys, their socialization and questions of power and privilege, and violence at the center of public attention" (Weaver-Hightower, 2003). Thus, masculinities and more specifically violence has raised the concerns of men's lives in society as a concern unlike issues surrounding female college enrollments.

Male-female achievement has also received attention with articles such as "At College, Women are Leaving Men in the Dust" (NYT, 2006). This article discusses the role of male student efforts in college. Women care about their grade point average (GPA) but men less so. This notion of academic achievement is also noted in

academic research examining male achievement (Burke, 2007). In addition, the Times article cited U.S. Census sources indicating that men, whatever their socioeconomic status, are less likely than women to get bachelor's degrees. Forbes magazine looks at male-female enrollment differences at private and public institutions (Forbes 2012). Public institutions fared best in their gender ratios with male-female ratio at 43.6:56.4 whereas at not-for-profit institutions the ratio was 42.5:57.5. Private school data show a male-female ratio of 40.7:59.3. In contrast to these enrollment numbers is that the male-female ratio among people 18-24 years old, the ratio slightly favors men at 51:49 (Forbes, 2012). An additional dynamic is that there are slight differences in the sex ratio across states: Utah has a 50:50 split whereas Alaska has a male-female ratio of 55:45. Finally, there is a regional dynamic. Three of the five states with the largest male-female disparities are in the southwestern United States.

The prognosis is not positive. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* notes that men's share of college enrollments is expected to continue to decline (Chronicle, 2010). The article reports that the U.S. Department of Education forecasts that by 2019, women will make up 59% of total undergraduate and 61% of post-baccalaureate enrollment. These numbers are mirrored in the private sector, which has also experienced a 44% increase in enrollments from 2000 to 2008 (Chronicle, 2010). The U.S. Census Bureau recently issued a report stating that 57% of undergraduate students are female and that female graduate school enrollment is 60% (NCES-11). These trends have been tracked for over a decade. The popular press reported that these numbers appeared to be stable at the time (*USA Today*, 2012, p. 15). Enrollment trends show a pattern: it is not the decline of male college enrollments that is the issue, rather that male college enrollment has been stagnant while female college enrollments have steadily increased.

Academic researchers have been investigating and writing about this phenomena since the mid-1990s. The literature can be broken down into several general categories. The bulk of articles investigate the critical variables that have an impact on college enrollment rates. Some of these variables include family background, socioeconomic status of household, rates of parents' college attendance, and race of students. Other research looks at outside factors such as parents background and the role of teachers. A third line of research looks at specific aspects of students, such as GPAs and credits earned towards graduation. Finally, research has looked at male "culture" and its role in this debate and the trend of fewer male college students. Research on this topic has looked at many facets of the issue, such as a growing female advantage in college completion (Buchmann & Diprete, 2006). Tied into this advantage are factors such as family background (Buchmann & Diprete, 2006). Research shows these gaps in college completion growing greater (Diprete & Buchmann, 2006; Charles & Luoch 2003). Some research reviews GPA and credits earned toward degree (Burke, 2007).

The role of parents in educational aspirations is well-documented (Dryler, 1998). Researchers know that parents play a fundamental role in their children's lives. Those early influences affect many of the decisions that children make in later life. Fundamental to those later choices is their desire for education in general and college in particular.

Central to much research is the role of class and race (Bennett & Gist, 1964). In addition are precursors in the gender gap in education which has been tied into to the aspirations of children and expectations on them for the future (Blackhart & Augar, 2008). These concerns also beg the question about the pipeline and future trends for male enrollments. That is, how many students are currently in the K-12 system and what are the potential populations that would qualify to attend institutions of higher education?

Research also has investigated the role of teachers, male performance, and college enrollment (Dee, 2007). Teachers, like parents, spend considerable time with children as they move through the educational system. Thus, teachers have high levels of contact and by default influence children in their formative years. How teachers view their students is extremely important, as seen in the "Pygmalion effect" (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1966). Scholars have investigated how the gender of the teacher potentially affects students. This research confirmed that same-gender teachers significantly improved the performance of both girls and boys (Dee, 2007, p. 528). In addition, this research found that same-sex teacher assignments also improved the perceptions of student performance by the teachers (p. 528).

There are many articles dealing with male culture (Weaver-Hightower, 2003, 2010). These articles focus on the typical characteristics of men and their learning styles. This is an important aspect of the issue attempting to disentangle pieces of the issue. One needs baseline data on how men learn in order to create an effective learning environment for men. This brings up a political aspect about men and their potential need for help. Will that help detract from many of the advances that have benefitted female students (Hightower-boy turn)? Terms such as a

“crisis of masculinity” refers to men in society acting in harmful ways towards themselves or others due to the culture, or economy (Faludi, 1999).

An increasing number of scholars are investigating the differences in college enrollments based on race (Bohon, Johnson, & Gorman, 2006). In this article is views the difference within racial groups for example Cubans, Puerto Ricans and Mexicans (Bohon et al., 2006). And other placing the issues of race, class and gender as the central tenants of the discussion (Beaties, 2002).

There is an international component of male college enrollments. Research on the issue of male college going rates, male success rates, and other issues related to male success in education and society has been conducted in England and Australia (Weaver-Hightower, 2003, p. 472). Germany researchers have also began raising questions about male success rates in Germany. One of Germany’s most respected weekly publications has published on the topic (*Der Spiegel* on-line Oct 16, 2012). Germany's minister of education coordinated a controversial conference on men's role in society. The issue in Germany is not unlike the issues being raised in the United States: Is action needed to reverse the trend? In recent years, men in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland have come together in their respective countries to establish associations focusing on problems facing men. The Austrian Labor Ministry has even created a section devoted specifically to the subject. In 2004, the Ministry held the first ever European fatherhood conference (Spiegel 2012).

Some institutions of higher education have taken steps to address these trends. Two recent examples are University of Oregon and Pearson College Community College in Washington. These two institutions are beginning to address ways to better serve male college students in a way that makes them successful (Weaver-Hightower, 2010, p. 30).

Other programs include the Louis Stokes Alliance Minority Participation, which is supported by the National Science Foundation. This program's target population is male and female minority students. Augustana University has taken a creative path with its Fraternity Alumni Network (FAN). Fraternity men on campus have noted that networking is one of the most significant benefits of being involved in Greek life. The program works on helping with employment upon graduation and with their social networks.

The University of Portland has a program called the League of Extraordinary Gentlemen (LXG). This is a discussion group for men that addresses their needs and desires. It is a group that exists “to give men an opportunity to come together to talk about something deeper than sports and video games” (<https://pilots.up.edu/web/lxg/home>). LXG is a one-year program for men to come together to discuss issues in a nonthreatening environment. Men are encouraged to continue with the program after the first year to more fully develop ideas raised and discussed in the first year. There is extensive suggested structure on how to lead discussion groups (<https://pilots.up.edu/web/lxg/structure>).

M-Pact is a religious-based program focused on mentoring men for “lives of meaning and making a difference” (<http://mpactmensgroup.webs.com>). It is intended to get men involved in service, leadership, spirituality, vocational reflection, and authentic relationships. M-Pact encourages men to stand up against violence and abuse of power. Finally its web site notes work to overcome pressures that men face from society and unbalanced masculinity. Another development in the area of male college enrollments is the American College of Personnel Association (ACPA). The ACPA had their first conference on masculinities, “Institute of College Males,” in 2007. It appears that there is a critical mass forming around the topic of masculinity and higher education and men's changing roles in society.

This investigation was designed to collect data on public higher education in Northern and Southern California and to see what programs, if any, are being offered to male college students. All three segments of public higher education were investigated, including community colleges, the California State University system, and the University of California system. This article targeted a largestate with over 38 million residents (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013) to look at a large state and to investigate whether its enrollment data mirrored national data and to investigate educational systems to see whether any actions were being undertaken or contemplated to address the issue of male enrollments. (California public higher education enrollments are noted in Table 1.)

Table 1

Year	Higher Education System	Gender	Students
2010	University of California	Men	113,048
		Women	121,114
		Unknown	302
	Higher Education System Total (University of California)		234,464
	California State University	Men	175,553

	Women	236,819
Higher Education System Total (California State University)		412,372
California Community Colleges	Men	772,308
	Women	903,986
	Unknown	20,019
Higher Education System Total (California Community Colleges)		1,696,313
CCC District Office	Men	16,669
	Women	32,991
	Unknown	713
Higher Education System Total (CCC District Office)		50,373
Year Total (2010)		2,393,522

California Postsecondary Education Commission. (n.d.). California county comparison: Fiscal, economics, & population

Methods

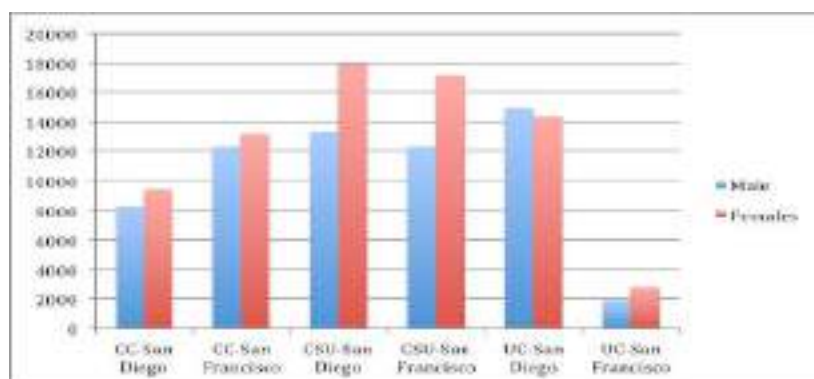
This research utilized secondary data analysis. I analyzed enrollment data from all three segments of public higher education in California including community colleges, the California State University system, and the University of California system. Regions for data collection included San Diego and San Francisco. This sample was chosen for two reasons. First, these two areas comprise the largest population centers in the state. Second, both of these areas have all three segments of higher education. Follow-up telephone interviews in which enrollment data and student outreach efforts were reviewed with all segments of the sample.

The first set of data details the current enrollments at target institutions. Prior to the telephone interviews, the Web sites of all campuses were searched for programs related to attempting to recruit, retain, and/or assist men to graduate.

Data

As can be seen in Figure 1, there are variances in the data for male and female enrollments. The variances, however, are all below the national averages cited in the newest federal report, which currently lists the ratio of female and male enrollment at 56 to 43% (Weaver-Hightower, 2010m p. 30).

The California State University (CSU) system data are represented below. Data from the CSU system mirror national data with a ratio of 57% female and 43% male. The shift occurred in the CSU in Figure 1.



Note: UC-SF has few undergraduate programs.

Programs Offered

All the campuses in the sample were contacted to investigate whether they had any programs to support men in their studies and to aid in graduation rates. Campus outreach offices were contacted to ascertain whether programs were offered to recruit, retain, and/or graduate men. There are currently no specific programs in San Diego or San Francisco at public institutions of higher education that could be identified as targeting male students. Data show that although female–male ratios are an important topic for the academic community, it has

not yet reached a “tipping” point to begin action. The topic of male college enrollments needs further study concerning when action can be taken and what type of action should be taken.

These data confirm Phase I of this research. Focus group data covered the topics that male college students shared with researchers. The participants noted that there were no programs on their campus expressly designed or designated for men. Immediately following these comments, several men shared that a men center would be great but that they would never visit it. When asked why they would not support a center that they feel is needed, there were a variety of responses. Some men thought that seeking help could expose a potential weakness, which scared them. Others expressed anxiety on being labeled negatively, especially by other men but also by woman.

Another aspect that was discussed in focus groups was how young American men view education. Many stories were given as examples that education is intended to control and limit them. Many spoke of their high school experiences. It was an experience that many noted turned them off to education in general. They noted that teachers viewed them as “trouble makers” and tried to limit their actions, movements, and all other facets of their educational experience in order to have an orderly classroom. Thus, many viewed education almost as the enemy.

There are two important issues for future research on the topic. First, higher education sees a problem but has not yet engaged in finding solutions. Second, a potential population needing support is not yet ready to accept that support. That will make implementation challenge.

Conclusion

This presentation examined the number of male and female students attending public higher education in California and what organizational strategies are being employed to address current enrollment trends. On the surface, the research appears unimportant given that institutions have not yet responded to the problem. However, on deeper inspection this “non-result” is significant. It is clear that a “tipping point” has not yet been reached; hence few actions have yet to be taken by public institutions of higher education in California. What was also apparent is that there are no specific programs in public higher education that target men to increase their college entrance, participation, and graduation rates. All focus group participant comments were related to student retention in general rather than men as a target population. Many leaders in higher education are aware of static male college enrollment since they appear on a regular basis in articles in scholarly journals and the popular press.

The phenomena of fewer men attending college has been documented by researchers, reported by the popular press, and captured in government reporting. In viewing data from one large state, what is apparent is that the ratios in California reflect similar ratios in national data. What has not been discussed in the literature is the “tipping point” for higher education to take collective action. This is a difficult discussion because it is where data and politics collide. There are many barriers to tackle with one of the main critical issues is making a convincing argument to help men become more successful with creating programs that men wish to take part in. Once a tipping point is agreed upon and recognized, then the difficult work of creating curriculum, programs, or other interventions that can help men receive a quality education and lead the productive lives begins

As noted in this paper, there are two examples of institutions of higher education outside the project samples taking pro-active steps in the static male college enrollments as detailed with the University of Oregon and Pearson Community College in Washington.

Institutions can and must play in role of the betterment of society. One example is the CSU’s Troops to College initiative. In this program, the CSU made the commitment to help, using university resources and intellectual support for this program. The Troops to College program was launched in the system to help US military members to reenter society with a university education. The rationalization for the program was in part patriotic in supporting military troops helping them successfully return to society after war. The program has had its successes and shows that low cost interventions can occur that result in positive things for CSU students and society as education integrates an influx of newly minted college graduates into the economy.

Research cited in the introduction is reflected in the qualitative interviews with men that were conducted prior to Phase II of this research. This in turn will lead to Phase III: quantitative research that will be generalizable to a larger population.

In these times of tight budgets in higher education it is difficult to dedicate funding to any specific concern. One can be creative in offering basic support for programs that will have low costs but potentially high rewards. Further discussion on the topic is needed along with research. It is hoped that this presentation will be a catalyst for that research. It is important that all members of society have a pathway to success..

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A History of Teacher Training, Training Models, and Recent Developments in Turkey

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Abstract

Teachers, having assumed the most important role in training the future generations soundly and fitting them up with the adaptation to conditions changing, are the people educating the generations who will shape the future of a country. Teachers prepare us for the society we live in. Their contribution to healthy societies is great. They have also profound influence on enhancing the quality of educational systems of societies. In this context, teachers, who undertake significant roles for both individual development and educational processes, are required to have the attributes to change student behavior and educational quality (Hussain S., Ali R., Khan M.S., Ramzan M., Qadeer M. Z. 2011). A teacher equipped with the universal values of our global world can easily transfer these values to the coming generation. Teacher training systems of societies is also of importance in the training of future generations who are crucial to sustenance of social life. Therefore, societies should place emphasis on teacher training systems, and be in pursuit of certain new structuring (Erdem, 2012). This study dwells on the history of teacher training in Turkey, qualified education, qualified teacher training, teacher training models, and new structuring in the Turkish teacher training system. This paper has been prepared by using the archival analysis method.

Keywords. Teacher Training, Teacher Training Models, History of Teacher Training

Introduction

Recently many countries have been forced to revise their teacher training systems due to the some persisting problems pertaining to teacher quality. Turkey is one of these countries seeking to solve this problem. Assuming vital roles in raising perfect future generations and preparing the individuals to changing conditions, teachers function as the keystones of education (Dahar M. A., Dahar R. A., Dahar R. T., Faize F. A., 2011). Moreover, they have a great impact on enhancing the quality levels of the education systems of societies (Adıgüzel and Sağlam, 2009). In this context, undertaking significant roles for both individual development and educational process, teachers are required to have enough attributes to change student behavior and educational quality (Hussain et al. 2011). Training qualified teachers has a great effect on the educational accomplishment of societies, too. Teacher training systems of societies are also important to the education of future generations that are to sustain the social existence. Therefore, societies should place emphasis on teacher training systems, and be in pursuit of certain new structuring (Erdem, 2012). In this respect, Turkey seems to be noteworthy with its structuring efforts under way aiming to solve the problems experienced in teacher training system (Kavak and Atanur Baskan, 2009).

Teacher Training System In Turkey

Early Developments

Historical account of teacher training in Turkey can be traced back to year 1848, when the first institution, Darülmüallim (Teacher Training College) was founded. This institution, referred to as Darülmüallimin-i Rüşdi (teacher training college for primary education), was commissioned to train teachers for primary school education. In 1870, another educational institute, Darülmüallimin-i Aliye (teacher training college for high schools) was opened to train teachers for high schools. In the Republic Era teacher training commission was devolved by the Village Institutes. The main purpose of the village institutes, opened in 1940s, was to train not

only teachers but also other occupational categories that are beneficial to the country (Atanur Baskan, 2001). According to Öztürk, having met a great amount of the teacher requirement of primary education in the countryside, village institutes, an authentic model for Turkey in its history of teacher training, provided approximately 15.000 teachers and 2.000 paramedics within the period of 1940-53. This was seminal to the opening of first co-training teacher college in 1954 (Üstüner, 2004).

Regulations On Teacher Training (Significant Decisions)

New regulations on teacher training systems in Turkey started in 1974. These new decisions and applications can be summarized as follows:

In line with the Fundamental Law of National Education No. 1739 two-year education institutes opened in order to train primary school teacher in higher education institutes. Main objective of these schools was to train primary school teachers. 30 of these institutes, which amounted to approximately 50 in 1976, were later closed (Üstüner, 2004). Then, in 1980 the number came down to 13. However, in 1987 the number of these schools again increased and became 17 (Ataüinal, 1987). According to Baskan, these schools could not yield the desired results between 1975-80 years due to some overwhelming problems such as the political events and oppression, and lack of faculty staff.

The most significant step taken towards teacher training systems in Turkey after 1974 was the decision made in 1981. This regulation brought all teacher training institutes belonging to the Ministry of National Education together as universities attaching them to YÖK (The Council of Higher Education) on July 20, 1982 (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2007). After this regulation primary school teachers and high school teachers began to be trained by higher education schools and faculties of education, respectively (Atanur Baskan, Aydın, Madden, 2006).

In 1989, two-year higher education schools were turned into four year faculties by a decision of the Council of Higher Education (YÖK) on May 1989. Hence, Higher Education Schools began to provide an education equal to that of Faculty of Education (Özoğlu, 2010).

As of 1992-93 Academic Year, training primary school teachers continued within the primary school teacher training departments of Faculties of Education (Atanur Baskan, Aydın, Madden, 2006).

Restructuring On Teacher Training Systems

Restructuring efforts in Turkey can be investigated under the following groups:

1998 Regulations: Restructuring Of Faculties Of Education.

YÖK-World Bank Pre-Service Teacher Training Project, which started in 1994 as a result of Ministry of National Education and YÖK cooperation, was put into effect in 1998. Within the frame of this project, "Restructuring of Education Faculties" application was implemented as of 1998 (Atanur Baskan, Aydın, Madden, 2006).

Main objectives of this new application were to bring forth the quality dimension of teacher training and remove the deficiencies in the training program.

Taking the activities of 1998 restructuring into consideration new regulation can be listed as follows:

Previously determined 4-year education duration for preschool and primary school teacher candidates was retained (Kavak, 2009).

Moreover, together with this new application "minor" (secondary field) certificate became possible. According to Baskan this application specifies music, art, sports or computer teaching as a secondary field for primary school teachers, and provides the primary school branch teachers with the opportunity to select at least one minor (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

Master's programs without dissertation began for the secondary school teacher nominees, which also led to fixing the duration of secondary school branch teacher programs in education faculties as 5 years. The new

application required that the undergraduates of education faculties take the field courses in the first 3.5 years (7 semesters), and complete the teaching formation courses within the remaining 1.5 years (Özoğlu, 2010).

Undergraduates of Faculty of Science and Letters could also benefit from master's program without dissertation. Completing the four year graduate program, those graduates of these faculties who want to be teachers, could go on with the 1.5 year master's program without thesis and become teachers at the end of a 5.5 year education (Kavak, 2009).

Number and credits of "Pedagogical Formation" courses were subject to some changes through the 1998 structuring with the decision made related to formation courses. Hence,

Basic Courses of Education (history of education, philosophy of education, sociology of education), except psychology of education, were removed from the program. Furthermore, most of the general culture courses were also omitted.

Allocating application class hours for most of the formation courses, applied dimension of the program was improved. Moreover, raising the application hours (hands- on- work) of the nominees at schools, cooperation between the education faculties and schools was enhanced (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2007).

Furthermore, a new course, "Planning and Evaluation in Teaching", was added to the program depending on the principle of associating the classroom teaching and evaluation with planned implementation of teaching and program development efforts carried out at various levels (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

In line with the notion that an effective teacher should manage his class efficiently and create a good learning environment, a "Classroom Management" course was also added to the program (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

1998 restructuring raised the application time allocated in the teacher training programs, strengthening the cooperation between the faculties and application schools (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 1998). According to Baskan, application activities in schools related to pre-service teacher training constituted a significant step for the teacher nominees to put what they had learned throughout the graduate program into practice and try themselves in the very classroom environment (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

By a 19.9.1997 resolution No. 97.8.144 of the Council of Higher Education Turkish National Committee for Teacher Training was also established (Özoğlu, 2010). This committee mainly was to function as an advisory body for the Council of Higher Education in teacher training. The committee consisted of the representatives of the Council for Higher Education and Education Faculties. Working in coordination and cooperation with the faculties of education, this committee was expected to fulfill the main objectives as raising the quality, determining the standards for pre-service training and applying them, developing quality and control mechanisms to evaluate and improve the quality of teacher training (Atanur Baskan, 2001).

Regarding 1998 regulations Özoğlu maintains the following views : "Upgrading the secondary school teacher training programs to master's program level was favorable. However, availability of master's diploma through the course given in the master's program without dissertation has created problems. Furthermore, granting master's program without thesis to the faculties of science and letters has led to excessive student load in these faculties, which already had as many as 170.000 (Özoğlu, 2010).

Kızılcıoğlu states, "Teacher nominees are exposed to despair and alienation from the field by the 3.5+1.5 and 4 +1.5 applications. Moreover, 5 year duration of the undergraduate programs create economic difficulties (Azar, 2006). Without-thesis master's programs for secondary education teacher training granted to the faculties of science and letters will lead to great problems in the coming years and bring up the unemployment issue.

2006-2007 Regulations

Following the 8 year term after 1998 , the first comprehensive regulation on "modification (update) of education programs" was done in 2006 (Kavak, 2009). Issues resolved by the regulation are below:

In the applications before 2006, secondary education teacher training programs provided a field training for 3.5 years, and then a teacher formation training lasting 1.5 years. As of 2006 this application was terminated, and from 2007 on field training and formation training in the education faculties were planned to be a 5-year

integral program. Formation courses were distributed over the years and a 5 year consolidated (combined or composite) education started (Özoğlu, 2010).

Secondary school branch teacher training master's program without thesis (4 year + 1.5) given by the faculties of science and letters was to be maintained provided that the training program be revised (Kartal, 2011).

Percentage of the general culture courses and selective courses removed on a great scale by the 1998 regulations were raised again with 2006 restructuring. This application required the implementation of the courses comprising 50-60 % field knowledge, 25-30 % formation, and 15-20% general culture knowledge. The main purpose of increasing class hours of general culture courses was to provide the teacher nominees trained at university level with the necessary capacity for an intellectual person. Courses such as History of Science, History of Turkish education, and Introduction to Philosophy were introduced as new general culture courses (Erdem, 2012).

Due to the difficulties in finding application schools, class hours were later reduced again (Kartal, 2011).

New program put an end to minor (secondary field) branch application as it was not required. Hence, it would be possible for the teacher candidates to acquire a profound knowledge of their own major fields (Erdem, 2012).

List of courses, course definition and credits were rearranged (Kartal, 2011).

A new course, "Social service Applications" was added to teacher training programs. The purpose of the course was to enable the teacher nominees tackle with social problems more easily (Kartal, 2011).

Furthermore, this new course was to encourage the teacher candidates to participate in scientific activities such as panels, conferences, congresses, and symposiums as listeners, lecturers or organizers (Erdem, 2012).

Özoğlu expresses his views about the 2006-2007 regulations: In 2006-2007 regulations, the Council of Higher Education stepped backward regarding many of the issues of 1998 regulations. This situation shows that the changes on teacher training should be dealt with comprehensively and integrally in accordance with the realities of the country (Özoğlu, 2010).

New Regulations In 2008: Reducing Secondary School Branch Teacher Training Master's Program Without Dissertation To One Year

In virtue of 2008 regulations master's program without thesis was rearranged in terms of both duration and course program.

After 2008 on the academic length of science and letter faculties and education faculties became equal.

2009 Regulations

In 2009, The Council of Higher Education made new decisions on the secondary school branch teacher master's program without dissertation. These decisions were:

On August 27, 2009 Uludağ University, Istanbul University and Marmara University were authorized by The Council of Higher Education to complete teacher formation courses in their faculties of science and letters, and theology within the four year academic program.

Then, upon the objections of Dokuz Eylül, Erciyes, İnönü, and Selçuk Universities, the other science and letters faculties were also entitled to the same rights (Özoğlu, 2010).

This regulation of 2009 was a great inequity against the candidates in studying in the education faculties, who were to complete their education in five years.

2010-2011 Regulations

In 2010 the Council of Higher Education decided to dissolve master's programs without dissertation. Instead was opened Pedagogical Formation Certificate Training program.

Later on 2010 -2011 Pedagogical Formation Certificate Training program was rearranged. Science and letters faculties were also allowed to apply the same program. Undergraduates of these faculties were allowed to follow this program during their time of education, and the graduates were also given the chance to benefit (Azar, 2006).

Prerequisites of the program were: presence of an education faculty at the university to give the program, having qualified academic staff, starting the program at the fifth term and complete in four terms, and at least 2.5 average credit for the nominees to follow the program (Özoğlu, 2010).

As a matter of fact, this regulation was a return to the Pedagogical Formation Certificate Training program implemented until 1998. Introduction and implementation of a previously tested and failed program seems to be interesting.

2012-2013 Regulations

Teacher Training Working Group had a convention on 21.03.2012 at the end of which a set of proposals related to teacher training systems were made and presented to the Council of Higher Education. Proposals were evaluated at the General Meeting of the Council on 05.04.2012 and decided that (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2012a):

Graduates of science and letters faculties with pedagogic formation would not be assigned as teachers (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2012b). The council declared that the application would not cover the undergraduates and graduates of universities at the time of the decision, stating that they could apply pedagogic formation programs to be opened. This new decision would be valid for the undergraduates to be registered in 2012-2013 Academic year and on (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, 2012a).

However, this new direction of the Council was not applied by the universities in the 2012-2013 Academic year. Pedagogic formation certificate programs were opened at the universities in the first semester of 2012-2013 Academic year confirms this situation. For instance, in its website Ankara University issued the criteria that the undergraduates or graduates must have to be admitted to the pedagogic formation program, and declared that the program would be carried out under the direction of the Faculty of Education.

Conclusion and Suggestions

An evaluation of teacher training policies and the restructuring efforts carried out in this field shows that no permanent solution has been found to the problems pertaining to teacher training systems so far. The results of PISA exams, recently administered in Turkey too, also brings out the idea that Turkey should review its teacher training systems (Eraslan, 2009). PISA results have put forth that accomplishment level of Turkey is lower compared to other countries. One of the basic reasons for the failure in PISA is the lack of qualified teachers in the education system (Eraslan, 2009). In this respect, priority should be given to training more qualified teachers in order to enhance student accomplishment.

Training qualified teachers depends primarily on the development of the strategies which can provide permanent solutions to teacher training. It is clear that secondary education master's program without dissertation at the science and literature faculties, which was developed as a solution to teacher training problem in Turkey, has been ineffective in solving the problem permanently. The program, originally started as remedy to lack of teachers, caused the birth of a gradually growing public unemployment problem due to the increase in the number of teacher nominees. The reason for this situation was the absence of a strategy to implement for a solution. In its 2010-2014 Strategy Plan, Ministry of National Education pointed out the fact that requirements and expectations in teacher training could not be met sufficiently (Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, 2009).

A total survey of all the restructuring actions taken indicates that they have been realized to find some temporary solutions to the problem. Following are some suggestions that may be used to solve this problem:

Graduates of science and letters faculties with pedagogic formation are entitled to be teachers. This application keeps these institutions gradually away from their basic function of training scientists and scholars. Moreover, it results in decrease in the number of these scientists, and adding up to the already growing unemployment problem. Increase in the number of teachers makes the teacher employment a grueling issue. To this is end the first thing to be done is the terminating the pedagogic formation certificate programs at the science and letters faculties, and entitling solely the education faculties to train teachers.

Furthermore, to enhance the qualifications of teachers, teacher nominees must be subjected to a more reliable and discriminating testing and evaluation prior to their entrance to education faculties. Teacher training institutions of Belgium, Britain, Poland, Finland, and France may well set examples for Turkey with their evaluation systems in the entrance exams. Teacher training institutions of these countries try to select the candidates, whether they have a flair for teacher training, through interviews in addition to the written test (Şahin, 2006). In Finland, where student accomplishment is very high, applicants first take an interview, and then are asked to deliver a sample class performance with which their speaking, presentation, and management skills are tested (Eraslan, 2009). Turkey should also prize teacher qualifications and review its evaluation systems accordingly as in the aforementioned countries.

Limited share of the vocational courses in the program, as low as 30 %, remains an impediment to the training of well-informed teacher nominees who are expected to have professional competence. Therefore, another significant change to be done is an increase in the class hours of the vocational courses in the formation program.

Moreover, class hours of applied courses must also be increased. Vocational accomplishment of a teacher candidate depends mostly on the vocational experiences gained by doing and living personally in the classroom atmosphere. Great difficulties prevail in this matter. The most important step taken towards application schools in Turkey is the “university at school” application, started only in one university, though. Nominees in this new application practice teaching as a profession in real classrooms interacting with the academicians and experienced teachers. Faculty of education has moved the training area of teacher candidates to their real place: the schools. Thus, on one hand candidates learn actively through doing and experiencing in the designated schools within the country or abroad, and on the other hand they consolidate knowledge taking the theoretical courses from the academicians. It is a pity to have this application applied only in one university in Turkey. To solve the problem at hand such applications should be started at the other universities, too, as soon as possible.

Another suggestion is that taking the teacher demand in Turkey into consideration new strategies should be developed to utterly solve the problem. Additionally, there must be quota restrictions for the redundant branches at the universities.

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Elektrik Mühendisliği Eğitimi İçin Yeni Bir Ölçüm Metodu: SELVAZ Yöntemi

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Özet

Elektrik enerjisi ve elektrik projelerinin kalitesi, çağımızda her geçen gün önemi artan bir konu haline gelmiştir. Meydana gelebilecek bir hata durumunda oluşacak adım ve dokunma gerilimlerinin insan hayatını tehlikeye sokacak mertebede olmasını önlemek veya bu tehlikeli gerilimleri tamamen ortadan kaldırmaktır. Elektrik sistemlerinin devamlılığı ve insan hayatını güvenceye almak için elektrik sistemlerinde, gerilim altındaki kısımlar yalıtılırlar. Toprağa karşı yalıtımda, çeşitli sebeplerle, her zaman bozulma meydana geldiği görülmüştür. Topraklama ağının iyi tesis edilmiş olması her tesiste önemlidir, orta ve yüksek gerilimli trafo merkezlerinde tesis edilen topraklama ağının empedansının selvaz yöntemiyle ölçülmesi gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmanın hem sahada çalışan Elektrik Mühendisleri hem de mezun olacak elektrik Mühendisliği öğrencileri için faydalı olacağı hedeflenmektedir.

Anahtar kelimeler. Elektrik Enerjisi, Tesis Topraklaması, Toprak Direnç Testleri, Toprak Empedans Ölçümü, Selvaz Yöntemi

Giriş

Toprak, sonsuz büyüklükte iletken bir kitledir ve bütün elektrik tesislerinin bulunduğu yapıları bünyesinde barındırır. Toprak direncinin doğru ölçülmesi, sağlıklı çalışan bir topraklama sistemi düzenlenmesinde önemli bir yer tutar. Enerji tesislerinin topraklanmasındaki genel amaçlar; [1]

- İnsan ve hayvan ölümlerinin önüne geçmek,
- Teçhizat ya da aygıtların elektrik arızalarında hasar almasını önlemek,
- Enerjinin güvenilirliğini ve sürekliliğini arttırmaktır.

AMAÇ VE HEDEFLER

İnsanların ve hayvanların bulunduğu alanlarda toprağa geçiş direncinin mümkün olduğunca küçük tutulması önemli ve hayati bir meseledir. Topraklama direncinin mümkün olduğu kadar küçük olması atmosferik elektrik boşalmalarında yıldırımdan korunma tesislerinde meydana gelecek yan atlamaları ve tehlikeleri azaltacağından bu hususa önem verilmelidir. [2]

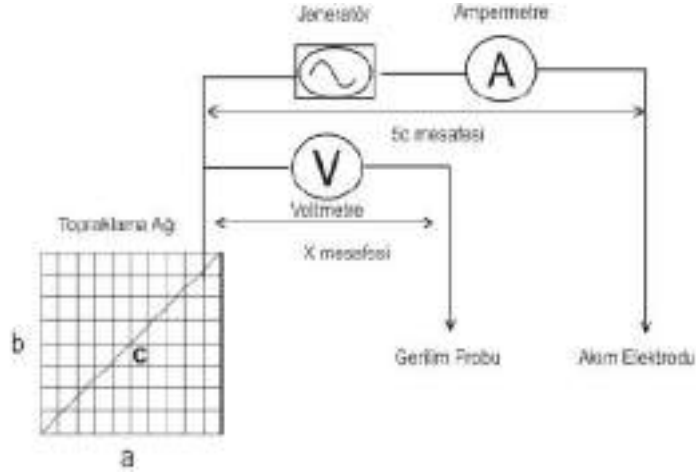
Topraklama direncinin azaltılması için mümkünse aşağıdaki toprak tiplerinden biri seçilmelidir;

- Islak bataklık zemin
- Kil, balçıklı toprak, sürülebilir toprak, killi toprak, az miktarda kum ile karışık killi toprak veya balçık
- Değişik oranlarda kum ile karışık kil veya balçık, çakıl ve taşlar
- Rutubetli ve ıslak kum seçilmeli
- Kuru kum, çakıllı tebeşir, kireç taşı, granit ve çok taşlı zeminler ve genç kayaların zemine çok yakın olduğu alanlardan kaçınılmalıdır.

Elektrik güç sistemlerinin etkin olarak topraklanmaya başlamasıyla beraber topraklama direncinin doğru olarak belirlenmesi birçok çalışmaya konu olmuştur. Topraklama direncinin ölçümünde son yıllarda selvaz(selectedvoltage amper -z) yöntemi ön plana çıkmaktadır.

SELVAZ YÖNTEMİ

Ölçüme başlanmadan önce trafo merkezinin şalt kısmının etrafı kontrol edilir ve kenar uzunlukları tespit edilir. Testlere başlanmadan önce ise şalt sahasının tüm enerjisi kesilir ve şalt sahası çıkış ve giriş fiderleri hem merkezden hem karşı taraftan açılır.



Şekil 1. Akım Kazıklarının Toprağa Çakılmış Hali(Çanakkale Akçansa TM)

Hesaplanan c uzunluğunun 5 katı mesafede seçilen uygun zemine 5-8 adet akım kazığı 70 cm derinliğinde daire oluşturacak şekilde çakılır. Çakılan kazıklar uygun noktalarından birbirlerine halka şeklinde kısa devre edilir. Akım elektrodu olarak kullanılan kablo bu kazıklara bağlanır. Akım ve gerilim elektrodları arasındaki açı 90 dereceden küçük olmalıdır.

Şekil 2.Selvaz Ölçüm Şeması

Cihazlar fens telinin hemen yanına kurularak şalt sahası toprağı ile akım elektrotu arasında 5-10 amper aralığında akım akıtılmalıdır. Mesafenin uzunluğuna göre 25m ya da 50m aralıklarla gerilim elektrotundan V_0 - V_1 - V_2 değerleri okunur. Her ölçümde V_p ve Z değerleri hesaplanır. [3]

Bu işlem $5c$ uzunluğunun birkaç işlem sonrasına kadar devam eder. Toprak potansiyeli test formülü aşağıda verilmiştir.

$$V_s = \sqrt{\frac{V_1^2 + V_2^2}{2} - V_0^2} \quad Z = \frac{V_s}{I}$$

V_0 : Toprak Potansiyeli

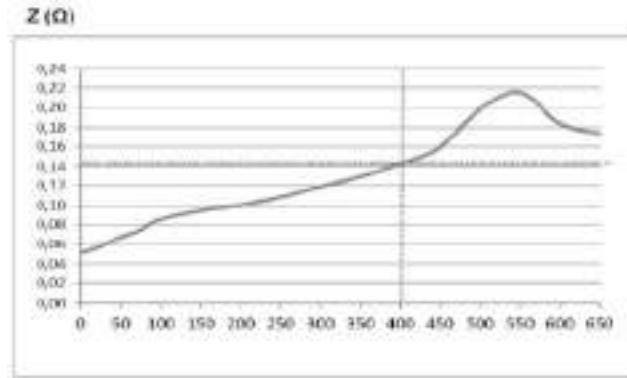
V_1 : Test akımı yokken okunan gerilim

V_2 : Test akımında okunan gerilim

V_3 : Test akımını 180 derece ters bağladığımızda okunan gerilim

Z empedans değeri şu şekilde bulunur;

- Yapılan ölçümler ile empedans-uzunluk grafiği oluşturulur.
- Grafiğin tepe noktasına denk gelen L mesafesinin 3/2 mesafesinde okunan direnç değeri Z empedans değerini verir.



- Şekil 3. de tepe noktası 550m'ye denk gelmektedir. $550 \times 3/2 = 366m$ 'dir. 366m den sonra en yakın ölçüm noktası 400m olduğu için 400m ye karşılık gelen 0,14ohm değeri sonuç olarak alınır.

Şekil 3. Yapılan Ölçümlere Ait Örnek Grafik

ADIM VE TEMAS GERİLİMİ

Adım Gerilimi Ölçümü

Şalt içerisinde herhangi bir noktada, 1 metre ara ile iki kazık çakılarak kazıklar arasında okunan gerilim bize adım gerilimini verir. Adım gerilimleri ölçülürken sistem kurulu vaziyette olmalıdır. $V_0-V_1-V_2$ gerilim değerleri alınır ve kaydedilir. Bu testler

0-1, 1-2, 2-3, 3-4 ve 4-5 metrelerde tekrarlanır.

Temas Gerilimi Ölçümü

Şalt sahası içerisinde bulunan teçhizatlar (Akım trafosu, KGT, Kesici, Parafudr, Trafo vb.) ile onlara dokunan insan arasında, insanların zarar görmemesi için ve kriter olarak belirlenen 42 Volt ya da daha altında bir gerilimin belirlenmesi için temas gerilimleri ölçülür. Temas gerilimlerinde sistem kurulu vaziyette ölçülür. Akım akıtılmak suretiyle $V_0-V_1-V_2$ gerilim değerleri alınır ve kaydedilir. Numune olarak bazı teçhizatlar seçilir. Seçilen teçhizat ile onun 1 metre ilerisine kazık çakılarak arasındaki gerilim okunur.

Şalt alanına bağlanan koruma tellerinin şaltın topraklama ağından ayrılması şarttır, aksi takdirde şalt topraklamaya paralel girerek değeri düşürür. Ölçümlerin yapılması için gerekli olan enerji jeneratör vasıtasıyla temin edilir. Teste başlarken akım akıtılmıyorsa toprak direnci büyük demektir. Bu durumda toprak direncini küçültmek için akım kazıklarının dibine tuzlu su dökme gibi yöntemler uygulanabilir. Bu testlerde ölçüm yapılırken filtre devresi kullanılarak 50Hz dışındaki kaçak gerilimlerin okunması engellenir. Hataları minimuma indirmek için polarite değiştirilerek ölçümler her iki polaritede de yapılmalı ve ortalaması alınmalıdır.



Şekil 4. Selvaz Metodu ile Kurulan Toprak Empedans Devresi

SONUÇ

Bütün boyutları ve iletkenliği önceden bilinen bir iletkene karşılık toprak, birçok özellikleri bilinmeyen çok karışık bir iletkenidir. Bu nedenle insan ve hayvanların güvenliği için toprak yapısı iyi incelenmeli ve test edilmelidir. Bu inceleme ve sonuçlar doğrultusunda daha kaliteli topraklama projeleri tasarlanmalıdır. Z empedans değeri yeni yönetmeliğe göre, 380 kV şalt tesislerinde 0,5 ohm ve daha küçük değerde, 154 kV şalt tesislerinde ise 1 ohm veya daha küçük değerlerde olmalıdır. Şayet empedans, bu değerlerin üzerinde ise şalt tesisindeki teçhizat ve insanlar için tehlike arz edeceğinden şaltın topraklama ağının arttırılarak direncin düşürülmesi sağlanır[4].

Bu çalışmada Selvaz yöntemi ile önerilen topraklama sisteminin, elektrik mühendisleri için tesislerin topraklama devrelerini tasarlanmasında yeni bir görüş ve kolaylık sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

KAYNAKLAR

Christopher Carr, Handbook On Soil Resistivity Surveying,

İsmail Kaşıkçı, Yüksek Gerilim Tesislerinde Topraklama

John Howard, Soil Resistivity Testing and Grounding System Design

Tedaş, ENH ve OG – AG Elektrik Dağıtım Tesislerinde Topraklamalara Ait Uygulama ve Esasları

Murabbic Values as A Prerequisite for Teaching: IKRAM-MUSLEH's Experience

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Abstract

The common belief that teachers play vital roles in developing the character of the young has been accepted by many educators. But depending on one's definition of what is education, these roles need to be further elaborated so as to be in parallel with one's view of the philosophy of education. IKRAM-MUSLEH believes that teachers' roles are much more than what has been practiced and emphasized, in any educational institution. In order to achieve the goals as mentioned in the Islamic philosophy of education, the process of tarbiah (character building) must be implemented together with the instilling of pedagogic skills of teachers. In some cases the attainment of the tarbiah values becomes the prerequisite of other skills. Teachers, being the most crucial link in any education system, have a major role in the process of tarbiah. They specifically play the role of a murabbi. Murabbis are mentors that exhibit exemplary roles to their mutarabbis (mentee). In addition, they are capable of instilling in their mutarabbis strong commitments to dakwah (invitation to Islam), improving the capabilities of their mutarabbi; befriending them, loving them, and monitoring their progress, utilising approaches in dakwah, acknowledging individual differences, capitalising on the mutarabbi's strength, unleashing their potentials and activating them towards amal soleh (noble deeds). Murabbi are also exemplary in the realms of aqidah (faith), akhlak (honorable character), ibadah (religiosity) and dakwah. These characteristics are not normally acquired through normal teacher training programmes. This paper will describe in further details, the murabbic values of a teacher and how these characteristics can be instilled in them.

Keywords. Murabbi, dakwah, characteristics, exemplary, characteristics, tarbiah.

Introduction

The role of teachers in developing the character of their students has been well documented in many educational reforms. This paper traces the process of teaching, based on the assumption that the aim of teaching is not limited to the transmission of knowledge so that effective learning can take place, but more importantly, student-centred pedagogy should help in character building of students. We would further argue that for such noble aims to be achieved, the teacher needs to possess noble murabbic values in advance such as true faith, appropriate religious actions, noble character, financially independent, knowledgeable, physical fitness, sacrifices, systematic in daily affairs, excellent time management and being beneficial to others. (Muhamad Hamed Elawa. 2012).

The common belief that teachers play vital roles in developing the character of the young has been accepted by many educators. But depending on one's view of the definition what is education, these roles need to be further elaborated so as to be parallel with one's view of the philosophy of education. IKRAM-MUSLEH believes that teachers' roles are much more than what has been practiced and emphasized in any educational institution. (Megat Mohamed Amin, Noor Azlan Ahmad Zanzali. 2011). Teachers specifically play the role of a *murabbi*. *Murabbis* are mentors who display exemplary roles to their students. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Teaching and learning need also be steered by the philosophy and goals of the education. (Khodori, M. 2001). Teachers need to appreciate and thus internalise, personifies and habitualise the goals of education as envisaged by the founders of the educational system. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a). Thus the job of teaching is not that simple. Teachers need to, not only be equipped with the current pedagogical approach but also possess the ability to influence and unleash the potential of the students under their care. (Megat Mohamed Amin. 2010). From the IKRAM-MUSLEH perspective, they need to possess the murabbic values viz a viz *mua'alim*, *mudarris*, *muaddib*, *murabbi* and *mursyid*.

The Characteristics of the IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher

Based on the principles of Islamic education, we believe that the teacher should possess the attributes and the values embedded in the qualities of a *murabbi*. Subsequently, we present the qualities associated with *murabbi* which are *mudarris*, *mua'alim*, *muaddib* and *mursyid*.

The Teacher as a Murabbi

The term *murabbi* is specially chosen as it represents someone who not only teach and educate, but also someone who will guide his students in their capacity building as a confident muslim in the context of our contemporary world. A *murabbi* is a social agent in developing strong muslim individuals who is knowledgeable, strong in their faith and above all, be a truly practicing believer of the Islamic faith who is able to contribute for the betterment of our shared humanity. (Megat Mohamed Amin, Mahani Mokhtar. 2006).

In the context of teaching and learning situations, the teacher must fulfil certain minimum requirements as stipulated in the *manhaj tarbiah* and thus enhance his ability to guide, inspire and motivate the students under his care to become good knowledgeable muslims. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a). In short, the teacher as a *murabbi* possess the qualities of a *muallim*, *mudarris*, *muaddib* and *mursyid* (Jawatan Kuasa Pendidikan IKRAM. 2012). All these are arabic words which essentially means the same; but there are some distinct differences between them which will be elaborated.

Murabbi is from an arabic word *rabba* which means to administer, manage, to reform and to lead. Also, *rubbiya* means who is being mentored or coached. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a)

A *murabbi* does all that is done by the *mudarris*, *muallim* and *muaddib*. But he does more than that. A *murabbi* habituates and personifies Islam as a way of life. He is exemplary to the students. He develops the affective, cognitive and psychomotor aspects of his student but his focus is on developing the affective aspect of the student so that his student practise Islam as a complete way of life. Allah s.w.t. says in Surah al-Isra:24 “.. And lower to them the wing of humility out of mercy and say, "My Lord, have mercy upon them as they brought me up [when I was] small.”

A *murabbi* teaches, educates, inspires and guides his students. He manages the school *biah* (environment) so that it becomes conducive for an effective and efficient teaching and learning process to take place. He ensures that the school *biah* includes not only the physical aspect of the school but also the school culture. Significant school culture includes strengthening team work, mastering knowledge and practising Islam as a way of life.

A *murabbi* looks after his student like the farmer who looks after the seedlings he planted. He does research work to upgrade his skills, always innovative and creative in pedagogy, feels accountable, makes reviews and reflections. His centre of value is to seek the pleasure of Allah s.w.t. Rasulullah s.a.w. and the Prophets (peace be upon them) are excellent role models for him.

He is fully aware of the trust given to him, not only by the management of the school, but more importantly, the trust given by Allah s.w.t to educate the students.. He therefore has a sense of guilt whenever the educational objectives are not achieved and a sense of sin whenever he deviates from being a role model.

A *murabbi* is not only a teacher of knowledge, in school or elsewhere, but also someone who educates a person holistically – intellectually, physically and spiritually – so that the person will habituates and personifies his knowledge and understanding. A *murabbi* therefore focusses on developing the character, attitude and behaviour of a person so that he practises Islam as way of life.

The Teacher as a Mudarris

The word *mudarris* comes from the arabic root word *darrasa* which means to teach. A *mudarris* is a teacher who teaches in school as a profession and divulges in lessons and instructions in classrooms. He imparts knowledge, based on the school curriculum, to his students via appropriate pedagogy, utilising teaching and

learning strategies, approaches, methodologies and techniques so as to unleash the students' potentials. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

He may be a muslim or non muslim and has been entrusted by school stakeholders to educate his students.

A *mudarris* is also the students' educational manager in school. He ensures that the teaching and learning process in school is effective and efficient. He enhances school culture and makes schooling environment conducive for character development and academic excellence.

He is passionate about knowledge and information critical to the development of his students, always keeping himself updated, well informed, deepens his understanding and widens his experience. He is, however, quick to admit that he does not know the answers to all questions but he will strive hard to find the answers at a later time.

He teaches until the students understand meanings, concepts and formulae, become learned, develop positive attitude and acquire relevant skills. He ensures that the knowledge is holistic, balanced and continuous, encompassing spiritual, emotional, physical and social aspects, so that the students can apply, analyse, assess and synthesise their knowledge and to enable them to function satisfactorily in society, locally and globally. (Yusuf al-Qardhawi. 2004).

A *mudarris* strives to ensure that his students are able to differentiate between good and bad, truth and falsehood, beneficial and detrimental, benevolence and damage. He uplifts his students' ability to think and make decisions based on criteria, requirements and circumstances according to contexts.

A *mudarris* pinpoints the motives of his students coming to school and corrects their motives where necessary. He identifies their *mahzumat* (unprincipled attitudes) and change them to *mahmudat* (principled attitudes).

A *mudarris* facilitates his students to make changes which are often difficult and complex. From a constructivist viewpoint, he only prepares the basics. Thereafter, he leaves matters to the students to explore, investigate and adventure; so as to develop their skills and capacity building. He also ensures that students work as a team and guides them to make social interactions based on *syariah islamiah* (islamic law and ethics). All these are done through cooperative and collaborative learning.

A *mudarris* teaches innovations and creativity via innovative and creative teaching methodologies and techniques.

A *mudarris* is, therefore, a guide, a coach, a mentor, a facilitator, a consultant, a lecturer, a tutor, a motivator and a social agent all in one.

The Teacher as a Muallim

It is from an arabic word *allama* which means to impart knowledge. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Muallim, in many ways is like a *mudarris*. He does what a *mudarris* does. He imparts knowledge to others via strategies, approach, methodologies and techniques so as to develop their potential and make them a better person. The role of the *muallim* is based on the hadis, whereby Rasulullah s.a.w. had commanded that every muslim should transmit from Rasulullah s.a.w. even though it is merely a single sentence.

But unlike a *mudarris*, a *muallim* may or may not necessarily teach in school nor teach as a profession. He is more like a lecturer or preacher. Therefore, most of us, who have been imparting knowledge to others are a *muallim* at one time or another.

A *muallim* deals with 2 types knowledge; *aqli* (academic) and *naqli* (revealed knowledge). *Aqli* knowledge relates to "worldly matters" such as politics, economics, social and technology. *Naqli* knowledge are those

revealed to us as documented in Al-Quran and As-Sunnah which comprises knowledge on *aqidah*, *syariah* and *akhlak*.

The Teacher as a Muaddib

It is from an arabic word *addaba* which means to instill noble values. *Adab* means noble values. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Adab relates not only to fellow human beings, but also *adab* of human beings towards the seen and unseen creations of Allah swt such as flora, fauna and Angels; and more importantly, *adab* to Allah s.w.t.

A *muaddib* is like a mentor and coach. He develops the students holistically – affective, cognitive and psychomotor. To do that, he provides endless guidance, encouragement, motivation and inspiration; and he is always there to lend a shoulder when tragedy strikes.

A *muaddib* focusses on character building of his students and instill in them aspects on ethics, positive attitudes and soft skills. He identifies the aspects in them which are lacking and comes out with strategies on how to inculcate those missing aspects and subsequently implements the strategies.

He instill in students respect and love for others. He drills discipline, perseverance and resilience; and become a team player. With these *adab* embedded, the student would have the ability to fend himself from dishonourable acts and unbecoming behaviours viewed by society.

The Teacher as a Mursyid

It is from an arabic word *irsyada* which means to guide. The word *al-rusyd* means mind, truth, awareness, advice, opinion, consideration and guidance. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

A *mursyid* does all that is done by the *mudarris*, *muallim*, *muaddib* and *murabbi*. But he does more than that. A *mursyid* is a master guide particularly on the affective aspect of the student, providing spiritual guidance to the student, leading him to the truth, closer to Allah s.w.t. and subsequently attaining *iman* and *taqwa* (strong faith).

He continuously seeks the pleasure of Allah s.w.t. and guides his students to do the same. Cleansing his soul of sins (*tazkiyatun nafs*) and sincerity in actions and deeds is his strength. (Mustafa Masyhur. 2000). His methodology and technique is in line with Al-Quran and Sunnah Rasulullah s.a.w.

A *mursyid* is a person who shows and guides. They focus on *tazkiyatun nafs* (purification of the soul). According to the Sufis, they are being tasked to lead and give spiritual guidance to muslims strengthening their faith to Allah s.w.t. based on the Sufi methodology. They were given the authority by those before them right up to Rasulullah s.a.w. Therefore, they are normally the descendents of *ulama'* (muslim scholars).

A *mursyid* is a perfect role model and is such a central figure in society, his views is always consulted.

In short, we envision that the teachers in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools possess the characteristics of a *murabbi*. IKRAM-MUSLEH attempts to inculcate the characteristics of a *murabbi* which includes having true faith as envisaged by the Quran and Al-Hadith; who continuously conduct appropriate religious actions; habitualises noble character; are financially independent; knowledgeable on basic *aqli* and *naqli* knowledge; physically fit; ever willing to sacrifice for the sake of Islam; systematic in his daily affairs or activities; excellent time management and beneficial to others. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

To be knowledgeable, for example, a *murabbi* needs to have a good understanding on selected academic disciplines; which includes *Dirasat Islamiah* (islamic studies), *Tarbiah* (character building programmes), Psychology, Human behavior, Organisational Management and Management skills. (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Principles of IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher's Training

Admittedly, training our teachers to be murabbi in character is not an easy task. A huge amount of effort, expenditure and expertise need to be used in such efforts. Nevertheless, the training program will be based on the basic principle as stated by said Hassan Al-Banna

“O Ikhwan! .. Prepare yourself and be focused on the appropriate tarbiah processes and assess its effectiveness and efficiency via your actions and deeds. Truly, the most difficult tasks upon you are those which are detested by the lustful mind; it is of utmost importance that you divorce your actions from lustful minds and blind rituals” (Hasan al-Banna. 1983. Pg 37).

Based on the above suggestions, IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher's training success is based on 3 main tarbiah principles; as follows: (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

The pillars of *tarbiah* are *murabbi* (mentor), *mutarabbi* (mentee), *manhaj* (curriculum) and *biah* (environment).

The process of *tarbiah* must be effective and efficient. It must be varied, simple and enjoyable. Topics, depth of knowledge and lingo must be suitable to mentees. Achievements must be appreciated and encouragement given such that mentees are left eager to come back for more learning experience.

The characteristics of *tarbiah* process are as follows:-

Rabbaniyah (Godly).

It is about purifying the soul to enhance strong iman (faith) to Allah s.w.t., done based on the teachings of al-Quran, as shown by as-sunnah of Prophet Muhammad s.a.w. and human nature. Seeking the pleasure of Allah s.w.t. is the ultimate. Love for *Akhirat* (Hereafter) must be solid. Cleansing the soul from sins must be based on the sunnah of Prophet Muhammad s.a.w. Ridding the person's character of *mazmumah* (negative attributes) must be continuous. Supplications, *basmalah* (in the name of Allah), *tadarus* (recitation of Al-Quran), *hafazan* (memorisation of Al-Quran), *istighfar* (seeking forgiveness), *tazkirah* (spiritual reminders), *ikhlas* (sincere), *wudhu* (ablution), *ihsan* (submissiveness), reading stories from muslim greats and congregational prayers as daily rituals are a must. Evidently, they have great influence on the mentee's affections, emotions and frame of mind which are then translated into beneficial actions and deeds to the society. The heart must be hopeful of the *rahmah* (blessing) from Allah s.w.t., fearful of His punishment s.w.t. and believe that, one day, every soul will return to Al-Mighty Allah s.w.t.

Syumul (comprehensive).

It is a complete, holistic and well balanced system which fulfils every aspect of a person's life based on *syahadatain* (the Islamic ideology). It covers aspects of cognitive, affective and psychomotor which includes knowledge, outlook, point of view, feelings, work, deeds, actions, mind, heart, limbs, quality, quantity, horizontal and vertical progress. The person which undergoes the process of *tarbiah* therefore must always be humble and never arrogant. Existing circumstances and situations, however, is a major factor which determines the final details of programmes and activities.

Tajmiah wa tazimiah (gather and organise).

Lessons learnt from the historical occasion of *Baiatul Aqabah*, shows that new recruits must be gathered, organised, managed, assigned, inspired and disciplined. During *Baiatul Aqabah*, there were 72 men and 2 women whereby Rasulullah s.a.w. selected 12 *naqib* (leader) from amongst them. In fact, Rasulullah s.a.w. once said that 3 persons is enough to be considered a group and that a leader from amongst them must be elected without delay.

Harakiah (Movement)

A key forte of Rasulullah s.a.w. was his ability, by the will of Allah s.w.t., to move men into action towards reforming the society, establishing the Islamic State in seeking the pleasure of Allah s.w.t. He successfully reformed individuals into men of outstanding calibre and consequently through them, managed to change society which accepted Islam as way of life based on Al-Quranul karim wa sunnah Rasulullah s.a.w. Efforts to reform society will not work until and unless the muslims themselves interact, intermingle and interrelate (*muayasyah*) every individual in society, inviting them to Islam, enjoining that is good, forbidding that is evil and believe in Allah s.w.t. They display abundant love and respect, get to know more on each and everyone of them, the positives and negatives and afterwards make improvements and reforms. Individually, they make visits, exchange gifts, send messages, participates in programmes, accepts invitations, make personal calls, offers financial help and tuitions, make personal notes and appointments, celebrate birthdays, confides on personal issues, giving trust and sharing common interest. Collectively, they perform *jamaah* prayers, *katibah* (night

prayers), *iftar jamaei* (breaking of fast), *tadarus* (Quran recitation), *solat dhuha* (morning prayer), usrah outside homes, play sports, do *rehlah* (excursions), campings, *daurah* (seminar), physical workouts, group work, meals preparation, reunions, receptions, “kutu”, hangouts, convoys, active in fb, egroups, visits, have eating out, clean ups, half-way house, discussions, role as God father, enjoy movies, meet up parents, collecting donations, cordial with pet names, active in community service, exchange gifts, witty, personal touch, massages, haircuts and car washes.

Continous (kaizen).

The process of *tarbiah* is a lifelong process which will continue until death. Inspiration and motivation unleashes potentials and sharpens the mind. *Tarbiah* can be liken to nourishment for *dakwah*. The process, therefore, must not merely be continuous but also makes the individual a better person, the next day.

The outcome of the application of the principles of *tarbiah* in the teacher’s training process is the creation of teachers who possess the Murabic characteristics and values.

The Process of Instilling Murabbic Values Amongst Teachers (Graph 1)

All teachers, besides undergoing the normal teacher training programme, which is normally conducted on a part time basis, are expected to undergo the “*tarbiah* process”. For IKRAM-MUSLEH administrators, this part of the training (that is the “*tarbiah* process”) is the most important part of the overall training of teachers. In fact, the ability to attain the murabbic values becomes the main condition before they can be confirmed as full time teachers in the schools. Teachers with adequate academic qualifications, but do not have the murabbic values, will not be required to teach in the schools.

IKRAM-MUSLEH teachers are given training so that they would progress through levels 1 to 5 as indicated below:

Level 1

The teacher (murabbi) is made aware of the constructs to be assessed

Level 2

The teacher (murabbi) acquires knowledge and comprehension about each construct

Level 3

The teacher (murabbi) practises and habitualises the construct selected

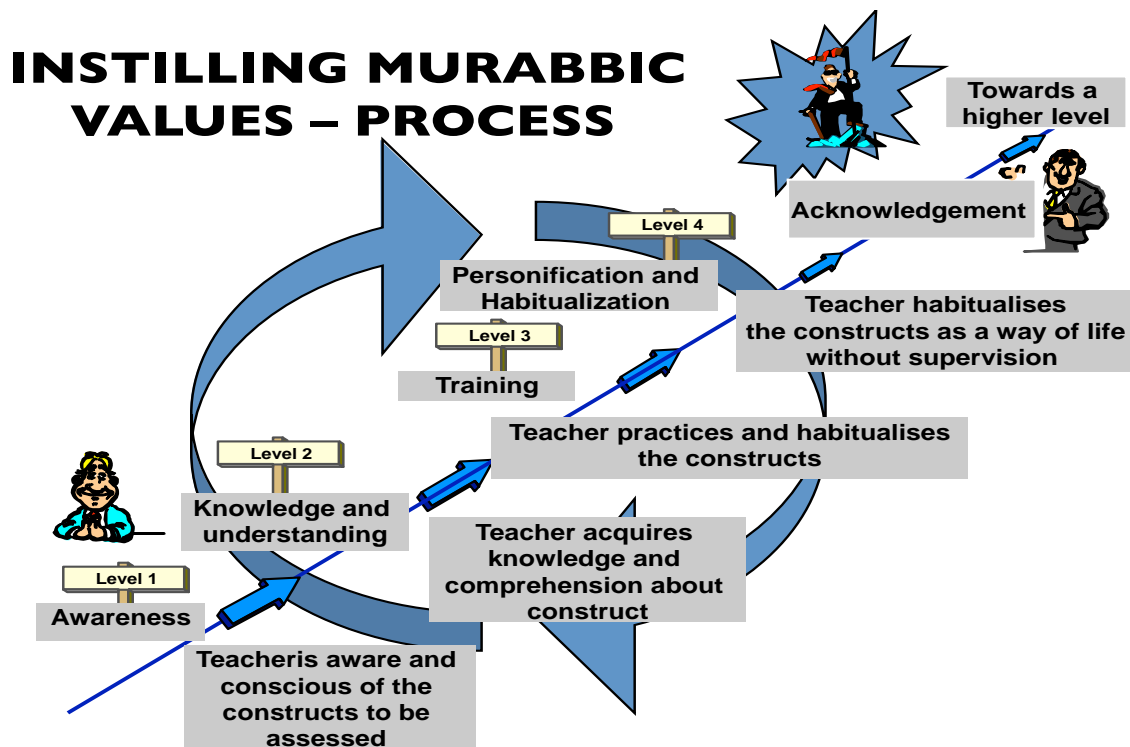
Level 4

The teacher (murabbi) habitualises the constructs as a way of life without supervision

Level 5

Accomplishments by the teacher is acknowledged, recognised and encouraged for further personal development.

Graph 1 describes the levels that all teachers need to undergo.



Methodologies (*wasail*) and Techniques (*uslub*) of teacher training are described below. There are 7 methodologies; namely: (IKRAM-MUSLEH, 2013a).

Liqa' usari (study group)

It is the foundation for the development of *ukhuwah fil Islam* (brotherhood in Islam) *dakwah*, *tarbiah* and *jihad* (sacrifice). *Ukhuwah fil Islam* is a central objective in *tarbiah*. It can be nurtured via *taarof* (introduction) cheerfulness, hugs and kisses, sharing, offers to assist, "I love you lillahi taala" and sitting closely. It is done weekly for a specific period whereby elements of *taarof*, *tafahum* (understanding) and *takafol* (mutual help) is fostered. *Liqo usari* may done via group sittings, interface or online. Bonding based on love for Allah s.w.t. is strengthened. Close monitoring on current issues is also an important itinerary in *liqo' usari*.

Katibah (night prayers)

It is done monthly to develop *ruhi* (spirituality). Different venues may be selected.

Rehlah (excursions).

It is done quarterly to develop social relations. Itineraries may be varied and different locations selected.

Mukhayyam (camping).

It is done annually which focuses on physical fitness and discipline. Programmes and physical test may be changed accordingly.

Daurah (group discussion).

It is done twice annually to develop ideological knowledge on Islam such as "ibadah", "jihad", and "politics in Islam".

Nadwah (seminar).

It is done annually to update members on current issues and allow differences of opinions but seeking the truth based on sound arguments and facts.

Muktamar (conference).

It is done annually to update members on issues related to the organisation so as to bring the organisation to a higher level of success and capability.

Techniques of *tarbiah* must be varied and interchangeable. However, the most effective technique in *tarbiah* is *qudwah hasanah*.

Empirical Evidences on the Impact of IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher's Training

Although, there are several variables which would affect students' excellence and high performing schools, it is undeniable that the role of teachers remains the most important. (Noor Azlan Ahmad Zanzali, Megat Mohamamed Amin, Md. Nor Bakar. 2011). Below are some evidence indicative of the impact of IKRAM-MUSLEH Teacher's Training on the schools

Teachers

More than 20% of teachers in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools have achieved the level 03 (highest level is 05) of the *manhaj tarbiah*. Operationalization of the concept and measurement for the level in the *manhaj tarbiah* is based on the system theory which objectively look into the Input-Process-Output of the *tarbiah* and murabbic values achieved.

Schooling environment, culture and values

It is evident that the teachers in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools strives to uphold islamic ethics and disciplines, implement programmes based on *sunnatullah* and seek the blessings from Allah s.w.t. Noble values are being given top priority: *sidq* (truthful), *amanah* (trust), *tabligh* (convey) and *fatonah* (wisdom). There is a loving and joyful atmosphere in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools via rewards and punishments, an atmosphere of thankfulness to Allah swt, much supplications, many suprerogatory deeds (like fasting and prayers), purification of the soul and much remembrance of Allah s.w.t.

Students

Public examination results confirm the fact that the performance of students in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools are amongst the best in the district, state and even at national level. Amongst the current achievements shown in appendix 1. Performance of students in co-curricular activities demonstrate that their skills and attitude are at par or even better than the top students in the country as well as at the international level.

School image

IKRAM-MUSLEH schools are highly rated, given strong community support and registration of new students have always be oversubscribed. Parents have also shown their support to IKRAM-MUSLEH schools by sending all their children studying there. IKRAM-MUSLEH schools have been refered to as showcase private Islamic schools by the Ministry of Education (MOE) and consulted for their experience and expertise. The MOE have recognised the contributions of IKRAM-MUSLEH schools in a number of aspects; namely:

- Academic performance in public examinations.
- Annual IIUM Students Debating Championship (English, Arabic, Malay).
- Annual Musleh International Students Debating Championship (English, Arabic, Malay) – finalist from IKRAM-MUSLEH schools.
- International programmes participated by Kelab Remaja Sekolah Musleh (KRS Musleh).
- Community service programmes (Kembara Dakwah) organised by KRS Musleh in remote villages in Sabah, Sarawak and indigenous communities in peninsula Malaysia.
- Islamic Studies curriculum and teacher training modules specifically designed and implemented
- Teaching of arabic language starts from year one primary up to year five secondary school.
- Affordable charges for school fees.
- In the year 2013, 5 IKRAM-MUSLEH schools have been awarded grade 5 (excellent) for SKIPS by State Education Department. 1 school has been awarded grade 4.
- Almost zero disciplinary incidents amongst students and teachers in IKRAM-MUSLEH schools.

Despite the fact that most IKRAM-MUSLEH schools lack facilities as compared to the mainstream schools, our achievements were on par, in fact, better than to even the premier schools in all fields such as the academic, cocurricular and community programmes.

Conclusion

Developing one to be a good *murabbi* is a never ending process. *Murabbi* should not stop doing *tarbiah*. For teachers at the IKRAM-MUSLEH schools, attaining the virtues of a *murabbi* is the ultimate aim in the process of being a good Muslim. The responsibilities of the teachers with murabbic values go much beyond the acts of teaching in the context of imparting knowledge. They are the role models showing good examples for people under their care and at the same time make significant impacts on the character development of their pupils. Their success is not assessed by the number of pupils that do well academically, but by the number of potential future *murabbis* they have developed effectively.

Note:

For a more complete and detailed description on the process of instilling murabbic values, please refer to:

- IKRAM-MUSLEH (2013a). Manual Sistem Pengurusan Manhaj Tarbiah Ikram-Musleh (SISTEM). Sekolah Menengah Islam (SMI). 2013.
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Appendix 1

Data below shows students performance in SPM for year 2012 under IKRAM-MUSLEH schools:

No	Schools	Candidates	Overall Average Grade	% Pass	% students who scored more than 6 "As"	Number of students who scored all "As"
1.	SMI Hidayah Johor Baharu	106	3.02	88.68	49	10
2.	SMI Al-Amin Gombak	103	3.02	98.91	39.2	6
3.	SMI Al-Amin Bangi	56	3.82	94.4	20	3
4.		27	3.38	98.5	33.3	1
5.	SMI Hira Jeram	74	3.76	81.1	23	2
6.	SMI Aman Binjai	37	5.73	87.88	3	-
7.	SMI Al-Irsyad Kuantan	21	5.35	100	14.28	-
8.	SMI Al-Hidayah Ipoh	31	4.32	100	25.81	0
9.	SMI Al-Islah Sg Petani	40	3.62	97.6	40	2
10.	SMI As-Saidiyah Seremban	35	5.18	52.9	-	-
11	SMI Al Azhar	12	2.74	100	58.3	1
12	SMI Arab Tahfiz	20	5.36	81	1	0

Data below shows students performance in PMR for year 2012 under IKRAM-MUSLEH schools:

No	Schools	Candidates	Overall Average Grade	% Pass	% students who scored more than 6 "As"	Number of students who scored all "As"
1.	SMI Hidayah Johor Baharu	138	1.75	78.26	44.9	22
2.	SMI Al-Amin Gombak	130	1.72	97.97	50.8	18
3.	SMI Al-Amin Bangi	84	1.55	99	54.8	16
4.	SMI Al-Amin Kemaman	51	1.74	98	45	4
5.	SMI Hira Jeram	88	1.82	85.23	42	17
6.	SMI Aman Binjai	42	2.42	93.92	31	2
7.	SMI Al-Irsyad Kuantan	33	2.23	52	27.27	-
8.	SMI Al-Hidayah Ipoh	45	2.38	100	17.77	1
9.	SMI Al-Islah Sg Petani	71	1.97	96.4	25	6
10.	SMI As-Saidiyah Seremban	39	2.85	43.6	-	-
11	SMI Al Azhar	39	1.7	92.3	46.2	5
12	SMI Al Itqan P.Pinang	18	2.74	33	11	-

Radiness of Nursing and Health Sciences Faculty for Adopting the Student-Centeredness Approach in the Learning-Teaching Process at Bethlehem University

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Abstract

Student's centeredness-approach (SCA) can be defined as an approach to education focusing on the need of students rather than those of others involved in the educational process such as teachers and administrators. The main goal of this research is to assess the readiness of the nursing and health sciences faculty for the student-centered approach in the learning-teaching process at BU from student's perspective. A quantitative research method was used. The selected sample was a purposive sample, which include 223 students from Nursing and health Sciences Faculty. A questionnaire was developed by the researchers. Alpha reliability coefficients were between 0.77 and 0.85. The results showed that the majority of participants moderately agreed with the transition to students-centeredness approach 99(44.4%). They said it is possible and very possible to adopt this approach 99(44.4%), 25(11.2%), Students and teachers are ready to some extent to adopt the student's-centeredness approach with crucial needs to do some changes in the infrastructure.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Student centered-approach can be defined as an approach to education focusing on the need of students rather than those of others involved in the educational process such as teachers and administrators. It focuses on the various learning styles of the students in guiding teaching strategies has been a major focus of researchers since 1960s (Faucet, 1963, Sund, 1974, Glasgow, 1997). Moreover, student centeredness focus on the need of students to guide academic institutions strategies has received very little attention (Popejoy, 1994, McConbs, 1997). The academic institutions that adopt Student's-Centeredness Approach (SCA) will be more successful in terms of more achievements and student's motivation, in-addition, using this approach still conflicting evidence (Kinkead & Harris, 1993). The teaching –learning process is a shared one between the students and teachers.

As lecturers in the Nursing and health Sciences Faculty since long time we believe that our main concern is not limited to the fact that students do well on written tests of recognition and recall, however, we expect from our students to be more active in their learning process, independent, use critical thinking skills during their practice and apply what they have been taught in lecture rooms to the care of their patients. In addition these students should be also able to recognize when their knowledge and skills are not enough to certain clinical situations, therefore, they should look for the needed information and skills to such a situation. According to our knowledge and experience we can say that most of the lecturers are following the conventional or the traditional approach in teaching here, this approach is no longer appropriate since it limits the students' participation in their learning process. As we live in a society with many rapid changes, high technology, high demographic changes which is highly competitive, it is important to guide the development of the profession to adapt and inspire change, we need a transformation in the health systems, as we need transformational leadership; we need change in organizational learning climates and change in leadership style. The students should be prepared to join their profession society.

RESEARCH GOALS

- 1.To assess the readiness of the Nursing and Health Sciences Faculty for adopting the Student-Centered Learning Approach (SCLA) in the teaching –learning process at Bethlehem university.
- 2.Improve the quality of the teaching- learning process in the Nursing and Health Sciences Faculty.
- 3.Create a culture of learning among students that promote their critical thinking abilities.

METHODOLOGY

Research Site

The study was conducted at Bethlehem University, mainly in the nursing and health Sciences Faculty.

Survey Design

A non-experimental, cross-sectional, descriptive survey was used in this study. A self-administered questionnaire was used.

Sample

The sample included all students in Nursing and health Sciences Faculty who are enrolled in the four programs: Nursing, Physiotherapy (PT), Occupational Therapy (OT) and Midwifery. The sample size was 305 students who met the eligibility criteria of: Student from Nursing and health Sciences Faculty, under graduate and full time student. 223 questionnaires were completed and returned back by the students with response rate 74%. The selected sample was a purposive sample, which includes all students from Nursing and health Sciences Faculty.

Instrument

A questionnaire was developed by the researchers. The questionnaire consists of four sections or sub-constructs. The first section (Section A) consists of 12 items related to demographic data. Section B consists of 9 items related to educational process with a likert scale. Section C consists of 14 items related to educational environment with a likert scale. And Section D consists of 4 different items related to the students' suggestions and opinions about the possibility of adopting the student's centeredness approach in the learning-teaching process.

Validity and Reliability Of The Instrument

For reliability, the researcher calculated alpha coefficient to check the internal consistency of the instrument as shown in Table 1. Alpha reliability coefficients were between 0.77 and 0.85. All domains are above the approved level of 0.70, as shown in (Table 1).

Table 1- Alpha coefficients for each domain for the instrument.

	N	Number of statements	Cronbach's alpha
Educational Process	223	9	0.77
Educational Environment	223	14	0.85

For content validity the instrument was evaluated by three experts for clarity and adequacy; changes were done according to their suggestions. Besides, instrument validity was examined by calculating Person's correlations between questions and the overall result, the correlations were statistically significant ($P=0.01$).

Data Collection: Administering Questionnaire

The questionnaires were delivered using similar methods over a two-week period for the purpose of standardization. All questionnaires were sent to the students contained a cover letter, which included introduction about student centeredness approach, the purpose of the study and instructions on filling in and submitting the questionnaire.

Ethical Considerations

Polit et al. (2004) outlines three ethical principles to guide ethical conduct in research: beneficence, respect for human dignity and justice. The participants were free from any foreseeable risk of harm while potentially contributing to teaching learning process by exploring the problem of student centered approach. Moreover, this

study assured the freedom from any exploitation; participants were assured that their participation or any information that they may provide will not be used against them in any way. Therefore, people agree to participate in the study as they may perceive direct personal benefits or as they may benefit the students in general. Respect for human dignity was the second principle articulated in this study and included the right to self-determination and the right to full disclosure. The right to self-determination ensured participants the right to decide voluntarily whether to participate in the study without risking any penalty or prejudicial treatment. They also have the right to ask questions and ask for clarification. The right to full disclosure was assured in this study by full description of the nature of the study and all participants in this study were aware that the study is completely voluntary. The third ethical principle in this study concerned justice, which included participants' rights to fair treatment and their right to privacy. All students were treated the same if they meet the inclusion criteria of selection. The right to privacy was observed in this study by assuring anonymity and confidentiality. All these rights were protected, assured and cleared in the cover letter of the instrument that used in this study. Permission to proceed with this study was obtained and the voluntary, anonymous and confidential nature of the study was emphasized.

DATA ANALYSIS

Educational Environment

The total degree of educational environment statement was moderate, the mean of statements was 3.33 (SD= 0.65) as shown in table 2.

Table2: Educational Environment statements' results

Educational Environment	Mean	SD
The library services fulfill my academic needs	3.72	0.92
The students receive adequate help in the university library	3.60	0.92
The number of students in each course is suitable with the class room size	3.53	1.17
The faculty laboratories are well equipped with the needed equipment for training	3.51	1.07
The university computer center provides the needed help for the students in their education	3.43	1.10
The classrooms are equipped with computers, LCD and sound system	3.43	1.15
The square area of each classroom is suitable	3.42	1.06
It is easy to find a computer in the university whenever I need it for my study	3.40	1.10
The library course offered in the university assisted me in my university education	3.36	1.12
The number of computers in the university meets my academic needs	3.28	1.05
The students receive adequate and suitable services in the university computer center in terms of guidance and assistance	3.28	1.04
The university library has enough online data base	3.19	1.10
In general, I am satisfied with the current educational process in the faculty which involves lectures, exams and power point presentations	3.05	1.23
The classrooms are suitable in terms of seats, light, temperature and ventilation	2.90	1.20

The above table describes the most important points in the educational environment at BU which were arranged in order from the higher to lower means, the statement with the highest mean was that the library services fulfill my academic needs, and the lowest was that the classrooms are suitable in terms of seats, light, temperature and ventilation.

Application of the Students Centeredness

To explore respondents' opinions about application of the student centeredness in the learning -teaching process, three questions were administered in the questionnaire.

The first question was Do you agree with the transition from the teachers centeredness to the students centeredness in the learning- teaching process? The answers of the question are presented in the following graph:

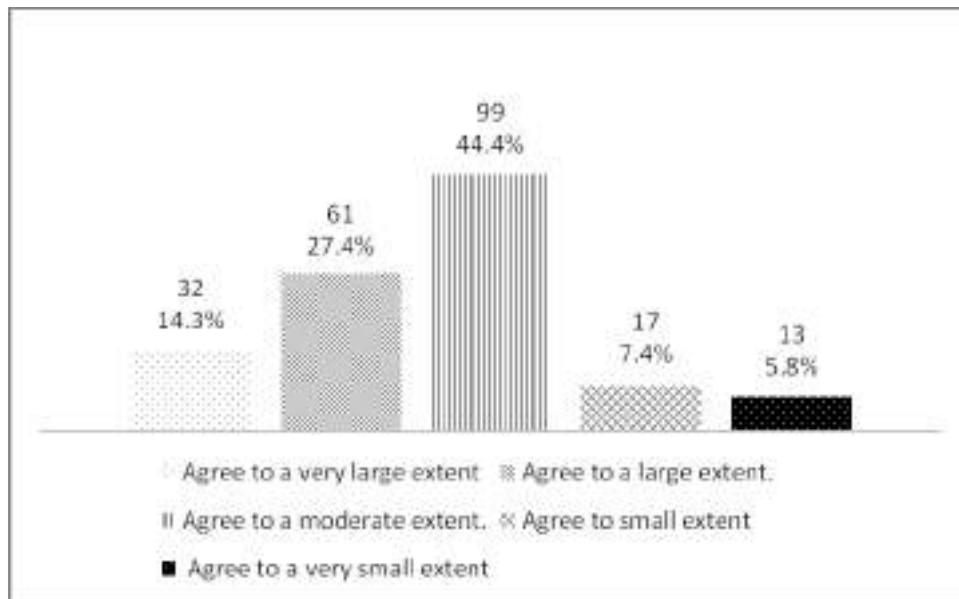


Figure 1: Distribution of participants in relation to the extent to transition to student approach.

The figure shows that the majority of participants moderately agreed with the transition to student's Centeredness approach, 99(44.4%).

The second question was is it possible to shift from the teacher's centeredness to the student's centeredness in the learning – teaching process? The answers of the question are presented in the following graph:

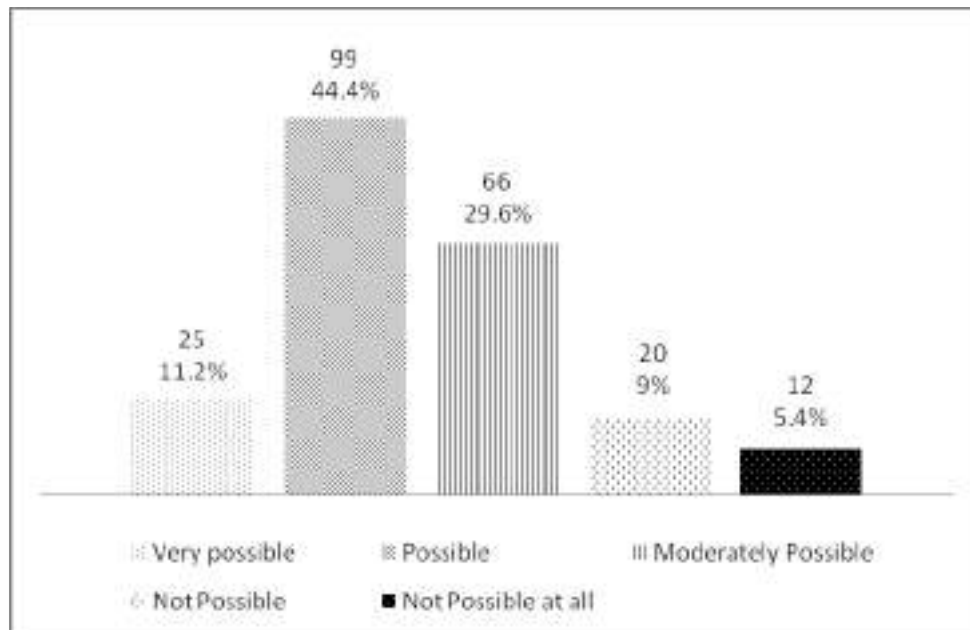


Figure 2: Distribution of participants in relation to the possibility to transition to student approach.

The figure showed that the majority of participants said it is possible and very possible to adopt student's centeredness approach, 99(44.4%), 25(11.2%).and only 32 (12%) said it is not possible or not possible at all to adopt such approach.

The third question was: Is the faculty ready to adopt the student’s centeredness in the learning-education process. The answers of the question are presented in the following graph:

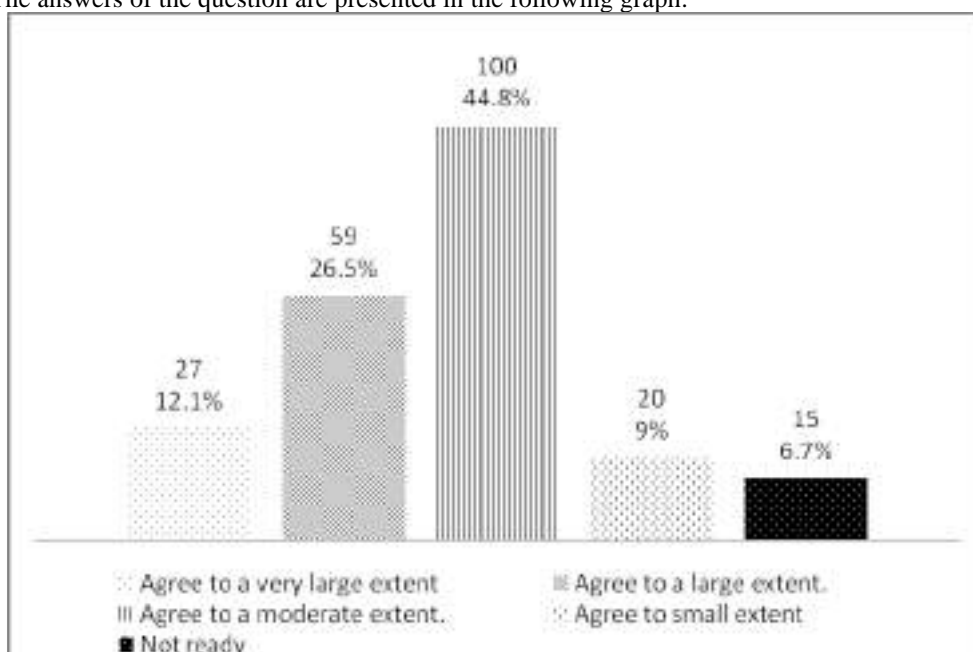


Figure 3: Distribution of participants in relation to the readiness of faculty to transition to student centeredness approach.

The figure shows that the majority of participants said that the faculty is moderately ready for transition to student’s centeredness approach, 100(44.8%). While only 15(6.7%) think the faculty are not ready to adopt such approach

Suggestions To Shift To Students Centeredness

The numbers of respondents who agreed with the suggestions are presented in the following Table :

Table 3: Suggestions of respondents

Suggestions	N of respondents who suggested	Percentage (%)
The student should be oriented to her/his centeredness in the teaching learning process from the first year of study.	195	87.4
The teacher should be trained in the students’ centeredness approach.	170	76.2
The library resources should be upgraded with books, journals and electronic materials.	166	74.4
Upgrade the computer centers in terms of numbers of computers and services.	154	69.1
Train the students to use the library services resources, computer and internet services.	164	73.5
Decrease the number of students in each course in order to facilitate the application of the student’s centeredness in the learning-teaching process.	130	58.3
Change the current applied lecturing methodology to different methodology that promotes the students participation in order to foster his/her centeredness in the learning-teaching process. Please give examples for this	125	56.1

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The Current Educational Process:

The students reflected on this concept with moderate agreement: they agreed that the teacher is the centre of the learning teaching process, beside the student plays a major role in this process. This reflection could be related to the uniqueness of the health professions that need both student and teacher to be actively involved in the learning teaching process especially with the clinical component. Also the faculty concentrated on the

participation of the students and the teacher uses a variety of teaching methods, which is part of the student's centeredness approach.

In addition, the evaluation criteria of the courses consider the students participation. Moreover, the students asked to be involved in the need assessment phase, meet with them on regular basis and to consider their recommendation.

The discrepancy in the student's responses that came out with a moderate agreement on the items of the educational process can be justified by the variations among the students due to their major and the year of the study. Also the teachers in this faculty don't follow a unified system in their teaching as some of them more actively involve the students in their learning than other teachers who mainly follow the teacher- centeredness approach.

The Educational Environment:

Generally, the majority of students agreed to some extent that the educational environment satisfies their educational needs, however, they disagreed with the suitability of the classroom in term of seats, light, furniture, temperature and ventilation, moreover, almost half of the students didn't agree that the number of students is suitable with the classroom size in each course. In addition, they also did not agree with the laboratories equipment that the faculty use for training, beside they also reported that it is not easy to find a computer when they needed due to the limited number of computer centers and computers. These results could be due to increased number of students at BU without enough parallel expansion of the university facilities and spaces. Regardless the students major and year of study almost half of them are not satisfied with the services offered in the computer, this result may be due to the increased number of students who need help in these labs and the limited number of staff who work there, in addition, about

One third of the students claimed that the library course did not assist them enough in their educational process. This result may be due to the fact that the students take this course in their first year of study without enough application for it at this level and the students don't receive additional training in library services after this.

Application of the Student's -Centeredness Approach:

The majority of the sample agreed with the transition to the SCA. This agreement was among all the students regardless their year of study and major, in addition, the students and faculty in the focus groups agreed with this transition. These results support the students' comments about the current education process at BU. These comments clarified the students' relative disagreement with the current process since they consider it as teacher-centeredness with an indoctrination and traditional method in which the student has limited role and depends on the teacher for the knowledge. So it creates a passive student who lacks the analytical and critical thinking abilities and these will negatively impact on the student's exams results and also on the graduate future career. Beside this, the majority of the students believe in the possibility of adopting the SCA and these students think that the faculty is ready for this transition and they had some suggestions to help in this transition.

They indicated that the student should be oriented to the SCA as early as possible in their university educations moreover, these students suggested that the teachers should be trained to this approach in addition to more upgrading and expansion of the university facilities as classroom, training lab, computer centers and decreasing the number of students in each classroom.

CONCLUSION

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the readiness of the faculty of nursing and health sciences to adopt the SCA. The results showed that the faculty's students and teachers are ready to some extent to adopt such approach, the student's need this transition as it gives them the opportunity to develop themselves in certain skills such as critical thinking analytical abilities and to be more involved in decision making in relation to their learning process as in assessment and evaluation. Moreover, there is a need to invest more in BU infrastructure, in the computer and faculty laboratories, library resources, and in the classroom environment such as seats, ventilation, space and light. Beside these, there is a crucial need to orient and train both the teachers and students on skills related to the SCA. To facilitate the success of this transition, it is important to get the support from BU administration to adopt the SCA on the university level. It is recommended to increase the faculty and student's awareness about the student's -centeredness approach by training workshops. Adopt gradually the student's-centeredness approach in the faculty of nursing and health sciences.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- 1) Increase the faculty and student's awareness about the student's -centeredness approach by training workshops.
- 2) Upgrade the nursing and health sciences faculty laboratories.
- 3) Improve the infrastructure of the university in relation to library resources, computer laboratories and the classroom environment.
- 4) Decrease the number of students in the major courses and not to have more than 20 students in each course.
- 5) Communicate with other universities that adopt the student's- centeredness approach to learn from their experience.
- 6) To have a policy on university administration level that considers the adoption of the student's centeredness approach among all faculties.
- 7) Adopt gradually the student's- centeredness approach in the faculty of nursing and health sciences.
- 8) Increase the school teacher's awareness about the student's centeredness approach through training workshops.

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The Effectiveness of Self-Controlling Instruction on Attention Increase and Educational Progress of Students With Writing Disorder

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Abstract

According to universal estimation eight percent of children especially boys have learning disability that, in some cases is followed by attention deficit which itself aggregates the disorder. Medication is mostly used in order to treat the attention deficit which itself has side effects for the child. This research focuses on behavior reformation with self-controlling method and its reinforcement. The investigative project in this research is the single subject method performed with ABAB reflexive and follow-up method in writing disorder student. It also focuses on the instruction of self-controlling method and its administration in all stages of treatment observation by case and researcher, and its effect on educational progress. In order to make progress in this research and its obtained results, diagrams, tables, descriptive and deductive statistics have been used. The obtained result of this investigation is the attention increase by using the self-controlling method and its positive effect on educational progress.

Keywords. Self-controlling, Writing disorder Students, Attention Increasing.

INTRODUCTION

Writing for many people especially for those with learning disorder (LD) is a challenging process. Even expert writers sometimes face problems in planning, editing and evaluation of writings, so it is not surprising that many students face problem in writing process, for example recent studies have shown that out of every five elementary students, just one has the knowledge of skill of writing (Don Jean, 2003). Silver (1990) reported that between 15 -20 % of students with LD has Hyperactivity which often co morbid with attention deficit. In contrast to reading disorder, writing disorder is recognized after the first grade of elementary school. Limited and rational needs of writings of first grade elementary students rarely might be dependent to concept or use of language grammar use. So parents and teachers might report that the appearance of writing disorder is obvious in grade 3 and 4. In fact grade 3 and 4 are when writing problems appear because of school programming. During grade 3 to 6, the growth of thought related to writing and use of language grammar increase a lot and most of writing problems appear during these years. (Kratowill & Shapro, 2003) Children with learning disability often have attention deficit disorder which exacerbates LD, as the result has direct impact on the instructional procedure and educational progress in such students. (Lloyd & Bateman, 1989) This problem is related with different perceptual disorder. A child with LD who has attention deficit cannot concentrate on one activity more than a few minutes and his attention to irrelevant stimuli of activity is easily deviated. The child even with awareness about the problem understands that concentration on one specific activity is extremely difficult for him. One of these methods to recover attention deficit is teaching self-controlling method. (Hallohan, Kneedler, Liloyd, 1983) Attention self-controlling as one of the cognitive behavior therapy skills consists of measurement and recording of quantity of behaviors, which show the importance of homework. Paying attention on homework is one of the most important goals of instruction of self-controlling in the class because studies show that attention deficit is related to low educational performance. The effectiveness of teaching self-controlling in attention in many studies have proven (Hallohan, Hudson, 2002), (Montague, 2007), (Shapro, Kratowill, 2003), (Blink, 1971). Belink (1971) in a study investigated the instruction of self-controlling method on attention and its maintenance during the time in three groups of children with LD, mental retardation and behavior disorder. The result showed the increase of attention behavior and its maintenance during the time after omission of self-controlling method. Gelin, Thomas (1973) and Rock, Tead, (2007) by omission of self-controlling method found that students' attention would be kept even with the omission of the reinforcement of stimulus. According to the above notes as most of the students with LD consist of students with writing disorder and according to the

importance of rule of self controlling, researchers are apt to investigate the theory of effectiveness of teaching self-controlling method in improvement of attention and educational progress of students with writing disorder.

METHOD AND PROCEDURES

The method of this study is case study which investigated the subjects in the form of A-B-A-B design with follow up. The A-B-A-B design represents an attempt to measure a baseline (the first A), a treatment measurement (the first B), the withdrawal of treatment (the second A), and the re-introduction of treatment (the second B). In other words, the A-B-A-B design involves two parts: (1) gathering of baseline information, the application of a treatment and measurement of the effects this treatment; and (2) measurement of a return to baseline or what happens when the treatment is removed and then again applying the treatment and measuring the change.

The statistical population in this study was all students with writing disorder in Mashhad, Iran. To do this research 7 students with writing disorder were selected randomly after the administration of diagnostic test such as WISC-R, Rutter Behavior Disorder questionnaire (1976) after selection of subjects. Researchers observed students for a week, especially when students needed attention and concentration while teachers were teaching and showed behaviors which represented attention deficit. After a week direct observation A-B-A-B design and follow up were done, and to ensure and raising attention each level continued for 12 days.

WISC-R: in order to measure the subjects' IQ who have writing disorder it is used.

The Rutter Children's Behavior Questionnaire (Rutter, 1967) for completion by teachers is a 26- item survey designed to evaluate children's behavior at school. Answers are rated on a scale of 0 to 2, with higher ratings indicating more severe presence of the symptoms. Possible ratings on the scale range from 0 to 52.

Educational progress:

In pretest, students' dictation frequently were investigated which were six essays during twelve days. In equal period of time each essay had approximately round 120 words with equal difficulty. In post test, students again had 6 spelling tests in equal period of time and the kind of spelling errors were again analyzed and the mean was calculated.

The instruction of self-controlling method:

- 1) Pretest step (baseline- A1): After the exact description of inattention behaviors, in a week in every 50 minutes session the testee was reminded by the researcher to check himself every five minutes to see whether he has attention to the teaching or not, for having attention behavior he put a positive mark and for every inattention behavior a negative mark for himself.
- 2) Treatment method step (intervention- B1): In this step attention and inattention behaviors were exemplified. Attention behaviors such as good seeing, good hearing and complete attention to the teacher and inattention behaviors were playing with pencil and eraser, having wandering eyes while the teacher is teaching and etc. During two weeks the researcher had to fill a table which consists of ten parts and in every 50 minutes session by observing any attention behaviors a token economy was given to the testee as an encouragement and reinforcement.
- 3) Return to the baseline (A2) step: In this step the researcher just observed the testee's behaviors again while the testee himself filled the table in order to have reduction of inattention behaviors as a result of treatment method (step2).
- 4) Treatment method step (B2): The attention behaviors of testee were recorded by the researcher every 5 minutes like step 2 and he received token economic.
- 5) Follow up: two weeks later, the testee again recorded his behaviors without any reinforcement.

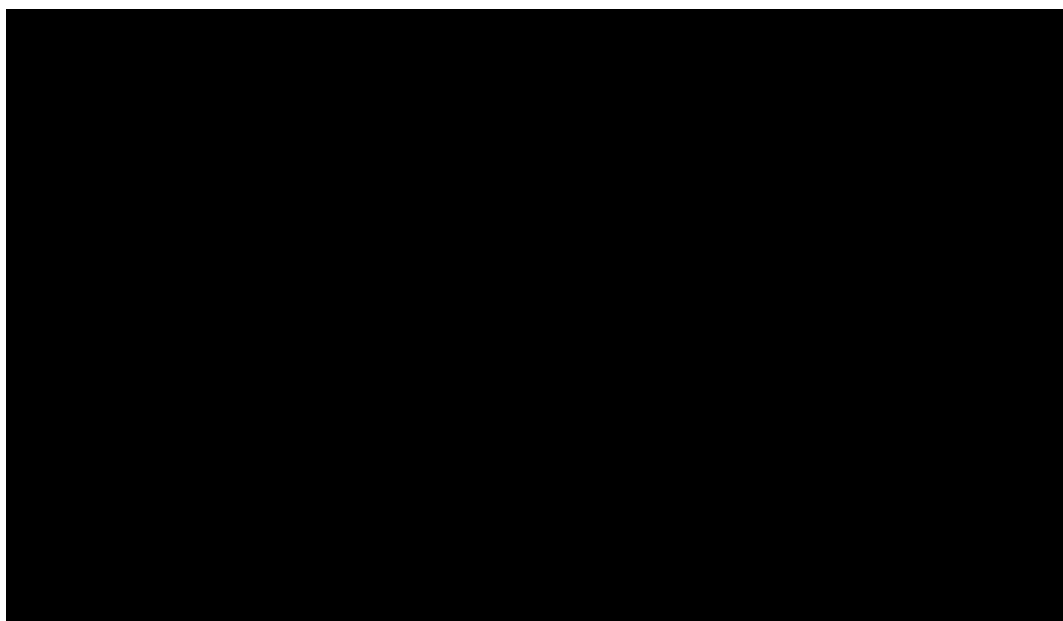


Fig. The related data to the way of subjects function inattention behavior based on self- controlling

RESULT

As seen in Figure, according to the report of students, self-controlling and its improvement in subjects 1,2,3,4 had significant raise and about subject 5, it was less but the increasing procedure was observed. Subject 6 and 7, also had attention rising which was slower in comparison to other 4 subjects. The performance of subjects in baseline was rising while in instructional level attention graphs were raising too, and it can be observed in follow up. As seen in Table, In comparison of subjects’ spelling errors in A1 level and follow up, it can be concluded that in spelling error there is the significant lowering of attention while the spelling errors (visual memory, audio sensation, instruction and omission of words) did not have any significant difference.

Table1. Comparison of subjects’ spelling errors in A1 level and follow up.

X2	Df	P	Follow up Percent	Follow up Number	A1 Percent	A1 Number	
6/5	1	0/01	17/5	31	31/7	38	attention
1/2	1	0/3	7/5	9	11/7	14	Visual memory
0/9	1	0/35	6/7	8	10	12	Audio sensitivity
0/35	1	0/55	10/8	13	13/3	16	Instruction
1/3	1	0/25	1/7	2	4/2	5	Omission of words

CONCLUSION

In general, conclusions have shown that self-controlling method instruction and its improvement cause the increase of attention in children with writing disorder. The results of this research is coordinated with the ones which have been done by other researches such as Hallohan and Hudson (2002), Montague (2007), Glynn and Thomas (1974) , Maclaughlin (1976) and Harris (1986) which show that self-controlling method by subject with LD causes attention increase , furthermore it shows that attention is kept consistent during the time. This method was effective in the increase of attention and as a result decreases of spelling errors, the comparison of spelling errors of graph before and after the interference level shows the educational progress and as a result self-controlling method has positive impact on attention increase and finally educational progress. This study is coordinated with the researchers of Hallohan, Kneedler and Lioloyd (1983), Maclaughlin (1976) which show educational progress.

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Educational Leadership Development in the Context of the United Arab Emirates: Participant Perceptions in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program

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Abstract

The Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) has invested heavily in providing professional development to school leaders, to ensure that their skills and abilities match the competencies needed to reach ADEC goals. This qualitative narrative study provides insight into the lived experiences of several members of the first cohort group of aspiring vice-principals, in a professional development program conducted by ADEC, in partnership with a local university. Results reveal that participants have a shared history of education which includes rote memorization and authoritarian leadership. Participants viewed the program as helpful but sometimes lacking in practical application. After the program, the participants faced difficult circumstances with little ongoing training or support. It is hoped that the results of the study will be used to enhance the quality and contextualization of future leadership development programs in Abu Dhabi.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is an oil-rich state, which has seen a vast influx of capital in the past several decades from oil production. Sheikh Zayed (peace be upon him), the founding father of the UAE and Emir of Abu Dhabi, summed up his aspirations for education in the country, stating, “The real asset of any advanced nation is its people, especially the educated ones, and the prosperity and success of the people are measured by the standard of their education” (UAE Embassy, 2012). The Abu Dhabi Education Council (ADEC) is the major governing body of education in Abu Dhabi; it was established in 2005. Current reform efforts in Abu Dhabi are focused on the rapid improvement of the schooling system, with a focus on professional development. Research concerning school reform shows that school leaders, especially principals, are important change agents in school improvement (Davis et al. 2005; Halawah, 2005; Hess & Kelly, 2007; Styron & LeMire, 2009). ADEC has invested heavily in providing professional development to school leaders, to ensure that their skills and abilities match the competencies needed to reach ADEC goals. A number of professional development provider companies, and both local and foreign universities, have been charged by ADEC with providing professional development for school leaders. The programs are grounded in (mostly Western) best practices in leadership development programs and endeavor to align training to local needs. However, at this point, there is little research about the effectiveness of such programs in targeting and meeting Emirati school leader needs related to school reform initiatives in the UAE. This study will provide insight into the lived experiences of several members of the first cohort group of aspiring vice-principals, in a professional development program conducted by ADEC, in partnership with a local university. It is hoped that the results of the study will be used by decision-makers to enhance the quality and contextualization of future leadership development programs in Abu Dhabi.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore participants’ perceptions of the effects of the various components of the [XXXX] Professional Development program, including learned theory, on-the-job assignments, and the opportunity to form a professional learning community (PLC) with their colleagues, on their perceptions about their own effectiveness as a school leader.

Research Question.

What are the perceptions of members of the cohort group of candidates for the vice-principalship who are involved in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, regarding the effectiveness of the program?

Sub-Questions are:

- 1) What are participants' perceptions about the cultural appropriateness of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program?
- 2) What are participants' perceptions about the relevance of the information presented in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, as it relates to their experience in the UAE context?

The researcher will utilize a qualitative research design, with a narrative approach, using a semi-structured interview protocol.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Leadership Development Programs—Best Practices from a Western Perspective.

Effective professional development for school leaders begins with effective professional development practices for educators, overall. Research suggests that effective professional development must be of an adequate duration (both within the session and across sessions) to allow educators to utilize the information effectively (Garet, et al, 2001; Cocoran, 1995; Hunzicker, 2011). High-quality professional development must also be aligned to the improvement goals of the individual and the organization (Garet, et al, 2001; Guskey, 2009; Cororan, 1995; Hunzicker, 2011). Active learning and opportunities for collaboration are also noted as keys to successful professional development for educators (Garet, et al, 2001; Guskey, 2009; Cororan, 1995; Hunzicker, 2011).

Hess and Kelly (2007) undertake a large-scale review of syllabi of various principal preparation programs to ascertain their content. They state, "School leadership is the key to school improvement. In a new era of accountability, where school leaders are expected to demonstrate bottom-line results and use data to drive decisions, the skill and knowledge of principals matter more than ever" (Hess & Kelly, 2007, p. 1). They endeavor to answer an important question—one that has been long ignored by educational scholars: What is taught in principal preparation programs? The authors identify "seven areas of principal responsibility [...] [which] are: managing for results, managing personnel, technical knowledge, external leadership, norms and values, managing classroom instruction, and leadership and school culture" (p. 4). Results show that educational leadership programs in the U.S. remain, as in the 1980s, heavily weighted toward day-to-day management tasks of the school (i.e., technical knowledge), rather than instructional leadership. Hess and Kelly's work highlights disparities between the current educational landscape and administrator preparation programs.

In *Turnaround Leadership*, Fullan states that for turnaround to be successful, "a culture of distributed leadership that grooms new leaders for the next phase must be established" (Fullan, 2006, p. 31). He identifies a model of "capacity building with a focus on results" (Fullan, 2006, p. 31). A culture that promotes capacity building, Fullan states, is in accordance with Kanter's turnaround solutions model and includes three essential elements: accountability, collaboration, and initiative. In these environments, people "share information and take responsibility"; work together"; and "feel what they do matters, that they can make a difference in outcomes." Fullan's work highlights the importance of successful succession planning to foster long-lasting positive turnaround outcomes.

The authors of the *School Leadership Study* from Stanford identify features of effective principal preparation and development programs, which include content (i.e., research-based, coherent curriculum), methods (i.e., field-based internships, problem-based learning, cohort groups, mentors), and structure (i.e., collaborative partnerships between university programs and school districts). They state that no matter what type of program, "context is found to be important for key functions of schools, such as instruction, community-building, and change management" (Davis et al. 2005, p. 7). They state that "principal preparation and professional development programs [are] both more productive for schools and more sustainable for those who aspire to lead" (Davis et al. 2005, p. 20).

In an article promoting mentorships, Brown University cites research that shows benefits of mentoring, which include increased confidence, job satisfaction, recognition among peers, and productivity among those who have been mentored (Brown, 2003, p. 11). Characteristics of successful mentoring programs include organizational support; clearly defined outcomes; screening, selection, and pairing; training mentors and protégés; a learner-centered focus; adequate time allotment; and a focus on building a mutually enhancing relationship (Brown, 2003, p. 16). Ultimately, the conclusion of the authors is, "When it comes to training principals, there really is

nothing better, as long as the mentor is guiding you in the right direction and has the skills to help you get where you need to go” (Brown, 2003, p. 35).

The Wallace Foundation highlights the increased prevalence of principal mentorship programs in the U.S. While they regard this as a welcome trend, their research is an illustration that “many if not most existing mentoring programs are falling well short of their potential” (Wallace Foundation, 2007, p. 3). Common failings in mentorship programs are identified as vague or unclear goals, insufficient focus on instructional leadership, insufficient time or duration, lack of meaningful data, and underfunding. Hallmarks of successful programs include high-quality training, adequate funding, adequate duration, and a clear goal—“to provide new principals with the knowledge, skills and courage to become leaders of change who put teaching and learning first in their schools” (Wallace Foundation, 2007, p. 4). They cite benefits of mentoring not only for the mentee, but also for the mentor and the learning organization (Wallace Foundation, 2007, p. 6).

Professional Development in Government Schools in the UAE

Stephenson, Dada, and Harold (2012) used a longitudinal case study approach to identify themes and focal content areas during the implementation of a teacher-leadership development program. The objective of the PD project was to “develop teacher leadership capacity at the school level through a collaborative action research model, which draws on theories of social learning” (Stephenson et al., 2012, pp. 54–55). Shared leadership was found to be important to success, while some cultural factors limited its effects. A lack of trust (e.g., a fear that work would be “re-appropriated to others’ credit”), fear that participants were being evaluated by supportive observers, and participants’ need to “‘maintain’ face by claiming that they already knew everything and that the workshops included ‘nothing new for them’” were observed to detract from the effects of the projects (Stephenson et al, 2012, pp. 58–59). They observed that during the course of the project, [participants] overcame cultural issues and began collaboratively to create shared assumptions, values, and beliefs.

Stephenson (2010) writes about applying the principles of “a range of professional learning models including an action research (AR) model and a communities of practice (CoP) model” in four professional development projects in UAE.. Across the projects, building relationships and fostering collaboration were identified as important factors in the success of the project. Some limiting factors were participants’ desires for “templates or ‘recipes’ for how to do things rather than work through tasks together. Other participants indicated that they only valued professional development as workshops, where experts provided their input and their role was one of information receiver” (Stephenson, 2010, pp. 154–155). The author concludes by stating, “In the UAE there has been an over emphasis on the one-off workshop model of professional development. [...] However, times are changing ... [and] there are many more opportunities to implement ... a collaborative practice-based model.” (Stephenson, 2010, p.155) In a research base that is very narrow, Stephenson provides valuable insight into the climate and culture of PD in Abu Dhabi.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to explore participant perceptions of the effectiveness of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program. Secondary considerations are participant perceptions of the cultural and contextual appropriateness of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program.

Setting

The [XXXX] Professional Development Program is a joint venture between a local university and ADEC. To conduct the interviews, in all but one case, I travelled to the participants’ schools and met with them in their offices. One interview was conducted at the ADEC offices, at the request of the participant.

Participants

All nineteen participants in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program were hand selected to take part in the program sponsored by ADEC leadership, through a rigorous interview and vetting process. All of the participants in the program speak English well, which precluded the necessity for translation in the study. Program participants are newly designated acting vice-principals. All of the participants are Emirati women who currently work in ADEC government schools. The researcher obtained permission to discuss the project with the program participants after obtaining IRB approval and the appropriate approvals from the ADEC Research Office. Despite the fact that all nineteen program participants were invited to participate in the study, only four participants elected to do so. All participants who indicated their willingness to participate were included in the

study. Three of the four participants who elected to participate in the study were from the same geographic region. This presents a limitation of the study.

METHODS

Qualitative research is generally employed when: variables needed to conduct the study are unclear; the researcher wants to explore trends or explanations; and/or problems “need to be explored to obtain deeper understanding” (Creswell, 2008, pp. 17–19). Narrative qualitative research “begins with the experiences as expressed in lived and told stories of individuals” (Creswell, 2013, p. 54). The researcher collects and tells stories with a narrative approach (i.e., beginning, middle, end) to tell the stories of individuals (Creswell, 2012, p. 22). Clandinin and Connelly (1998) state “narratives of experience are both personal—they reflect a person’s life history—and social—they reflect the milieu, the contexts in which teachers live” (Clandinin & Connelly, 1998, p. 150). Given the current state of education in Abu Dhabi, in which major contextual changes are taking place, a narrative approach is desirable. This approach will provide unique insight into the lives of women who are taking part in a pioneering professional development and certification venture. A narrative approach is also well suited to a cross-cultural study, as it naturally takes into account the context in which the lived experience of the participants takes place.

Cross-cultural research is defined as research that compares behaviors or phenomena across two or more cultures; includes researchers and study participants who have different cultural backgrounds; and/or uses measurements developed for one cultural context that are implemented in a different context (Clark, 2012, p. 28). When conducting this type of research, it is imperative that the researcher remains aware of the need for cultural awareness and sensitivity at all times throughout the research and that ethical considerations are given great weight in the research process. Ford et al. highlight the important role of the cultural factors that influence the way the researcher goes about his/her work (e.g., life experiences, values, personal experiences) and state that the context in which research takes place cannot be ignored, marginalized, or trivialized, if research is to be conducted appropriately (Ford et al., 2008). The authors state that “racially, culturally, and linguistically responsive researchers have self-awareness, cultural awareness and understanding, strong feelings about social justice, and a range of skills and strategies” (Ford et al., 2008, p. 87). Culturally competent researchers focus on developing effective communication and data gathering skills to work with diverse participants, aim for the highest levels of cultural competence, and have an increased sensitivity to diversity (Ford et al. 2008, pp. 88–89).

The purpose of the interview in qualitative research is to give “an informant the space to express meaning in his or her own words and to give direction to the interview process” (Brenner, 2006, p. 357). A semi-structured interview protocol will be utilized, which has the benefit of allowing the researcher to work from a prescribed list of questions but also frees him/her to ask follow-up questions based on participant responses (Brenner, 2008, p. 360).

Data was analyzed using a problem-solution approach. The problem-solution approach was applied to the current research because it offers a “linear approach [which leads] to a logical sequence of events for the story ... a sequence that flows from characters, setting, and problems first, followed by actions or events, and finally a resolution” (Ollerenshaw & Creswell, 2002, p. 343). This approach provides a clear and linear format to tell the stories of the participants, which can be easily accessed (or even translated).

Validating is the process of ensuring that data are accurate, through the process of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2008, p. 259). Qualitative researchers must ensure that their work achieves standards of accuracy and trustworthiness to be considered valid (Creswell, 2008, p. 259). When working with cross-cultural qualitative data, Ford et al. (2008, p. 86) state two methods to overcome bias: reliability checks and member -checking. In the current study, some limitations were apparent, with regard to the use of reliability checking and member checking. Conducting research in a location far from the university meant that I conducted my research largely in isolation. I did attempt to employ member checking; however, I received very limited feedback from participants. This presents a limitation of the study.

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to describe the lived experiences of four aspiring vice-principals in the first cohort of trainees to complete a leadership certification program offered by ADEC. Four participants (Hessa, Khawla, Mariam, and Fatima) were interviewed and data were analyzed using narrative analysis, with a problem/solution approach, as defined by Ollrenshaw and Creswell. This process resulted in the identification of themes. Some of the themes which emerged were: Character and background; experiences as a student; pathway

to teaching; experience as a teacher; prior experiences with school leaders; master's degree programs and prior professional development; beliefs about leadership; appointment as a VP; experience in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program (participants, content and tasks, timing, positive and negative aspects of the program, suggestions); current role (daily life, problems faced, Electronic Student Information System, community, collaboration with peers, future aspirations); and suggestions for future programs.

Background and Character

All of the women in the group were hand-selected by ADEC leadership and underwent a rigorous interview process. Shared qualifications included more than five years of successful teaching experience, a high degree of English proficiency, and a master's degree. The perception of rigor in the interview process contributed to a high degree of status affiliation within the program. Hessa summarized this feeling, stating, "We are the new Vice-principals that Dr. Mugheer had chosen, according to high criteria." The women in the study generally identified themselves as being capable and highly qualified. Khawla said, "I always wanted to ... be there somewhere to make decisions, to let people know okay you can do it this way. I am very good at that, designing." Hessa focused on the strength she found from a difficult upbringing, stating: "Maybe I was a leader before that [program]. I have been by myself, I consider myself raising myself by myself, and nobody raised me. ... So I am an independent person ... When [I] face a problem I have to solve it."

Despite their high degree of confidence and status from being in the program, several of the participants referenced the difficulty of becoming an educational leader after experiencing rote, traditional schooling and authoritarian leadership role models.

Experiences as a Student and as a Teacher

All of the participants attended government schools in Abu Dhabi and all echoed the sentiment of Mariam, who said, "My education ... was a kind of traditional teaching so it was based on memorizing the text books, only the text book. ... just memorizing, memorizing, memorizing. ... There was no enjoyment... It was boring; it was boring."

Three out of four participants shared that they had a complete lack of interest in entering the education field, initially. Only one participant attributed her career choice to personal agency. Fatima said, "I became a teacher to be honest, something... it's related to our culture because our family has always direct us to become teachers because they think we will work in a safe place with all females, yes, so this is only, was the reason in that time."

Despite their initial reluctance to join the profession, all three women described themselves as dedicated teachers. The one participant who joined teaching out of a personal desire to do so, Mariam, described her early feelings about teaching stating, "When I was little I gathered my brothers and my sisters and our neighbors and I teach them [...] I like to teach how to write and read. I loved the core of teaching, I loved that."

Three out of four participants referenced experiencing very traditional school leaders, as teachers. Hessa and Khawla echoed statements made by Fatima, who said that as a teacher, she had "no interaction with administration unless we have meeting, unless we have something that we have to hand it to them.... But working with them as a member of their team, no I didn't have the chance to do that." Only Mariam described teaching in a school with a more distributed leadership style.

Three of four participants expressed a lack of understanding about ADEC reforms and the New School model, before entering the leadership development program. Khawla, who was also a Cycle 2 teacher, said, "I had no clue about ... the New School model ... it was the traditional way of teaching, of teaching and the administration." Despite the authoritarian leadership faced by the participants and a lack of specific knowledge about NSM by most, they all identified themselves as leaders within their classroom and expressed pride in their use of updated educational techniques.

All four participants participated in the PPP program, as teachers. Fatima said, "Already I had this information [from PD during the PPP program] ... I know all these theories but I need them to help me in applying these theories in my classrooms so I had a lot of concerns during that time." Both Khawla and Hessa had strong negative feelings about the PPP program. Expressing great frustration, Hessa said:

They used to force us to teach certain materials while these materials were not proper for the age that I used to teach.... They demoted my evaluation and they tried to press on me a lot and I was about to quit teaching. ... I am against [those companies] totally.

Three of the four participants undertook master's degree programs to prepare them as educational leaders and they all expressed satisfaction with the rigor of their master's programs and pride in their accomplishments. The idea of trying to be a pioneer as an educational leader in a landscape rife with authoritarian and traditional methods, was a common theme for participants.

The [XXXX] Professional Development Program

The initial intensive program took place over a six-week period, with full-day meetings twice per week. Additional planned activities included six months of practical follow-up activities, on-site mentoring, and a trip to the U.S. to visit a major university and conduct school site observations. However, additional planned follow-up activities did not occur during participants' first full year as VPs, due to staff changes and other factors. All of the participants except Fatima expressed some degree of trepidation before beginning the course. Khawla summarized this feeling, stating, "We said when we came into the program, what are they going to teach us? What are they going to tell us? We know nothing about being a principal." Hessa and Mariam both lauded the organization of the program. Mariam described the program thusly:

The program took place [at the college] in Abu Dhabi. The presenters or our lecturers were experienced people from ADEC, two of them I think they were cluster managers [...] They consider the [five] elements [of the ADEC Principal's Leadership Standards [Leading People, Leading the Community, Leading Organizations, Leading Strategically [and] Leading Teaching and Learning] ... So we discussed each one, each element it has five tasks and most of them are written tasks. We went home and read it and it was about answering a lot of questions. Those questions are really deep questions, we need to go and investigate and ask so you can't find the answers in books or find the answers on the internet.

Several program participants remarked about the utility of the tasks that were assigned, such as Hessa, who said, "They give us tasks to investigate in our school which is, I told you this was the most marvelous thing happened that time."

Because the tasks required follow-up by participants at their schools, the level of support provided by their principals affected their ability to complete the tasks successfully. Although some participants, such as Mariam, reported that her principal was pleased by her curiosity, others had a more negative response. Fatima said, "You know maybe they [future VP program participants] can ask their principal and vice-principal questions, but sometimes I tried before. When you ask, they will not answer. They won't give you the right answer, you know."

Participants' reactions to the tasks varied with regard to their feelings about the depth of the tasks. Mariam believed, "They were really deep deep questions. I reflect and ask experienced people. ... So, really we discovered a lot of things, a lot of hidden things in our field." However, Khawla said, "I wish the program was much deeper ... the tasks that we were given, they were very good I think. ... But maybe they need to work on it to make it better."

Participants also had mixed reactions to the practical utility of the tasks. Hessa stated that the program "opened my eyes to see things that I did not know about in the administration." However, Fatima felt some frustration, stating, "If you have theories without implement... there is no use for reading or studying about this theory if you are not going to apply it." She believed that the program "was like lecturing, working, and discussing things in theory. It is not like hands-on activities, something like I will do it actually in the school." However, she conceded, "We found some information about different things that we didn't know about it before as teachers."

In addition to the tasks, other components of the program included guest speakers, a trip to visit a local government school, lectures, and discussions. Mariam stated:

The most useful thing [was] our visit ... to one of the new schools in Abu Dhabi ...the vice-principal there [presented] her experience as a VP in one of their new schools. She told us a lot of secrets, a lot of things. So—and don't be shocked of this; don't be surprised of this. That was really helpful.

Mariam also described a visit from a female Emirati Cluster Manager, stating that she was a “model from the field to our class.” Two participants, Mariam and Khawla, explicitly referenced the opportunity to express themselves as an empowering element of the program. Khawla said:

I found myself in this program, really ... I never had the opportunity to be allowed to talk, only in like, in [my] master’s [degree program] ... to be addressed, you know, recognized I think I just found myself there. I found that I have abilities there because these people they encourage a lot.

All four participants referenced discussions and collaboration as essential to the success of the program, as exemplified by a statement from Hessa, who said, “We were discussing all the time, calling each other, trying to solve things, ... Alhamdulillah we managed and it was not that difficult, it was proper and achievable, we can do it.”

Although the program lasted for only a few weeks, participants referenced its structure and content as providing them with a great deal of benefit.

Hessa, Fatima, and Mariam all believed the program was highly contextualized and appropriate to the culture; however, Khawla suggested that further attention to contextualization would strengthen the program. Hessa said that the program “contained everything which ADEC represents. It’s nothing from outside or not linked to our culture, it represents ADEC ... really it was suitable.” Fatima concurred, stating, “We were very lucky to work with... [these] teachers, or doctors these people, yes. ... They know exactly what we will go through when we become vice-principal.” Mariam said:

They [the program leaders] considered our identity, they considered our culture, everything, everything. Even when we welcome some males, some lecturers, they respect everything. Even, I am wearing Niqab [a face-covering veil] outside and they respect everything.... They know, I think they know about our culture and understand everything.”

However, Khawla offered some advice for ensuring that program materials are appropriately adjusted to the culture:

Okay, I understand that the person who put this program maybe he is Westerner but maybe there are not like people, professional people in that field like Emirati. I feel that some people want to Westernize things so in order to put our cultural aspect in it it’s like a challenge or difficult. ... I think the program should be put by or reviewed by people who understand the culture and think how it can be more applicable, can be more effective when it is applied in our system.

Overall, most participants believed that it would be better to change the timing of the program and release the teachers from teaching duties before the commencement of the program. Despite some suggestions for improvement, most participants expressed generally positive feelings toward the program, especially concerning the knowledge and dedication of the program faculty.

Upon completion of the six-week program, the participants presented a showcase event to Dr. Mugheer and to other dignitaries from ADEC. During the ceremony, Khawla told Dr. Mugheer Al Khaili, Director General of ADEC, “thank you for that [program], because you gave us an opportunity. It is like empowering women.” After her first year as a vice-principal, Khawla reflected on her statements to Dr. Mugheer after the initial intensive program; she said:

We realize that we learned ... the theoretical part of it but in practice it would be different, we realized that. But it was so different, so harsh, but I think this is life. It is not as like what is in the book, you read the book okay but when you go into the reality it is something different, different.

Experience as a First-year Vice-principal—Hessa

Hessa and Khawla both experienced a unique difficulty in their initial experience as vice-principals because they were assigned to schools that were not yet built, with principals who had not yet arrived from overseas. Hessa described her situation, stating, “The difficulty, the difficult thing was when we graduated we thought that

we will be in schools which are already prepared. [We faced a] difficult situation to build a school from nothing. It shouldn't be like that." When she was initially hired for her position, she found "the building is not finished, no staff, nothing and I am, I have to collect the children from two schools and I have to build the school and I am the only employee in the school." She described her responsibilities:

I have to check the building with the engineers so I run like a crazy person between four places. Collecting. Solving problems. Fighting with the principals who they distributed my staff between schools and I have to collect them back. [...] They hired the new AMTs who came from private schools and they are Egyptians and other, Arabic ex-pats. And they do not know anything about ADEC's new model schools. Nothing, modern schools sorry, nothing, and I have to do all of that to establish the school from zero.

However, despite her unsteady beginning, Hessa said that she was "laughing all the time. It did not break me. Really, I was amazed. I thought that I am dreaming [...] I started to laugh and Alhamdulillah, it did not affect me. I was okay." Once her principal arrived, Hessa found a partner and advocate as they worked together to open the school.

Hessa described her major frustrations with her current role, stating, "I want to do my role as a vice-principal and it can be done but because of [registration and other online record-keeping] it is very hard." She said that this issue keeps her from practicing her "role in that area—in the academic... And I am sorry for that. If it's to me I would be with the teachers, with the children and everything but I am not involved, that much with them. I'm trying but I can't."

Just before the vice-principals entered their schools, Dr. Paul retired and the [XXXX] Professional Development Program was suspended. Hessa was particularly disappointed by the lack of follow-up from the program. She said she hoped to "Go to America, to London to take those courses ... about leadership. ... And I think these are... will make a difference." Goals for Hessa include becoming more involved with the academic aspects of KG, and working more with the teachers.

Hessa identified her relationship with her principal as a strength in her current situation, stating, "If you ask me to [about being] professional yes I've learned a lot from Gina. She helped me with... to understand things—academic things," concluding "I have a wonderful principal here that helps me a lot, She helps me a lot. So I am Alhamdulillah... content."

Experience as a First-year Vice-principal—Khawla

Khawla faced a similar situation to Hessa; she was assigned to a school building which was not yet finished being built. She was assigned several classrooms in "another KG, which was built in the 70s, and the system is... people with old traditional mentalities although they are doing the New School model." She described her initial situation as a "school within a school," which she managed with the help of a HoF-E. Khawla "had my desk, I had the HoF, I had my teachers, I had to manage them, I was responsible for their attendance, everything, and we didn't know who is our principal." With the help of the HoF, Khawla began to learn about KG; she said, "KG is a different world for me. I was in Cycle 2, and ... it was different. It was like a totally different world for me."

Khawla's relationship with the rest of the school leadership team, after her new principal arrived, was sometimes a source of frustration and difficulty for her, although she consistently expressed admiration for both the HoF-E and her principal. By the end of the school year, Khawla said that she was "Now working with my Principal and she is very knowledgeable, she knows but she can be like, my way or the highway. But she is knowledgeable and [...] I learned a lot of things from her." In addition to building her relationship with the rest of the school leadership team, Khawla enhanced her content knowledge. She said, "Alhamdulillah, I am very good now, in KG curriculum."

Khawla, who expressed a high degree of satisfaction with the support provided in the initial portion of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, felt abandoned when that support was withdrawn. She said, "They told us there would be an induction program for us but when we graduated, they just, they forgot about us ... graduation and then *ma salama* [good-bye]. ... they neglected us." In the difficult situation she faced as a new vice-principal, she felt that ADEC had a responsibility to her, asking, "Okay what did you do for this leader as a support?" She went on to say, "We need to have mentors. Yes, who come and tell us this is right, this is wrong." She said, "There should be a follow up from ADEC with their principals and telling them that these people are the leaders in the future, you will need to do whatever is necessary to help these people."

Khawla takes pride in her accomplishments in her first year, particularly breaking negative stereotypes about Emirati leaders. She says many people think Emirati leaders “don’t want to learn, they don’t want to do, they just come here and I think I broke that, that image that they have put us there.” She described a conversation with a teacher that made her feel proud, stating that the teacher, a local, “told me I am really proud of you. She said, like we have an Emirati and who is dedicated, who is a good leader, who tries and learns and who is very active. I think... she really made me happy.”

Experience as a First-year Vice-principal—Fatima

Fatima faced very different challenges than Hessa and Khawla. However, out of all of the participants, she exhibited the highest degree of frustration with what she perceived as her lack of preparation for the difficulties of being a first-year vice-principal and with a lack of ongoing support. She appeared to face a very resistant teaching faculty and seemed to lack support from some other members of her school leadership team. Fatima described her induction into the school:

In my case I came here, I didn’t meet with the [previous] vice-principal. I came here, she was resigned from this work, I just spent few hours with her, she was working with the schedule, she print it out and she gave it to me and she said bye, see you, okay. So imagine that. I was here in her office alone and my principal also she’s a new principal [to this school] ... and then I was in her office with all files for last year and I don’t know what to do, I have no one to tell me, I have no one to tell me this is your role, you have to do this and that.

This reality seemed to conflict with the perception of her new role; she said, “For example, they [other teachers?] told us, ‘Ah you are vice-principal now. You are relaxing now, don’t have much work like teachers,’ but it is the opposite.” Fatima “was alone for one whole semester, the only vice-principal in this school. So I was doing almost everything, academic and student service.” Like the other vice-principals, Fatima also described ESIS and community relationships as an ongoing issue. Additionally, she spoke frankly and consistently about the challenges she faced at her school site concerning teacher absenteeism, refusal to cover classes, resistance to professional development, attendance taking, and duty coverage.

Fatima expressed a high level of frustration, stating, “Sometimes people ... don’t accept that you are new you are fresh, you have no experience at all about this job ... and in the meantime you are in charge of taking care of the whole school and you are new and you are alone.”

She described specific details of information, which she wished she had known before starting work, such as, “which files do I have to keep in my office? ... I don’t know how to write a report to my principal about particular things. This stuff we need to train people to do it before they join the workforce.” She went on to describe her lack of preparation concerning, “SIP, budgeting, the budget of this school and the maintenance of the school, it is really, you have like security that will have contract, cleaners, the companies, canteen, these... all stuff... I have no idea how to run this stuff.”

She summed up her feelings, stating that she would like to “focus more on the students’ learning, you know, and the students themselves. But until now, I am far away from them because I am busy with other stuff that maybe I should learn from the beginning, before I started my real job.”

Fatima was realistic about change, stating, “As a leader, you will not make the change by yourself. It depends on other people. ...I don’t want [teachers] to follow me just because I am their vice-principal. ... They have to believe about the change, change their mentality, change their way of thinking.” She hopes to inspire positive change at her school, ensuring a better education for all students; she believes, “a real teacher, they will not leave any students in the classroom without help, they will try, they will kill themselves to help the students. To improve.” Despite the difficulties she faced, Fatima described herself as a change agent and expressed her commitment to her work as a divine calling, stating, “It is my destiny I think. It is from God. He puts me in this position and this place to do something useful I think, yes.”

Experience as a First-year Vice-principal—Mariam

Like the other vice-principals, Mariam faced a difficult start at the beginning of the school year. She was placed in an old Cycle 1 boys’ school, which was feminized (staffed with female teachers and administrators). She described the reception the female staff received from the community, stating that feminization was “really

a shock for [this] community.” Many parents reacted angrily, believing “we are not trustworthy... some of them [were] shouting, ‘Why are women here? Women are not strong; they cannot control the boys.’”

Feminization meant not only a transition for the community but also that every single teacher and school leader was new to the school. This issue was exacerbated by the fact that the principal arrived in November, after the school began. Mariam described some of the challenges she faced:

The most difficult challenge was really the school system, the school rules, to put everything in its place, even with the teachers, even with the children because most of them were new teachers, new teachers even for the EMTs and AMTs. I was lucky to have English HoF but I did not have Arabic HoF, so I was with them, was working with them so everything was new so I was running here, there and there.

Like Hessa, Mariam and her principal seemed to function well together; she said, “We are fine. She’s [the principal] with us now and we are fine.” Similar to Fatima, Mariam reported resistance from teachers as a problem but one that she believed that she was addressing successfully. She said, “I will not again go outside and say I’ve had teacher resistance. Why do they resist? Because they are not satisfied about something. Fix it in the school, that thing, and they will be satisfied and you will see the wonderful performance from them. It is not a challenge.”

The idea of caring was a consistent theme in Mariam’s discussion of her own role. She said, “Actually being responsible in our field [means] that you really care, so responsible mean caring, caring, so you care for those kids.” Mariam described the children at her school as “really lucky because they have that New School model. ... They are playing, enjoying their time, projects... They early learn how to be responsible and they learn how to be self-confident.”

Despite her generally positive comments about her school, Mariam described some negative consequences in her personal life because of her increased commitments as a vice-principal. She described her feelings, stating, “Only one word, really I felt alone [...] ...Really I miss my friends, I miss the teachers’ life, the teacher’s lounge I miss that life.” She also described feeling isolated from her family because of the burden of taking work home, stating, “I can’t concentrate [around the family], I have to stay alone. So that’s no life.” However, she appeared to see this as a temporary situation, saying, “I miss a lot of things I know, but I enjoy it Sarah, maybe it is the first year. I will say I don’t know.”

Mariam described a great deal of hard work and effort undertaken in concert with her principal over the course of the year to build a school community and to connect with parents. By the end of the year, she said that the parents, many of whom were very angry or upset at the beginning of the year, “are fine. ... Most of them [now say] Alhamdulillah, thank god that we have mothers for our children. We have mothers, and we need mothers.”

Electronic Student Information System (ESIS)

All of the program participants who were interviewed referenced the student information system (ESIS) as a major part of their job responsibilities. Their comments indicated that this system was extremely cumbersome and several participants expressed frustration regarding the drain on their time and energy, which they believed was a result of their responsibilities with ESIS. Fatima summarized the tone of the group’s feelings about ESIS, saying, “ESIS, oh my god it’s a whole different story. ESIS, they have to train new vice-principals how to deal with ESIS.”

Khawla, Mariam, and Fatima all indicated that ESIS interfered significantly with their family life. Hessa and Khawla both indicated that they were unable to engage fully with the academic aspects of their job because of ESIS. Khawla said, “I have to be in the classrooms, not here, sitting on the desk!” Fatima expressed a high degree of frustration with the system and with the lack of training. She said, “There’s no time that you will take your time to learn, no, you have to do it, find a way to learn about it and just finish with it. They will not give you a time.” Mariam said, simply, “You know, Sarah, most of our work now [is] in ESIS.” Program participants uniformly expressed a high degree of frustration with ESIS, which they perceived to be an inefficient and time-consuming system for which they had received inadequate training.

Community Relationships

Another issue, which was a major theme across all of the interviews, was a lack of support from ADEC for building and maintaining positive community relationships. It is possible that one of the limitations of the

study—the fact that three of four participants were in a similar geographic area—amplified this issue; however, it was addressed in detail by all program participants. ADEC initiatives, such as feminization, the introduction of co-education in Cycle 1, and inclusion for students with special needs were cited by participants as areas in which they needed additional support. All of the program participants expressed a high degree of commitment to the idea that parent involvement is essential to student success. Mariam said, “If we are looking for high outcomes from the students we need their parents’ support so they need to know about the New School Model to support us with it.”

Fatima stated that in her experience, most parents believe, “teaching is the school responsibility, it is not our responsibility.... [Parents think] we take care of his health, his food, clothes you know but not education part, it’s the school responsibility.” However, Hessa believed that ADEC shares responsibility for not building relationships with parents. She asked, “Why do we ask [parents] to participate when it is suiting us? And when it is something really concerns their children like [mixing the genders in Cycle 1] we do not need their opinion, we just force it.” She suggested “ADEC—they should consider the parents’ opinion, to listen to all of their concerns, [and] come up with a solution in the middle.” Khawla provided some suggestions for improvement, such as “having a TV, like a channel that is only for ADEC that talks about accomplishments, ... like a newsletter which can be, which goes with the newspaper, like it can be monthly for example. Which about, like our vision, what are the things we are aiming for.”

Mariam said, “the problem [is] that we need ADEC’s support or we need ADEC to help us with the community. So it is the culture. A lot of things, we need to change but it is the culture. ... So I think we need ADEC to support us with the community.” Despite many challenges, Khawla stated, “I think what we have accomplished in ADEC is phenomenal and in a very short time... It has to do with having good leaders actually ... who believe in this program, who believe that the change can happen with the resistance.” All of the program participants expressed a strong belief in the work ADEC is doing and in the importance of parent and community support in enhancing student achievement; they expressed a desire to have more support from ADEC in order to support these essential relationships effectively.

Suggestions for Program Improvement

The program participants offered several specific suggestions for improving the program in the future, including: more practical information, mentorships, internships, communications skills, and guest speakers. In particular, Fatima hoped that future programs would concentrate more on practical issues, such as SIP, budgeting, maintenance, security, safety, and ESIS.

Several participants mentioned site visits and internships as a way to make the training more connected to practice. Hessa suggested that it would be good, “If they involved us more in the administration to go there and to stay with some people and to work with them for like, for a period of time to see what they are doing, to get experience.” An internship, Fatima said, would provide scaffolding for future vice-principals; she said, “Let them work or stay in a school for few months ... as a trainee. ... You are responsible and learning at the same time, it is really difficult. Give them time to train and learn and then put them in a real situation.”

Communication, which several participants referenced as an area for their own growth, was also an area in which more training might be helpful. Fatima said, “Yes, you need to be able to communicate with different mentality [...] so it depends on the people, that you are communicating with.”

Mariam suggested including more guest speakers, including “Western principals...who face really the challenges here and we would like to hear from them ... and even the successful Emirati principals. ...they have wonderful practices in their schools, so we want to know those practices.”

Mentorships were another suggestion from some of the participants. Khawla said it would be helpful to have “someone who mentors you like once a week comes to see you and you feel that he’s like a critical friend, a coach, like a life coach or someone professional who can help you without judging you then you will feel very comfortable and you will benefit a lot.” Mariam also hoped to avail herself of future training and mentorship opportunities; she suggested that she would benefit from further training in leading people and leading strategically, although she said, “Just tell me and I will do it. So, I went to learn, about myself, so what can I do more, just to be a good leader or better leader.”

All four participants interviewed indicated that a strong network had emerged, which was a source of information and support. Mariam described her experience:

From that day [at the beginning of the program] I established my network. ... Sometimes we share a lot of our problems, our issues, our concerns.... I can say it is network—a strong network, really a strong network and it is really starting to be bigger and bigger, [from Al Ain] to Abu Dhabi zone and ADEC and even sometimes in the West region.

Khawla wished for greater opportunities to network, saying, “I wish if we could be able to network better with others so they can help us. It helped a lot. ...Networking is one of those things that really helps.”

Summary of Findings

Research question one is “What are the perceptions of members of the cohort group of candidates for the vice-principalship who are involved in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, regarding the effectiveness of the program?” Findings indicate that all four program participants interviewed believed that the program increased their preparedness to address the rigors of the first year of the vice-principalship. However, participants identified a large gap between the theoretical knowledge imparted in the program and the often-harsh realities they faced as vice-principals. Additionally, the gap in programming mid-year was perceived by some participants as an abandonment of ADEC’s responsibility to support them. Particular areas in which much more training was needed include: ESIS/online registration, curriculum (for those assigned outside of their teaching cycle/area), school management (e.g., duty schedule, substitutes, budget, busses), parent/community engagement, and communication. Aspects of the training that were perceived to be most helpful were; guest speakers; the practical tasks that participants completed at the schools; caring, encouraging, and nurturing relationships with program leaders/teachers; and the opportunity to form a caring and collaborative network with their peers. Although the program participants faced many challenges in their first year as vice-principals, they all exhibited a high degree of personal belief in their ability to enact positive change, in order to support student achievement and ADEC reform efforts.

Concerning sub-question one, “What are participants’ perceptions about the cultural appropriateness of the [XXXX] Professional Development Program?” all of the program participants indicated that the training was culturally appropriate and contextualized. One participant, Khawla, suggested that further contextualization (e.g., a review from an informed Emirati national or small committee) would strengthen the material further. She cited one incident when the material seemed “so, not to UAE context,” stating, “I think the program is very good ... just not to bring like a ready-made experience and put it here.” The remaining three participants were adamant in their belief that the material was appropriately contextualized. Several participants lauded the program leaders for their attention to cultural appropriateness and efficacy. Mariam said, “They [the program leaders] considered our identity, they considered our culture, everything, everything.... They know, I think they know about our culture and understand everything.”

Concerning sub-question two, “What are participants’ perceptions about the relevance of the information presented in the [XXXX] Professional Development Program, as it relates to their experience in the UAE context?” the participants generally indicated their belief that the training was helpful to them in preparing to become vice-principals; however, the degree to which each participant truly struggled through the first trimester indicates that beyond information, they needed a much greater degree of mentorship and support in order to be successful. Participants indicated that an internship before placement, ongoing mentoring and coaching, more practical information, and communication training would benefit future trainees.

CONCLUSION

It is clear that the development of future leaders in ADEC is an essential component of ADEC’s vision and mission and accords with national priorities, in terms of Emiratization. After a review of the literature and interviews with four participants in this program, it is my conclusion that several important areas should be taken into consideration by future program designers. These are: participants’ educational background, leadership role models, reality in ADEC schools, and some gender issues (particularly as they relate to the decision to join the teaching profession). Additionally, the participants voiced the need for much more support for ADEC’s electronic systems (such as ESIS) and for communicating with the community.

Program participants had many similarities in terms of their background. Program designers may want to consider these background characteristics specifically when designing program activities, particularly with regard to supporting participants with moving beyond the rote pedagogy and poor leadership role models that all of the interviewees referenced having experienced. Khawla explicitly referenced the temptation for Emirati teachers to “get back to the way their teachers taught us and we were taught in a very traditional way.” Poor role models are not unique to the Emirati context; Buskey and Topolka-Jorissen outlined the danger of new leaders “emulating” poor role models in their work in the U.S. (Buskey & Topolka-Jorissen, 2010, p. 115). However, all of the program participants referenced having experienced almost exclusively rote traditional teaching and authoritarian leadership. This may be a shared history, which provides context to program designers. Additionally, leading teachers who have experienced this type of teaching may require a unique skill set.

Although only one program participant said that she believed the program would benefit from more contextualization, the disconnection between theory and the reality faced by practitioners in ADEC schools was a consistent theme, both in the literature review and as voiced by participants. After the [XXXX] Professional Development Program showcase, Khawla said that she knew “the theoretical part of it but in practice it would be different, we realized that. But it was so different, so harsh...” Again, a disconnection between theory and reality in education is not unique to this context; however, the degree to which this issue was raised both in the literature and by participants suggests that this issue may warrant further consideration by program designers.

Much further study is warranted to assess the contextualized needs of female leadership candidates in the UAE context. Three of four program participants interviewed indicated that family pressure played an essential role in their decision to enter education. Hessa indicated that as a vice-principal, who needs to work with men from ADEC as a part of her role, she needed to learn “to face the men...you have to be firm, when you say no which means no. If they are willing to negotiate you have to convince them but... with etiquette which suits the culture.” Further study is needed to determine what type of communication training may be necessary, if any, to support female leadership training fully. Fatima indicated her belief that societal pressure for women to become teachers is a detriment to the profession. She asks, “So who are responsible about [students’ low performance]? People. In my opinion, teachers.” She continues, stating, “When you do something you really like and you really feel that you can give the best that you can, you will do it in a fabulous way, in a good way.” Leading teachers in this context may require contextualized training; further study is needed concerning this contextual issue.

As a researcher, there is a natural desire to find an “aha” moment, a “so-what” that will change the world, even just a little. In narrative research, this moment is elusive. It is hoped that the power of the work is in the journey itself, in the participants’ words, which the researcher attempts to capture and record as faithfully as possible. As a program leader myself, my conclusion is that I need to spend more time listening and engaging with local educators and leaders; I hope that others will learn from my experience and spend more time listening to the educators we serve.

Recommendations for Program Leaders

- 1) All participants, either implicitly or explicitly, indicated their belief that the program was helpful and should be continued; however, several potential program modifications were suggested.
- 2) Training should be revised to prepare more specifically aspiring leaders for the reality they will face in schools and should include an increased focus on day-to-day school operations.
- 3) The follow-up phase of the program is critical; ongoing support needs to be built not only into this program but also into a continuum of services for aspiring leaders. No leadership training should be provided in isolation; all programs should be aligned carefully to ensure scaffolded support throughout the future leaders’ careers.
- 4) Leaders should have access to training and follow-up particularly concerning practical needs (e.g., registration, ESIS, scheduling, budgeting, time management, report writing) in addition to ongoing leadership training.
- 5) Aspiring leaders should be paired with a mentor as a part of a structured mentoring program. Training should be provided to both the mentor and the mentee, in addition to ongoing follow-up to gauge the effectiveness of the relationship.
- 6) Aspiring leaders should be provided with the opportunity to see successful schools in action. This could involve trips inside of the UAE to visit successful schools, both government and private, and to schools outside of the country.
- 7) Specific communication supports and training should be provided to aspiring leaders. Aspiring leaders should be provided with training and support materials to ensure their ability to communicate effectively with stakeholder groups, including ADEC personnel, teachers, students, and parents. This training may need to address specific contextual issues.
- 8) Training cohorts should be kept intact.
- 9) Networking activities between and among both aspiring leaders and current leaders (particularly nationals of the same gender) should be fostered and encouraged.
- 10) The continuum of services for aspiring leaders should be tailored to meet the unique needs and goals of the trainees and should allow them to access high-quality research-based leadership programming that is contextualized to the UAE.
- 11) ADEC Professional Development division should conduct periodic and systematic program evaluations (including both qualitative and quantitative measures) to ensure that leadership development programs meet the needs of the participants and the organization.

Recommendations for Future Study

The field of study in leadership development throughout the world is narrow; in the UAE context, it is non-existent. Every facet of education in this context would benefit from far greater study. Some specific issues raised in this work include:

- why teachers enter teaching and what effects this has on their career development;
- the relationship between university teacher preparation programs and the reality in government schools;
- the relationship between university leadership preparation programs and the reality in government schools;
- the unique issues faced by female leaders in the UAE context in the workplace;
- family/work balance, particularly for female leaders in this context;
- parents' perspectives on current school reform efforts
- the role of the parent in supporting learning in this context;
- the effectiveness of various professional development programs and initiatives (program evaluation);
- pathways to leadership (Who becomes a leader? Why? How?); and
- relationships between and among Arabic-speaking and English-speaking school faculties.

APPENDIX

INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. In your current role, what are your major job responsibilities?
2. What professional development programs have you taken in the past?
 - Were these programs helpful to you? Why or why not?
3. What qualities do you believe are necessary for future leaders in ADEC? Why?
4. Why did you want to join the [XXXX] program?
5. If I was an aspiring VP and I wanted to take part in this program, how would you describe the program to me? Please describe the program in detail (location, times, participants, etc.).
6. What aspects of the program have been the most and/or least helpful to you?
7. Sometimes, Emirati participants in PD programs find that some aspects of the training are not consistent with the UAE culture. Please describe any aspects of the [XXXX] program that you found to be inconsistent with the UAE culture.
8. Please tell me about how your professional learning community with your colleagues in the course has developed during this program.
9. How have you developed as a leader throughout the [XXXX] program?
10. What are some of the specific challenges at your school?
11. How do you think the [XXXX] program has or will help you address these problems? What would you like to learn more about, in order to be an effective leader or teacher-leader at your school?
12. If you were speaking to the leadership at ADEC about developing future leadership development programs, what would you tell them?
13. Overall, please state your feelings about the [XXXX] program.
14. Please share any additional information that you think would be helpful.
15. In your opinion, what are the biggest problems facing education in Abu Dhabi right now?

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The ESP Students' and Instructors' Perceptions About Students' Learning Needs: An Explanatory Case Study

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to identify the learning needs of the students engaged in an ESP program offered by the Faculty of Fine Arts at one of the private universities in Istanbul, Turkey. A sample of fifty-nine students and sixteen instructors participated in this study. Data were obtained through a needs analysis questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The findings of the study revealed significant implications with respect to the design and implementation of the ESP program at the Faculty of Fine Arts.

Keywords. English for Specific Purposes, needs analysis, learning needs.

INTRODUCTION

In the twentieth century, developments in science and technology led to a world of international relations. Since communications among people all around the world, through different kinds of channels, are limitless, the English language is deemed to be meaningfully important in nearly every field of discipline (Williams and Burden, 1997; Freeman, 2000; Celce-Murcia, 2001; Richards and Rodgers, 2001).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p.6) indicate that after the end of the Second World War, the spread of developments in educational psychology have contributed to the growth of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) by giving emphasis to the central importance of the learners and to their learning attitudes. Learners' motivation to learn and the effectiveness of their learning are seen to be influenced by the various needs and interests they have.

Needs analysis is the primary step to be taken in the design and development of any educational program. According to Altschuld and Witkin (1995, p.20), needs analysis is "a set of systematic procedures pursued in order to establish priorities based on identified needs, and make decisions attempting improvement of a program and allocation of resources". Specifically, needs analysis includes activities that gather information for the development of a curriculum that meets the needs of a specific group of learners.

Needs analysis studies have mostly focused on identifying the learning needs of the students enrolled in language preparatory or undergraduate programs (Ekici, 2003; Mutlu, 2004; Özkana, 2009). However, there has been little research on specifying the learning needs of the students engaged in a specific program which aims to provide them with instruction related to their field of study (Rahman, 2011). To fill this gap, the present study aims to identify the learning needs of the students and instructors engaged in an ESP program designed by the Faculty of Fine Arts at a private university in Istanbul, Turkey.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

In order to identify the learning needs, fifty-nine (N=59) students and sixteen (N=16) instructors enrolled in the ESP program participated in the study. Convenient sampling was used to regulate the participants because of the time constraints and availability.

Data were collected through a needs analysis questionnaire and a semi-structured interview administered to the two groups of participants. A combination of qualitative and quantitative strategies was used for data analysis to ensure internal validity.

This study employs a case study as a research design. Since the main purpose of this study is to obtain detailed information in order to evaluate an ESP program in a specific setting, a descriptive case study was

chosen as a research design defined as “an intervention or phenomenon and the real-life context in which it occurred” (Yin, 2003, p.4).

Data Collection Instruments

For the purposes of this study, the data came from a needs analysis questionnaire and a semi-structured interview given to the students and instructors about their perceptions referring to students’ learning needs.

The needs analysis questionnaire given to the students and instructors about the perceptions of the students’ learning needs

The needs analysis questionnaire was given to both the students and instructors enrolled in the ESP program offered by the Faculty of Fine Arts. The questionnaire was adapted from a study conducted by Ekici (2003), which aimed to identify the learning and target needs of the Tour Guidance students in one of the most prestigious universities in Turkey. Specifically, phrases and words that were related to tour guidance department (e.g. speaking in tour operations, reading itineraries, writing tour commentaries) were extracted from the questionnaire.

The questionnaire contained three parts. The first part was designed to identify the learning needs of the students in terms of the four language skills. There were forty-five (45) items in total. Twelve (12) of the items were related to speaking, ten (10) to listening, fifteen (15) to reading, and eight to writing. Each item in the scale was accompanied by a 4-point Likert scale ranging from ‘very important’ (A) to ‘unimportant’ (D).

In the second part, the instructors’ and students’ perceptions of the importance of the four main skills, namely speaking, listening, reading, and writing were examined. The questions mainly targeted two fundamental areas of knowledge: specialist knowledge and speaking. The participants were expected to rank the skills from 1 to 6 by their importance.

Finally, the third part consisted of an open-ended question on whether the students and instructors think that equal importance is given to the four language skills in the program. If not, they were asked to briefly explain the reasons.

Before the questionnaire was carried out, it was piloted with seven ESP students from different fields of the Fine Arts Faculty. Reliability estimates for the four language skills of learning needs were $\alpha=0.734$ for speaking, $\alpha=0.792$ for listening, $\alpha=0.831$ for reading, and $\alpha=0.729$ for writing. A high internal consistency of the items was found since the reliability estimate for the whole scale was $\alpha=0.902$ (Gliem and Gliem, 2003).

Semi-structured interview given to the students and instructors about the perceptions of the students’ learning

In an attempt to identify the students’ learning needs, a semi-structured interview was carried out with six ESP students and six instructors randomly selected by the researcher. The interview comprised six questions. The questions were prepared parallel to the items of the needs analysis questionnaire. The first question was about the perceptions of the students and instructors on the primary aim of the ESP program. Then, both groups were asked to rank the four main skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) and specialist vocabulary and grammar from “1 (most important)” to “6 (least important)”. The third question was related to the most effective strategies to be emphasized in ESP courses to improve the students’ performance in the four skills. This question was divided into the four main skills, namely speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The fourth question aimed at finding the most effective tasks in the instructors’ and students’ opinion to be emphasized in ESP courses in order to improve the students’ performance in the four skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing). The fifth question was about the opinions of the students and instructors on the major strengths and weaknesses of the program. Lastly, the participants were asked whether they had further comments on the program.

Data Analysis Procedure

The data gathered from the needs analysis questionnaire were tabulated and analyzed statistically using Statistical Package for Social Sciences 16.0 (SPSS). Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) were estimated to identify the perceptions of the students and instructors.

The data gathered were supported via semi-structured interviews carried out individually with the two groups of participants. According to Bogdan and Biklen’s (1998) framework, the interviews were first transcribed, and then by reading each participant’s transcripts, the conceptual themes were identified by the researcher according

to the recurring words and ideas. These conceptual categories were used to create a matrix of major themes, which were sorted under specific headings. Finally, the supporting quotes from each participant were listed and discussed under each heading.

RESULTS

The Results of the Needs Analysis Questionnaire

In this part, the needs analysis results related to the perceptions of the students and instructors about the students' learning needs are reported according to their performance in the four language skills namely, speaking, listening, reading and writing.

Perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of items referring to speaking skills as learning needs

This part presents the statistical analysis of the perceptions of the students and instructors considering the importance of speaking subskills referring to students' learning needs. Table 1. shows the descriptive statistics of the two groups in terms of the importance given to each item.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) of the importance given to the speaking subskills perceived as learning needs by students and instructors

Speaking subskills	Very Important		Important		Of Little Importance				Unimportant		M		SD	
	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss	Is	Ss	Is
Asking questions	50.8	60.0	45.8	20.0	-	-	3.4	20.0			1.55	0.67	0.89	
Answering questions	45.8	80.0	25.4	-	13.6	20.0	15.3	-			1.60	1.10	0.89	
Expressing yourself	60.3	66.7	31.0	33.3	6.9	-	1.7	-			1.40	0.70	0.57	
Summarizing	25.9	50.0	60.3	25.0	10.3	25.0	3.4	-			1.50	0.70	0.95	
Describing	47.5	75.0	39.0	25.0	11.9	-	1.7	-			1.33	0.75	0.50	
Comparing-contrasting	45.8	20.0	39.0	60.0	13.6	20.0	1.7	-			1.91	0.76	0.70	
Solving problems	40.7	40.0	44.1	60.0	11.9	-	3.4	-			1.75	0.78	0.54	
Reasoning	44.1	60.0	39.0	20.0	11.9	20.0	5.1	-			1.67	0.85	0.89	
Making presentations	62.7	100	35.6	-	-	-	1.7	-			1.60	0.59	0.00	
Criticizing	39.0	100	44.1	-	13.6	-	3.4	-			1.77	0.79	0.00	
Reacting to speech and lecture	47.5	40.0	33.9	60.0	15.3	-	3.4	-			1.00	0.84	0.54	
Wording quickly	44.1	40.0	42.4	20.0	8.5	20.0	5.1	20.0			1.74	0.82	1.30	
											2.20			

Note: Ss=Students; Is=Instructors.

As shown in the table above, the range of the means of items for the importance of the speaking subskills was 1.40 – 1.98 for the students and 1.25 – 2.60 for the instructors. Specifically, the subskills perceived highly important (as a combination of very important and important) by the two groups were indicated as follows: making presentations (Ss=98.3%/Ts=100%), asking questions (Ss=96.6%/Ts=80%), expressing yourself (Ss=91.3%/Ts=100%), summarizing (Ss=86.2%/Ts=75%), describing (Ss=86.5%/Ts=100%), wording quickly (Ss=86.5%/Ts=60%), comparing-contrasting (Ss=84.8%/Ts=80%), solving problems (Ss=84.8%/Ts=100%), criticizing (Ss=83.1%/Ts=100%), reasoning (Ss=83.1%/Ts=80%), reacting to speech and lecture (Ss=81.4%/Ts=100%), and answering questions (Ss=71.2%/Ts=80%).

Perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of items referring to listening skills as learning needs

As for the importance of students' performance in listening subskills, both students and instructors expressed their positive feelings. Table 2. illustrates the descriptive statistics of students and instructors attaching importance to each item in listening subskills.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) of the importance given to the listening subskills perceived as learning needs by students and instructors

Listening subskills	Very Important		Important		Of Little Importance		Unimportant		M		SD	
	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss	Is	Ss	Is
Obtaining gist	37.3	100	52.5	-	5.1	-	5.1	-	1.77	1.00	0.76	0.00
Obtaining specific information	64.4	40.0	28.8	40.0	3.4	20.0	3.4	-	1.45	1.80	0.72	0.83
Listening for summarizing	52.5	60.0	30.5	40.0	11.9	-	5.1	-	1.69	1.40	0.87	0.54
Listening for taking notes	50.8	60.0	28.8	20.0	16.9	20.0	3.4	-	1.72	1.60	0.86	0.89
Recognizing language structure	54.2	40.0	32.2	40.0	11.9	20.0	1.7	-	1.61	1.80	0.76	0.83
Understanding complex sentences	62.7	60.0	18.6	40.0	13.6	-	5.1	-	1.61	1.40	0.91	0.54
Deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words or word groups	42.4	60.0	45.8	40.0	10.2	-	1.7	-	1.71	1.40	0.72	0.54
Evaluating the importance of information	37.3	60.0	47.5	40.0	13.6	-	1.7	-	1.79	1.40	0.73	0.54
Extracting the information not explicitly stated	30.5	60.0	50.8	20.0	16.9	20.0	1.7	-	1.89	1.60	0.73	0.89
Recognizing speech organization patterns (lecture, announcement)	40.7	75.0	45.8	25.0	11.9	-	1.7	-	1.74	1.25	0.73	0.50

Note: Ss=Students; Is=Instructors.

According to the results of this table, the range of means of the listening subskills was 1.45–1.89 for the students and 1.40-2.80 for the instructors. The following listening subskills were perceived to be highly important (as a combination of very important and important) by the participants: obtaining specific information (Ss=93.2%/Ts=80%), obtaining gist (Ss=89.8%/Ts=100%), deducing the meaning of unfamiliar words or word groups (Ss=88.2%/Ts=100%), recognizing speech organization patterns (lecture, announcement) (Ss=86.5%/Ts=100%), recognizing language structure (Ss=86.4%/Ts=80%), evaluating the importance of information (Ss=84.8%/Ts=100%), listening for summarizing (Ss=83%/ Ts=100%), understanding complex sentences (Ss=81.3%/Ts=100%), extracting the information not explicitly stated (Ss=81.3%/Ts=80%), and listening for taking notes (Ss=79.6%/Ts=80%).

Perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of items referring to reading skills as learning needs

As for the perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of reading subskills referring to learning needs, Table 3. reports the related findings.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) of the importance given to the reading subskills perceived as learning needs by students and instructors

Reading subskills	Very Important		Important		Of Little Importance		Unimportant		M		SD	
	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss	Is	Ss	Is
Predicting	61.0	60.0	33.9	40.0	3.4	-	1.7	-	1.45	1.40	0.65	0.54
Scanning	42.4	60.0	47.5	40.0	6.8	-	3.4	-	1.71	1.40	0.74	0.54

Skimming	52.5	60.0	39.0	20.0	5.1	20.0	3.4	-	1.59	1.60	0.74	0.89
Reading intensively	44.1	80.0	40.7	20.0	11.9	-	3.4	-	1.74	1.20	0.80	0.44
Guessing the meaning of unknown words from context	66.1	60.0	25.4	40.0	6.8	-	1.7	-	1.44	1.40	0.70	0.54
Referencing (focusing on pronouns, numbers)	52.5	40.0	32.2	60.0	13.6	-	1.7	-	1.64	1.60	0.78	0.54
Analyzing	55.9	40.0	30.5	40.0	10.2	20.0	3.4	-	1.61	1.80	0.80	0.83
Synthesizing	49.2	60.0	32.2	20.0	15.3	20.0	3.4	-	1.72	1.60	0.84	0.89
Making inferences	37.3	60.0	45.8	20.0	15.3	20.0	1.7	-	1.81	1.60	0.75	0.89
Reading for note taking	35.6	40.0	45.8	40.0	15.3	20.0	3.4	-	1.86	1.80	0.79	0.83
Identifying main ideas	50.8	40.0	37.3	60.0	8.5	-	3.4	-	1.64	1.60	0.78	0.54
Paraphrasing	44.1	60.0	45.8	40.0	6.8	-	3.4	-	1.69	1.40	0.74	0.54
Summarizing	39.0	60.0	44.1	40.0	11.9	-	5.1	-	1.83	1.40	0.83	0.54
Transferring information	35.6	60.0	52.5	40.0	8.5	-	3.4	-	1.79	1.40	0.73	0.54
Responding critically	42.4	60.0	42.4	20.0	11.9	20.0	3.4	-	1.76	1.60	0.79	0.89

Note: Ss=Students; Is=Instructors.

The range of means for the students was 1.44-1.86 and 1.20-2.60 for the instructors. Specifically, the reading subskills rated to be important by both groups for the students' language development were: predicting (Ss=94.9%/Ts=100%), skimming (Ss=91.5%/Ts=80%), guessing the meaning of unknown words from context (Ss=91.5%/Ts=100%), scanning (Ss=89.9%/Ts=100%), paraphrasing (Ss=89.9%/Ts=100%), identifying main ideas (Ss=88.1%/Ts=100%), transferring information (Ss=88.1%/Ts=100%), analyzing (Ss=86.4%/Ts=80%), responding critically (Ss=84.8%/Ts=80%), reading intensively (Ss=84.8%/Ts=100%), referencing (focusing on pronouns, numbers) (Ss=84.7%/Ts=100%), summarizing (Ss=83.1%/Ts=100%), making inferences (Ss=83.1%/Ts=80%), synthesizing (Ss=81.4%/Ts=80%), and reading for note taking (Ss=81.4%/Ts=80%).

Perceptions of students and instructors regarding the importance of items referring to writing skills as learning needs

The perceptions of the students and instructors about the importance of the writing subskills referring to learning needs are shown in Table 4. below.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations and percentages) of the importance given to the writing subskills perceived as learning needs by students and instructors

Writing subskills	Very Important		Important		Of Little Importance		Unimportant		M		SD	
	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss %	Is %	Ss	Is	Ss	Is
Structuring sentences	39.0	80.0	49.2	20.0	10.2	-	1.7	-	1.74	1.20	0.70	0.44
Addressing topic	54.2	60.0	32.2	40.0	10.2	-	3.4	-	1.62	1.40	0.80	0.54
Developing ideas	45.8	60.0	44.1	20.0	8.5	20.0	1.7	-	1.66	1.60	0.70	0.89
Linking ideas	62.7	40.0	23.7	40.0	11.9	20.0	1.7	-	1.52	1.80	0.77	0.83
Organizing the product	37.3	60.0	54.2	40.0	6.8	-	1.7	-	1.72	1.40	0.66	0.54
Using appropriate vocabulary	50.8	60.0	37.3	20.0	11.9	20.0	-	-	1.61	1.60	0.69	0.89
Expressing your ideas clearly	44.1	60.0	49.2	40.0	5.1	-	1.7	-	1.64	1.40	0.66	0.54
Spelling correctly	45.8	60.0	35.6	20.0	15.3	20.0	3.4	-	1.76	1.60	0.83	0.89

Note: Ss=Students; Is=Instructors.

The range of means of items according to their importance with respect to the writing subskills was 1.52-1.79 for the students and 1.20-2.40 for the instructors. To put it simply, the importance was given to the items such as expressing ideas clearly (Ss=93.3%/Ts=100%), organizing the product (Ss=91.5%/Ts=100%), developing ideas (Ss=89.9%/Ts=80%), structuring sentences (Ss=88.2%/Ts=100%), using appropriate vocabulary (Ss=88.1%/Ts=80%), addressing the topic (Ss=86.4%/Ts=100%), linking ideas (Ss=86.4%/Ts=80%), and spelling correctly (Ss=81.4%/Ts=80%).

The Results of the Semi-Structured Interviews

The data obtained through the needs analysis questionnaire were supported by the semi-structured interviews conducted both with the ESP instructors and students. Specifically, the gathered data were mainly based on identifying the general aim of the ESP program and the perceptions of the participants related to the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) referring to students' learning needs.

The perceptions of the instructors and students related to the general aim of the ESP program

When the instructors and students were asked about the primary aim of the ESP program, both groups stated that it attempts to meet the students' specified needs by providing them with the necessary background knowledge to follow their undergraduate courses effectively. Specifically, the program is based on the students' reason for learning. In relation to this point, both groups made the following comments:

The primary aim of the ESP program is to meet the specified needs of the students by providing the necessary background knowledge to help students follow the undergraduate courses effectively. In short, the program is based on the students' 'reason for learning'.

In addition, the participants indicated that the program focuses on teaching specific vocabulary related to the students' field of study as follows:

The ESP program focuses on introduction of the specific vocabulary based on the field of study.

Lastly, the two groups agreed on the ranking of the specialist vocabulary, speaking, listening, reading, writing, and grammar concepts according to their order of importance. One of the instructors and students made the following comments:

Although the ESP program aims to develop the specialist vocabulary, four language skills, and the grammatical component of the language, there is an order of importance is followed as; specialist vocabulary, speaking, listening, writing, reading, and grammar.

Speaking

Taking into consideration the students' speaking abilities, both instructors and students stated that strategies such as making presentations and participating in discussions/debates should be integrated in the program in terms of improving the students' performance in speaking. The two groups of participants made the following comments:

In the ESP program, the instructors try to give some strategy training to help the students' improve their speaking skills. For example, students receive instruction on how to make presentations or participate in discussions/debates.

Listening

As for the importance of the listening skill, the two groups stated that the students should learn how to use the necessary strategies in given tasks effectively shown in the excerpt below:

Listening is one of the important components of the ESP program. The students should learn on how to listen for main idea or details of a lecture.

Reading

In relation to the students' progress of their reading skills, both groups expressed that predicting, skimming, scanning, paraphrasing, guessing from the context, and previewing are among the essential strategies to be emphasized in the program. The participating instructors and students said:

Guessing from the context, paraphrasing, and previewing are among the vital strategies that should be given importance in the program to improve the reading ability of the students.

Writing

On being asked about the importance of writing strategies, both groups of participants indicated that expressing minor and major ideas, organizing ideas clearly, combining sentences, and using specialized vocabulary are among the essential strategies to be focused on in writing. They made the following comments:

It is very important for the learners to be able to express their ideas in writing, combine sentences and organize ideas clearly in order to make progress in their writing.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to identify the perceptions of the students and instructors referring to learning needs to be emphasized in the ESP program offered at the Faculty of Fine Arts at a private university in Istanbul, Turkey.

The returned needs analysis questionnaire and semi-structured interviews indicated that the ESP program should emphasize improvement of the four language skills and subskills referring to students' learning needs. To

illustrate, according to the perceptions of the students and instructors, the ESP program should include tasks and activities that would provide the students with the opportunity to apply the subskills such as making presentations, obtaining specific information, predicting, and expressing ideas clearly in given tasks and activities which would help them develop their four language skills.

Implications

The present study has both practical and empirical implications for the design of the ESP program. As mentioned in the findings obtained through the needs analysis questionnaire and semi-structured interview, the nature of the ESP program should be based upon the students' learning needs to specify the content (i.e. goals and objectives, materials, language teaching approach and testing) of the program.

According to what has been discussed in the previous parts of this study, training programs should be provided to the preservice and inservice teachers of ESP students to raise their awareness on the initial steps of needs analysis. Full collaboration between the coordinators, instructors, and students is needed to attain success in the program. In this sense, the findings of this study should be emphasized while designing the ESP program in various disciplines.

Limitations

Although the current study revealed some interesting and important findings, there were a number of limitations. Therefore, the findings should be taken as suggestive rather than definitive for further research. To begin with, the focus on this study was simply on the students' and instructors' perceived learning needs. Other types of needs such as language and objective needs were not identified due to time constraints. Finally, the study particularly focused on the perceptions of the students and instructors in Faculty of Fine Arts at a private university. Therefore, it lacks external validity and generalizability. Although this study has some limitations, it is significant for the field of identifying learning and target needs since it provides basis for the further research.

Recommendations for Further Research

In this study, there are several recommendations for further research. First of all, analyzing the needs of the students will provide the basis for other research topics such as materials development, testing, and program evaluation. Future research should also attempt to investigate different types of needs, such as communicative, objective, situation and subjective needs, so that they can be examined in future research.

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Internationalization Status of Selected Teacher Education Institutions in the Philippines

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Abstract

This study assessed the level of internationalization of ten Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the Philippines. These institutions were assessed in terms of their strengths and weaknesses in four domains in teacher education and nine dimensions of internationalization using a 4-pt scale rubric developed by Balagtas & Associates (2012). The results reveal that none from the selected TEIs are internationalized to a great extent in all the four domains of teacher education based on the scale. They were, however, internationalized to some extent in academic standards and quality (domain 2), knowledge creation and appreciation (domain 1), and growth, efficiency, and accountability (domain 4), but internationalized to a little extent in culture of sharing and service (domain 3). In terms of the dimensions of internationalization, they were internationalized to a great extent only in curriculum and instruction but considered weak in all other eight areas of internationalization of HEIs.

Keywords. Assessment, Internationalization, Teacher Education

INTRODUCTION

With the onslaught of technology, the world has shrunk into a global village that people mobility and information generation have increased in unimaginable proportions. Nations needed to reach out to other countries not only for political and economic reasons, but also for educational purposes. This process of reaching out is described in most conferences in education as internationalization.

According to Bernardo (2002), internationalization could be construed as related to educational and development goals. Educational goals are related to assumptions of universal knowledge and the need for collaborative international efforts and perspectives. The development goals, on the other hand, are related to the mission of developed countries to provide assistance and support to less developed countries in their efforts at improving their capabilities in their higher education institutions.

Internationalization is considered a compelling reason for an academic institution to change or modernize its programs and practices in order to compete globally. With the advent of global rankings of countries and universities, everyone in the academe becomes conscious of how one's country or institution can be included in the ranking as such is an indicator of progress, quality and capability.

Internationalization of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) has also been among the challenges of the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) in the Philippines because of the collaboration and intercultural exchanges in the global village. According to Bernardo (2002), there are some opportunities for internationalizing higher education, namely, student and staff mobility; internationalizing curricula through international studies; research collaborations; international networks; transnational distance education; twinning and articulation programs; and international quality assurance. Likewise, Padama et al. (as cited by Balagtas et al., 2012), proposed a framework for internationalization of HEIs with nine dimensions, namely, curriculum and instruction; facilities and support system; cooperation and development assistance; diversity of income generation; research collaboration; international and intercultural understanding/networking; academic standards and quality; mobility and exchanges for students and teachers; and international students recruitment.

To translate these dimensions of internationalization in Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the Philippines, Balagtas et al. (2012) developed an instrument that has the dimensions reflective of specific

indicators to improve the programs and practices as institutions offering teacher education programs. This contextualization of internationalization reflects the areas of commitment of the Philippine Normal University (PNU), being the premier teacher education institution in the Philippines and the National Center for Teacher Education (NCTE). The four areas of commitment include 1) Commitment to Knowledge Creation and Application; 2) Commitment to Quality and Excellence; 3) Commitment to Culture of Sharing and Service; and 4) Commitment to Growth, Efficiency, and Accountability (PNU Administrative Manual, 2005).

As NCTE, the Philippine Normal University is mandated by the government of the Philippines to provide technical support to the CHED and to the Department of Education (DepEd) in their programs and projects that chart policies and recommendation on teacher education, teacher training, teacher education curricula, professional development for teachers and educational leaders in the country (Republic Act No. 9647, Sec 3a, 2009). True to its mandate, PNU envisions national and international responsiveness and recognition as a Teacher Education University (PNU, 2012).

In order to act on its mandate and realize its vision, PNU has set five strategies for internationalization: 1) develop an internationalization program that will increase the number and expand diversity of foreign students and faculty; 2) develop an international relations strategic plan to ensure a strategic position within the global teacher education network and academic community; 3) develop and produce scholarly work and products that attract international audience; 4) position PNU as a hub of academic activities and exchanges relevant to teacher education and basic education to ensure its international presence; and 5) participate in international network of TEIs to promote collaboration and partnership in the conduct of research, extension, and production (PNU, 2012).

One project that PNU spearheaded is the creation of the National Network of Normal Schools (3NS). The network serves as the arm of CHED for its project dubbed as “Save Our Normal Schools” which was conceived to address serious challenges faced by Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) in the country. As the lead shepherd, PNU is expected to lead or collaborate with the other nine (9) member institutions of 3NS in all efforts to improve the quality of programs, operations and services of TEIs in the country.

Cognizant of these strategies, the researchers felt the need to contribute to the realization of PNU’s vision for internationalization. They started this by assessing the level of internationalization of their institution and then the nine other member TEIs in the network so that it can provide a basis for spearheading development programs in teacher education in the country. Assessment as defined by Balagtas & Dacanay (2013) is the process of gathering information and organizing them into an interpretable form for easy decision making. Assessment is imperative then to have basis in determining the capacity of the institution to compete globally. The results of such assessment could show the strengths and weaknesses of the institutions and define the specific actions they have to take in enhancing their programs and practices towards global competitiveness. Internationalization of the institution is one possible concrete action towards global competitiveness.

In this study, internationalization refers to the process where two or more foreign institutions collaborate in the delivery of academic, research, social and economic activities for their mutual benefits and understanding. According to Taylor, Rizvi, Lingard and Henry (1997), any activity that involves a cross-country collaboration contributes to the internationalization of the activities of the partners. Examples of such internationalization activities include international students in undergraduate or postgraduate courses; internationalization of the curriculum and comparative curricula studies; international research conferences; international publications; collaborative and/or comparative cross-country research projects; professional development programs; and international consultancies.

Through the examination of the strengths and weaknesses of the 10 normal schools in each of the domains and dimensions of internationalization, the researchers believe that the member institutions of the 3NS will have basis in improving their own internationalization efforts. The analysis will also help them as they synergize with other member institutions in their network to sustain their identified strengths and to improve on the areas they are weak at.

METHODOLOGY

This descriptive research describes the level of internationalization of the 10 surveyed institutions belonging to the Network of Normal Schools (3NS) as assessed by their own internal stakeholders to have basis for the improvement of their efforts at internationalization. Each institution has 23 to 36 internal stakeholders for a total of 308 who served as assessors. About 27% of these are students, 52% are faculty, 7% are staff, and 12% are officials. About 2% of the respondents did not indicate their identity in the instrument. To assess their level of internationalization, the 4-pt scale rubric in assessing the internationalization level of TEIs developed by Balagtas, Atweh, Papangao, Reyes, & Ubiña (2012) was used. This instrument has been content validated and subjected to test of reliability using Cronbach's Alpha ($r=0.88$), in which results indicate high internal reliability coefficient, also high intra-rater reliability ($r=0.88$) as well as high inter-rater reliability ($r=0.76$). For data gathering, the consent of the institution's President was first sought, and those s/he identified as participants mostly from the college offering education programs attended a forum where they were introduced to the framework of internationalization. The forum participants also served as the assessors who gathered a set of documents (e.g. curricular programs with syllabi, technical reports, list of foreign students and faculty, President's reports, annual reports, memoranda of understanding/agreement, etc.) that could gauge the institution's level of internationalization. Descriptive statistical procedures were used to describe the strengths (areas with average rating from 2.5 to 4) and weaknesses (average rating is below 2.5) of the institutions, which served as basis for the proposed developmental program. The average ratings also classified the institutions into five (5) levels, namely, not internationalized (0-0.49); internationalized to a little extent (0.5 to 1.49); internationalized to some extent (1.5 to 2.49); internationalized to a high extent (2.5 to 3.49); and internationalized to a very high extent (3.5 to 4).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Strengths and Weaknesses on Internationalization of the 10 Member Institutions in the 3NS

Institution 1: A Normal School in Manila. Among the nine (9) areas of internationalization, this institution is seen strong in the area of *academic standards and quality* having been rated as 3.14 out of 4, which means **internationalized to a high extent**. The assessment on the level of internationalization of this institution in this area seems to conform to the high performance of its graduates in the Licensure Examination for Teachers (LET), because it has been consistently at the top among those TEIs that have the most number of teacher applicants who passed the examination. Other areas that this institution is seen as strong include the dimension on *curriculum and instruction* (2.69) and *facilities and support system* (2.58). Such results can be attributed to the University leadership's vision of becoming internationalized; hence, its curriculum and instruction including its facilities and support system are designed to be at par with other top rank universities in Asia and in the world. This institution, being the NCTE is also expected to lead reforms in teacher education. An evidence of its leadership is in its curricular programs which are considered alternative to what the CHED provides. These curricular programs are equally effective as those prescribed by the CHED since they also produced graduates with high performance in the LET. The institution, however, is viewed weakest in *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (1.32) and on the dimension of *research collaboration* (1.42). This explains why this institution has been assisted in these areas in an applied research grant by the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade Australian Aid Project through the efforts of the University of New England (UNE) SIMERR, National Research Centre, an institution in Armidale, Australia that has led the development of the Australian National Professional Standards for Teachers (NPST). This grant established a national research center called Research Center for Teacher Quality (RCTQ), which was envisioned to provide evidence-based inputs to policy formulation that could improve teacher quality in the Philippines. The other dimensions of internationalization that the institution is also weak at include *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (2.36), *international students' recruitment* (2.23), *cooperation and development assistance* (1.92), and *diversity of income generation* (1.61). As a whole, the institution is considered **internationalized to some extent** (2.29). This means that this institution should continue developing itself "to level up teacher education for a quality nation...as it moves along with global demands" (Ogena, 2013).

Institution No. 2: A Normal School in Palawan. The member institution of 3NS in Palawan is seen strongest in the area of *curriculum and instruction* (2.59) and *facilities and support system* (2.54) since both are interpreted as internationalized to a high extent. However, the institution is viewed as weak or rated as internationalized to a little extent in *cooperation and development assistance* (0.98), *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (1.15), and *research and collaboration* (1.17). Other dimensions such as *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (1.52), *international students' recruitment* (1.51), and *diversity of income generation* (1.71) are rated internationalized to some extent, which area dimensions still considered as also a

weakness. As a whole, the institution is considered of **internationalized to some extent**. This means that the institution has to develop internationally benchmarked programs and practices to continue to be “leaders in Philippines education” (Sespeñe, 2013).

Institution No. 3: A Normal School in Bicol. The stakeholders of a normal school in Bicol assess their institution strong in the area of *curriculum and instruction* (3.21), *facilities and support system* (3.03), *international student recruitment* (3.88), and *academic standard and quality* (2.84) with all these dimensions interpreted as internationalized to a great extent. It can be noted that the institution is strong in four areas of internationalization compared to the first two normal schools in Luzon. This strength of the institution could be explained by the international accreditation it has gone through since it is the only ISO certified institution among the 10 member institutions under the 3NS. However, just like other normal schools, the institution is viewed weak in *diversity of income generation* (0.05) and *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (1.2). This can be explained by the fact that the budget of a state university is mostly dependent only on the appropriation in the national budget. The other dimensions that the institution is known weak or rated internationalized to some extent include *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (1.9), *cooperation and development assistance* (1.61), and *research collaboration* (1.69). As a whole, the institution is considered of **internationalized to some extent**. This means that the institution still needs some development programs to continue to help “steer the country towards progress and development” (Lauraya, 2013).

Institution No. 4: A Normal School in Leyte. Stakeholders from a normal school in Leyte rated their institution **internationalized to some extent** with a 1.92 overall rating. Such rating reflects the objective evaluation of the stakeholders of the institution as they see this assessment as input to its improvement. Cruzada (2013) quotes “know thyself; the unexamined life is not worth living.” – an inscription at the Temple of Delphi, a concept that holds true for a person, as it does for the society, and may also be true to an institution. In so doing, respondents from the institution evaluated their *facilities and support system* (3.28) and *curriculum and instruction* (2.8) internationalized to a high extent, which shows that its curricular offerings, its strategies in teaching and the facilities that support its delivery of the programs can well compete with standards overseas. Meanwhile, in regard to *academic standards*, they rated their institution internationalized to some extent (2.05). This means that at least 25% of its programs are level 3 accredited by nationally/internationally known accrediting bodies; at least 20% of the faculty and administrators are recognized for their expertise here and abroad; at least 25% of the administrators and staff have special trainings or exposures abroad; the institution is cited by only 2 recognized international societies or publications as a good institution for learning; and at least 25% of the faculty and administrators are recipients of scholarships, fellowships or grants abroad. However, the stakeholders viewed *research and collaboration* (1.22) and *international/intercultural understanding/networking* (1.22) internationalized to a little extent since the institution has had few researches and twinning programs at the international level. Such perceptions support the stakeholders’ views on mobility of students/faculty and income generation. The institution’s faculty rated their institution poorly in terms of *mobility and exchanges of students and teachers* and in terms of *diversity of income generation* which both got 0.63. Such ratings prove that there have been very few student and faculty exchanges between this institution and foreign institutions. This also means that less than 3 % of the faculty members taught, received trainings, or served as consultants abroad.

Institution No. 5: A Normal School in Iloilo. Stakeholders’ ratings on the level of internationalization of a normal school in Iloilo reached an overall rating of 2.68 interpreted as **internationalized to a high extent**. The institution was evaluated highly for its *curriculum and instruction* (3.43), *academic standards and quality* (2.95), *international students’ recruitment* (2.95), and *facilities and support system* (2.9) – all internationalized to a great extent. Whereas, in terms of *cooperation and development assistance*; *diversity of income generation*; and *mobility and exchanges for faculty and students*, the stakeholders evaluated it internationalized to some extent. These evaluations can well be supported by the fact that the institution has had some of its programs accredited at level 4 by the Accrediting Association of Chartered Colleges and Universities of the Philippines (AACCU). Such evaluation also confirms what this institution has been consistently doing, i.e. “living up to its core values” one of which is “excellence” (Subong, 2013).

Institution No. 6: A Normal School in Zamboanga. The level of internationalization of a normal school in Western Mindanao in the dimensions of *curriculum and instruction* (2.48), *facilities and support system* (2.13), and *research collaboration* (2.07) garnered the highest means and interpreted as internationalized to some extent. The faculty, students, and staff of this university perceived these dimensions as their strength since these are the very reasons why they were awarded as the Center of Development (COD) in Teacher Education. On the other hand, the dimensions on *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (0.47), *diversity of income generation* (1.11), and *international students’ recruitment* (1.26) had the lowest means. The data imply that

these dimensions are the weak areas of this normal school since they are the very areas interpreted as internationalized to a little extent or not internationalized at all. This is easily explained by their geographic and socio-political conditions. The university is located in Mindanao, the southernmost island in the Philippines. Peace and order is problematic in the area, thus, most foreign embassies issue travel advisories to their citizens not to travel to the area. Since many cases of kidnapping of foreigners and locals including conflict situations are often sensationalized abroad, very few foreign nationals go to Mindanao. Overall, this university however, has a mean score of 1.78, which means **internationalized to some extent**. Therefore, the 3NS should gather all its efforts to help this institution “to improve and transform teacher education in the country to meet the challenges posed by globalization” (Ho, 2013).

Institution No. 7: A Normal School in Bukidnon. The stakeholders from the normal school in Bukidnon gave their institution an overall rating of 1.58 with a corresponding description of **internationalized to some extent**. This means that the institution needs development programs in its “journey towards excellence driven by substance and not form” (Barroso, 2013). For a closer look at the areas for development, the respondents rated the institution’s *curriculum and instruction* highest at 2.45, followed by *facilities and support system* at 2.07 and *academic standard and quality* at 1.87, which were both rated internationalized to some extent. Meanwhile, *international and intercultural understanding and networking* had 1.43 rating; *international students’ recruitment* had 1.01; *cooperation and development assistance* had 0.95; and *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* had 0.71 – all interpreted internationalized to a little extent. In contrast, the respondents rated *diversity of income generation* the least at 0.39 which reveals that in terms of creating projects and programs that will help the university gain revenues, this institution cannot yet compete with internationalized benchmarks.

Institution No. 8: A Normal School in Cebu. The top two dimensions of internationalization of a Normal School in Cebu are the *academic standard and quality* (2.76) and *curriculum and instruction* (2.55) which are interpreted as internationalized to a great extent. This indicates that the Normal School is strong in these dimensions. They were able to strengthen these dimensions, thus, the CHED named it as the Center of Excellence in Teacher Education. However, this Normal School was rated weak in three dimensions, namely, *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (0.84), *cooperation and development assistance* (1.19), and *diversity of income generation* (1.19), which are all interpreted as internationalized to a little extent. Like the other Normal Schools which rely on the national government for its meagre appropriations, this Normal School has to strengthen its income generating projects. In addition, this institution was built primarily to educate teachers in the province. In 1902, this Normal School was established as a “tributary school of Philippine Normal School in Manila” (Lopez, 2013). From then on, it has been a strong producer of quality teachers in the Visayas province of Cebu. Recent efforts on internationalization, however, are on their way. Overall, this institution has a mean score of 2.03, which is interpreted as **internationalized to some extent**.

Institution No. 9: A Normal School in Ilocos. The stakeholders of a normal school in Ilocos assessed their institution’s level of internationalization highest in the area of Facilities and Support System having been rated as 2.58 out of 4, which means internationalized to a great extent. The institution is viewed as weak in *diversity of income generation* (0.09) and *cooperation and development assistance* (0.24), both interpreted as not internationalized at all. The other dimensions interpreted internationalized to a little extent are *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers* (0.54), *research and collaboration* (0.75), *international students’ recruitment* (0.84), and *international and intercultural understanding and networking* (0.99). Meanwhile, the dimensions on *curriculum and instruction* and *academic standard and quality* were considered internationalized to some extent. As a whole, the institution is considered **internationalized to a little extent**. This level indicates that there is really a need for development programs for a higher level of internationalization of this TEI as it continues to be “a bastion of tradition and excellence” in the northern part of the Philippines (Pascua, 2013).

Institution No. 10: A Normal School in Pangasinan. The stakeholders of a normal school in Pangasinan assessed their institution’s level of internationalization as needing improvement in almost all areas of internationalization although it is now working on its Level 4 accreditation status for its teacher education program. Nevertheless, the assessors see their institution as having potential in *facilities and support system*, *academic standards and quality*, and in *curriculum and instruction* since these dimensions were all rated equivalent to level 2 in internationalization, which is interpreted as internationalized to some extent. The institution is viewed as weak in *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers*, *cooperation and development assistance*, *diversity of income generation*, and *international students’ recruitment* as these dimensions were rated not internationalized at all. Moreover, assessors also see their institution internationalized to a little extent in the dimensions of *research collaboration* and *international and intercultural understanding and networking*.

As a whole, this institution sees itself as **internationalized to a little extent**. This means that it needs development programs in all areas of internationalization to have a successful “journey towards global excellence” (Estira, 2013).

Across Institutions. Figure 1 shows the areas of strengths and weaknesses of the 10 normal schools in the 3NS along the nine (9) areas of internationalization. As shown in the figure, the stakeholders of the 3NS see the network as strong or **internationalized to a great extent** in only two (2) areas – *curriculum and instruction* and *facilities and support system*. They have the potential to be strong in *academic standards and quality*, *international and intercultural understanding and networking*, and *international students’ recruitment* as these dimensions are interpreted **internationalized to some extent**. On the contrary, the network needs to strengthen its *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers*, *cooperation and development assistance*, *diversity of income generation*, and *research collaboration*. As a whole, the institutions in the network are internationalized only to some extent; thus, explains the need for development programs for internationalization.

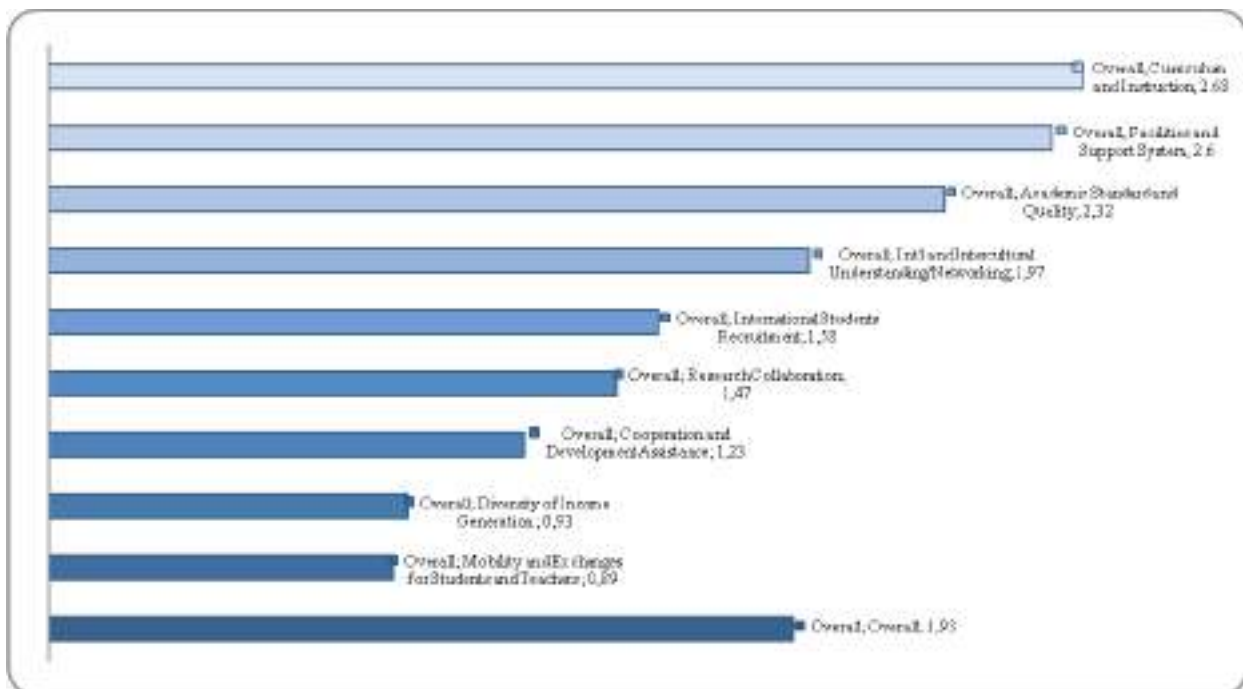


Figure 1: Over-all Level of internationalization of selected TEIs in the Philippines

The results pointed to almost the same deterrents to internationalization of higher education institutions in the Philippines which Bernardo (2002) discussed: programs cost, research capability, lack of involvement in international networks, and inability to comply with quality assurance process.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The analysis made on the strengths and weaknesses of the 10 member institutions of the 3NS in the Philippines gives a picture of the needed development programs in teacher education in the Philippines. Likewise, the results also reveal the capacity of the surveyed institutions to be the country’s resource that could be shared with other countries in terms of the preparation and development of teachers at least in Asia if not beyond it. Apparently, among the nine areas for internationalization, the country’s *curriculum and instruction* could be a potential area for internationalization. As the country prepares for the ASEAN 2015, the government could promote the country’s TEIs particularly their curriculum and instruction in producing teachers for the ASEAN community. The present teacher education curriculum in the Philippines can be considered internationally benchmarked; hence it can also develop teachers in the other countries in the ASEAN region. The *facilities and support system* of these TEIs particularly those belonging to the 3NS are also being improved to effectively deliver the curriculum for teachers. The *standards and quality of their programs and services* are also potential strength including initial efforts for *international and intercultural understanding and networking* as

well as *international student recruitment*. However, to help strengthen TEIs as a country's resource, the government can also facilitate the *mobility and exchanges for students and teachers*; establish *cooperation and development assistance* at least with the ASEAN countries; *diversify the sources for income generation*; and establish *research collaboration*. Since the member institutions of the 3NS are all government institutions created basically to produce teachers for the Filipino people, government efforts and resources should be appropriated for them to produce teachers who are at par with those teaching in top rank universities in Asia. Since ASEAN 2015 is one year away, efforts need to be doubled for TEIs in the country to be of help in making the Philippines a country to consider when it comes to the preparation or development of teachers at least in the ASEAN community.

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Evaluation of Concrete-Mixed Models Use on Optical Isomery Concept Teaching, Under Brazilian High School Chemistry Teachers' Perspective

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Abstract

Concrete-mixed models are important scientific and technological instruments, once they play an essential role in establishing connections between the perceiving reality and the idealized one. These connections have implied on how constructivism can be interpreted. The representation of these models is an important compound of the constructivist theory, constituting the basis of these models' typology. The possible models amplitude is defined throughout their aspects and representation modes, whose typology open the doors to future horizons on teaching and learning research about models in classroom. As objective, this work presents evaluating the use of concrete-mixed models on Optical Isomery (O.I.) concept teaching, under high-school Brazilian teachers' perspective. In order of doing that, the author has raised, tested and discussed hypothesis related to high-school Brazilian teachers' point of view about the use of a specific model on explaining the concept of O.I. After that, low cost concrete-mixed models were developed, aiming to be presented to the participants of this research, as viable instruments of O.I. teaching. Both the abovementioned presented models, as well as the information folder were exhibited to Chemistry teachers of public and private Brazilian high-schools, who have answered to previous and post essays, beyond getting knowledge about the available information. As a result of the descriptive analysis, the author has concluded that the general and specific proposed objectives were reached. In this way, the author concludes that concrete-mixed models are efficient tools on Significant Learning promotion, according to Chemical high-school Brazilian teachers' perspective.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

A model in Science is a representation of a phenomena initially produced to a specific aim. As a "phenomena" is any interesting way of separating a part of the total group of experimentation to a posterior study, the models are presented everywhere. The specific purpose for which any model is originally made in Science (or in specific research) is like a simplification of a phenomena to be used in inquiries to develop explanations about it (Gilbert & Boulter, 2000, 11).

Many models are compound of entities that are concrete, objects seen as they had a distinct existence (a wheel, for example) or even as they were part of a system, like a car wheel, for example. A model of an object can be both smaller than the phenomena that it represents (for example, a train); the same size of it, as the human body, for example; or even bigger than the phenomena (in the case of a virus, for example).

Nowadays, it is more and more acceptable the notion that the cultural formation of human beings in contemporary societies passes through everyday intermediations, characterized by a complexity context, that occur through interpersonal, group and massive communication, and spreading as the improvement of new technologies (BARROS, 1997).

According to the Brazilian National Curricular Standards (PCN), Chemistry teaching shall warrant that "the aspects and technological subjects associated to the scientific and mathematic learning become an essential part of the citizen formation" (Brazil, 1999, 10).

Under that perspective, Chemistry Teaching do not shall limit itself just in preparing students to pre University selection examinations; shall, before anything else, develop skills and competences that permit the formation of a critical consciousness for the students, aiming that they can contribute themselves for the development of a fairer and more equal society. On the other hand, forming critical and consciousness citizens do not exclude their capacity for pre University examinations as well as public contests. Such citizen formation shall anticipate the imposed necessities by a technological and globalized world, which obey ourselves to know

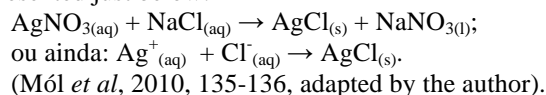
how to deal with technology and the different materials and substances presented in our reality. Such knowledge necessity rules all the people who live in society, independently of their differences. (Mól *et al.*, 2010, 134).

According to Mól *et al.* (2010, 134), Chemistry Science is characterized by the use of theories and specific models, besides using an exclusive language which permits the communication among scientists and technicians of different areas, on which chemical knowledge is necessary. For them, such language is also utilized on the information about chemical substances and materials presented in products, among them aliments, medicine and beauty products.

Under citizen critical and consciousness formation perspective, Chemistry teaching shall offer the acquisition of knowledge to the students, which will make possible the conscious interaction between those students and the abovementioned products, technologically produced (Mól *et al.*, 2010, 134).

Machado, Mortimer and Romanelli (2000) punctuate that, in order of broad learning, Chemistry teaching shall contemplate three different approach levels: representational; phenomenological or macroscopic; and theoretical or microscopic. According to Mól *et al.* (2010, 135), such levels' diversity brings a greater learning difficulty, so that its comprehension demands a good articulation and concept and ideal elaboration capacity.

The first level employed by the chemistries since the origin of that science corresponds to the use of an exclusive symbolization that permits the representation of the substances and its proprieties and transformations. In that way, it is possible to describe the silver chlorate precipitation phenomena by using symbols and equations, as represented just below:



The next approach level refers to the phenomena studied by Chemistry. Here the transformations occur and they are observed the material and substances properties. Thus, whenever observing a commercial alcohol sample combustion, a precipitate formation or [when] determining properties as density and fusion temperature, for example, where are approaching Chemistry on a descriptive and functional way, it means, macroscopically. Generally, Chemistry teaching worries less about this level, although is always explaining it. On formal teaching, that level is quite more characterized by experimental activities' proposals – executed by students or demonstrated by teachers – or whenever studying natural phenomena (as combustion); or laboratory, as a salt precipitation, for example (Mól *et al.*, 2010, 134-135, with adaptations).

In experimental activities or whenever observing natural phenomena, we note the chemical transformation occurrence, throughout system alterations, which point the formation of new substance(s) – color changes, precipitate formation and gases releases – and also throughout instrumental reading, such as thermometers and balances. On that context, experimentation can assume fundamental importance on significant learning promotion in Sciences (Silva & Zanon, 2000). That is why experimental activities are usually used as previous organizers to concept and scientific models teaching, constituting a macroscopic way of Chemistry approach.

The last abovementioned level - microscopic one - by its turn, corresponds to the theories and models used by the chemistries to describe and justify the macroscopic observed phenomena. Due to the great abstraction of the microscopic level, its comprehension demands good ideas and concepts elaboration and articulation. At this level, there are the theories that explain the matter constitution and its behaviors in different conditions. As example of theory used on Chemistry teaching, those which explain the constitution of the matter can be mentioned, describing the atomic structure – atomic theories – and the substance one – chemistry linkage models. That microscopic level is, very frequently, represented on a standardized way, constituting a specific language of Chemistry (Mól *et al.*, 2010, 135).

According to Pacheco (2006, 7), Optical Isomery is usually not broached by High School teachers, although being dealt with higher or lower emphasis by the didactical books corresponding to that education period. Since this intriguing evidence, the author decided to investigate the abovementioned concept, attempting to verify if the concrete-mixed use would be an efficient technique to facilitate the Optical Isomery concept teaching, under high school Chemistry teachers of public and private schools of Distrito Federal, Brasília, Brazil.

Another reference that brings extra subsidy to Pacheco (2006, 7) is Guimarães & Silva (2008, 43), who observed that, “in order of analyzing Organic Chemistry teaching at Basic Education High School Institutions, we have used the subject plans (course plans) which we were offered by teachers of ten public and private schools of Minas Gerais, Brazil. Among them, eight were from the capital - Belo Horizonte”. Besides that, the referred author punctuate that the school identified by her as “J”, joining the public state teaching net and participating of a project entitled “Reference-Schools” developed by Minas Gerais government, follows the curricular proposal of the Common Basic Contents (CBC).

According to the abovementioned project, the CBC are: material properties, material constitution and chemical transformations. They must be offered to students on the 1st Year of High School and deepened on the

following series. On the 3rd Year, it is free to school to teach new contents out of the CBC, maximizing the students' formation and their comprehension of the spoken themes.

On the studied school, Organic Chemistry content is offered at the last Unit (Unit 7), of the 2nd Year (so, all the other units were suppressed of the eight board). Considering the time dedicated to the subject, and detailing that other schools normally dedicate all 3rd Year to it, the offered Organic Chemistry content seems to be administrated in a short and superficial way.

Detailing exploring the subject, Guimarães & Silva (2008, 44) inform that, on 3rd Year Class Plan nothing was mentioned about Organic Chemistry, although there were, among didactic resources, practical laboratory activities, whose themes were not informed by the teacher.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Jean Piaget (1896-1980) was, undoubtedly, the pioneer on constructivist focus to human cognition. His proposals configure a cognitive human development constructivist theory, known as Piaget's cognitive development theory.

Piaget establishes four general cognitive development periods: *sensory-motor*, *pre-operational*, *concrete-operational* and *formal operational*. Each one is subdivided in stages or levels. For this project, the author chose to emphasize only the two last ones of those abovementioned periods, which really interest to the students age group focused on this research, that are students of Chemistry curricular compound of High School 3rd Year.

About the mental development periods proposed by Piaget, it is below presented one of his citations (Piaget, 1977, 127, *apud* Moreira, 2011, 99):

“[...] From 7 to 8 until 11 or 12 years old, the concrete operations are organized, that means, the operatory groupings of thinking relapsing over manipulable or susceptible of intuition. Since 11 or 12 years old and during teenage, the formal thinking is elaborated, which grouping characterize the over reflexive intelligence.”

According to Gravina & Santarosa (1998, 4), that stage is characterized by the operations appearance, the actions in thinking; however, at this phase children are still dependent of concrete objects to change actions in concepts (*concrete-operational stage*).

At about 11 or 12 years old, the fourth and last mental development period starts. It passes through adolescence and reaches adult age: it is the *formal operational period*. The main characteristic of this period is the capacity of ratiocinate with verbal hypothesis and not only with concrete objects. It is the propositional thinking, by means of the teenager, by ratiocinating, manipulates propositions. The starting point is the concrete operation; however, the adolescent transcends this stage: formulates the concrete operation results under propositions' shape and continue to mentally operating them (Moreira, 2011, 98).

Summarizing, it is observed that since seven or eight years old the child is already able to do certain logical thoughts; however, the operations incise directly over the real objects, in a way that impossible is subordinated to real. However, by formally thinking, or else, by ratiocinate about hypothesis, reality stays on second plan towards possibility, and real turns to subordinate itself to possible. So, teenager becomes able of executing hypothetical-deductive thoughts.

Thus, the most important characteristics of this period is the capacity of manipulating mental constructs and, at the same time, recognizing relations among those abstract products internally projected. The formal operation period goes until adult age.

It is a fact that experimentation can assume fundamental importance on significance learning promotion in sciences (Silva and Zanon, 2000). Considering that, experimental activities are frequently used as previous organizers to concepts and scientific models teaching, constituting a way of Chemistry macroscopic approach.

David Ausubel is one of the cognitivism's representatives and, as well, he proposes a theoretical explanation of the apprenticeship process, under the cognitive point of view, similarly to Jean Piaget's theory (Moreira, 2011, p.160).

In the same way of other cognitivism's authors, Ausubel based himself on the premise that there is a structure where organization and integration of determined material is processed, called by him cognitive structure, understood as somebody's total idea content and its organization, or as someone's content and idea organization

in a particular knowledge area, constituting a complex resulting from cognitive processes, by means of which the knowledge is acquired and utilized.

Ausubel's attention is often focused on apprenticeship, as it occurs in classroom everyday at the great majority of the schools. For him, the isolated factor which influences apprenticeship most is what the student already knows, so it is up to the teacher identify and teach accordingly (Moreira, 2011, 160).

According to Ausubel (1978, 41, *apud* Moreira, 2011, 163):

“the essence of significant learning process is that symbolically expressed ideas could be co-related in a substantive way (not literal) and not arbitrary to what the apprentice already knows, it means, to any aspect of its cognitive structure specifically relevant to those ideas' learning. That aspect specifically relevant can be, for example, an image, a symbol, a concept, a proposition, already significant”.

According to Moreira (2011, 164), one of the conditions to significant learning occurrence is that the material to be learned must be related (or incorporable) to the cognitive structure of the apprentice, in a non arbitrary and not literal way. For him, a material with those characteristics is called *potentially significant*.

Gilbert (1993, 9-10) punctuate that models are essential to thinking and scientific works' development. He also argues that Science and its explanatory models are inseparable, once models constitute products, scientific methods and its major learning and teaching tools.

Harisson (1996, *apud* Harisson & Treagust, 2000, 2), by his time, affirms that Science Education divide its interests in models and modeling. In his opinion, while many scientific phenomena cannot be reproduced in classroom, due to time and security restrictions, models of those objects and processes are available. So, models are accessible and teacher know that students like to play with them and that modeling is an important strategy of constructivist teaching. It is also important whenever exploring the manners students build, manipulate and interpret scientific models in Science school lessons.

So, it can be concluded that the different existent cognitivist theories differ one another due to the adopted models to describe the way the construction of cognitive structure occurs, besides how the new assimilated information is incorporated to it, and, yet, information contained on it is recovered by the individual to be used on everyday phenomena interpretation.

Thus, it is observed that both Piaget's human cognitive development theory, as well as Ausubel's significant learning cognitivist theory, congregate characteristics that suggest that both are appropriate to justify, even partially, the efficiency of qualitative models manipulation on Optical Isomery concept teaching, under Brazilian Chemistry High School Teachers.

Developed Material

The author of this article produced some material (products), in order of focusing this research, permitting to clarify teachers who participate of this intervention about existent models' typologies (Gilbert & Boulter, 2000, 46-47) and also about Optical Isomery concept, supported by practical examples of pharmacological industry applications. Such products are represented on next page:

- Concrete Optical Isomery models, made by the author, from low cost materials, such as styrefoam balls and toothpick. (see Appendix section - Picture 01);
- Explaining Model Typology and Optical Isomery Folder (see Appendix section);
- Previous and posterior evaluative questionnaires*.

* Considering the abovementioned materials produced by the author, in order of evaluating the concrete-mixed models use under Brazilian Chemistry high school teachers' perspective, it is important to mention that the Previous and Posterior elaborated Questionnaires were used during a couple of scheduled encounters with the teachers who participated of this research, as volunteers, occasion where they were fulfilled by those participants, constituting effective tools that permitted a detailed evaluation of the other developed materials made by the author.

Among the questions presented to the teachers during the questionnaire applications, the author asked the following: Do you teach at a public or a private school? For which high school series have you already taught? Which Chemical contents are you able to teach? Do you use models whenever teaching Chemistry? **Considering**

Gilbert's & Boulter's typology, what type of models are you able to use at teaching? How long do you teach Chemistry? How long did you finish your graduation? Why do you teach Optical Isomery during Chemical lessons? Does your approach include any characteristics, besides those presented in the used didactic book? In affirmative case, which are those characteristics? How do you approach Optical Isomery concept? **In your opinion, models shall be used to explain the Optical Isomery concept? Please justify your answer. Do you think concrete-mixed models can improve the comprehension of the Optical Isomery concept? Justify. What is the importance of teaching Optical Isomery to students, in your opinion?** The bold questions above were repeated during the Posterior Questionnaire Application.

RESULTS

The results presented at this section were based on the materials and methodology previously presented and discussed, that means: concrete-mixed models; explaining model typology and Optical Isomery folder; besides the Previous and Posterior questionnaires, developed by the author of this research.

Besides that, data collected through the abovementioned questionnaires have permitted descriptive analysis development, which is going to be discussed at this section. It is important to explain that all the produced graphics were projected through Excel 2007 *software* (Microsoft®).

So, in face of the abovementioned explanations, the questionnaire application occurred on the period comprehended between August 13th and September 27th, during an informal personal encounter with selected Brazilian Chemical high school teachers of public and private schools of Distrito Federal,.

However, independently of the way applications were done, it is important to clarify that all the applications were done in five (5) distinct moments, always following the application order below:

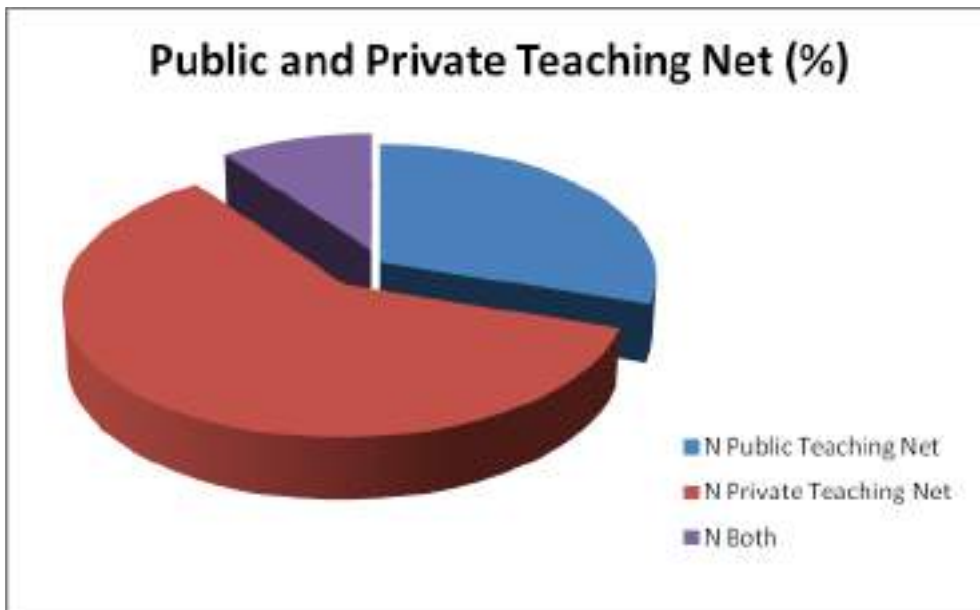
1. Previous Questionnaire Application;
2. Previous Questionnaire Collection;
3. Explaining Model Typology and Optical Isomery Folder Application* - the author has delivered it to the teachers participant of this research, suggesting that they read the information presentes there in a dynamic way. To participants who demonstrated excessive worries about available time, it was suggested that they read it on another occasion, after filling and delivering of the Previous Questionnaire to the researcher.

* At the end of the interview, the used orientation instruments were offered, totally free, to the individuals who participated on this research;

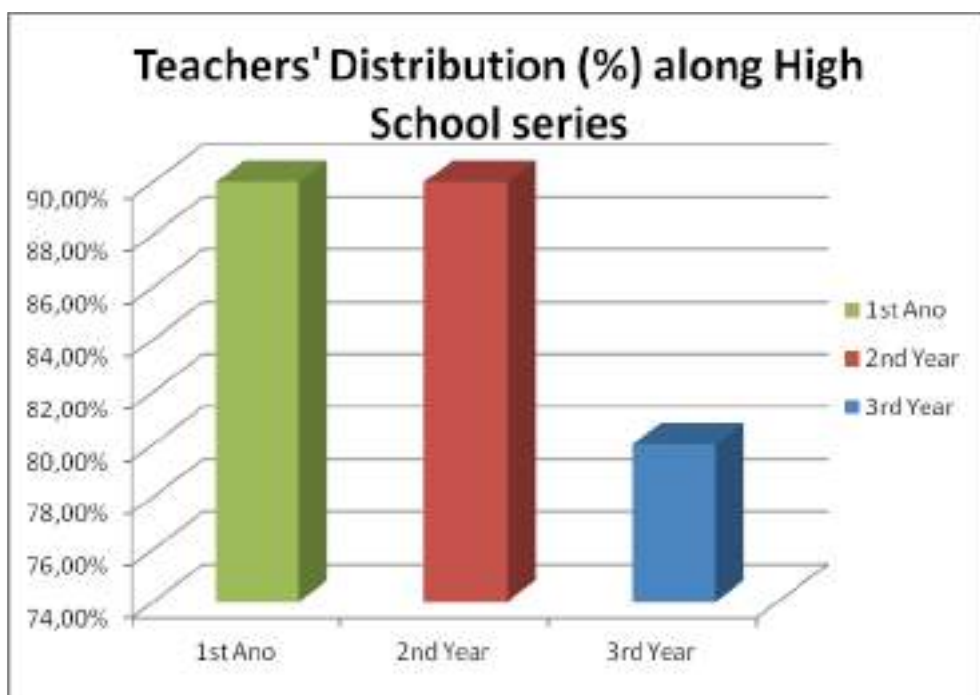
1. Posterior Questionnaire Application;
2. Posterior Questionnaire Collection.

A group of ten (10) previous and posterior questionnaires were in all satisfactorily applied and analyzed. During the questionnaires application interval, an explaining model typology and Optical Isomery folder were offered, as a courtesy, to the target public of this intervention (see Appendix section).

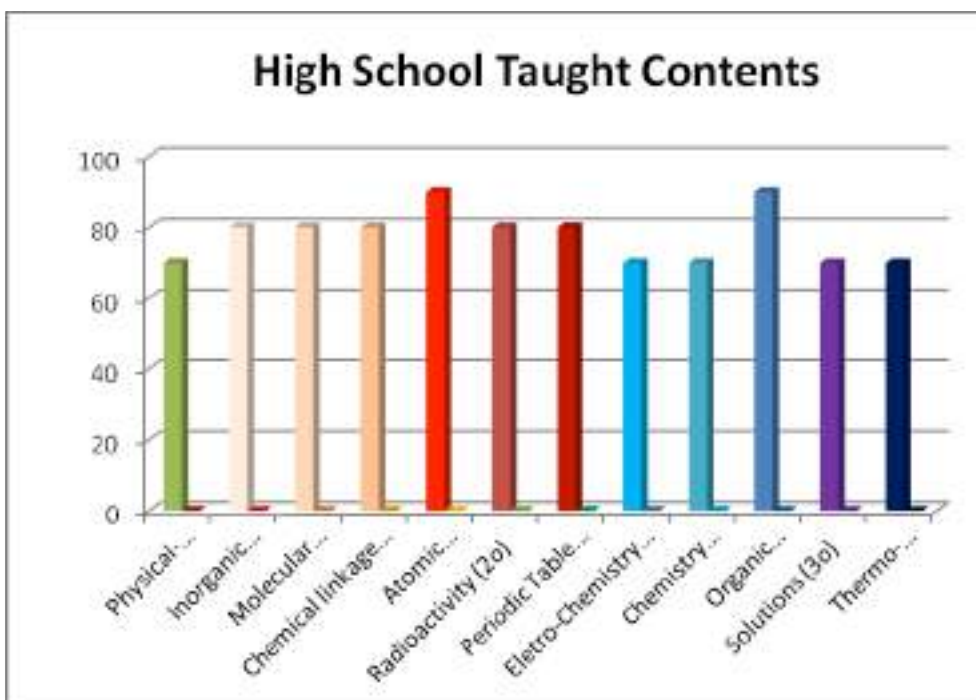
In the following pages the author has projected some graphics, which represent the results extracted from the applied questionnaires. Those visual models represent, respectively, Public and Private Teaching Net, Teachers' Distribution along the high school series, High school taught contents, and Classroom work time, graduation-end time and age (years) for High School teachers.



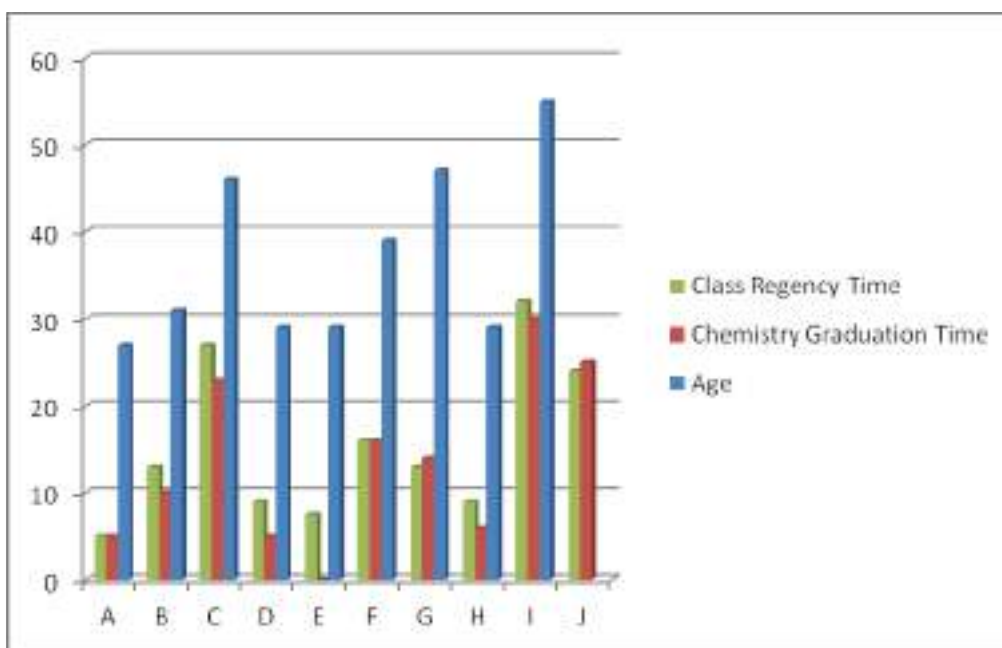
Graphic 01. Proportion of evaluated teachers, in function of the teaching net.



Graphic 02. Distribution of teachers (%) in function of High School series where they teach.



Graphic 03. Distribution of taught contents by teachers participant of this research (%).



Graphic 04. Classroom regency time, Chemistry graduation time and age (in years) for High School Teachers ("A" to "J").

CONCLUSION

Descriptive analysis done were essential to the literature academic references consulted by the author. Moreover, data extracted by means of previous and posterior evaluative questionnaires applied to Chemical teachers from High Schools of Distrito Federal, Brazil, were presented on this work as graphic projections and tables, after previous discussion of the results.

On that context, it can be concluded that the proposed general objective, it means evaluating the use of concrete-mixed model made by the author on Optical Isomery concept teaching, under Chemistry high school teachers' perspective from Distrito Federal - Brazil, was reached.

In order of doing that, the author has developed and tested two hypothesis, about Brazilian Chemistry high school teachers' point of view, which are detailed just below:

1. Brazilian Chemistry high-school teachers' point of view about the use of concrete-mixed models for explaining the Optical Isomery concept is positive; and
2. The use of that model typology, by High School students, improve the comprehension of the Optical Isomery concept, inside the Chemistry Teaching curricular component.

In that way, it was possible to reach, satisfactorily, the intended specific objectives, which were:

- ✓ Testing the previously presented hypothesis, throughout the previous and posterior questionnaires; and
- ✓ Elaborating and presenting, to the teachers - target of this essay - an informative folder about models' typology and Optical Isomery, subject situated inside the Chemistry high school curricular component (see Appendix section, p.5-8);

Based on what was just exposed, it can be finally concluded that, after the concrete-mixed models usage evaluation by the teachers who participated of this research, there are significant elements which make possible to conclude that those types of models constitute efficient tools on promoting significant learning, under the studied Brazilian Chemistry high school teachers' perspective, shed by the constructivist theories of Piaget (1972, 1976, and 1977, *apud* Moreira, 2011) and Ausubel (1978, *apud* Moreira, 2011).

Starting at that presupposition, and considering that, under Vieira and Vieira's perspective (2005), "any innovation, repair or curricular reorganization obey himself to set out the teachers' formation, while the main question of the curricular innovation remains focused on what they are going to do about the curricular orientations to science teaching in the classroom", once the majority of the teachers who participated on this research has demonstrated clearly not to be familiarized with the concept of models and its different typologies, the author of this paper leaves, as a suggestion for the development of new researches, the proposal of offering (and obviously evaluating) extension courses, formation and/or professional recycling focusing the *Models and Modeling for Science Teaching*, exclusively to High School teachers of public and private schools of Brazil and worldwide.

APPENDIX

Explaining Folder about Models Tipology and Optical Isomery

Models on Science Teaching

According to Gilbert's conception (1993, p.9-10), models are essential for thinking and for scientific work development. He also argue that science and its explanatory models are inseparable, once models are products, scientific methods and its hugest knowledge and teaching tools.

Representational modes describe the mean where a model is represented. These models' expression can employ different representational modes, which Twyman (1985) refers as modes of symbolization (Gilbert e Boulter, 2000, p.46). According to Gilbert e Boulter (2000, p.46-47), among these models' representational modes, the most important are:

- Concrete: tridimensional material model;
- Verbal: model that can be listened or verbalized. As examples, there are description, explanatory, narration, argumentation, analogy and metaphoric models;
- Visual: model that can be seen, as diagrams, animation and some types of simulation and video;
- Mathematic: model that represents formula, equation, besides some simulations;
- Gestural: model that represents movements of the body and its parts';

- Concrete-mixed*: material model (concrete), mixed with visual, verbal and/or numeric compounds;
- Verbal-mixed: text mixed with visual or numeric compounds addition;
- Visual-mixed: visual model mixed with verbal and/or numeric compounds;
- Mathematic-mixed: equation and formula mixed with verbal explanation;
- Gestural-mixed: associates physical representations with verbal explanations.

* **Concrete-mixed models** are characterized by presenting a concrete tridimensional part, palpable and manipulable, accompanied by visual, verbal or numeric compounds, whose mixed compounds, by they turn, are characterized by drawings or schemes done by the teacher or professor on the blackboard, besides illustrations or theoretical concepts, extracted from the didactical subject book and verbally explained during the thematic approach.

In the picture below, whenever associated to previous theoretical conceptual explanations by the classroom regent, there are visual representations of the concrete-mixed models, developed by this paper's author:



Picture 01. Concrete models photography of Optical Isomers A (left) and B (right), manually developed by the author (Casio Exilim 5.0 Mps Camera).

* **PS:** It is interesting to observe that the model above can be build by the own professor, since low cost materials, like Styrofoam balls, toothpick and plastic colored ink, dark for man crafting, of acrylic type or similar (at the abovementioned model, the used colors were blue, green, red and black).

Optical Isomery

On Feltre's opinion (2008, 256), on organic substances optical activity decurs from the molecular assymetry. That author adds that the presence of assymmetric carbons (those which presents four different connected elements, similar to the ones above represented on Picture 01) is, however, an assymmetric factor that characterizes an Optical Isomery type.

For example, if you compare your left and right hands, its easy to observe that they can not be put on top. It means, if you put your right hand over the left one they just do not match; at the same way, a right hand glove do not fits on the right one (and vice-versa); similarly, the pairs of shoes follow the same assymetry of our feet, and that is why it is not possible wear the right shoe on the left foot or vice-versa (Feltre, 2008, 252).

This kind of assymetry is called *chiral assymetry* (from the Greek: *cheir* – hand). By the way, that termination is original from the Portuguese language, as well as several other words, like *chiromancy*, *surgery*, and etcetera.

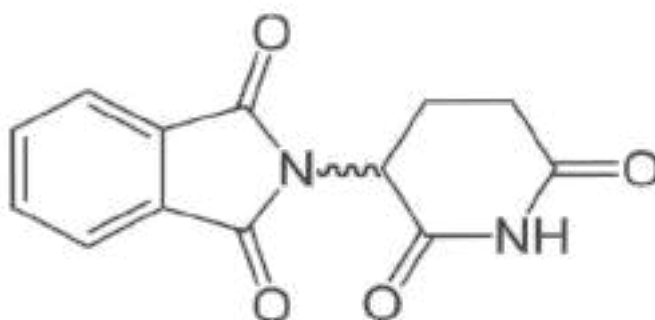
According to Feltre (2008, 252), a very important discovery for Science was that while one of the types of quartz crystal drops polarized light to the right (*dextrogiro*, *D* or +), the other drops it to the left (*levogiro*, *L* ou -), with exactly identical angles.

In that perspective, optical isomery can be observed on interconnected chemical compounds that, besides presenting equal structural chemical representations (example: $C_3H_6O_3$. lactic acid), are like specular images of each other, in order that if we try to "plug" a molecule on the other, the radicals [connectors] will never match

(Feltre, 2008, p.253). Besides that, it was observed that the optical activity of a substance results of the asymmetry of its molecules (Feltre, 2008, 252).

Other interesting example that contextualizes the Isomery importance can be observed at the pharmaceutics industry. The majority of the medications that we use nowadays has synthetic origin, that means they were produced by pharmaceutics laboratories. The common reaction originate what we call raceme mixtures, that are mixtures of the *dextrogiro* (D) isomer with its *levogiro* (L) antipode, at the proportion of fifty percent (50%) of each (Feltre, 2008, 254).

Sometimes, an isomer is benefited during that process, however the other can present undesirable effects. A painful episode involving chiral substances was provoked by **thalidomide**.



Picture 02. Thalidomide (structural representation). Reference: Wikipedia.

That medicine was launched in Europe, at the 1960's decade, as depressant and tranquilizer. Unfortunately, many pregnant women who had used it gave birth to malformed babies, with atrophied hands, arms, feet and legs (teratogenetic effect). Later, it was verified that only the **L** thalidomide is teratogenetic, while the **D** thalidomide is the one which presents the tranquillizing effect. The use of that medicine, however, continue being to pregnant, once there is a risk of one of the isomers transforms itself on the other, inside the human body (Feltre, 2008, 265).



Picture 03. Thalidomide isomer teratogenic effects' victim. Reference: Thalidomide Victim Brazilian Association (ABVT), authorized reproduction.

For additional information about the use of models and Optical Isomery and its consequences, the author recommends the following references on internet:

1. Brasil Escola Portal, available on: <http://www.brasilecola.com/quimica/isomeria-Optica.htm>;
2. Thalidomide Victims Brazilian Association (ABVT) Portal, available on: <http://abvt.wordpress.com/vitimas-da-talidomida/>;
3. DUSO, LEANDRO (2012). The use of models in Biology Teaching. XVI Didactics and Teaching Practices National Encounter (ENDIPE). Unicamp - Campinas. Available on: <http://www2.unimep.br/endipec/1243p.pdf>.

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The Effect of Students' Part-Time Employment on Academic Performance and University Engagement

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Abstract

An increasing number of today's college freshmen in the US are employed part-time for significant number of hours of work per week and there is a steady decline in the number of hours students spend on academic-related work such as studying or doing assignments. Although conflicting results have been reported on the effect of part-time employment on academic performance, it has been found to be the key cause of student disengagement from the university. Student engagement influences student learning and personal development as well as student retention and persistence. This study was conducted among 231 students at Youngstown State University, where 87% of the students are employed part-time or full-time while attending school. The hours worked per week were compared to students' academic performance and engagement with the university. Students who work in areas related to their academic studies were compared to students who work in jobs unrelated to their academic field.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

With the recent decline in financial aid from the government and other outside sources such as parents (Holmes 2008), students are having to apply for more loans, or work while in school to help pay for things like tuition, books, and food. An increasing number of today's college students in the US are employed part-time for 16 or more hours of work per week (Gose, 1998, Broadbridge & Swanson, 2006). As the number of hours worked per week increases, the number of hours students spend on university activities and academic studies decreases. According to Higher Education Council's 2003 report, there is a steady decline in the number of hours students spend on academic-related work such as studying or doing homework. Salamonson, Andrew & Everett (2009) have also reported a decline in grades, due to the increase in student-employment.

Reasons for Employment

While little is known about the primary reasons for employment, many studies have shown that the majority of students work out of necessity to make up for rising tuitions and decreasing availability of grants (Rabotham, 2011; Wang, Kong, Shan and Vong, 2009). Among 16-24 year-old college students, part-time students are more likely to be employed out of necessity and as a result, full-time employment rates are higher among part-time students, however there is a steady increase in employment both among part-time and full-time students. According to a study at the College of Brockport, the percentage of even full-time students who are employed full-time has doubled between 1985 and 2000.

While necessity is shown as the key factor for employment, parents' support and expectations also play an important role on students' desire to work while in school. According to U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) research in 1995-1996, 63% of parents expected their children to work while in college at an average of 21.3 hours per week. These numbers are expected to be greater in recent years. Holmes (2008) states that another reason for employment is social engagement. Students like to gain communication skills, and confidence in handling difficult customer service situations.

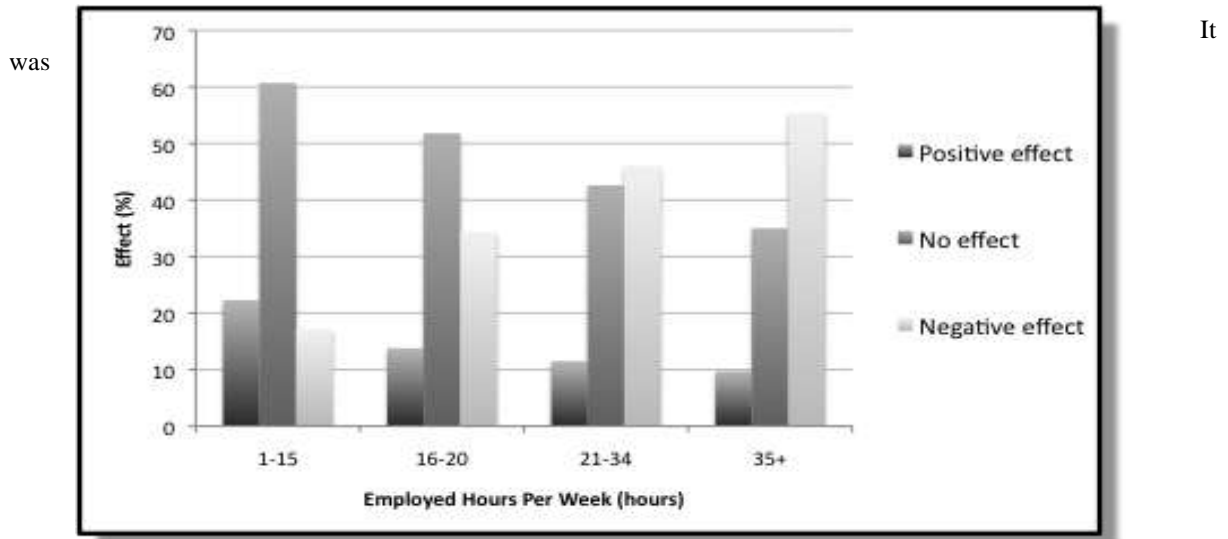
Other than necessity; reasons for employment were reported by students as supporting a lifestyle, gaining work experience, socializing, and enhancing their lives (Wang, Kong, Shan and Vong, 2009).

Effects of Employment

While there are many conflicting results about the consequences of employment, most studies report that employment among college students is the key cause of student disengagement from the university (McInnis, 2001; Holmes 2008; Salamonson & Andrew, 2006; Salamonson, Andrew & Everett, 2009). Student engagement is important, as it influences student learning and personal development (Astin, 1999; Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991) as well as student retention and persistence (Tinto, 1998). A decrease in academic performance has also been reported by several studies (Salamanson & Andrew, 2006).

However, when evaluating how employment affects a student, three factors should be considered:

1. Hours of employment: Whether the student works part-time or full-time is important in determining the effects. The effect is minimal on a student who works 10 hours per week versus a student who works 40 hours per week.
2. Employment period: Whether the student works during the semester or during the breaks is another important factor in determining whether this employment will impact a student’s academic performance or university engagement.
3. The nature of employment: The type of job the student performs outside school, whether the student works on-campus or off-campus and whether the job is related to student’s academic field all play a role on how the student will be affected by employment.



consistently reported that students who work less than 16-20 hours are much less affected by employment than those who work more hours per week (Staff, Schulenberg, and Bachman, 2010). An NCES report (Figure 1) based on students’ own perception of the effects of employment on their academic performance clearly shows that negative effects increase significantly, as the number of employment hours increase.

	Positive effect	No effect	Negative effect
Total	14.8	48.4	36.8

Figure 1. Student-Reported Effect of Employment on Their Academic Performance (Re-produced from U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), "Profile of Undergraduates in U.S. Postsecondary Educational Institutions: 1995-96." NCES 98-084, Table 5)

Students, who work longer hours per week, find less time to attend lectures and tutoring sessions, and as a result, get less exposure to material and their academic performance suffers. These students are more likely to stop participating in extra-curricular activities on campus. This type of employment is directly correlated to student disengagement (Salamonson, Andrew and Everett, 2009).

Students who work on-campus jobs are generally more aware of university activities and stay more engaged. The hour limitations brought by the university for on-campus jobs also help students remain focused on their studies and negative effects are minimized.

If the hours and type of employment are conducive, there are also many positive effects of employment such as; improving time management, gaining group work skills, increasing chance for future employability, and developing a sense of security due to having extra money (Rabotham, 2011).

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Participants were 231 volunteer students from a U.S Midwestern university. Among these students, there were 182 female, 49 males. 87% of all students who participated in this study worked part-time or full-time while attending school. A Likert-type scale survey was developed using NCES questionnaires, which composed of items related to students' employment, their perceptions of the effects of employment while in college, their academic achievement, etc. Data was analyzed using SPSS. Undergraduate students enrolled in the College of Health and Human Services were recruited at regularly scheduled meetings of classes. Students completed the surveys in class on a voluntary basis.

RESULTS

Among 231 students who participated in this survey, 87% of them had some type of part-time or full-time employment while attending college. The majority of the students work in service-related jobs such as retail and hospitality sectors as shown in Figure 2.



Figure 2. Part-time Employment areas among students

These types of jobs are the most available jobs for students since they do not require much work experience or full-time commitment. However, they are often low-paid jobs, which require long hours that extend to late nights and weekends. In service-related jobs, students tend to be scheduled more for extra hours which cause them to miss classes or university activities.

Students generally seek employment in those jobs out of necessity. When the necessity is not a very strong reason, they still work to be able to pay for school and tuition or to gain work experience. If students do not have the necessity to work at all, they may still choose to work to make extra money. When participants were asked to choose the primary reason for employment, 81% agreed that necessity was the main reason. Interestingly, the desire to make extra money was listed as the 2nd most popular reason for employment among students. Students were later asked whether they would still choose to work if they did not have the necessity, 62% answered "yes". This response was different from previous studies, where students stated that they would not have a part-time job if they did not have the necessity to work.

ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) indicated that there was a significant relationship between the number of hours worked per week versus academic performance. When, Grade Point Averages (GPAs) were compared to number of hours worked per week, it was found that students who work more than 30 hours per week have a significantly lower GPA compared to students who work less than 20 hours per week (Figure 3).

ANOVA GPA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.017	4	1.004	3.843	.005
Within Groups	50.953	195	.261		
Total	54.970	199			

Figure 3. The relationship between number of hours vs. GPA

Students reported missing class due to work for several reasons. Some of the reasons students miss class is because they are scheduled for work during class hours, they feel too tired to go to class after long work hours or they just skip school to go to work and make extra money. Students with a GPA lower than 3.0 tend to skip school for work more than students with a GPA higher than 3.0.

CONCLUSIONS

The most interesting finding in this study is the fact that employment has become more than a result of just necessity among students in recent years. Work has a negative effect on academic performance and causes GPAs to lower when weekly work hours exceed 30 hours. There is also a relationship between the number of times students skip classes for work and their GPA. Students who work long hours during school tend to become unaware of university activities, miss events and therefore lack a regular university experience which affects their engagement and satisfaction with the university, which may be a strong indicator of retention issues. Since employment among students is a trend which is likely to continue to increase, universities may need to embrace the trend and take precautions to encourage university engagements and retention. Universities can also encourage students to try and work in areas that relate to their major, so that the outside employment enhances school work; Eventually, the employment could also count as relevant work experience when the students graduate.

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Değer Eğitime Bakış: Edebiyat Tarihi Öğretiminin Değer Eğitimindeki Rolü

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Özet

Uygurluk tarihinin önemli bir kolu olan edebiyat tarihi, bir ulusun edebi alanda gelişim çizgisini o ulusun çağlar boyunca meydana getirdiği edebî eserlerden ve bu eserlere hayat veren yazarlardan hareketle inceleyerek kapsamlı bir yapı ortaya koyar. Yaratıcılarının kalemiyle ortaya konan edebi eserler, toplum yaşantısı, toplumun kültürel değerleri, düşünsel ve duygusal konumu, birikimi gibi konularda aydınlatıcı oluşuyla tarihi belge ve bellek niteliği kazanır. Edebiyat tarihi, yazar ya da eser odaklı bir kronolojik duruş sergileyebilir; üzerinde durulması gereken nokta; yaşanmışlık ve kültürel birikim sonucu yazılan edebiyat tarihlerinin bilgi taşıyıcılığı rolü yanında bilgi edinen konumda bulunan alıcılara-öğrencilere kazandırdığı değerler sistemidir. Değer eğitimi; öğrencinin eğitime başladığı ilk andan itibaren gelişim sürecinde önemli işleve sahiptir. Ancak Türkiye’de değerler eğitimi özellikle son zamanlarda ilgi görmeye başlamıştır. Edebiyat tarihi yazımı; okura kattığı duyarlılık, kültürel farkındalık, sorumluluk, geçmişten ders çıkarma, kültürel aktarım, paylaşım, estetik zevk vb. birçok konuda içten içe değer eğitime katkıda bulunur. Bu çalışmada edebiyat tarihi aktarım yöntemlerinin işlevselliği, değer eğitime etkisi üzerinden kronolojik bir inceleme yapılacaktır.

Anahtar kelimeler. Edebiyat Tarihi, Değer Eğitimi, Biblioterapi, Geçmiş Farkındalığı, Sosyal Sorumluluk

Giriş

Avrupa’da 18. yüzyıldan itibaren ilk örnekleri görülmeye başlayan edebiyat tarihleri, Osmanlı’da bir asırdan fazla bir gecikme ile ortaya çıkar. Kimi kaynaklarda bizdeki tezkireler, hal tercümeleri (biyografiler), bibliyografyalar, antolojiler edebiyat tarihi kategorisinde değerlendirilmektedir. Polat, bu konuya ilişkin, “Klasik edebiyatımız döneminde, şiire dayalı edebiyatımızın tarihçiliği şüara tezkireleriyle yapıyordu. Durağan bir toplum hayatı için birbirinden çok farklı olmayan bu eserler, kendi alanında yeterli kaynaklardı; çünkü şairleri unutulmaktan kurtarmak gibi bugün için artık çok küçük görünen bir hedefe hizmet ediyorlardı. Fakat hem fert hem kitle bazında ihtiyaçlarıyla, sıkıntılarıyla, çözüm öneri ve yollarıyla, eğitim ve kalkınma tercihleriyle bütün yaşama şeklini, hedeflerini yeniden düzenleyen medeniyet değişikliği; kültür hayatını, ona bağlı olarak edebiyatı ve dolayısıyla edebiyat tarihi ihtiyacını da farklı bir mecraya sürükledi” (Polat, 2012, s. 307) demektedir. Sözü edilen çalışmalar elbette edebiyat tarihi için kaynak ve malzeme niteliği taşırlar ancak bunların hiçbiri edebiyat tarihi tanımına uymaz. “Bütün edebî hareketleri ve dönemleri, yazarları, şairleri, dil ve üslup özelliklerini açıklayan bilim dalı veya kitap, yazın tarihi” (Akalin vd., 2005, s. 600), “Bir milletin geçmişteki fikri ve hissi hayatını göstermek itibarıyla medeniyet tarihinin yani bir milletin umumi tarihinin parçası” (Köprülü, 1986, s. 4), “Edebi hadiselerin zaman çerçevesi içinde mütalaası” (Tarlan, 1981, s. 21), “Bir dile ait bütünüyle veya bir dönemle sınırlı olarak edebi eserleri, şahsiyetleri ve edebiyat topluluklarını kronolojik ve sistematik şekilde inceleyen, yorumlayan bir bilim dalı” (Okay, 2006, s. 9) biçimlerinde farklı yorumları yapılan edebiyat tarihi, en geniş tanımıyla “Bir milletin edebiyatının asırlar boyunca gösterdiği seyir ve tekamülü tam olarak inceleyen; edebi oluş ve cereyanları bir bütün olarak ele alıp onların siyasi, içtimai, ruhi ve fikri muhit ve şartlarla ilgi ve münasebetlerini tayin ederek ve estetik değerini belirterek açıklayan bir ilimdir (Timurtaş, 1963). Tanpınar, edebiyat tarihi anlayışını; “Edebiyat vakıalarını zaman çerçevesi içinde olduğu gibi sıralamak, birbiriyle olan münasebetlerini ve dışarıdan gelen tesirleri tayin etmek, büyük zevk ve fikir cereyanlarını ayırmak, hulasa her türlü vesikanın hakkını vererek bir devrin edebi çehresini tespitiye çalışmak, edebiyat tarihinden beklenen şeylerin en kısa ifadesidir” (Tanpınar, 2010, s. 15) sözleriyle vermiştir. Ağâh Sırrı Levend ise edebiyat tarihini, bir ulusun çağlar boyunca meydana getirdiği edebî eserleri incelemesi nedeniyle, “uygarlık tarihinin önemli bir kolu” (Levend, 1998, s. 3) saymıştır. Bu tanımlardan hareketle “Bir milletin tarih sahnesine çıkışından yaşanan döneme kadar meydana getirdiği edebi ürünlerini her türlü unsuruyla sistemli bir çerçevede ortaya koyan edebiyat tarihine” (Çetin, 2012, s. 153) hal tercümesi ve tezkirelerin karşılık olamayacağı açıktır. Edebiyat tarihleri çok daha geniş bir mahiyet taşımaktadır.

Edebiyat tarihi, bir ulusun başlangıcından günümüze kadar ürettiği edebi eserleri tarihsel gelişim çizgisi içerisinde incelerken, o dönemlerin kültür ve sanat anlayışına, dil, giyim-kuşam, yemek, tarihi yapılar, dünya

görüşü ve oluşturdukları değerler sistemine yönelik bilgiler de sunar. Edebi eser, toplumsal ilişkiler ve bunların arka planındaki fikir akımları, çağın kültür, medeniyet ve estetik anlayışı gibi edebiyat tarihi tarihinin içine giren bu unsurlar, edebiyat tarihi öğretimi yoluyla öğrenci/okur en genel manada alıcılara çok sayıda değer kazandırır. Bu noktada değer kavramı üzerinde durmak yerinde olacaktır: “Bir sosyal grup veya toplumun kendi varlık, birlik, işleyiş ve devamını sağlamak ve sürdürmek için üyelerinin çoğunluğu tarafından doğru ve gerekli oldukları kabul edilen ortak düşünce, amaç, temel ahlaki ilke ya da inançlar” (Özden, 1998, s. 167) şeklinde tarif edilebilen değer kavramının esasını, “İnsani, ahlaki, kültürel, ruhsal, toplumsal ve evrensel boyutlarda oluşabilen bu duyarlıkların özümsemesi ve benimsenmesi süreci” (Yaman, 2012, s. 17) oluşturur. Beil’e göre değerler, bireylerin hem kendileri hem de başkalarıyla ilgili davranışlarına yön vererek davranış kılavuzu görevi yapmaktadır (Beil, 2003, s. 14). Sosyolojik açıdan değer, kişiye ve gruba yararlı, kişi ve grup için istenilir, kişi veya grup tarafından beğenilen her şey olarak tanımlanabilir (Aydın, s. 39). Değerler davranışlarımıza rehberlik yapar, eylemlerimizi, yargılarımızı, anlık hedeflerimizi daha üst hedeflere taşıyarak nasıl olmamız, nasıl davranmamız gerektiğini bize bildirir (Doğan, 2004).

Edebiyat tarihi öğretimi, değer eğitimi yönünden dört önemli evrensel boyutu ortaya çıkarır. Bunlar;

- a. Kültürel miras olarak edebiyat tarihi,
- b. Ahlakî eğitim için edebiyat tarihi,
- c. Günümüz dünyasını anlamak için edebiyat tarihi
- d. Kişisel ve Bilişsel Beceri Kazandırılması İçin Edebiyat Tarihi

Kültürel Miras Olarak Edebiyat Tarihinin Değer Eğitime Katkısı

Edebiyat tarihinin dayanağını oluşturan edebi eserler, bütün düşünce ve sanat ürünleri gibi, toplumun hayatıyla ilgili olduğu ve ulusal kültürün izlerini taşıdığı için en önemli kültür miraslarıdır. Edebi eserler, yazıldıkları döneme ışık tutmaları bakımından tarihi belge niteliği taşır ve bu çerçevede tarih biliminin yararlandığı temel kaynaklar kapsamına girer. Edebi eserler, bir milletin duyuş, düşünüş ve hassasiyetlerini gösteren birer ayna oldukları için son derece değerlidirler. Bu bağlamda bir milletin maddi ve manevi gelişmelerini takip eden, edebi eserlerin katkısıyla temellendiren edebiyat tarihi, okur için adeta değerler hazinesidir.

Milletlerin devamlılıklarını sağlayabilmeleri için kendilerini millet yapan kültürel değerlerini, türlü yollarla genç nesillere aktarmaları gerekmektedir (Uyar, 2007, s. 2). Bu kültürel aktarımın en güzel örneğinin yazılmış edebiyat tarihleri olduğu söylenebilir. Çünkü maddi ve manevi birikimle dolu olan edebiyat tarihlerinin öğretimi sayesinde toplumların geçmişten güç alarak varlıklarını sağlıklı bir biçimde devam ettirebilmeleri sağlanır. Buradan hareketle edebiyat tarihi öğretiminin kazandıracağı temel değerler; geçmiş bilinci, milli tavır, ilmi aydınlanma ve kültürel farkındalıktır. Yazılı ve basılı edebiyat tarihleri insana kendi arka planını, kültürel zenginliğini, düşünce yapısını, karakteristiklerini, edebi-sosyal-psikolojik altyapısını, özüne ilişkin değerli bilgileri edinme imkânı verir.

Türk edebiyatı eskilik bakımından Avrupa edebiyatlarından daha öncesine giden, coğrafi bakımdan ise daha büyük bir sahaya yayılan bir tarihe sahiptir. Bu bakımdan Orta Asya’dan başlayarak geniş bir sahada söz sahibi olan Türk kültürü, inançları ve bunların zenginliğiyle ortaya çıkan Türk edebiyatının yazılı ve sözlü ürünleri, büyük bir kültürel mirasa ışık tutar. Bu miras, binlerce yılın birikimi, insani değeri ve üslubuyla yüküldür. Tüm bunların taşıyıcısı olan Türk edebiyatı tarihi, hangi açıdan bakılırsa bakılsın son derece dinamik, kapsamlı ve zengindir. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimiyle birlikte çok sayıda değer okur/alıcıya kazandırılır, alıcının edineceği temel değerler; ortak kültürel birikim ve değerler skalasının farkında varmak, milli bilinç ve mahalli değerler kavramını yakalamak olacaktır.

Osmanlı Devleti’nde tarihin ayrı bir tür olmaktan çok edebiyatın bir kolu olarak değerlendirildiği görülür. Bu sebeple tarih ile edebiyatı birbirinden ayırmak kolay değildir. Tarihin yazılmasına kaynaklık eden destanlar, gazâvât-nâmeler, menkıbeler, fütüvetnâmeler vb. tarihi bilgileri aktarmakla birlikte edebiyatın da temel dayanaklarını oluştururlar. Bu metinler, yeni nesillere tarih bilgisini aktarırken bireylere millî kimlik kazandırılmasında da önemli bir sorumluluğu üstlenir. “Milletler ancak tarihlerini bilmek suretiyle “millî şuur”a sahip olurlar” (Kaplan, 1982, s. 64). Buna göre bireyde ve toplumda millî tarih şuurunun oluşmasına katkı sunan en mühim unsurlar sanat eserleridir. Çünkü “tarihte iz bırakan olaylar, inanışlar, yaşayış biçimleri ve ilişkiler, ait oldukları dönemin sanat eserlerine yansır. Resim ve heykel gibi plastik sanatlardan başka roman, hikâye, tiyatro ve şiir gibi edebî ürünler, içinde tarihî vakaları, şahsiyetleri ve mekânları barındırabilen en güçlü yazılı sanat eserlerini oluştururlar. Bunlar, her bakımdan okuyucusunu bilgilendirme ve ona bir aidiyet duygusunu yaşatmaya hizmet eden metinlerdir” (Erol, 2012, s. 61-62).

Tezkiyecilikten edebiyat tarihçiliğine kadarki uzun yolculukta çok sayıda yazar, eser, fikir ve edebiyat akımı karşımıza çıkar. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimi sayesinde büyük çapta kültürel ve edebi birikim, yazar ve eser bilgisi

gelecek kuşaklara aktarılmış olur. Edebiyat tarihinin kültür taşıyıcı ve aktarıcı rolü bu anlamda öne çıkarken, bireylere bu kültürel aktarımda önemli görevler düşer. Okullarda edebiyat tarihi öğretimi ile geçmişe dair tüm bilgi ve birikimleri taşıma, o bilgilere yenilerini ekleme, güncelleme ve derinleştirme imkânı öğrencilere verilir. Bu anlamda edebiyat tarihi öğretimi son derece mühim ve değer yüküldür. Geleceği sağlam temeller üzerine kurabilmek ve yarınlara gülümseyerek bakabilmek için tarih bilinci, yerli unsur bilgisinin alıcıya nasıl ve ne zaman verilmesi gerektiği birtakım tartışmaları gündeme getirir. Ali Canip Yöntem, edebiyat tarihi derslerinin yüksek öğretimde okutulması gerektiğini düşünür. Çünkü onun kanaatine göre ortaöğretimde çocukların hayal dünyalarını, karakterlerini, zekâ ve ruhi melekelerini geliştirmek için gerekli edebiyat bilgileri verilmiş, bu hassasiyetlerle seçilen metinler okutulmuş ve yüksek öğretim için öğrencilerde belli bir altyapı kurulmuş olur. Lanson'a ait olan bu prensibi benimseyen Yöntem, edebiyat tarihi öğretiminden önce çocuklar için duygusal ve zihinsel bir zeminin oluşturulmasını, edebi zevklerinin geliştirilmesini önemser. Daha ortaöğretimde yoğun bir edebiyat tarihi yüklemesiyle çocukların zihni uzak geçmiş içinde bir mezarlıkta dolaşır şekilde bırakılmamalıdır (Özcan, 1997, s. 152-157). Dolayısıyla edebiyat tarihi öğretimi, daha çok yüksek öğretimde işe yarar. Çünkü hitap edilecek kitlede belli bir altyapı oluşturulduğu ve edebiyat tarihini kavrama, olayları doğru yerlerde kodlama yani bilişsel süreçte yetkinlik sağlanmış olacağı için daha olumlu sonuçlar alınacaktır. Ortaöğretimde edebiyat tarihine ilişkin kısa bilgiler verilebilir.

Edebiyat tarihçileri çalışmalarıyla geçmiş silinmekten edebi isimleri unutulmaktan eski zevk ve hazzı yok olmaktan kurtarıırken yalnızca bilgi verici değil, insanlığın ve evrensel değerlerin değişim ve gelişimi noktasında da aydınlatıcı olur. Edebiyat tarihçilerinin tarihten hareketle ortaya koyduğu bu bilgi, aynı zamanda okuyucunun zihni melekelerini felsefe, psikoloji, sosyoloji gibi sosyal kültürlerle de süsler. Bu durumda tarih kültürü, genel kültürün bir parçası olmakla birlikte aynı zamanda kaynağını da oluşturmaktadır. Bu kaynağı yansıtan ve gösteren araç ise, sanat kültürüdür (Erol, 2012, s. 62).

Türk Edebiyatı Öğretim Programında edebiyatla ilgili şu ifadeler yer verilmiştir: “Güzel sanatların bir dalı olan edebiyatın insanlığın ilk dönemlerinden beri, her yerde ve zamanda varlığını sürdürmesi, bizlere onun insana özgü vazgeçilmez bir ihtiyacı karşıladığını düşündürmektedir. Edebiyatın bu özelliğini, insanın sanat yapma varlık şartına bağlayanların da olduğu bilinmektedir. Edebî eser, dille gerçekleşen güzel sanat ürünüdür. Özgünlüğü de tarihî ve kültürel olanla yakın ilişkisinden kaynaklanır. Edebî metin, sanat ve kültür etkinliklerinin iç içe girdiği bir alanda oluşur. Zaten dil, kültür alanının hem yapıcısı hem de ifade aracıdır. Bu durum edebiyat eğitimine, kültür ve sanat eğitimi arasında ayrı bir önem kazandırmaktadır” (TEDÖP, 2005, s. 1).

Tarih ve sanat kültürünün içiçeliği edebiyat tarihine işaret eder. Bir milletin kendini, değerlerini tanıması, özüne ilişkin temel bilgilere ulaşması, yok oluştan kurtularak bir bilince ulaşması noktasındaki tüm değerlerin taşıyıcısı ve yükleyeni bir anlamda edebiyat tarihidir.

Ahlakî Eğitim İçin Edebiyat Tarihinin Değer Eğitimine Katkısı

Yazılı tarihinden başlangıcından bu yana insanların düşünce dünyaları, bakış açıları, değerleri yazdıkları eserleri etkilemiştir. Bu eserler ise yazıldıkları andan itibaren diğer insanların davranışlarının, duygu ve düşüncelerinin, dahası temel değerlerinin belirleyeni olmuştur. Bu etkileşimle günümüze ulaşan edebiyat tarihlerinin öğretimiyle öğrencilerin ahlaki bakımdan değer eğitimine katkı, en çok biblioterapi yöntemiyle sağlanır. Biblioterapi, “bireylerin kendilerini tanımaları, sosyal çevrelerini anlamaları, problemlerini çözmeleri noktasında okuma yoluyla edebi metinlerden faydalanma” (Bodont, 1980; akt. Öner ve Yeşilyaprak, 2006, s. 559) anlamına gelir. “Biblioterapinin doğru zamanda doğru bilgiyi doğru kişilerle buluşturma” (Philpot, 1997) şeklindeki tanımı, bizi daha önce sözünü ettiğimiz Yöntem'in edebiyat tarihinin hangi zamanda öğrencilere okutulması gerektiğine dair açıklamalarına götürür. Edebi okumalar, örnek metin seçkileri, döneme yayılan bir anlayış sonucu farklı tür veya eserlerde işlenen ortak konunun okuyucudaki değişik yansımaları gibi unsurlar edebiyat tarihi öğretiminde yardımcı unsurlar olarak karşımıza çıkarlar. Edebiyat tarihi kitaplarını okumak ve onların üzerinde eleştirel düşünmek alıcının kazanacağı en mühim erdemlerdir.

Edebiyat tarihi dersleri ile bilhassa öğrencilere tek taraflı veya sabit fikirli bir bakış açısı yerine çok yönlü ve özgürce düşünebilme değeri kazandırılır. Herhangi bir olay, dönemin algısına göre farklı kişiler tarafından farklı yorumlanabilir. O olayı yanlı olarak veya tek taraflı acımasız bir şekilde çözümlenmeye çalışmak, geçmişe saygısızlık ve haksızlıktır. Bu bağlamda edebiyat tarihi öğretimi yapılırken aynı olayın değişik çevrelerce yorumlanması, algılanışı ve ulaştığı nokta değerlendirilmeye çalışılmalıdır. Görünenin arkasındaki görülebilen, eş zamanlı veya ard zamanlı taramaları adilane bir şekilde gerçekleştirebilme ve kanıtlara dayalı araştırma yaparak vakalara objektif bakabilme edebiyat tarihi öğretiminde temel ahlaki değer noktalarından olmalıdır. Çok geniş bir alana ve meçhullerle dolu bir geçmişe sahip olan Türk edebiyatı; araştırmacılardan dürüstlüğü, azmi, emeğe saygıyı, geniş perspektifli bakış açıları, hoşgörüyü, ilim, tevazu ve teşekkür etmeyi, işbirliğiyle paylaşımcı çalışmayı, meraklı ve sorgulayıcı olmayı, her türlü taraftarlıktan uzak durarak ayrımcılık yerine bütünleyici

olmayı, bazı yanlış kabullere karşı dikkatli ve sağlıklı davranmayı, empati kurmayı gerekli kılar. İnsan yaşamı için de temel düsturlardan olan bu unsurlardan her biri edebiyat tarihçisinin, edebiyat öğretmenin ve öğrencisinin karşılaşacağı ve tecrübe edeceği noktalar. Edebiyat tarihi içinde barındırdığı bu değerleri çeşitli vesilelerle alıcıya ulaştırmakta ve temel değer eğitime bu çok önemli hususlarda katkı sağlamaktadır. Değerlerin aktarılması topluma uyumun yani sosyalleşmenin de ilk basamağını oluşturur. Ortak değer yargıları, sosyalleşen bireyin diğer insanlarla aynı düşüncede buluşmasını kolaylaştırır. Elbette farklılıklar zenginliktir ancak aynılıklar da toplumun kaynaşması, bir noktada buluşabilmesinde önem taşır. Sosyalleşme, birçok değişkenin bir araya gelip bunların ferde aktarılması ve ferdin de bunları davranışa dönüştürmesi sürecidir. Sergilenen davranış kalıplarının kaynağını değerler oluşturur. Değer ve normlar, milletin günlük yaşamını şekillendiren en güçlü kültür unsurlarıdır (Uyar, 2007, s. 104). Medeniyetlerin varlıklarını sürdürebilmeleri ancak değerlerini yeni nesillere aktarabilmeleriyle mümkün olduğuna göre, özellikle üzerine yoğunlaştığımız edebiyat tarihi öğretimi, bünyesindeki çok sayıda değer alıcılara aktarılması noktasında hayati öneme sahiptir.

Günümüz Dünyasını Anlamak İçin Edebiyat Tarihinin Değer Eğitime Katkısı

Bu maddeyi açıklamaya girişmeden evvel, söze Ali Canip Yöntem'in konuyla alakalı bir anısıyla başlamak istiyorum:

“Bir gün pek değerli bir zat Ali Canip'i edebiyat tarihine dair yazdığı yazılar sebebiyle tarizen; “Bu hafta yine mezardan kimi çıkarıyorsunuz! der gibi pek nükteli bir sorar. Ali Canip, soru üzerine öyle sıkılır ki şöyle cevap verir: Tali gariptir, kimisi mevzuunu mezardan çıkarır, kimimizi mezara gömer!” (Sevgi ve Özcan, 2005, s. 541).

Yöntem'in de vurguladığı üzere, geçmiş içinde büyük bir zenginliğin gizli olduğu, deşeledikçe farklı bir yüzüyle karşılaştığımız bilgi mezarıdır ancak bugüne ışıktır. Geçmiş önceye ait anlamı taşır ancak geçmiş aynı zamanda bugünü anlama ve anlamlandırmada ilk çıkış noktasıdır. Mezardan çıkarılan her mevzu, günümüzde daha sağlam adımlar atmamızda önemli yer tutar.

Ülkemizde edebiyat tarihi özelliği taşıyan ilk çalışma 1889'da Abdülhalim Memduh'un yazdığı Tarih-i Edebiyat-ı Osmaniye'dir. Abdülhalim Memduh, Donald'o'dan tam 200 yıl sonra, ilk defa bu tür adını kitabının adına yerleştirerek Tarih-i Edebiyat-ı Osmaniye'yi yazmıştır. Bilimsel çalışmalara dayanan edebiyat tarihi ise sistemli olarak ilk kez 1928'de Fuat Köprülü tarafından yazılmıştır. Edebiyat tarihi yazımı hususunda Köprülü, “Evvela, müverrihlerin meşgul olduğu mevzu mazidir; öyle bir mazi ki eseri kalmamış ancak bilvasıta bazı izler, vesikalar bırakmıştır; müverrih, onların yardımıyla, geçen bir sahneyi yeniden yaşatmaya çalışacaktır; hâlbuki bizim mevzuumuz mazi olmakla beraber, aynı zamanda da hâldir; yani geçmeyen, devam eden, gözlerimizin önünde yaşayan bir mazi” (Köprülü, 2004, s. 43-44) demektedir. Alıntı çok açıkça ifade etmektedir ki edebiyatın tarihi aynı zamanda insanlığın, insanımızın bizlerin tarihidir. Geçmiş, deneyimlerle, yaşanmışlıklarla dolayısıyla çok sayıda kıssadan hisseyle doludur. Geçmiş iyi bilmek, gelecekte yapılan her işte daha özenli olmayı, daha doğru hareket etmeyi sağlar. Bugün, geçmişin bir yansımasıdır. Bu bakımdan her şekilde geçmişin yol göstericiliğinden faydalanmak gerekir. Ali Canip Yöntem'in “Mazi bilgisi, hali anlamak için bir anahtardır. Tarih, mazi ile işteğal eder, mazi ise halin tarihidir” (Sevgi ve Özcan, 2005, s. 543) sözü aslında bu başlığı çok net özetlemektedir.

“Bugün ile geçmiş arasında kesintisiz bir diyalog” (Carr, 1987, s. 41) olan edebiyat tarihinin ders olarak öğretilmesi ile hedeflenen öğrencilere geçmişin bilgilerini vererek tarihini, değerlerini, kültürünü tanımaları ve benimsemeleridir. Diğer önemli nokta ise bu bilinçle yeni nesillere aynı birikimi aktarmalarıdır. Geçmişe bağlılık, kültüre bağlılık ve sadakat kazanılan erdemlerdir. Bununla birlikte geçmişin bilgisi öğretilirken içinde yaşanan toplumun kimliği öğrenciye aktarılmaya çalışılarak kimlik gelişimine de yardımcı olunmaktadır.

Kişisel ve Bilişsel Beceri Kazandırılması İçin Edebiyat Tarihi

Eğitimin tarih boyunca, öğrencilerin akademik başarılarını yükseltmek ve iyi karakter özellikleri göstermelerini sağlamak üzere iki ana hedefi olmuştur (Lickona 1993, 12-15). Edebiyat tarihi öğretimiyle genel olarak öğrencilere çoğulcu düşünme, yorum ve değerlendirme yapabilme, bilgiyi sentezleme, eleştirel bakış gibi beceri ve davranışlar kazandırılır. Sosyal, kültürel ve ahlaki gelişimi göstermesi, milli bilinç ve mahalli algı oluşturarak milli kimlik yaratması, birden fazla alana ilgi duyarak olayları çoğulcu yöntemler ile değerlendirme yetisi kazandırması, geçmiş hakkında doğru ve sağlıklı bilgiler edinme imkânı sunması, toplumsal değişim ve gelişimin evrensel boyuttaki izlerini tespit edebilmesi, günümüzü anlama, geçmiş ve bugün arasında bağlantı kurabilme becerisi kazandırması... bakımlarından edebiyat tarihi son derece eğitsel ve faydalıdır. Bu maddelere dikkatle bakıldığında bu amaçların bir kısmının değerlerle ilgili olduğu ve değer aktarımını içerdiği görülür. Bu

da değer eğitiminde edebiyat tarihi öğretiminin katkısı ve önemini açıkça ortaya koymaktadır. Yazınsal metinler ve edebiyat tarihi, okumalar ve araştırmalar sonucunda okur/öğrencinin anlam üretebilmesini, ürettiği anlamı yorumlayıp karşı tarafa aktarabilmesini sağlar. Bilhassa bu hususlar edebi eserlerin çerçevesiyle oluşan edebiyat tarihinin okura kazandıracığı en temel değerlerdendir. Diğer taraftan müstakil bir disiplin olmanın yanında sosyoloji, psikoloji, tarih, felsefe gibi komşu alanlarla beraber daha kapsamlı olan edebiyat tarihi, bu kapsayıcı yönüyle çok farklı alanlarda birikim sahibi olmayı sağlamakla birlikte, yol açıcı, geniş perspektifle olaylara yaklaşma anlayışı kazandırır. Çoğul bakış açısıyla hareket edebilmesi için öncülük etmiş olur.

Edebiyat tarihi öğretimi yalnızca bir ulusun kendi mazisini, mahalli unsurlarını sistematik bir bilgiyle öğrencilere sunması manasını taşımaz. Dünya edebiyatıyla karşılaştırmalar yaparak öğrenciye mukayese becerisi kazandırırken, bütünsellik anlayışı içinde edebiyatın evrenselliğini görmesini de sağlar. Herhangi bir konuya bütüncül bakış açısıyla yaklaşmayı öğretirken, bütünün parçalarını değerlendirme, benzerlik ve farklılıkları keşfetme imkânı sağlar.

Türkiye’de edebiyat tarihi öğretimi yapılırken birtakım geleneksel yöntemler öne çıkar. Bilgi verme amaçlı sürdürülen bu yöntemlerle öğrencilere edebi bilginin yanı sıra temel kaynaklar öğretilir, bilgiye ulaşma, bilgiyi kullanma ve değerli bir birikim yaratabilme yolları gösterilir. Okuma temelli bu öğretimle aynı mevzuyu farklı kaynaklardan tarayarak hem kaynaklara ulaşma hem de ulaşılan kaynaklardaki farklı bakış açılarını görerek kendine ait fikir ortaya koyabilme becerisi kazandırılır. Çok okumak bilindiği üzere zaten kavrama gücünü artırması, hayal dünyasını zenginleştirilmesi, hafızanın güçlenmesi için önemlidir.

Etkili edebiyat tarihi öğretimi uyandırdığı merak duygusu ile okuma sevgisi, araştırmacı bir mizaç ve sorgulayıcı bir bakış açısı kazandıracaktır. Ezber bilgilerle hareket edilmeyip farklı materyal ve metotlarla çok boyutlu olarak işlenen edebiyat tarihi dersleri, girişimci, ilgili, merak duyan, edebi şahsiyet ve eserlere büyük duyarlılık ve hassasiyetle yaklaşan, pratik bilgiyi süzgeçten geçirerek özümseyebilen, bilgileri mukayese ederek benzerlik ve farklılıkları, orijinallik veya taklit/örnek alma niteliklerini ortaya koyabilme, eldeki bilgileri hazmederek özgün fikirler yaratabilme, birincil kaynaklarla savlarını destekleme, tarama ve bilgi toplama vb. çok önemli değerleri kazanmış olacaktırlar. Metne sadık kalma düşüncesiyle sadakat, çok boyutlu düşünme yoluyla çoğulcu bakış, çalıntı veya taklitten uzak durma yoluyla orijinallik değeri, faydalanılan kaynakları ve düşüncelerinden istifade edilen kişileri çalışmalarında anma, kaynakçada bilgilerine yer verme yoluyla, emeğe saygı, dürüstlük, vefa, açık sözlülük vb. çok elzem değerlerin kazandırılması söz konusudur. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimiyle sadece edebi bilgiler, edebi tarih ve gelişmelerin bilgisi verilmez. Ayrıca öğrenciler kendi kronoloji algılamalarını geliştirip geçmişi bölümlenme, belli birtakım temalar üzerinden geçmiş ve günümüz kıyaslama becerisi kazanırlar. Daha da önemlisi kazandırılan kişisel beceriler ve alıcılara bu becerilerin kazandırılmış olmasıdır.

Edebiyat eğitimi; estetik zevkin gelişmesi, kültürel değerlerin somut olarak ifade edilmesi ve yorumlanması, sürdürülen hayatın farklı bir dikkat ve duyarlılıkla dile getirilmesi bakımından da son derece önemlidir. Eserlerin edebi boyutunu, sanat değerini çözümlenme yeteneğini, estetik haz kavramının gelişmesini, metnin yorumlanması, dil ve üslup becerisi kazanılmasını sağlar. Değerler kültürü ve toplumun kimliğini oluştururlar. Dolayısıyla toplumu bir arada tutan ve sürekliliği sağlayan ortak düşünce, duygu ve kanılardan oluşan değerler, topluma manevi bir atmosfer kazandırır.

Sonuç:

Uygurlık tarihinin önemli bir kolu olan edebiyat tarihi, bir ulusun çağlar boyunca meydana getirdiği edebi eserleri inceleyerek, duyuş ve düşünüş yönünden geçirdiği evreleri tanıtır. Geçmiş ile bugünün etkileşimi sağlarken, topluma kazandırdığı temel değerlerle önemli bir yere sahiptir. Abdülhalim Memduh’un yazdığı Tarih-i Edebiyat-ı Osmaniye ile başlayan Türk edebiyat tarihi yazımı anlayışı, Fuad Köprülü’nün çalışmalarıyla sistemli hale gelmiş, daha sonra alana olan ilgi artarak Ağâh Sırrı Levend, Ali Nihat Tarlan, Ahmet Hamdi Tanpınar, Nihat Sami Banarlı, Rauf Mutluay, Mahir Ünlü, Vasfi Mahir Kocatürk, Şükran Kurdakul, Ahmet Kabaklı gibi edebiyat tarihçileri yetiştirmiştir.

Edebiyat tarihi, sosyal bilimlerin birer dalı olan edebiyat ve tarih biliminin kesiştiği önemli edebiyat araştırmaları kavramlarından biridir. Edebiyat tarihi, edebiyat eserlerinin bu eserleri yaratanların, eserlerin yaratıldığı ortamların ve elbette bütün bunlarla bağlantılı sosyal, siyasal ve düşünsel gelişmelerin belirli bir akış içerisinde incelenmesini öngörür. Kültürel kimliğin kazanılmasında tarih eğitiminin rolü ne kadar büyükse edebi kimliğin oluşması için de edebiyat tarihi öğretiminin rolü büyüktür. Edebiyat tarihi, bir milletin kültürel varlığını, dinamizmini, daimiliğini göstermesi bakımından oldukça önemlidir. Bilhassa kültür taşıyıcılığı rolüyle değer eğitimine katkıda bulunur. Değerler; bizi, ailemizi, toplumumuzu, milletimizi ve insanlığı değerli kılan üstün özelliklerdir. Değer eğitimiyle nitelikli ve donanımlı bireyler yetiştirerek sağlıklı gelecekler yaratmak amaçlanır. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimi, geçmiş bilinciyle bugüne sağlam adımlar atan, geçmişten ders çıkaran,

kültürel miraslar konusunda farkındalık yaratan bir anlayışla hareket ederken okur/öğrencilere ahlakî muhakeme gücü de kazandırır. Edebiyat tarihi bir milletin sanatsal ve edebi hafızası, toplum yaşantısının, sosyal-siyasal-ahlaki vb. yapılanmasının göstergeleridir. Edebiyat tarihi çok yönlü ve çoğulcu bünyesi ile okura çok sayıda değer kazandırır. Bunların başlıcaları; hoşgörü, azim, özgür düşünce, çok boyutlu düşünme ve araştırma, objektiftir. Dolayısıyla edebiyat tarihi kitaplarının dolu içeriği ile okura sağladığı bilgi birikimi, yaşanmışlık tecrübesi, tarihi ve kültürel altyapı okur için pragmatik bir dinamiğe işaret eder. Edebiyat tarihi öğretimiyle okur bir taraftan da eleştirel okuma yapma alışkanlığı kazanır. Hikâyeler, biyografiler, efsaneler, destanlar... edebiyat tarihinin kaynakları, insanlığın gelişim evrimini yansıtan başlıca dayanaklar ve değer yaratıcılarıdır. Dolayısıyla bu kaynaklar değer edindirme sürecinde bir öğretim aracı olarak kullanılabilirler. Edebiyat tarihi eğitiminde, çevre ve müze gezileri gibi yaklaşımlar değer aktarımı için elverişli ortamlar yaratırlar. Bu sebeple pratik ve kuramsal bilgi akışının yanı sıra görsel olarak da değer aktarımı yapılabilir. Geçmişe dair olanı yerinde görme ve algılama yoluyla bir taraftan alıcılara geçmişe karşı manevi borcu ödeme imkânı tanınırken vefa değeri de kazandırılmış olur.

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Language Skills Perception: Students' Reading Speed and Note-Taking Speed

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Abstract

This study aims at investigating the nature of the relationship between reading speed and note-taking speed. It further attempts to explore students' habits while dealing with both skills. Hence, it presents a qualitative and quantitative investigation designed to provide a concrete picture of the difficulties, processes, and strategies used by English university students in their academic reading and note taking. The research uses two research instruments. The main concern of the tests which included 48 students is to measure students' typical reading and note-taking rates. Questionnaires that involved 262 students are developed to gain knowledge of the learners' difficulties and strategies used in a specific reading situation and their actual execution during note-taking. The results demonstrate that subjects with higher reading ability (rapid readers) are rapid and efficient in their note-taking. However, subjects with lower reading ability (slow readers) proved to be slow note-takers.

Keywords: language skills; reading; note-taking; speed; reading ability; note-taking rates.

Introduction

In most EFL University situations, reading academic texts is one the biggest requirements for students along with note-taking. The latter is also an important aspect of academic writing and is linked to academic reading (R. Jordan, 1997: 50). EFL learners rely on reading as being an information source for acquiring knowledge mainly because the EFL is not commonly spoken outside the classroom. Readers, on the other hand, make use of note-taking skills as a real-world reflection of what is being read and a useful tool for later revision (Purvis, 1978, p. 6), reference and many other recall purposes (Michael Mc Carthy, 1990. p. 127). Nevertheless, most books in the literature consider each skill separated from the other skills the thing that makes studies related to this issue very few.

Actually, reading performance is traditionally measured purely in terms of comprehension (Wainwright, 2007, p.1) and note-taking has received little attention from the communities of researchers and teachers as it was linked to listening more than to reading (In Barbier et al., 2006). However, note taking is probably one of the most common strategies that should be used by readers as Woolfolk (2004, p. 298) notes. Admitting that reading and note-taking are related on this basis, yet our very concern is not to treat them separately as two independent study skills but to shed light on this relation in terms of speed. To this respect, speed is one of the features that clearly distinguish the reading skill from the other skills (M. Vallet, 1967, 1977: 211). Only in reading can the mind assimilate information in much less time than that required for writing it down.

RATIONALE

This study sets a number of aims to be achieved. So, basically it seeks to:

- Measure and quantify students' reading and note-taking speeds.
- Diagnose, describe, and show learners' reading and note taking habits and perceptions together with the core factors and the source of problems which make those English students slow and less proficient readers and note-takers.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It has been established beyond the shadow of doubt that EFL students, in general, endure serious reading and note taking difficulties which are mainly caused by the lack of reading fluency. This is revealed through the great amount of time and effort invested when reading and taking notes the thing that would exhaust their working memory capacities. The majority of students tend to plough through a written print struggling in a word by word reading and note taking stumbling at every unknown word (Manya & De Leeuw, 1965, p. 170). In addition, they lose more time writing down whole words and sentences without making efforts to use

abbreviations and symbols instead. This study is concerned with speed because to be efficient readers and note-takers, students need to achieve their reading and note taking goals as quickly and easily as possible.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The current study is designed to answer two primary questions:

- What is the nature of the relationship between reading speed and note-taking speed? Are they totally independent or correlated variables?
- What are the habits that slow/ rapid readers and note-takers report on using when dealing with both skills?

THE HYPOTHESIS

We hypothesize that third year English Students to be slow readers and slow note takers. Thus, students' reading speed (or pace) and note –taking speed and habits correlate positively.

METHODOLOGY

METHOD

The investigation is conducted through a descriptive diagnostic methodology. It focuses, on the other hand, on another common type of research which is the correlational one. This latter is carried out to explore the nature of the relationship among variables a researcher is interested in (J. Charles Alderson, Caroline Claphan and Dianne Wall, 1995, p. 77). Hence, the current study is constructed following two steps: reading and note taking speeds tests correlation, and reading and note taking speeds questionnaires correlation.

PARTICIPANTS

Our study population is that of third year students preparing a license degree in English as a foreign language. The primary sample consisted of forty eight (n= 48) students. Their proficiency level was assessed through their performance on a test measuring reading speed and note taking speed. It is limited to this size for the sake of being time economist, practical and accurate. However, the secondary sample represents two hundred and sixty two (n= 262 university students majoring in English-language too). They are randomly selected from the target population. It is important to note that gender differences have not been given any predictions in the study.

MATERIALS:

Two tests were used in this study. The reading speed section of the test was used to measure participants' reading rates. Another test, which was the reading section of a note taking test, served as the note taking speed test.

Through the reading speed and the note taking speed questionnaires, respondents are said to have gone through retrospective reporting. The rationale behind these questionnaires is to find out wealthy information about the students' reading and note taking backgrounds, perceptions, speed and type of strategies mostly used by English students and which can act negatively or positively, either directly or indirectly on their reading and note taking speeds.

PROCEDURES

As a first step before administering the tests, students were given several instructions as regards the setting of the tests. They were reminded too to work independently and silently. The study was conducted over one Monday morning and the text was provided for each student. The instructor doesn't read it for subjects of the test group. The reading passage is a narrative text containing 550 words long under the title "the missing painting". It does not include technical words or any culture specific ideas. This aids foreign language readers in tackling the text and helps them in achieving comprehension and taking notes easily.

Students in this investigation go through a timed reading task in which they read the passage for the first time at their casual, normal and comfortable speed but they have to note their starting and finishing reading times. After the first reading was over, in order to evaluate students' note-taking speeds, they were required to read the passage for the second time and take notes, after which they had 15 minutes to finish and employ their usual

note-taking habits. At the end of the session, students submitted their conventional notes to the teacher to be used in delayed analysis.

As far as questionnaires are concerned, the twenty one item questionnaire of each variable was developed to explore the different aspects the research intended to investigate. Regarding the administration of the questionnaires, it is significant to point out that during the course of our investigation; questionnaires are directly handed and explained by us during their lecture, with the help of our colleague teacher to 262 students distributed in three different classes in a way to guarantee that questionnaires won't be filled by the same students twice. We were aware that each student takes both questionnaires so that we will see the different opinions of the same student concerning reading speed and note taking speed as an attempt for insuring and increasing reliability. Our broader aim is to compare the elements that both questionnaires treat. However, questionnaires took more than a week's time to be filled in and handed back. The results of both questionnaires draw a conclusion that our variables correlate or not.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

➤ **Reading speed and note taking speed tests results:**

The analysis of students reading and note taking tests helps in drawing the following salient conclusions:

1. Results of the reading speed test and note taking speed test demonstrate that the tests' takers (n=28) are in general rapid readers (the mean value for the reading speed is 109.33) and rapid note takers too (the mean of the note taking speed is 13.15) though there are individual differences between tests' takers in both tests.

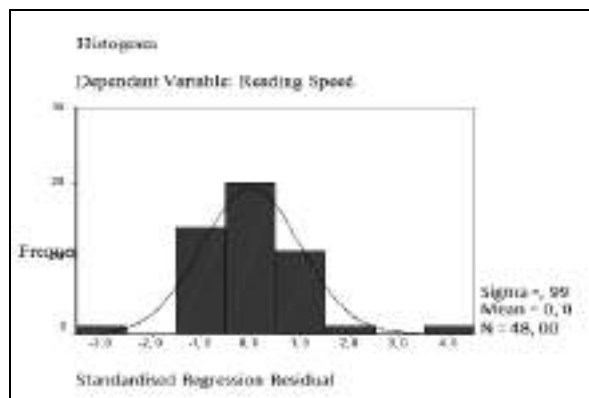


Figure1: The mean results of students' reading and note taking speeds tests.

2. There is a strong (**), significant, and positive correlation between reading speed and note taking speed (the correlation between reading speed and note taking speed is very high, close to 1.000 (r=.662). i.e., rapid reader = rapid note taker. Slow reader = slow note taker.

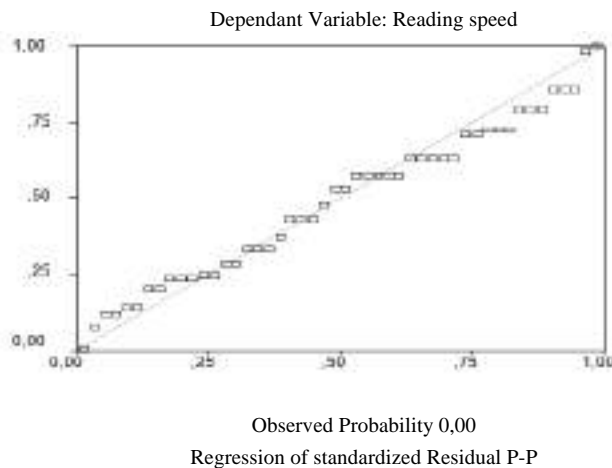


Figure 2: Diagram about the strength and direction of association between reading speed and note taking speed.

➤ **Reading speed and note taking speed questionnaires results:**

Analyses of both questionnaires were conducted depending on each question from the reading speed questionnaire with the corresponded question from the note taking questionnaire. Hence results help in drawing the following salient conclusions:

- Students are slow readers and slow note takers and the following findings demonstrate the results:
- Participants' ways of reading and note taking:
 - Most informants 126 (79,2%) are word by word readers (i.e. they pause after each word) especially those 56 (96.6%) who have never trained their eyes to move very quickly through the reading material. However, only 33
- (20,8%) pause after each phrase and 14 (6,9%) students have tried to train their eyes on moving quickly while reading.

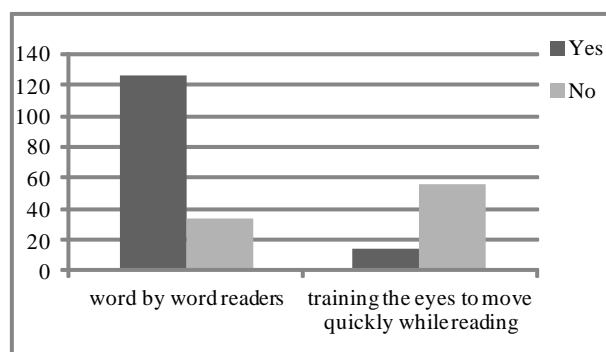


Figure 3. Mean frequency of perceived difficulty of the English students when they read in English.

2. The number of students (225 i.e., 85,9 %) who do not shorten words and sentences while taking notes (use abbreviations) is larger than those (37) who do especially those (208 i.e., 87.4%) who do not ignore, delete, or skip over words while reading.

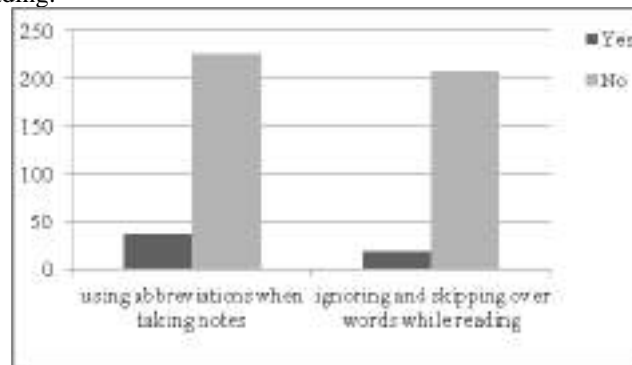


Figure 4. Number of participants who use abbreviations when taking notes and skip over words while reading.

➤ **Interest in vocabulary and comprehension rather than speed:**

1. The number of respondents who vary their vocabulary when taking notes is larger (n= 206 (78.6 %) than those who do not do (n= 56 (21.4%) especially participants who are interested in noting down every new information, definition or term (227 i.e.86.6%).

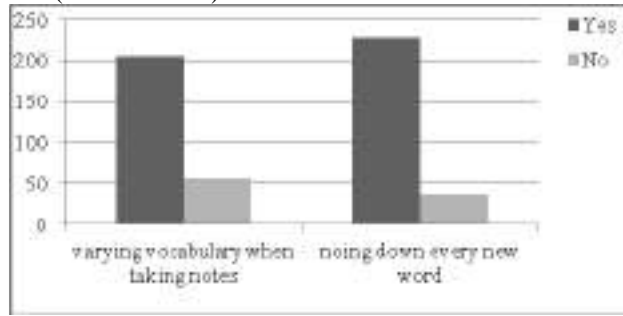


Figure 5. Frequencies of participants' interest in vocabulary rather than speed of reading or note taking.

2. The majority of students (246 that is 93,9 %) stop from time to time while taking notes thinking of what might be written down and how to express understanding especially those (66 students represent 88.0%) who tend to look up the definition or the explanation of the word in the dictionary or reread the word many times and try to guess its meaning from the context (n= 68 i.e., 81.0%).

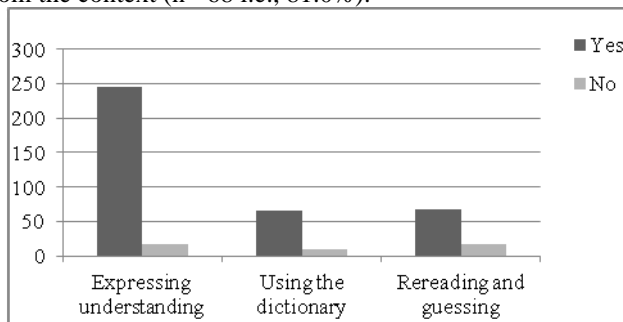


Figure 6. Number of students interested in comprehension and vocabulary when reading and taking notes.

➤ **Students lack enough practice in reading and note taking:**

1. More than a half of students (160 that equal 61.1%) construct notes out of the teacher's demand.
2. Most informants (100 that is 87.0%) try to get and remember every detail in the reading material.

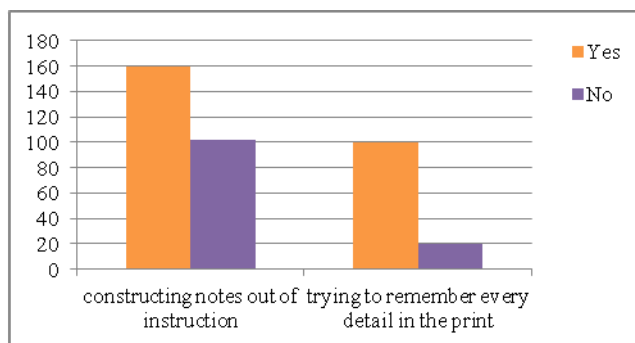


Figure 7: students' frequencies for practice in reading and note taking.

➤ **Students do not recognize the importance of doubling reading and note taking speeds:**

1. Only 39 students (41.5%) held the belief that doubling reading speed will ensure better academic performance. 2. More than half of them (161 i.e., 61.5%) have never tried to use a stop watch for measuring their reading time. 3. The majority of students (189 that is 72,1%) agree that who reads slowly, understands better.

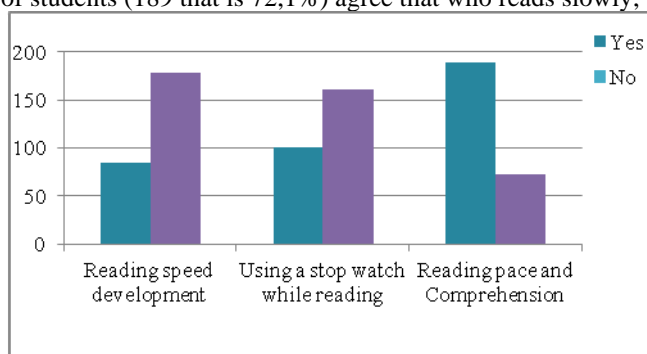


Figure 8. Frequencies of students’ perceptions about developing reading and note taking speeds.

➤ **Students encounter bad reading habits:**

1. Most of informants (124 that is 47.3%) sometimes think in their mother tongue while taking notes and 67 (i.e., 25,6 %) always do. However, only 26 (that is 9.9%) of them regularly think in their L1. Some informants (81 i.e., 49.7%) translate into their native language when reading and may write down their translations in the margin of their notes.

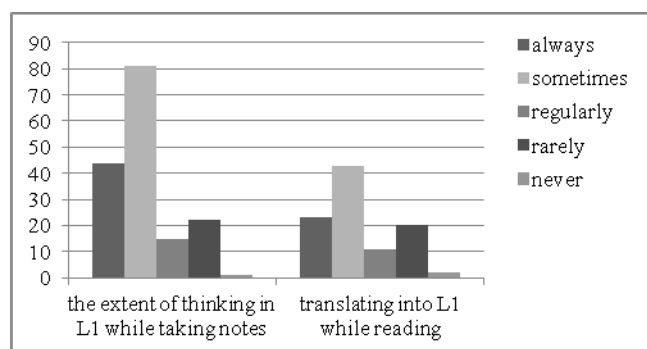


Figure 9. Frequencies in thinking and translating in the L1 while reading and note taking.

Conclusion:

By the end of this modest study, it can be said that the hypothesis set at the beginning is confirmed and the research questions are answered. Results have revealed that there is a strong positive correlation between the two variables that this research tends to investigate, that is the majority of our informants are slow readers and slow note takers particularly because most of them encounter a lot of difficulties as the corresponded questionnaires clarify; however, the sample we worked with in the reading speed and the note taking speed tests show the opposite (i.e., they are rapid readers are rapid note takers too). Hence, we have concluded that the main factor behind having such bad reading and note taking habits is the lack of practice on these two crucial skills. Consequently, we have strongly recommended that students need special training on how to read fast and take notes effectively and rapidly. They should be interested and motivated, more exercised and disciplined in the use of some strategies on reading fluency and note taking. In all, we highly suggest a training reading programme in which students ameliorate their reading and note taking speeds.

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Okul öncesi eğitim ve mimarlıkta yaratıcılığa olan etkileri

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Özet

Yaratıcılık, mimarlık öğrencilerinin başarılı olabilmesi için çok önemli bir faktördür. Yaratıcılık genetik bir özellik olmakla birlikte geliştirilebilmekte ya da körelebilmektedir. Özellikle okulöncesi eğitim dönemi çocuk üzerinde derin etkiler bırakmaktadır. Bu dönemde yapılan hatalar bazen çocuğun yaratıcılığını engelleyebilmektedir. Örneğin, yapacağı resmin renklerini eleştirmek, sınırlandırmak, ya da çocuğun o gün yapacağı çalışmanın bir örneğini önce gösterip bugün bu objeden yapacağız diye çocuğu şartlandırmak, onu tembelliğe alıştırmakta, yaratıcı cesaretini kırmaktadır. Bu çalışmada öğrencinin mimarlıkta yaratıcılık konusunda başarısı ve okul öncesi eğitim alıp almadığı arasındaki ilişki üzerinde durulmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler. Yaratıcılık, okul öncesi eğitim, mimarlık eğitimi

Giriş

Erken çocukluk dönemi, çocuğun eğitiminde çok etkili olmaktadır. Çocuklar bu dönemde uyarılara daha açık ve daha kırılığandır. Farkında olmadan yapılan herhangi bir yanlış davranış, çocuğun hayatını derinden etkilemektedir. Örneğin; kreş öğretmeni çocuğun yaptığı resmi, “pembe gökyüzü olur mu hiç?” veya “Çiçeğin yaprakları da yeşil olur?” şeklinde eleştirmesi, çocuğun başka bir şehirde, başka bir kreşte resim yapmaya başlamadan önce kreş öğretmenine hangi renkleri kullanacağını sormasına sebep olmuştur. Genellikle kreşlerde o gün yapılacak çalışmanın bir örneği gösterilmekte ve çocuktan bunun aynısını yapması istenmektedir. Bu tutum da çocuğu belli bir oranda yaratıcılık konusunda tembelleştirmekte, şartlandırmaktadır. Böylece, ezberci eğitim daha hemen okul öncesi dönemde başlamaktadır. Öğrencinin ileriki yıllarda mimarlık eğitimi almaya başlaması durumunda ise, temel tasarım prensiplerine dayalı olarak, kendine özel yeni tasarımlar yapması istenince zorlanmaktadır.

Yaratıcılık, Mimarlık Eğitimi ve Okul Öncesi Eğitim

Yaratıcılık özellikle dünya pazarlama sektöründe en çok aranan özellik olarak ortaya çıkmaktadır (Craft, 2003). İnsanlar artık, farklı, yenilikçi olana yönelerek para harcamaktadırlar. Dünya Yaratıcılık ve Kültürel Eğitim Komitesine göre (NACCCE) yaratıcılık, orijinal ve değerli olan olarak tanımlanmaktadır (NACCCE, 1999; Craft 2003). MacKinnon ise yaratıcılığı sanat, bilim, teknoloji ve psikolojinin birleşimi olarak tanımlamaktadır (Mondy et al., 1953, Alomar, 2003).

Yaratıcılık mimarlığın ayrılmaz bir parçasıdır. Mimarlık öğrencisi ve mimar alışılmış kalıplar dışında sürekli yeni olanı yaratmak zorundadır. Tasarım prensiplerini kullanarak, fonksiyonel yeni tasarımlar yaratmak gerekmektedir. 1950’li yıllarda özellikle Kuzey Amerika’da yapılan araştırmalarda, yaratıcılığın kişisel, kavrama ve nasıl harekete geçirileceği üzerinde durulmuştur (Craft, 2003). Özellikle 1990’ların sonundan itibaren 3-5 yaş arası çocuk eğitiminde yaratıcılık daha çok gündeme gelmeye başlamıştır. 20. yüzyılda yapılan eğitimde yaratıcılık araştırmalarında, kültüre bağlı farklılaşma açık olarak görülmektedir. Bu durum yaratıcılığın engellenmesi, sınırları gibi bir takım soruları beraberinde getirmiştir. Crafts (2003), eğitimde yaratıcılığı sınırlandıran dört unsuru a) terminolojik sınırlandırma, b) etik ve uygulamanın birbiriyle uyumsuzluğu, c) eğitim programında organizasyon eksikliği, d) merkez kontrolcü pedagojik yaklaşım şeklinde tanımlamıştır.

Tartışma ve Sonuç

Gözlemlere göre, mimarlık birinci sınıf öğrencilerinde kreş eğitimi almayanların, alanlara oranla yaratıcılık konusunda daha başarılı oldukları görülmektedir. Okul öncesi eğitim, yaratıcılık konusunda cesareti ve temel tasarım prensiplerine dayalı olarak bazı soyut ya da somut tasarımlar yapmayı gerektiren temel tasarım dersindeki başarıyı olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir.

Crafts (2003)'in da çalışmasında belirttiği gibi eğitimde özellikle okul öncesi eğitimde öğrencinin yaratıcılığını etkileyen bazı hatalar yapılmaktadır ve bu durum öğrencilerin yaratıcılığını olumsuz yönde etkilemektedir.

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Çocuk Dostu Şehirler (Ankara İli Örneği)

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Özet

“Çocuk Dostu Şehir (ÇDŞ) Girişimi” 1996 yılında Birleşmiş Milletler (BM) Habitat ve UNICEF tarafından başlatılmıştır. ÇDŞ Girişimi, Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi (ÇHS)’ni desteklemekte ve sözleşmeyi onaylamış olan devletlerin uluslararası düzeyde aldıkları sorumluluklarını kent düzeyine indirgemektedir. ÇDŞ, uygulamada çocukların haklarının, politikalara, yasalara, programlara ve bütçelere yansımaları anlamına gelen, yerel seviyede ÇHS’nin cisim bulmuş halidir. Türkiye’de ÇDŞ Girişimi, ÇDŞ Projesi olarak, Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Hükümeti ile UNICEF arasında 2006 – 2010 dönemini kapsayan ülke planı eylem çerçevesinde hayata geçirilmiştir. 12 şehrin ÇDŞ adayı olmasına ve bu kriterler çerçevesinde gelişim göstermeleri gerektiğine karar verilmiştir. Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi 2011 yılında Ankara Valiliği’nin UNICEF’e yaptığı başvuru ile başlamıştır. Ankara’da çocuğa hizmet veren kurum ve kuruluşlara işbirliği teklif edilmiştir. Çocuk hakları kültürüne dayalı, hak temelli bir bakış açısı ve ortak bir dil oluşturabilmek için “Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi” hayata geçirilmiştir. Proje kapsamında “Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi” başlatılmıştır. Bu çalışmada çocuk dostu şehirler ele alınmış ve Türkiye’de çocuk dostu şehir çalışmaları değerlendirilerek Ankara’da yapılan çalışmalar ve hedefler anlatılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Çocuk, Çocuk Dostu Şehir, Çocuk Hakları, Çocuk Katılımı, Çocuk Dostu Ankara

Giriş

ÇOCUK DOSTU ŞEHİR GİRİŞİMİ

Günümüzde şehirlerin çocuk için daha yaşanılır kılınması için dünyada yapılan uygulama ve girişimlerin en önemlilerinden birisi “Çocuk Dostu Şehir” girişimleridir. Hızlı kentleşmeye karşılık ortaya çıkmış olan “Çocuk Dostu Şehir (ÇDŞ)” (Child Friendly City (CFC)) kavramı Habitat II’ de kentlerin herkes için, UNICEF (1946 – 1953 arası Birleşmiş Milletler Uluslararası Çocuklara Acil Yardım Fonu (United Nations Children's Emergency Fund); 1953’ten günümüze Birleşmiş Milletler Çocuk Fonu (United Nations Children's Fund))’in tabiri ile ise öncelikli olarak çocuklar için, daha yaşanır yerler haline getirilmesi için çocukların haklarını yerine getirme ve gerçekleştirmeye kendini adanmış kenti tanımlamaktadır (Riggio, 2002). UNICEF ÇDŞ kavramını, çocukların haklarını uygulamaya kendini adanmış şehir şeklinde tanımlamaktadır. Bu haklar;

- Şehirleri hakkındaki kararları etkilemek
- İstedikleri şehirle ilgili görüşlerini ifade etmek
- Aile, toplum ve sosyal hayata katılmak
- Sağlık ve eğitim gibi temel hizmetleri almak
- Temiz suya ve sanitoryona erişmek
- İstismardan, şiddetten ve suistimalden korunmak
- Caddede tek başına güven içinde yürümek
- Arkadaşları görmek ve oyun oynamak
- Bitkiler ve hayvanlar için yeşil alanlara sahip olmak
- Kirlenmemiş çevrede yaşamak
- Kültürel ve sosyal etkinliklere katılmak
- Etnik köken, din, gelir, cinsiyet veya engellilik durumu ne olursa olsun, her hizmete erişime sahip şehrin eşit vatandaşı olmak, şeklinde belirtmektedir (UNICEF, 2014).

ÇDŞ, uygulamada çocukların haklarının politikalara, yasalara, programlara ve bütçelere yansımaları anlamına gelen, yerel seviyede Çocuk Haklarına Dair Sözleşme'nin cisim bulmuş halidir. ÇDŞ kavramı, Çocuk Dostu Şehir Girişimi (ÇDŞ Girişimi) altında ortaya çıkmış olan bir dizi deneyimin ışığında toplulukları ve diğer yerel yönetim sistemlerini içermektedir (UNICEF, 2014).

ÇDŞ Girişimi Habitat 1996 yılında Birleşmiş Milletler Habitat (UN-Habitat) ve UNICEF tarafından başlatılmıştır. Çocuk dostu bir şehir çocuk haklarını sağlamaya, hayata geçirmeye kendini adanmış bir yönetim biçimine sahiptir. Bu şehir yönetimi çocuk hakları sözleşmesini onaylamış olan devletlerin uluslararası düzeyde aldıkları sorumluluklarını bir bakıma kent düzeyine indirir. Bu kentlerde çocuklar da her vatandaş gibi kendi fikirlerini anlatma hakkına sahiptir ve onların görüşlerine yeterli ve gerekli önemin verilmesi gerekmektedir (Riggio, 2002). Bu kentlerde çocukların sesleri, gereksinimleri, öncelikleri ve hakları kamusal politikaların, programların ve kararların ayrılmaz bir parçasıdır. Bunun sonucu olarak şehir çocukların gereksinimleri, istekleri, tercihleri ve haklarına uygun ve elverişli olmaktadır.

ÇDŞ Girişimi 1991 yılında imzalanan Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'ni desteklemektedir. Bir ÇDŞ kendi yönetim sistemini Çocuk Hakları Komitesi tarafından tanımlanan Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin dört genel prensibi üzerine kurmuş bulunmaktadır. Bu dört genel prensip:

- Ayırım Gözetmeme (Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin 2. Maddesi)
- Çocuğun yüksek yararını gözetme (Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin 3.Maddesi)
- Yaşama ve maksimum gelişim hakkı (Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin 6.Maddesi)
- Çocukların bakış açılarına saygı duymak (Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin 12.Maddesi) olarak belirlenmiştir (Riggio, 2002).

Habitat II Konferansından sonra çocuk dostu şehirlerin kurulmasını ve hızla yaygınlaşmasını sağlamak üzere UNICEF Innocenti Araştırma Merkezi (UNICEF Innocenti Research Center)'nin öncülüğünde uluslararası bir sekreterlik kurulmuştur. 2000 yılında İtalya Floransa'da UNICEF Innocenti Araştırma Merkezi içinde kurulan bu sekreterlik "Çocuk Dostu Şehirler Girişimi Sekreterliği" (Initiative of Child Friendly Cities) olarak adlandırılmıştır. Bu sekreterlik, amacını gerçekleştirmeyi kolaylaştıracak olan bir veri tabanı ve iletişim sekreterliğidir. Bu taban aracılığıyla çocuk dostu şehirlerin kurulmasını sağlayacak politika ve strateji yöntemleri, araçlar, örnekler, bilgi ve belge verileri ile çeşitli başka verilere ulaşmak olanaklı hale gelmiştir. Ayrıca konuyla ilgili çeşitli faaliyetlere de bu sekreterlik aracılığıyla erişilebilmektedir. ÇDŞ'lerin tanımlanması ve oluşturulması için UNICEF Çocuk Dostu Şehirler Girişimi Sekreterliği tarafından çocuklara sahip büyük veya küçük, kentsel veya kırsal olsun tüm dünyadaki tüm toplulukların yönetim sistemine uyarlanabilir bir Çocuk Dostu Şehir Eylem Çerçevesi (Child Friendly City Framework for Action) oluşturulmuştur. Çocuk Dostu Şehir Eylem Çerçevesi, çocuk haklarının hayata geçirilmesi için gerekli süreç ya da yöntemi ulusal yönetim bazından, yerel yönetim sürecine dönüştürmeyi sağlamaktadır.

Bu çerçeve, çocuk haklarını hayata geçirmeye kendini adanmış yerel bir yönetim sistemi kurmak için gerekli olan dokuz temel kaideyi ve her bir kaidenin sonunda ÇDŞ girişimcilerine eylemlerinin izlenmesi ve geliştirilmesinde rehberlik etmek, yol göstermek için bir kontrol listesini tanımlamaktadır. Bu temel dokuz kaide:

1. Çocukların Katılımı:

Kendilerini ilgilendiren konular ile ilgili olarak çocukların aktif katılımını desteklemek. Bu doğrultuda onları dinlemek ve karar alma aşamalarına onların da katılımını sağlamak,

2. Çocuk Dostu Hukuki Çerçeve:

Çocuk haklarını koruyacak ve tutarlı bir şekilde destekleyecek yasaların, düzenleyici bir çerçeve ve prosedürlerin gerçekleştirilmesini sağlamak,

3. Kent Ölçeğinde Çocuk Hakları Uygulama Stratejisi:

Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'ni temel alan, ÇDŞ'lerin inşası için detaylı ve kapsamlı strateji ve ajanda geliştirmek,

4. Çocuk Hakları Birimi ya da Eşgüdümü Sağlayan Bir Mekanizma:

Yerel hükümet içinde çocukların bakış açısına – perspektifine öncelik sağlamak için sürekli birimlerin geliştirilmesini sağlamak,

5. Uygulanan Çocuk Politikalarının Etkilerinin Değerlendirilmesi:

Sistematik bir süreç ile kanunların, siyasetin ve uygulamaların çocuklar üzerindeki etki - tesirini önceden, o sırada ve uygulama sonrası olmak üzere her aşamada değerlendirmek,

6. Çocuk Bütçesi:

Çocuklar için yeterli kaynak ve bütçe tahsili sağlamak,

7. Düzenli Olarak Kentteki Çocuklara İlişkin Durum Analizlerinin Tespiti:

Düzenli bir kent çocukları raporu için çocukların durumları ve hakları ile ilgili olarak yeterli denetim ve bilgi koleksiyonunun oluşturulmasını sağlamak,

8. Çocuk Hakları Bilincinin Yerleştirilmesi:

Tüm yetişkin ve çocukları, çocuk hakları konusunda bilgilendirmek,

9. Çocuklar Bağımsız Hukuksal Birimler, Gönüllü Kuruluşların Desteklenmesi:

Çocuk haklarını gerçekleştirmek için çocuk adına tanıtım-savunucu yapacak sivil toplum kuruluşlarını desteklemek ve bağımsız insan hakları kurumlarını geliştirmek, olarak sıralanmıştır (UNICEF, 2014).

ÇDŞ'in amaçları incelendiğinde ise bir çocuk dostu kentin aktif biçimde her genç ya da çocuk vatandaşlarının haklarının gerçekleştirilmesinde, çocukların ya da gençlerin kendi yaşadıkları kent hakkında alınan kararlarda etkili olmalarını, yaşadıkları kente dair istekleri hakkında fikirlerinin dile getirebilmelerini, aile, toplum ve sosyal yaşama katılımlarını, temiz ve sağlıklı su içmeleri ve en uygun sağlık koruması kullanma hakkına sahip olmalarını, eğitim, sağlık, bakım ve barınma ihtiyaçları gibi en temel gereksinimlerini karşılanmasını, sömürü, istismar, şiddet ve suistimalden korunmalarını, sokaklarında güvenle yürümelerini, arkadaş edinmeleri ve oyun oynayabilmelerini, hayvanlar ve bitkilerle yeşil alanlara sahip olmalarını, kirlenmemiş ve sürdürülebilir bir çevrede yaşamalarını, kültürel ve sosyal olaylara katılımlarını, etnik köken, din, gelir, cinsiyet ve sakat olmalarına bakmaksızın her hizmete ulaşabilmelerini sağlayarak her çocuğun yaşadıkları kent içinde eşit haklara sahip eşit birey ya da vatandaş olmalarını sağlamayı amaçlamakta (Riggio, 2002) olduğu görülmektedir.

ÇDŞ konsepti tamamlanmış, sonuçlanmış ideal ifade ya da standart bir model üzerine de kurulu değildir. ÇDŞ, çevresi, yönetimi ve servislerinin her yönü ile herhangi bir kentin daha çok çocuk dostu olmasını destekleyen bir çerçevedir (Riggio, 2002). Dünyada ki ÇDŞ Girişimleri incelendiğinde ise genel olarak gelişmiş ülkelerde ÇDŞ Girişimleri'nde önemin çocukların katılımının sağlanması ile özellikle yeşil alan ve parklar gibi rekreasyonel alanların geliştirilmesi, artırılması ve sokakların daha güvenli yerler haline getirilmesi gibi fiziksel / inşaa edilmiş çevrenin iyileştirilmesine verilmekte olduğu görülmektedir. Bu girişimlerde çocukların özellikle bağımsız ve özerk bir vatandaş olarak topluma, tasarım ve planlama da dâhil olmak üzere kendisini ilgilendiren her konuda karar alma ve politikaların oluşturulması aşamalarına katılımın sağlanmasının da önem taşıdığı görülmektedir. Gelişmekte ve gelişmemiş ülkelerde ise önem özellikle zor koşullar altındaki çocukların sağlık, eğitim, barınma gibi temel servislerden yararlanabilmesinin artırılması yönünde girişimlere verilmektedir (Riggio, 2002).

ÇDŞ Girişimi'nin dayanak noktası Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'dir. Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi, Birleşmiş Milletler tarafından 20 Kasım 1989 tarihinde kabul edilmiş, 2 Eylül 1990 tarihinde yürürlüğe konulmuştur. Anlaşmaya göre anlaşmayı kabul eden devletler, bu haklara saygı göstereceklerini taahhüt etmektedirler ve devletlerin büyük çoğunluğu sözleşmenin prensiplerini katılmış gözükmektedirler. Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi günümüzde en geniş kabul görmüş ve katımlı uluslararası sözleşmedir.

ÇDŞ Girişimi dünyada ve Türkiye'de gerçekleştirilen uygulamalar bakımından değerlendirilmeden önce bu girişimin ortaya çıkışına zemin hazırlayan nedenler üzerinde durmak gerekmektedir. Giderek artan sayıda çocuk, geleceğin yoksul yetişkinleri olma riski altında bulunmakta ve bu çocukların önemli bir bölümü şehirde yaşamaktadır (Sawhill ve Chadwick, 1999: 1). Diğer taraftan yoksulluk sınırının altında yaşayan toplam nüfusun ise ortalama yarısı çocuklardan oluşmaktadır. Tüm dünyada risk altında yaşayan çocukların yanı sıra her yıl 5 yaşın altındaki 11 milyon çocuk önlenebilecek ve kolaylıkla geçirilebilecek hastalıklardan ölmektedir (Minujin, Vandemoortele & Delamonica, 2002: 32). Bu ve diğer rakamlar çocukların herşeyden önce yaşamsal problemler yaşadıklarını göstermektedir. Bu durum, insanlığında geleceğini belirleyecek olan çocukların yaşamlarını sürdürmeleri için gereken unsurlar başta olmak üzere çocuk hakları konusu üzerinde önemle durulmasını gerektirmektedir.

Dünyada şehirde yaşayan çocukların oranının artmasına rağmen çoğu şehir, şehirlerini çocuk dostu bir hale getirmek için yeterli donanımda değildir. Dünyanın birçok gelir düzeyi düşük olan ülkesinde pek çok aile, çocuklarıyla beraber, temel barınma, eğitim, sağlık hakkından yoksun olarak kötü koşullarda yaşamaktadır. Söz edilen unsurlar dikkate alındığında hem Türkiye'de hem de dünyada çocuk haklarının yeterince gözetilmediği, çocuklara Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nde yer alan daha iyi yaşam koşullarının yeterince sağlanmadığı

görülmektedir. ÇDŞ oluşumları tüm dünyada çocuk haklarını gözeten, çocukların istek ve önerilerini temel alan, odağında çocuk hakları temelli bir bakış açısı bulunan bir yaklaşım yaratmaya çalışmaktadır.

ÇDŞ Girişimi hem dünya çapında, hem ulusal çapta, hem de yerel düzeyde çocuk haklarını gözeten bir yaklaşım yaratmaya çalışmaktadır. Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin yerine getirilmesi, çocuklara daha iyi bir yaşam koşullarının sağlanması ve özellikle risk altındaki çocukların durumunu iyileştirecek önlemler alınması, ancak yerel düzeyden başlayacak uygulamalarla mümkün olabilecektir. Bu nedenle, ÇDŞ Girişimi ile hedeflenen, yerel uygulamaların gerçekleştirileceği bir platform yaratılması ve bu girişimin yaygınlaşmasıyla birlikte çocuk dostu bir dünya inşa edilme yönünde ciddi adımların atılmasıdır.

TÜRKİYE'DE ÇOCUK DOSTU ŞEHİR GİRİŞİMİ

Türkiye'de de ÇDŞ Girişimi, ÇDŞ Projesi olarak, Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Hükümeti ile UNICEF arasında 2006 – 2010 dönemini kapsayan ülke planı eylem çerçevesinde hayata geçirilmiş bir proje olarak nitelendirilmektedir (Korkmaz, 2006).

Türkiye'de ÇDŞ Girişimi'nin nasıl ortaya çıktığı ve bu proje çerçevesinde nasıl bir yapılanmanın olduğuna bakılması konunun anlaşılabilirliğine ışık tutması açısından önem taşımaktadır. ÇDŞ Girişimi'nden önce bu girişimin mimarı konumunda bulunan UNICEF'in nasıl bir sisteme sahip olduğunun gözden geçirilmesi gerekmektedir. UNICEF, temel olarak iki tür örgütlenmeye sahiptir. Bu örgütlenmelerden biri, temsilcilik, diğeri ise milli komite şeklindedir. Bir ülkede temsilcilik mi yoksa milli komitenin mi olacağı kişi başına düşen milli gelir çerçevesinde belirlenmektedir. Bu noktada, Türkiye açısından ilginç bir durumun söz konusu olduğu görülmekte, UNICEF'in Türkiye'de hem temsilcilik hem de milli komite şeklinde iki farklı örgütlenme biçimini de bünyesinde barındırdığı gözlemlenmektedir. İçişleri Bakanlığı ve İller İdaresi ile birlikte illere göre öncelikli yaşam kalitesi göstergeleri olarak adlandırılan ve 81 ilin yaşam kalitesinin belli kriterler çerçevesinde ölçeklendirilmeye çalışıldığı bir çalışma ÇDŞ Girişimi'ne giden yolun Türkiye'de gerçekleştirilmesi noktasında açılmasına zemin hazırlamıştır (Topsümer ve ark., 2009). Sözü edilen yaşam kalitesi göstergeleri 25 kriterden oluşmaktadır. Buna göre bu kriterler aşağıdaki gibidir (T.C. İç İşleri Bakanlığı-UNICEF işbirliği ile hazırlanan İllere Göre Öncelikli Yaşam Kalitesi Göstergeleri Broşürü, 2003):

- Sağlık personeli ile yapılan doğumların toplam doğuma oranı, Ocak – Haziran 2002
- Bölgelere ve illere göre aşı oranlarının dağılımı, 2002
- Sağlık merkezlerine başvuran ishalleri sayısı (5 yaş altı), 2002
- İllere göre düşük doğum ağırlıklı bebek oranı, 2002
- Bebek ölüm hızı ve 0-4 yaş ölüm hızı, 2000
- İllere göre aile planlamasında etkin yöntem kullanım oranı, 2002
- İllere göre intihar sayısı ve hızı, 2002
- İllere göre iyotlu tuz kullanım oranı, 2002
- Evsiz insan oranı, 2002
- Temiz içme suyuna hiç ulaşamayan hane oranı, 2001
- Kanalizasyona hiç ulaşamayan hane oranı, 2001
- İllere göre aile-çocuk eğitim programlarından yararlanan anne-çocuk sayısı (0-6 yaş), 2002
- Okul öncesi eğitimden yararlanan çocuk oranı (36-72 ay grubu ana okulu – ana sınıfı), 2002-2003
- İlköğretimde okullaşma oranı, 2002- 2003
- Okur-yazarlık oranı (2000 yılı nüfus sayımı sonuçlarına göre)
- 2001-2002 öğretim yılı itibari ile yaygın eğitim kapsamında açılan kurs ile bu kurslardan yararlanan kursiyer sayısı
- İllere göre sivil toplum örgütleri sayısı ve üye sayısı
- 2002 yılı itibari ile illere göre yasal bildirim süresinden sonra nüfusa kayıt olan çocuk sayısı
- İstismara uğramış çocuk sayısı, 2002
- Yetişkinlere ait ceza ve tutuklevlerinde kalan tutuklu ve hükümlü çocuk sayısı, 2002
- İllere göre kişi ve mala ilişkin işlenen suçlarda açılan dava-sanık sayısı, 2001
- Korunma ve bakım altında bulunan kişi sayısı, 2002
- Korunma ve bakım için sırada bekleyen kişi sayısı, 2002
- Sosyal güvenlik kapsamındaki kişi sayısı
- İllere göre sosyal yardımlaşma ve dayanışma vakıflarından (2001) ve yeşil karttan (2002) yararlananlar

Bu kriterlerin temel alınması ve yapılan çalışmalar neticesinde 8 asıl 4 yedek olmak üzere toplam 12 şehrin (Tekirdağ, Bursa, Uşak, Antalya, Karaman, Konya, Kırşehir, Kayseri, Gaziantep, Sivas, Erzincan ve Trabzon) ÇDŞ adayı olmasına ve bu kriterler çerçevesinde gelişim göstermeleri gerektiğine karar verilmiş, fakat kısa bir süre sonra yedeklerin de asıl olması noktasında alınan karar ile 12 pilot şehirde bu çalışmaların başlamasının uygun olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır. Şehirlerin belirlenmesinin ardından UNICEF'e bağlı olarak çalışan temsilcilik, çalışmalarına başlamış ve milli komite içerisinde yer alan yüksek danışma kurulu tekrar toplanmış ve çalışmaları destekleme kararı almıştır. ÇDŞ girişiminin hayata geçirilmesi bir il içerisinde bulunan pek çok kurum ve kuruluşun desteği, yardımı ve ortak çalışması ile mümkün olabilme ihtimaline sahiptir. Bu bağlamda, İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü, İl Sağlık Müdürlüğü, Çalışma Müdürlüğü, SHÇEK İl Müdürlüğü, Kolluk Güçleri (Emniyet, Jandarma ve Sahil Güvenlik), Çevre İl Müdürlüğü, Gençlik ve Spor İl Müdürlüğü, SYDV, Adliyeler, Belediyeler, Üniversiteler bu noktada devrede olması gereken yapılanmalar olma özelliğine sahiptir (Korkmaz, 2006).

Devrede bulunması gereken bu kurumlarla beraber, Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi (TBMM), birlikte hareket edilmesi gereken kurumlardan bir tanesidir. TBMM, kabul ettiği kanunların yanı sıra kurduğu araştırma komisyonları aracılığıyla, yasama ve denetim fonksiyonlarını icra ederken Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin uygulanması, hakların korunması ve geliştirilmesi için duyarlılığını korumaktadır. TBMM bünyesinde, Çocuk haklarıyla ilgili yapılan çalışmaları kurumsal bir yapıya kavuşturmak için tüm siyasi parti gruplarından temsilcilerin yer aldığı Çocuk Hakları İzleme Komitesi 2008 yılında kurulmuştur. Çocuk Hakları İzleme Komitesi, çocuklar veya çocuk savunucuları tarafından kendilerine iletilen ya da kamuoyu gündemine gelen konular için, Komite üyesi milletvekilleri aracılığıyla parlamenter duyarlılığını artırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çocuk Hakları İzleme Komitesinin çalışmalarına, başta Birleşmiş Milletler Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi'nin Türkiye'deki uygulanmasını izlemekten sorumlu kuruluş olan Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı olmak üzere ulusal ve uluslararası birçok kuruluş katkı sunmaktadır (TBMM, 2014).

Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı Çocuk Hizmetleri Genel Müdürlüğü koordinesinde, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşların, sivil toplum kuruluşlarının, üniversitelerin ve çocukların etkin katılım ve mutabakatıyla, ülkemizde 1995 yılında yürürlüğe giren "BM Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi", 2001 yılında yürürlüğe giren "Çocuk Haklarının Kullanılmasına Dair Avrupa Sözleşmesi", 2009 – 2011 yıllarını kapsayan "Avrupa Konseyi Çocuk Hakları Stratejisi", 2011 yılında yayımlanan "Avrupa Birliği Çocuk Hakları Programı" ile "BM İnsan Hakları Evrensel Bildirgesi" ve "Avrupa İnsan Hakları Sözleşmesi" dayanak alınarak, "Ulusal Çocuk Hakları Strateji Belgesi ve Eylem Planı" hazırlanmıştır. Çocuğun yüksek yararının bütün yararlardan öncelikli olduğu kabul edilerek; çocuğun yaşama, gelişme, korunma, katılım ve ayrımcılığının önlenmesi haklarını esas alan, bir çocuk hakları kültürünün yaşanmasını temin etmek misyonu ve ülkemizi, hayallerini gerçeğe, mutluluğunu yüzüne, sesini kürsüye taşıyabilen çocukları olan, rol model bir ülke haline getirmek vizyonu ile hazırlanan bu belgenin temel ilkesi çocuğun yüksek yararının korunmasıdır (T. C. Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı, 2013).

ANKARA ÇOCUK DOSTU ŞEHİR PROJESİ

Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi 2011 yılında Ankara Valiliği'nin UNICEF'e yaptığı başvuru ile başlamıştır. Aynı yıl kamu kurum ve kuruluşları, sivil toplum kuruluşları ve üniversitelerin temsilcilerinin katılımı ile Ankara Valiliği'nde yapılan toplantıda katılımcılara Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi'ne katkı sağlamak amacıyla işbirliği teklif edilmiştir. Çocuklar adına yapılan tüm çalışmaların bir şemsiye altında toplanması ve kamuoyuna duyurulması için koordinasyonun sağlanması önerilmiştir. Ankara Valiliği'nce çocuklar için ve çocuklarla birlikte, çocuk sorunlarının çözümüne yönelerek, çocuk hakları kültürüne dayalı bir çocukluğun yaşanacağı, çocukların talep, ihtiyaç ve önceliklerinin kamu politikalarının ve uygulamalarının ayrılmaz bir parçası haline geldiği bir Ankara yaratmak için "Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi" hayata geçirilmiştir. Bu kapsamda "Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi" oluşturulması için çalışmalar başlatılmış, çeşitli görüşmeler yapılarak meclisin çalışma usul ve esaslarını düzenleyen bir yönerge taslağı hazırlanmıştır.

Bu doğrultuda Ankara Valiliği'nin 03.01.2012 tarih ve 528 sayılı yazısı ile "Ankara Çocuk Dostu Şehir Projesi Uygulama, Görev ve Çalışma Yönergesi" hazırlanarak, projeyi yürütmek üzere Yürütme Kurulu, Düzenleme Komitesi ve Çalışma Grupları oluşturulmuştur. Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi, kamu kurum - kuruluşları, sivil toplum kuruluşları ve Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nin de içinde bulunduğu 28 kurumun işbirliği ile yürütülmektedir. Bu kurum ve kuruluşlar:

- Ankara Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

- Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi
- Ankara İl Jandarma Komutanlığı
- Ankara İl Emniyet Müdürlüğü
- Ankara İl Özel İdaresi
- Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı
- Ankara İl Sağlık Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Halk Sağlığı Müdürlüğü
- Ankara İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü
- Devlet Tiyatroları Ankara Bölge Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar İl Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Çevre ve Şehircilik İl Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Gençlik Hizmetleri ve Spor İl Müdürlüğü
- Ankara İş Kurumu İl Müdürlüğü
- TÜİK Ankara Bölge Müdürlüğü
- Ankara Barosu Çocuk Hakları Merkezi
- Ankara Üniversitesi Çocuk Kültürü Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezi (ÇOKAUM)
- Ankara Üniversitesi Çocuk ve Gençlik Edebiyatı Uygulama ve Araştırma Merkezi (ÇOGEM)
- Ankara Tıp Fakültesi Ankara Çocuk Koruma Birimi
- Ankara Ticaret Odası (ATO)
- Ankara Sanayi Odası (ASO)
- Türkiye Mimarlar Mühendisler Odası Birliği (TMMOB) Ankara Şubesi
- Gündem Çocuk Derneği
- Türkiye Eğitim Gönüllüleri Vakfı (TEGV)
- Türkiye Okulöncesi Eğitimini Geliştirme Derneği
- Çocuklara Yönelik Ticari ve Cinsel Sömürüyle Mücadele Ağı
- Çağdaş Drama Derneği (ÇDD)
- Lions 118 – U Yönetim Çevresi olarak belirlenmiştir (Ankara Valiliği, 2012).

Yine aynı doğrultuda Ankara Valiliği'nin 09.01.2012 tarih ve 912 sayılı yazısı ile “Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi Çalışma Yönergesi” hazırlanarak, valilik bünyesinde, 9 – 14 yaş grubundaki çocukları kapsayan bir “Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi” oluşturulmuş ve çocuklar 2011 – 2012 eğitim – öğretim yılında çalışmalarını sürdürmeye başlamıştır. “Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi” üyeleri, demokratik bir seçim süreci izlenerek belirlenmiştir. 121 üyenin Ankara'nın 25 ilçesine göre dağılımı Tablo – 1'deki gibidir. Yapılanmada ilçelerin temsilci sayıları belirlenirken ilçelerin nüfusları esas alınmıştır (Ankara Valiliği, 2012).

Tablo 1: Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi Temsilcilerinin Ankara İlçelerine Göre Dağılımı

İlçe Adı	Temsilci Sayısı	İlçe Adı	Temsilci Sayısı
Akyurt	2	Haymana	3
Altındağ	8	Kalecik	2
Ayaş	2	Kazan	3
Bala	2	Keçiören	12
Beypazarı	3	Kızılcahamam	3
Çamlıdere	2	Mamak	9
Çankaya	12	Nallıhan	3
Çubuk	5	Polatlı	5
Elmadağ	3	Pursaklar	5
Etimesgut	7	Sincan	8
Evren	2	Şereflikoçhisar	3
Gölbaşı	5	Yenimahalle	10
Güdül	2		

Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi ilk toplantısını 20 Kasım 2011 “Dünya Çocuk Hakları Günü”nde yaparak çalışmalarına başlamıştır. Meclis alt komisyonlar oluşturarak çalışmalarına devam etmektedir. Bu komisyonlar:

- Sağlık Komisyonu
- Kültür-Sanat Komisyonu
- Eğitim Komisyonu
- Kent ve Çevre Komisyonu
- Trafik Komisyonu
- Spor Komisyonu
- Turizm Komisyonu
- Basın-Yayın Komisyonu
- Çocuk Hakları Komisyon
- Engelli Hakları Komisyonu
- Bilişim Teknolojileri Komisyonu olarak oluşturulmuştur.

Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi'nin koordinasyonu Ankara Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü tarafından sağlanmaktadır. Proje kapsamında Ankara'nın 25 İlçe Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nde, proje çalışmalarını yürüten şube müdürleri ve öğretmenler bulunmakta ve her ay düzenli olarak yaptıkları toplantılarla çalışmalarını paylaşmaktadırlar.

Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi çalışmaları kapsamında bir “Çocuk Dostu Şehir Şenliği” gerçekleştirilerek, 6000 çocuğa ulaşılmış, böylece projenin başlangıcından çocukların da haberdar olması ve çocuklarda farkındalık yaratılması sağlanmıştır. Şenlik hazırlık çalışmaları paydaş kurumların desteği ile CERMODERN Sanatlar Merkezi'nde gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi 2012 yılında Meclis II. Dönem 1. Oturumunu 20 Kasım 2012 tarihinde, II. Dönem 2. Oturumunu da Nisan 2013 tarihinde yapmıştır. Oluşturulan komisyonlar çalışmalarını tamamlayarak, çocuk gözü ile Ankara için yapılması gerekenleri raporlaştırmışlardır. Komisyon çalışmalarında oluşturdukları 79 önerge Mayıs 2012 tarihinde kamu kurum ve kuruluşlarına, sivil toplum kuruluşlarına ve üniversitelere iletilmiş ve her kurum bu önergelerle ilgili çalışmak istediklerini öncelikli maddeleri belirtmişlerdir.

Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi üyesi çocuklar meclis çalışmalarına devam ederken, meclis toplantıları dışında değişik dönemlerde bir araya gelmişlerdir. ÇDŞ Projesi ve bağlantılı konularla ilgili bilgilendirilmek üzere gruplar halinde bir araya gelen meclis üyesi çocuklar, paydaşlardan Çağdaş Drama Derneği'nden gelen drama önderlerinin desteğiyle oyunlarla başlayan etkinliklerde, “Çocuk Dostu Şehirler”, “BM Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi” gibi konularda belli aralıklarla bilgilendirilmektedirler. Aynı çerçevede UNICEF tarafından Haziran 2012'de Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi 121 çocuğa eğitim verilmiştir. Ankara Ticaret Odası katkılarıyla verilen eğitim; “Medya”, “Sağlık”, “Eğitim” ve “Çocuk Hakları” olmak üzere dört başlık altında yapılmıştır. Paydaşlarımızdan olan Ankara Emniyet Müdürlüğü, Ankara İl Sağlık Müdürlüğü, Çevre ve Şehircilik Müdürlüğü ve Mimarlar Odası, proje kapsamında değişik dönemlerde çocuklarla ilgili çalışmalara imza atmışlardır. Çalışmalar “Çocuk ve Trafik”, “Çocuk Dostu Şehirler”, “Çocuk Dost Hastaneler”, “1000 Mimar 1000 Okulda” gibi değişik tematik başlıklar altında gerçekleştirilmiş, planlamalar doğrultusunda düzenli aralıklarla gerçekleştirilmeye devam edilmesi planlanmıştır.

Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi dâhilinde, Yürütme Kurulu ve Düzenleme Komitesi'nden oluşan Çalışma Grupları bilgilendirme toplantıları düzenli olarak yapılmış ve yapılmaya devam etmektedir. 2012 yılında, Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı desteği, Ankara Ticaret Odası yardımları, Ankara Üniversitesi ve Gündem Çocuk Derneği akademik desteği ile düzenlenen eğitim çalışmalarına tüm paydaş kurum temsilcileri katılmıştır. Eğitim çalışmalarının amacı, odağı çocuk olan haklar temelinde ortak bir dil oluşturmaktır. “Çocuk Dostu Şehir Farkındalık Eğitimi, Standart ve Gösterge Geliştirme Eğitimi, Farkındalık Eğitimi ve Paylaşım Çalışmaları” başlıkları altında yapılan çalışmalarda tüm katılımcılara katılım sertifikası verilmiştir. 2014 yılı içerisinde, paydaşlarımızdan olan Gündem Çocuk Derneği ile Ankara Barosu Çocuk Hakları Merkezi ve Çocuklara Yönelik Ticari ve Cinsel Sömürü ile Mücadele Ağı'nın katkılarıyla “Çocuk ve Adalet” ana temalı bir bilgilendirme eğitiminin Çalışma Grupları'na verilmesi için planlamalar tamamlanmıştır. Çalışma Grupları'yla projenin başladığı tarihten itibaren düzenli olarak gerçekleştirilen toplantılarda kurumların kendi bünyelerinde çocuklarla ilgili yaptıkları çalışmalar değerlendirilmekte, çocuk dostu bir Ankara için kurum, kuruluş, sivil toplum kuruluşları ve üniversitenin katkısının, birlikte belirlenen öncelikler doğrultusunda ne olabileceği

paylaşılmakta, özellikle hak temelli bir bakış açısının oluşturulabilmesi için yapılması gerekenler planlanmaktadır.

Ankara'nın 25 ilçesinde, Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi'nde görevli şube müdürleriyle düzenli olarak toplantılar yapılarak ilçelerde öğretmenlerin ve çocukların proje ile ilgili bilgilendirilmesi sağlanmaktadır. Her ilçenin öncelikle, gönüllü okul, gönüllü öğretmen, gönüllü çocuk ile örnek çalışmalar yapması sağlanmaktadır. Bu çalışmalar ışığında ilçelerde Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi kapsamında örnek proje ve uygulamalar başlatılmıştır. Öncelikle Gölbaşı, Sincan, Kazan, Keçiören ve Pursaklar İlçeleri örnek uygulamalarla önemli ölçüde çocuk katılımı sağlamışlardır. Çocuk katılımının sağlandığı bu etkinlik ve atölye çalışmalarında çocukların yaşadıkları kent ile ilgili farkındalıklarını artırıcı etkinlikler yapılmış, ayrıca "Çocuk Hakları" konusunda bilinçlenmeleri sağlanmıştır.

ÇOCUK DOSTU ANKARA PROJESİ

Ankara Valiliği'nin talimatları ile Ankara İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü tarafından Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi'nin sürdürülebilirliğini sağlamak amacı ile Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı'na proje başvurusunda bulunulmuş, Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı Sosyal Kalkınma Mali Destek Programı kapsamında "Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi" başlatılmıştır.

Ankara Üniversitesi çalışmaların başlangıcından bugüne Rektörlüğü, Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi Dekanlığı, akademik personeli ile Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi çalışmalarına destek vermiştir. Ankara Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nün "Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi"nin danışmanlığını yine Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi tarafından yürütülmektedir.

Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı Sosyal Kalkınma Programları ile Ankara'da bireylere eşit ve kaliteli yaşam olanağı sunarak sosyal bağların güçlendirilmesi genel olarak amaçlanmaktadır. Bu genel amaç kapsamında, özel sosyal politika gerektiren grupların yaşam kalitelerinin yükseltilmesi, sosyal ve ekonomik yaşama katılımlarının artırılması programın özel amacı olarak belirlenmiştir (Ankara Kalkınma Ajansı, 2014). Program kapsamında, Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi ile çocuk dostu bir Ankara olma yolunda toplumsal algının değişmesine katkıda bulunmak genel amaç, Ankara'daki çocuklarda, kurum ve kuruluş çalışanlarında çocuğa yönelik algıyı değiştirmek ve farkındalık yaratmak özel amaç olarak belirlenmiştir.

Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi'nin uygulama alanı, Ankara ili ve ilçelerinde hizmet veren kamu kurum, kuruluşları ve sivil toplum kuruluşları olarak belirlenmiştir. Çocuklarla iletişim kuran veya hizmet sunan tüm personel hedef grup, Ankara'da yaşayan tüm çocuklar nihai faydalanıcılar olarak belirlenmiştir.

Proje kapsamında bir "Ankara Çocuk Durum Tespit Ölçeği" geliştirilmesi, proje ve faaliyetleriyle ilgili afiş, broşür, billboard hazırlanması, basın bilgilendirmeleri yapılması, aktif çocuk katılımının her aşamada sağlanması, akran eğitimlerinin gerçekleştirilmesi, kamu kurumlarındaki çocuğa ilişkin durumun tespit edilmesi, bir kamu spotunun hazırlanması, yurtiçi ve yurt dışında çocuk dostu şehir çalışmaları kapsamında yapılanların incelenmesi, "Ankara Çocuk Durum Rapor Kitapçığı"nın ve "Ankara Hizmetlere Erişim Kılavuzu"nun hazırlanması, projeye ilgili bir web sitesinin hizmete sunulması ve "1. Çocuk Dostu Şehir Sempozyumu"nun düzenlenmesi planlanmıştır.

Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi, Ölçme Değerlendirme Bölümü tarafından geliştirilen "11 – 14 Yaş Çocuk Gözüyle Ankara Durum Ölçeği", Ankara ili genelinde örgün eğitime dâhil olan 5-6-7-8. sınıf öğrencilerinin tamamına (260.000 öğrenciye) uygulanmaktadır. Bu ölçeğin geliştirilmesinin amacı, Ankara ÇDŞ Projesi kapsamında "Çocuk Gözü ile Ankara Durum Raporu" ve "Çocuklar için Ankara Kılavuzu" kitapçıklarının hazırlanmasına temel oluşturacak verilerin toplanmasında kullanılacak bir ölçme aracının geliştirilmesidir. Ankara'da yaşamakta olan çocukların, yaşadıkları şehri nasıl gördüklerinin belirlenmesi bu ölçeğin geliştirilme amaçlarından bir diğeridir (Koç, Tavşancıl ve Demir, 2013). Ölçek sonucunda elde edilecek veriler doğrultusunda iki kitap yayınlanması planlanmıştır. "Çocuk Gözüyle Ankara Durum Raporu" kitapçığının çocuk görüşlerini yansıtan ve kurumların çalışmalarında yol gösterici olması hedeflenen bir kitap, "Çocuklar İçin Ankara Kılavuzu"nun ise, çocukların yaşadıkları şehri, şehrin imkânlarını ve kurumların çocuğa yönelik verdikleri hizmetleri içeren bir kitap olması planlanmaktadır.

Ankara Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar İl Müdürlüğü, Çocuk Hakları Komitesi, Altındağ Sosyal Hizmet Merkezi ve UNICEF Türkiye Temsilciliği işbirliğinde yapılan "Çocuk Dostu Şehirler" ve "Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi"

konularındaki çalışmalar Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi üyesi çocukların katılımı ile “Akran Eğitimi” programı dâhilinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. “Akran Eğitimi” çalışmaları yapılan planlamalar doğrultusunda daha fazla sayıda çocuğu kapsayacak şekilde, büyüyerek devam ettirilecektir.

Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi kapsamında, faaliyetlerden biri olarak, “Çocuklar için Ankara Kılavuzu”nun hazırlanabilmesi ve gereken verilerin paydaşlarımızdan toplanabilmesi için, projenin danışmanlığını sürdüren Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi ile diğer paydaş kurumların, sivil toplum kuruluşlarının ve meslek odalarının çocuklar için verdikleri hizmeti ve çalışmalarını anlatabilmeleri ve tanıtılabilmeleri için bir form geliştirilmiştir. Çocuklar için kurumlar tarafından verilen hizmetlerin hazırlanacak kitapta yer alması planlanmıştır. Bu sayede Ankara’da yaşayan çocukların bu hizmetlerden daha sağlıklı ve etkin bir şekilde yararlanabilmeleri, hizmetlere ulaşabilmeleri amaçlanmıştır.

Projesi kapsamında “İtalya Çocuk Dostu Şehirler ve Çocuk Katılımı İnceleme Gezisi” ilk ziyareti, Reggio Emilia kentine ve kentte yer alan Loris Malaguzzi International Centre’a yapılmıştır. 1994 yılında yerel yönetim tarafından kurulmuş olan merkez, hem özel, hem de devlete bağlı olan özerk bir yapıda çalışmalarını sürdürmektedir. Mali kaynak desteği ve denetimi yerel yönetim tarafından sağlanmaktadır. Merkezin ana hedefinin, çocuklarla ilgili yapılan tüm çalışmalarda, ailelerin ve kentte yaşayan her bireyin katılımının sağlanması olduğu merkez yöneticileriyle yapılan yüz yüze görüşmelerde belirlenmiştir. İtalya’nın Reggio Emilia kentinin yanı sıra Floransa kentine proje kapsamında bir inceleme ziyareti gerçekleştirilmiştir. Floransa Belediyesi’nin eğitimden sorumlu yöneticileriyle bir bilgilendirme toplantısı gerçekleştirilmiştir. Burada da benzer şekilde, ebeveynlerin eğitimi, katılımı sağlayabilmek için temel teşkil etmektedir. Her iki kentteki gözlemlerde bir kentin “Çocuk Dostu Şehir” olabilmesi için ilk basamağın ailelerin ve kentte yaşayan her bireyin katılımının sağlanması en temel bulgudur. Çocuk dostu bir hastane olan Meyer, Floransa adına “Çocuk Dostu Şehir” kavramı adına çok güzel bir örneği teşkil etmektedir. Meyer Çocuk Hastanesi Halkla İlişkiler Sorumlusu ile hastane incelenmiş, fotoğraflanmış ve bilgi alınmıştır. 0-16 yaş grubu çocuklara hizmet veren bir hastane ile ilgili bilgiler Ankara’da sağlıkla ilgili birimlere raporlanarak sunulmuştur.

Çocuk Dostu Ankara Projesi kapsamında, Almanya’nın değişik şehirlerinde çocuklarla ilgili yapılan çalışmalar gözlemlenmiş, yerel yönetimlerin çocuklarla ilgili çalışmalarda ki planlamaları, paydaşları ve paydaşlarıyla etkileşimleri birebir görüşmeler yapılarak izlenmiştir. Özellikle çocuk müzeleriyle ilgili çalışmalar proje uzmanları tarafından müze yönetimleriyle ilgili özel çalışmalar yapılarak Almanya’da Dortmund U Kültür Merkezi ve Dortmund Mondo Mio Müzesi ile Hollanda’da Amsterdam NEMO Bilim Merkezi’nde izlenmiştir.

Çocuk Dostu Ankara projesinin geniş kitleler tarafından tanınması ve farkındalığın artması için bir web sitesi hazırlanmıştır. www.cocukdostuankara.org alan adı ile ulaşılabilen site, projeye ilgili bilgilere ve çocuklarla ilgili çalışmalara rahatlıkla ulaşılabilesini sağlamıştır. Web sitesi Çocuk Hakları Sözleşmesi, İnsan Hakları Sözleşmesi, Çocuk Dostu Şehir’lerle ilgili linkler yardımıyla temel kaynaklara ulaşım olanağı sağlamaktadır.

SONUÇ

Çocuk dostu Ankara Proje’si kapsamında, bir şehrin çocuk dostu olabilmesi için, öncelikle temel stratejik amaçlar arasında bulunan, çocuğa saygı ve çocuk hakları kültürünü geliştirmek, çocuk haklarına ilişkin karar süreçlerine bütün çocukların katılımını sağlamak ve çocuk hakları kültürü çerçevesinde eğitim politika ve programları geliştirmek amaçları gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Proje kapsamında, basın, reklam, duyuru çalışmaları gerçekleştirilmiştir. Düzenli olarak yapılan çalışmalar ile farkındalığın artırılması için bir sempozyum düzenlenmesi planlanmıştır. Ayrıca hazırlanan tanıtım filmi ve kamu spotu ile toplumsal farkındalığın yaratılması sağlanmıştır.

Çocukların yaratıcılıklarını geliştirmek ve katılımlarını güçlendirmek için pilot okullarda atölyeler kurularak etkinlikler gerçekleştirilmiştir. Bu uygulamalarda görev alan eğitimciler konularının uzmanı kişiler tarafından desteklenmesi sağlanmıştır. Trafik, sağlık, çevre, kültür – sanat gibi Ankara Çocuk Dostu İl Meclisi Komisyonları arasında yer alan konularla ilgili, çocuklarla, konuyla ilgili mekanlarda çalışmalar yapılarak çocuk dostu bir şehirle ilgili yapılması gerekenler raporlanmıştır. Raporlar ilgili birimlere ulaştırılmıştır.

Ankara ilçelerinde görev yapan Milli Eğitim Şube Müdürleri, okul temsilcileri ve gönüllüleri ile Ankara Valiliği Çocuk Dostu Şehir Projesi Uygulama, Görev ve Çalışma Yönergesi’nde yer alan Çalışma Grupları

konuyla ilgili düzenli bilgilendirilmiştir. Her kurumun kendi alanında çalışan diğer kurumlarla ve özel sektörle bilgilendirme toplantıları, yaygınlaştırma ve farkındalık çalışmaları yapmaları sağlanmıştır.

Proje kapsamında yapılan tüm çalışmalar düzenli olarak raporlandırılmıştır. Oluşturulan raporlama Ankara Valiliği'nde ve Ankara Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü'nde ilgili birimlerde arşivlenmiştir ve arşivlenmeye devam etmektedir.

Proje kapsamında “Çocuk Dostu Şehir” ve “Aile Dostu Şehir” kavramları birlikte kullanılarak farkındalık çalışmaları bu kapsamda yürütülmüştür. Şehirde yaşayan tüm insanların katılımı sağlanarak, “Çocuk Dostu Şehirler” için çok önemli olan bir adım tamamlanmıştır.

ÖNERİLER

Çocuk Dostu Şehir Projeleri kapsamında yapılan her türlü çalışmada çocuğa özgü bir bakış açısının olması gerekmektedir. Böylece her alanda çocukların mağduriyetleri azalacaktır. Çocuğa hizmet veren her türlü alternatif kuruluştan sunulan hizmetlerin kalitesini arttırmak üzere kurumsal kapasite ve insan kaynağını sayı ve kalite açısından artırılmasına yönelik çalışmalar yapılmalıdır.

Çocuklarla birlikte çalışan personele yönelik asgari standartların belirlenmesi ve eğitimlerinin düzenli olarak yapılması gerekmektedir.

Çocuğa hizmet veren kurumların ayrı ayrı yaptıkları çalışmalar ve verdikleri hizmetlerin paylaşılıp yerel düzeyde çocuğa ve ailesine bir bütün halinde sunma çabası geliştirilmelidir.

Çocuk hizmetlerinin daha etkin hale getirilmesi için kamu kurumları dışında kalan kuruluşlar, STK lar, odalar, birlikler ve üniversiteler gibi diğer kurum ve kuruluşların öncelikli çalışma alanlarını ve işbirliğini sağlıklı planlamalarının sağlanması amacıyla bir Çocuk Hizmetleri Koordinasyon Merkezi kurulmalıdır.

Çocuklara sunulan hizmetlerdeki yaklaşım, bütünsel bir çocuk politikası oluşturularak sunulmalıdır. Bütün çocukların refahını sağlamayı, yaşam kalitesini yükseltmeyi, korunma, gelişme ve katılım gibi temel haklarını en üst düzeyde yaşayabilmelerini sağlamayı hedeflemelidir.

Bütçe sisteminde çocuklara yönelik hizmetlere yapılan harcamaların görülebildiği hizmet ve kaynaklardaki gelişmelerin takip edilebildiği çocuklara ayrılan bütçe düzenlemelerine ihtiyaç vardır.

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Этапы усвоения профессиональной терминологии студентами технических специальностей

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Аннотация

В статье рассматривается методическая работа по усвоению терминов как одна из важнейших составляющих учебного процесса. Признается необходимость формирования у будущих специалистов умений работать с литературой на русском языке по избранной специальности. Рассмотрен терминологический состав языка технических специальностей. Отмечены этапы работы по формированию терминологических умений и навыков.

Ключевые слова: терминология, технические термины, обучение русскому языку, коммуникативная ориентация, терминологический словарный запас.

Обучение русскому языку в национальных группах неязыковых факультетов приобрело в настоящее время ярко выраженную практическую направленность и коммуникативную ориентацию. Потому актуальной является необходимость формирования у будущих специалистов умения работать с литературой на русском языке по избранной специальности. Особое значение это имеет при дефиците времени, отводимого на изучение русского языка на неязыковых факультетах.

Русский язык в неязыковом вузе имеет большое значение для формирования всесторонне развитого и компетентного специалиста. Формирование профессиональной коммуникативной компетенции происходит за счет пополнения и расширения необходимого словарного запаса студентов. В процессе работы над профессионально-ориентированными текстами студенты получают новую информацию и систематически пополняют терминологический словарный запас.

Одной из важнейших предпосылок развития и совершенствования профессионально направленной русской речи студентов национальных групп является выработка умений и навыков определения узуса сочетаемости слов, структуры словосочетаний, способность употребления терминологического слова на основе синтаксических связей согласования, управления, примыкания вплоть до цельного предложения.

При обучении русскому языку следует уделять особое внимание отбору терминологического материала, в том числе при обучении студентов технических специальностей. Технические науки, как и любые другие, имеют свой предмет исследования, свои понятия и категории. Лексику в текстах по технике составляют общелитературные слова, термины и слова с терминованным значением. Следует заметить, что в слова с терминованным значением вошли и общелитературные единицы, но в данном контексте они

приобретают значение термина, т.е. слова приобретают специфическую окраску, характерную для данной отрасли науки, в данном случае – техники. Формально наличие одного и того же слова в словарях, отражающих лексику разговорно-бытового или общеупотребительного и научного стилей речи, не дает право считать это слово известным, освоенным, так как в научных текстах это другое слово. Это, к примеру, слова: свет, энергия, тепло, сила, тело, теплота, скорость, масса, поле, процесс, кипение, твердость, хрупкость, работа, трение и др.

В языке технических наук слово имеет одно значение, характерное только для научного стиля этого предмета, многозначные, стилистически нейтральные слова употребляются в научном стиле не во всех своих значениях, которые свойственны им в системе общелитературного языка, а лишь в одном, реже – в двух. Так, например, если слово «сила» имеет двенадцать значений, то за термином в технике закреплено лишь одно его значение: Величина, являющаяся мерой механического взаимодействия тел; энергия, воздействующая на материальные тела, а также степень интенсивности, напряженности ее.

Общелитературные слова, которые в языке технических специальностей приобрели значение термина, образуют сочетания с определенной группой слов, приобретая, при этом, значение слов-терминов: сила тяжести, сила тока, упругие силы, поле гравитационное, поле стационарное, поле сил, поле потенциальное, процесс адиабатический, процесс изобарический, процесс обратимый.

Специфика языка технических специальностей заключается в широком использовании физических величин, их характеристик. Для формулирования законов, теорий, для описания и объяснения физических явлений технические науки пользуются собственной терминологией. Технические термины – это точные названия, «имена понятий» объектов, их свойств, явлений и процессов. Успешное овладение языком технических наук способствует формированию знаний на вводимой на занятии новой терминологии. Хотя термины составляют малое количество лексического состава научного языка, но именно терминология признается ведущим и более существенным признаком научного стиля языка технических специальностей.

В терминологическом составе языка технических специальностей наблюдается большое количество интернациональных единиц. Абсолютное большинство заимствований приходится на долю латинского и греческого языков. Так, например, из латинского языка в техническую терминологию перешли такие термины, как генератор, нейтрон, аккумулятор, антенна, вакуум, диффузия, инерция, материя, нуклоны, траектория; а из греческого языка – кристалл, магнит, манометр, механика, физика, электрон, анод, атмосфера, барометр, анализ и др. Встречаются заимствования также из немецкого, французского, английского языков, но в малом количестве: батарея (франц.), газ (франц.), грамм, клапан, масштаб (немец.), ньютон, статор (англ.).

Следует отметить, что большое количество физической терминологии образовано при помощи суффиксов:

-ени/-ани (движение, вычисление, изменение, соединение, направление, соединение, возмещение, основание, смещение, ускорение, колебание, парообразование);

-ость/-есть (результативность, активность, потребность, плотность, емкость, напряженность), -к (установка, отправка, разбивка, накачка, перегонка, бомбардировка), -ств (воспроизводство, устройство, средство, свойство);

-ация (реакция, кристаллизация, амортизация, дифференциация, поляризация, вибрация, аккомодация, гравитация);

-ник (проводник);

-ик (диэлектрик);

-тель (показатель, исследователь, ускоритель, носитель, выпрямитель, двигатель, усилитель, замедлитель, множитель);

-атор (конденсатор, генератор, вибратор),

а также префиксоидов латинского и греческого языков: приставки «микро» (греч.) – «макро» (греч.) указывают соответственно на малую и большую величину или размер чего-либо, например, микрофон; макромолекула, микрочастицы, микроскоп; приставка «милли» (лат.) обозначает «тысячу» и является единицей физической величины, например, миллиграмм, миллиметр; приставка «кило» (греч.) несет значение «тысяча» и служит наименованием единиц физической величины – килограмм, киловатт; префиксоид «анти» (греч.) обозначает «против», например: антивещество, античастицы, антигелий, антиатом; приставка «диа» (греч.) обозначает «через, сквозь», например, диэлектрики, диамагнетизм; приставка «де» (лат.) означает «удаление», например, демодуляция, десорбция, деполяризация; приставка «деци» (лат.) означает «десять», например, дециметр, децибел и т.д.

Терминологическая лексика, таким образом, в подязыке специальности имеет свои специфические особенности. Для сознательного усвоения технической терминологии студентами национальных групп требуется глубокое знание этимологии и значения наиболее употребительных греческих, латинских и арабских заимствований, т.е. постоянных терминообразующих единиц, которые конкретизируют термин и определяют его содержание.

Методическая работа по усвоению терминов должна рассматриваться как одна из важнейших составляющих учебного процесса. Основная цель – усвоение терминологической лексики данной подсистемы языка, позволяющей не только правильно воспринимать научный текст, но и активно использовать слова-термины при построении собственных высказываний в коммуникативном плане. Данная работа должна быть включена в целостную систему работы по формированию языковых (лексических) и речевых умений и навыков. Работа с терминологией должна начинаться на этапе, когда студенты уже обладают определенным уровнем компетентности, сформированными языковыми умениями и навыками в отношении к общеупотребительной лексике.

Усвоенное ранее слово-термин необходимо включать в новые контексты, в новые ситуации, в разную сферу предметно-логических отношений для многократного повторения. При этом важно предусмотреть, как отмечает А.Ф. Колесникова, а) чтобы изменяемое слово повторялось не в одной какой-либо форме, а во всех наиболее употребительных формах; б) чтобы нетематические и общеупотребительные, межстилевые слова повторялись в разных речевых сферах, максимально мобилизовались при работе над разными темами, способствуя созданию сознательного навыка переноса; в) чтобы тематические и ситуативно закреплённые слова актуализировались в возможных сочетаниях в рамках определенной темы или ситуации, но чтобы было обращено внимание на невозможность переноса их в другие речевые сферы, если он по языковым нормам невозможен.

Лексический навык при любом уровне владения единицей языка предполагает разработку прочной двусторонней связи между формой и значением. Осознание и понимание являются важными

детерминантами накопления знаний и формирования на их основе соответствующих навыков, которые достигаются многократным повторением.

Этапы введения и семантизации терминов и терминологических сочетаний соответствуют подготовительному и ознакомительному этапам формирования навыка. Активизация же терминологической единицы в речи достигается путем многократного повторения и имитации высказывания на основе тренировочных и речевых упражнений. Вслед за этапом семантизации и предъявления сочетаемостных и других характеристик термина следует снова перейти к тексту, проанализировать сферу его употребления, продемонстрировать степень функционирования текста в сходных ситуациях, а затем организовать на самостоятельном уровне репродуктивные речевые действия студента. Отметим, что в качестве организующего стержня всех этапов формирования терминологического навыка служит именно текст.

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Sociolinguistic competence and its implementation in different educational contexts

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Abstract

Formation and development of socio-cultural competence is a necessary part of successful teaching and learning of foreign languages. Sociolinguistic competence consists of a complex of structures, mechanisms, and schemes that are used by the speakers during the conversation in accordance with the situation and in an indirect way. It is relevant to review the components of sociolinguistic competence, especially considering its constant implementation in different educational contexts of institutions of higher education. In addition, the problem of shaping social and language competence, which the native speakers pass on in the educational process to those who learn the language, remains insufficiently investigated.

Keywords: socio-cultural competence, sociolinguistic competence, learning of foreign languages, professional knowledge, professional skills.

In modern practice, learning languages at institutions of higher education is more and more a synthesis of models, forms, methods of teaching, which determines the next steps to the development of ways of formation and development of socio-cultural competence (Addison & Mountford, 2015). For example, the work on the implementation of methods of introducing and adopting models of interaction in certain situations and discursive practices and the algorithm for selecting different social dialects, argos and jargons according to the situation (Bayley & Regan, 2004).

Particular problems also concern the quality training of students of language faculties and specializations: the first is how to work with students, so that the majority of them received a high level of education, became professionals. This leads to an active search for new approaches, methods and tools for the formation of sociolinguistic competence of future specialists in foreign languages, university professors, experts in communicative science, etc.

It should be noted that sociolinguistic competence is an integrative personal quality of each student - a set of knowledge and skills, space of possibilities, which correlates with other competences and determines the level of professional development and efficiency of work of a future specialist.

Due to the need for research on the means of formation and determinants in the development of social competence of students, there is a low level of experimental research, where interactive teaching of foreign languages provides students with a high level of communication and social interaction, and thus, the formation of skills to solve communicative tasks of varying degrees of complexity (Cummins, 2011; Donnelly, et al., 2019). The search for the most effective methods that are based on the latest trends in the field of science and technology, as well as

pedagogical practice of shaping the skills of social competence as an essential component of key competences should be continued.

The sociolinguistic competence is a system of tools and means of cognition realized at the level of knowledge and skills on the socio-cultural specificity of the country. The sociolinguistic competence finds its retention in the language units of all levels and maintains the system of complex social relations, which are formed in the language. First of all, the ability to use the whole complex of language formulas, language etiquette for a successful and effective communication, knowledge of culture, traditions, history, prominent people of the country where the language is studied. As well as the ability to operate with the acquired knowledge in the implementation of the language scenarios, social roles (by social status, age, statute, industry, value positions, in particular).

Sociolinguistic competences as an integrated part of key competences were investigated in two ways. Sociolinguistic competence is perceived as an autonomous component of communicative competence and correlates with linguistic and pragmatic competence. Therefore, the sociolinguistic component is a self-acting constituent, which has its own set of knowledge, skills, skills of verbalization of social meanings in accordance with the situations of communication, communicative tasks, social, cultural, gender roles of communicants. In this context, sociolinguistic competencies were investigated from the position of implementing interactive methods of learning foreign languages (Rababah, 2020); implementing informational and communicative technologies in the educational process; implementation of innovative technologies in the study of language and culture in the socially-linguistic plane; regulations on the reform of higher education, the formation of educational plans and educational strategies (Popovych, et al., 2020).

Another approach determines that sociolinguistic competence is a part of socio-cultural competence, where the latter is, in turn, a part of communicative competence. From this point of view, the sociolinguistic competence of a citizen is defined as a set of linguistic markers (age, article, profession, dialect, sociolect, etc.) in accordance with the social differentiation.

A particular area of research in sociolinguistics, which is relevant to the formation of a set of competences in the student education, is the study of the experience of teachers in teaching languages with different regional, social and cultural accents. The phenomenon of social mobility of students is also investigated, which also significantly affects the formation of socio-cultural competence of students and teachers, stigmatization and negative perception of regional dialects, social dialects, and jargons of socially unprotected groups of the population were presented as a negative phenomenon.

It was found that an active public position, social activity of the student, participation in international projects motivates to learn foreign languages, active formation of sociolinguistic competences, professional knowledge and skills. There is a lack of research into the ways of performing high-quality training of young specialists, who can communicate effectively, have good command of foreign languages, and easily orientate themselves in the social and cultural space of the modern world.

Sociolinguistic competence implies that the students of different specialties acquire the skills of forming words in different socio-communicative contexts, identifying the type of discursive practice and implementing their own skills within the scope of sociolinguistic competence. Sociolinguistic principles of teaching, especially teaching foreign languages is used for developing the sociolinguistic competence of students of different faculties. Moreover, the teaching of foreign languages has a strong social and language competence, which is the basis for the formation and improvement of knowledge, skills and abilities of students to build an effective and useful language behavior.

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Developing Teacher's Pedagogical Competency

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Abstract

Competency has been considered as the most important factors in creating competitiveness of the organization and economical development. This article describes the knowledge map of teachers' teaching skills at University of Applied Sciences in Vaasa (VAMK), on the basis of which knowledge surveys can be conducted. A knowledge map must be updated from time to time. The survey was conducted with the help of an electronic questionnaire, face to face discussions and discussions via e-mail. The teachers participated in the survey actively. The managers were involved in creating the knowledge map. Competency management can be examined from the perspective of creating the knowledge map, evaluating and developing competence. Employees' versatile competency both improves their satisfaction with the organization and guarantees the certain level of competence in the organization. Teacher development plan will be formed on the basis of the knowledge map and development discussions. The teachers have actively participated in personnel in-service training.

Keywords.

COMPETENT ORGANIZATION

Defining Competency

Competency i.e. teachers' human capital consists of knowledge, skills, attitude, experience, contacts, and networks. Competency can be seen in work performances and their results. Competency means capability. When referring to university teachers' abilities to perform their jobs well can terms knowledge and skills, competency and capability be used. According to Winter (1998) personnel competency is created, treasured, shared and exploited consciously and systematically (Winter 1998.)

The competency required in the organization must be based on the vision, strategy and goals of the organization, as well as the demands of the markets. Competency should also meet customers' expectations. Provided that the organization has a clear idea of its required competency and the quality and quantity of it, competency can be defined and managed systematically. Teachers' competencies can be diverse, but together they form the competency needed in a university.

Changes in working life modify the requirements of competency in universities. Competency and professional skills should constantly be developed both in working life and universities. Human capital results from education, development and health. A university learns and develops through its teacher development providing the current working policies are critically reflected. Teachers' will and ability to innovate is the key.

Knowledge Map

A knowledge map represents the required competency compatible with the university's current and future strategies and areas of emphasis. A knowledge map is needed in order to be able to discuss university's competency generally and concretely (Hätönen 2007, 9.) In addition to the core competence, general competence such as language and communication skills, and ICT skills are needed. A university has to react to the changes in the operational environment and customers' needs. A knowledge map helps in 1) evaluating teacher competence, 2) recruiting new teachers, 3) enabling teachers' self assessment, it also 4) provides tools for discussing competence, 5) defines the frames for development, and 6) facilitates evaluation the development process (Hätönen 2007, 11.)

Knowledge Mapping

The starting point in teaching personnel development is the analysis of human capital i.e. knowledge mapping. Knowledge mapping is a process that visualizes competency, and functions as a development tool both at organizational and individual level. The objective of knowledge mapping is to find the essential strengths and weaknesses of the university, and to define the level of competency in general. By doing this future challenges can be anticipated (Oulun yliopisto 2012.)

A survey in which the core and key competencies are defined, is the basis for knowledge mapping. In knowledge mapping each teacher evaluates their competency and defines the level of competency on a chosen rating scale. The results of knowledge mapping can be drawn up to a competency table or diagram.

The aim of knowledge mapping in university is to recognize the strengths and weaknesses in competency, and further, to create development plans to improve employee performance (Ojala 2008, 123). A knowledge map needs updating from time to time since working life changes rapidly and new, different competencies will be required.

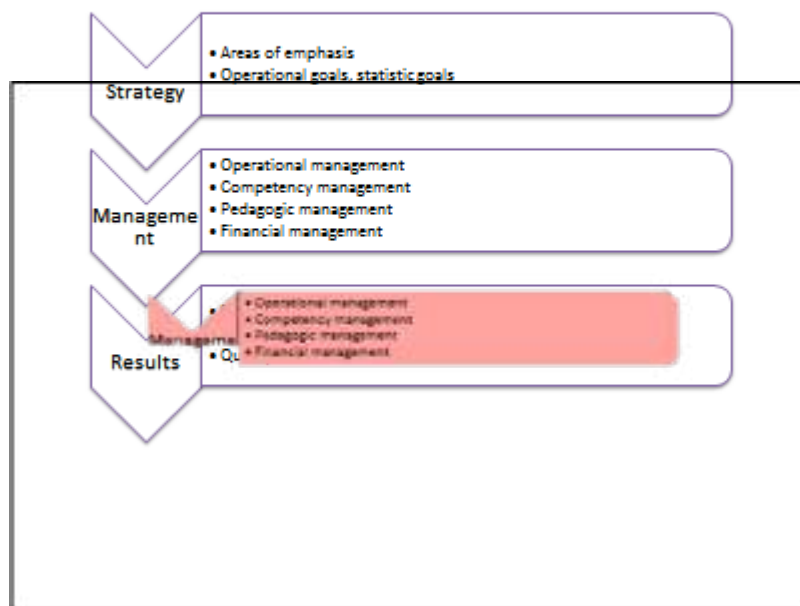
Competency evaluation

The starting point for the evaluation of competency is a knowledge map based on the strategies of the organization. The evaluation is compared with the knowledge map. There are multiple methods of competency evaluation. The most popular ones are realistic self-reflection or evaluation by managers or a neutral, extraneous party.

According to Valpola (2002, 59–60) one of the most efficient evaluation methods is 360 Degree Feedback. It is a system in which teachers receive feedback from the people who work around them. The teacher receiving feedback also fills out a self-rating survey.

Competency Management

Competency management must be linked to the organization strategy so that the objectives and indicators of competency management can be defined on the basis of the strategy (Salojärvi 2009, 25). Strategy management and competency management are connected with each other: competency management is part of strategy management. The prerequisite for university's sustainable competitiveness is integrating educating and exploiting competencies to the organization strategy (Pihkala, Oikarinen 2001, 78 - 80). Competency management brings added value to the organization. The organization can be proactive and reactive. The competency management process includes recruiting to the goals of the organization, e.g. when



Picture1. Strategy based management

Competency management (picture 2) can be examined from the point of view knowledge mapping, and competency evaluation and development.



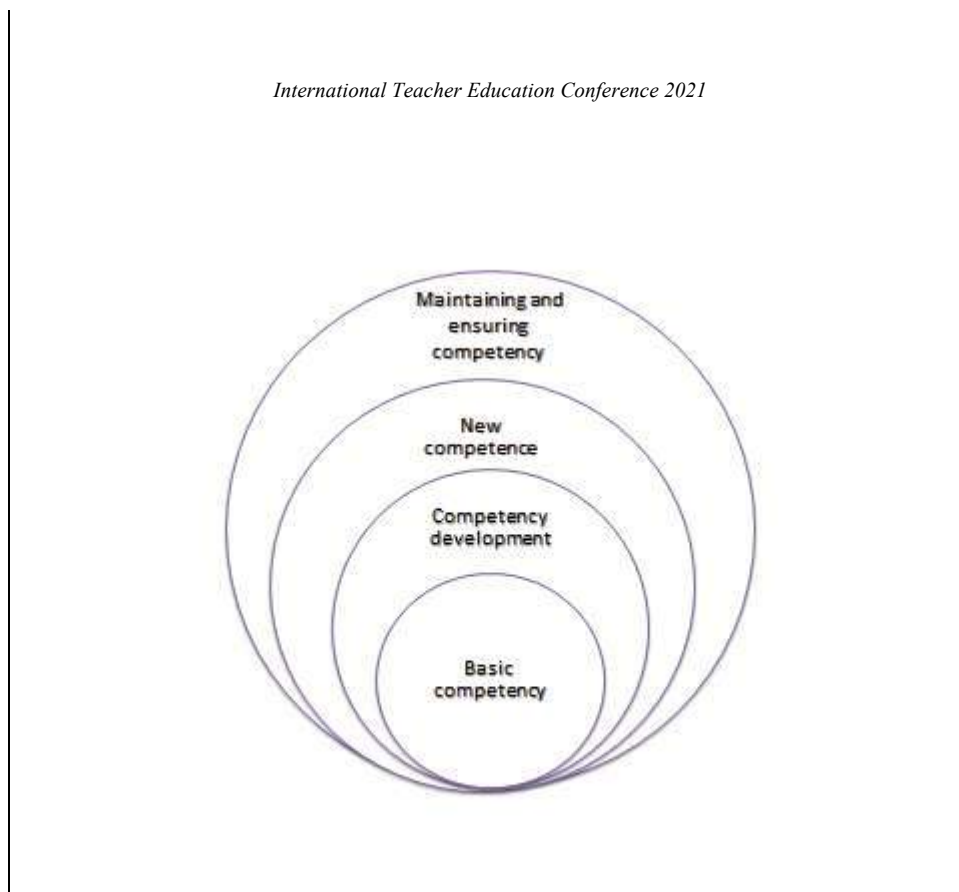
Picture 2. Competency management

According to Stalk, Evans and Shulman (1992) a successful university is characterized by the following capabilities: 1) meeting the requirements of the environment, 2) satisfying the customers' expectations, 3) seeing the character and requirements of the upcoming needs clearly, 4) adapting to the requirements of versatile environments quickly, 5) innovating and combining the already existing elements to the new ideas. As the operational environment is changing the university must be able to change and update through strategic planning and fresh management policies. A university itself can via its strategy and management systems affect its operational environment (Aaltonen ym. 2004, 79).

COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT

Various options for personnel development

According to Pitkänen (2010) a conventional method of competency development is in-service training, but in reality the major part of competency development occurs at work. In universities there are also other methods of developing personnel competency such as job rotation, self assessment, feedback, mentoring, team work, junior-senior work partners, lectures and seminars, field trips, workshops, safety and continuity, project analyses, career paths, coaching, addressing success, rewarding, and different forms of co-operation (Pitkänen 2010, 68.) Networking (picture 3) can also build up human capital (global management innovation). A supportive environment and motivation are required to form studying activities.



Picture 3. Competency development.

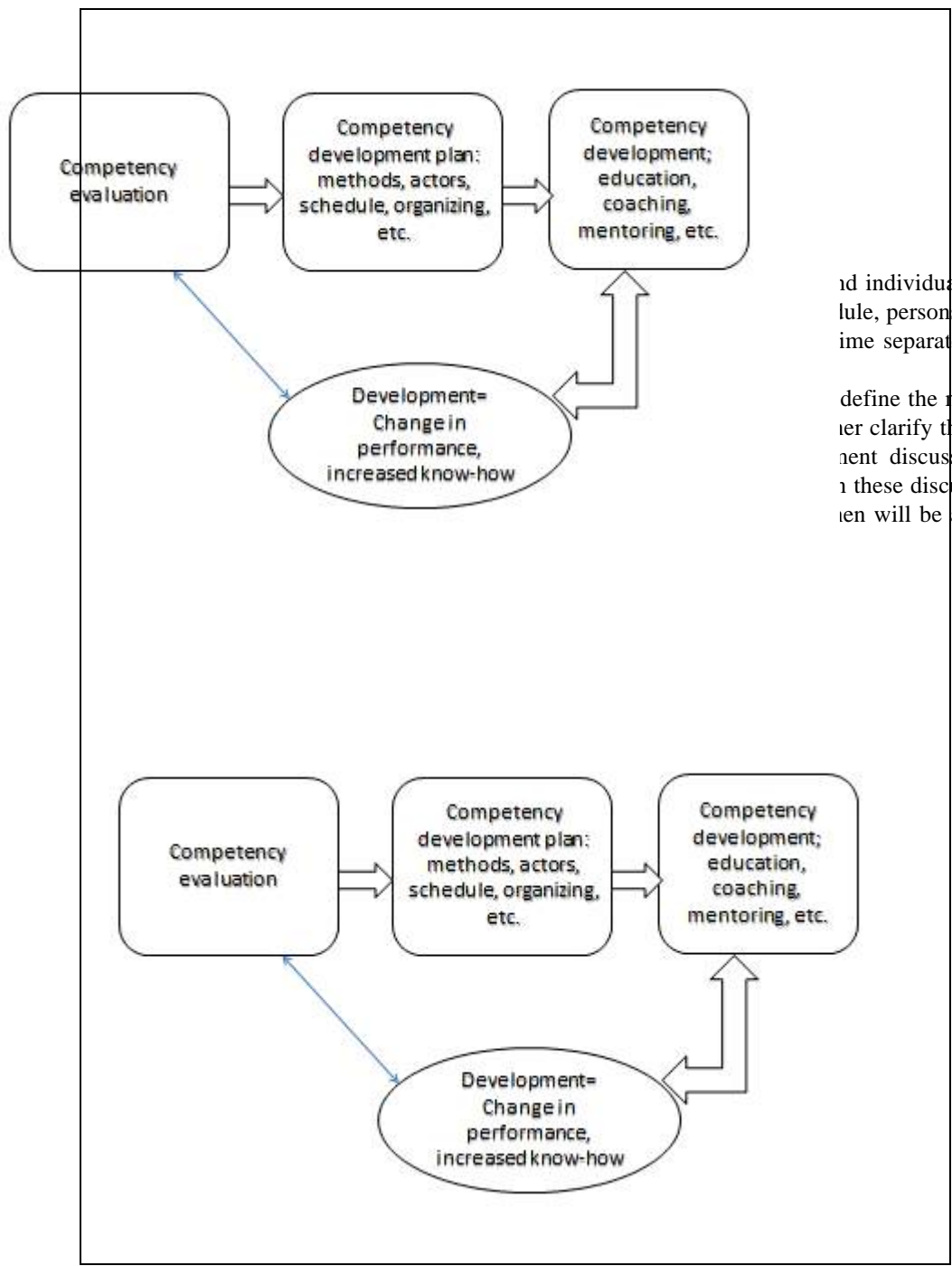
One of the latest development methods is coaching, in which a person's own performance, its functionality and productivity are developed with the help of a coach in a confidential relationship. Coaching process focuses on finding the person's strengths and weaknesses. The coach helps in viewing the performance critically from new perspectives (Virolainen 1020.) Coaching is considered one of the most interesting development methods. A long lasting coaching seems to have a connection with high profitability and self-sufficiency of the organization (Salojärvi 2009, 168-169.)

Heikkinen (2008) in University of Jyväskylä has been working on a new kind of in-service training for teachers: peer mentoring. Peer mentoring means experiential learning and solving the problems involving work together. Peer mentoring rejects the idea of transferring knowledge unidirectionally from the experienced mentor to the beginner. Also experienced teachers can learn from their new graduate colleagues. Heikkinen has perceived peer mentoring to be especially useful for new graduate teachers whom the reality of the school world very often takes by surprise. Teacher training should be a continuum where graduation studies will be articulated to in-service training, Heikkinen suggests.

Development discussions

In a development discussion between a manager and a teacher the past performances are reflected upon future. Work performances are assessed and planned, and proceedings to reach the expected goals are agreed on. Development discussion is a crucial tool for coordination and offers a good possibility for discussing the feedback the teacher has received as well as the competency development. According to Viitala (2010, 13) development discussions are considered to have positive effects on reaching goals, and the maintenance of efficiency and competency of the organization. Development discussion is a practical method in supporting competency development. Employers and managers are responsible for their employees' development, and taking this responsibility is part of their job as a manager. The employees' development can be monitored in development discussions annually or semiannually in order to ensure and regularize this development policy (Lankinen, Miettinen & Sipola 2004, 63.)

Sydänmaanlakka (2002, 63–64) introduces five concrete reasons and objectives for development discussions: 1) evaluating the goals reached, 2) setting goals for the upcoming working period, 3) defining the needs for development and making a personal development plan, 4) developing the co-operation between the manager and the employee, and 5) improving the work atmosphere.



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Picture 5. Competency development process.

From the point of view of a university the objective of competency development is to improve competency, and thus enhance operation and its quality. The requirements for the success of the university are competency development and profitability improvement.

Personnel training and in-service training are traditional methods of improving competency at work.

Orientation

Competency development begins with orientation to person’s employment. In order to do this there should exist an updated orientation guide. Having the guide in e-form facilitates adding new links and removing the old ones. A follow-up form guarantees a proper implementation of orientation. The success and implementation of orientation should be evaluated semiannually, for example.

Individual development plan

Individual development plan includes competency evaluation, information about the competencies needed in the work, and a plan for competency development for the near future.

Competency anticipation

By anticipating competency the organization can prepare itself for changes, ageing, and decline of the personnel. Mere reacting to future challenges is not enough. The organization must have its own vision of best possible performance. Competency anticipation relates to personnel planning. When recruiting teachers the future must be considered. Competency anticipation helps adapting to a rapidly changing working life. Working life and educational organizations must co-operate (Aarnio & Lauttamus 2012.)

RESEARCH EXECUTION

This report introduces a case study since it focuses on one case, i.e. the process of competency management at Vaasa University of Applied Sciences. Questionnaires and discussions have been used for data collection. This case study can be defined as a problem-solving case the object of which is an existing case in its own environment. The researcher collects data on the case (Syrjälä & Numminen 1988, 5). In a case study a certain policy is examined, and the aim is to find useful information that can be implemented into working environment as such (Syrjälä & Numminen 1988, 171.)

On the other hand, this is also an action research since the operations of this university have been observed for several years. An action research aims at producing new information and developing the operation of the organization. A certain existing situation can initiate the research; the objective is to solve the current problems (Syrjälä & Numminen 1988, 50.) An action research focuses on producing useful information people can exploit in to their performances (Reason & Bradbury 2001, 2).

The data for this case study was collected by using an electronic questionnaire. In addition, creating a knowledge map was discussed by the directors of unit and vice principals in order to standardize the proficiency areas. An e-questionnaire is usually easy to deal with and analyze. The chosen concepts and alternative options may reflect the ideas of researcher more than those of the respondents (cf. Hirsjärvi & Hurme 1991, 29.) The questionnaire should be extremely unambiguous and comprehensible both for the respondents and the researcher. An advantage of this kind of survey is that it enables gathering an extensive research material, and multiple different questions can be asked. The questionnaire being carefully planned, the material can efficiently be processed to a saved file format and analyzed with the help of computers. The schedule and budget can be estimated fairly accurately (Hirsjärvi, Remes & Sajavaara 2010, 195.)

A questionnaire neither allows individual thinking nor expressing oneself linguistically or emotionally if there are only multiple choice questions in it. Thus also open questions have been included in the questionnaire for the respondents to clarify their answers. The advantage of open questions is that they allow the respondents to express themselves. By analyzing open questions it is possible to recognize factors relating to motivation and respondents' frame of reference (Foddy 1995, 128.)

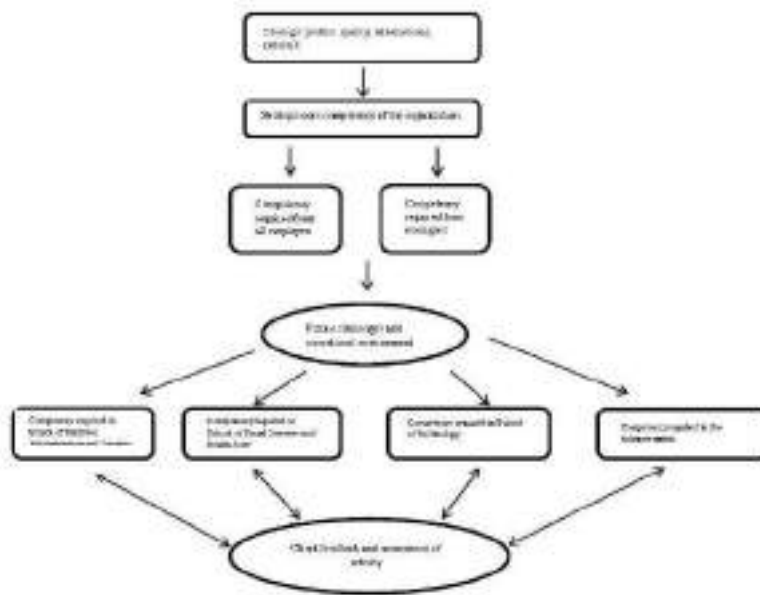
The material was collected with an e-questionnaire and it was transferred to excel. The answers were clarified via discussions and e-mail. Large respondent counts were reported as percentages and small respondent counts, e.g. questionnaires for managers, as frequencies. Knowledge mapping was conducted with a similar questionnaire form during two sequential years. The answers are employees' self-assessments and not necessarily reliable, since people can interpret concepts differently. Participating in personnel training is pure statistics and the topics different each year.

Research focus. Theory and practice integrate in the research focus. The aim is to provide information about the knowledge map, competency, and competency management. The basics for competency management are brought up in the practical context.

1. Formulating a knowledge map for VAMK
2. Knowledge mapping and competency development of VAMK personnel
3. Formulating development plan for VAMK personnel
4. Emphasizing competency management

VAMK KNOWLEDGE MAP

The formulating of VAMK knowledge map began with defining the structure of the knowledge map which is connected with the organization structure. VAMK knowledge map, in which the managers were allowed to define what competencies are required in VAMK, was formulated in spring 2013. Based on the vision, strategy, and areas of emphasis a knowledge map consisting of competencies required for the vision to be accomplished was formulated. The knowledge map will have to be updated according to the changes in society and working life, as well as the changes in VAMK operations, i.e. when new competencies are required. On the basis of the knowledge map new knowledge mappings are implemented. New proceedings for developing the organization in accordance with the observed competency deficits are organized.



Picture 4. The structure of VAMK knowledge map

KNOWLEDGE MAPPING

Defining teacher competency.

Apart from substance knowledge teacher competency consists of teaching skills and other skills required for work in a work community. Society and generations change which means that teachers will have to develop their teaching skills accordingly.

Koehler and Mishra (2008) have described the elements of good teaching: 1) Content 2) Pedagogy –3) Technology 4) Context. Vaasa University of Applied Sciences has accepted the following goals for teacher competency development:

1. Good substance knowledge =knowledge and skills up-to-date
2. Use of learner-centered, activating teaching methods which enables the student to add new information into the previous knowledge structure and the subject matter to be learnt is saved in the long-term memory
3. Use of various teaching methods suitable for the subject matter and the student group (e.g. projects) = RD integration
4. Giving concrete examples of the subject matter to enhance student understanding
5. Ability to differentiate the teaching according to the student group
6. Guiding the students' autonomous work
7. Mastery of educational technology
8. Use of various assessment methods in assessing the learning outcomes (knowledge, skills, attitudes)
9. Use of different assessment methods suitable for different types of learners
10. Giving the students various possibilities to complete studies and graduate within the standard time
11. Co-operation with the working life =regional influence
12. Ability to dimension the study unit in accordance with the student's work load : 1 cr = 27 hours of an average student
13. Co-operation with other teachers to avoid overlapping in teaching
14. Giving the assessment of the performances and entering the grades into Winha within the agreed time
15. Use of various assessment methods for AHOT and giving the assessment of the performances within the agreed time
16. Complying with the instructions of pedagogical activities approved at VAMK
17. Considering the feedback from the students on the study units when planning and implementing teaching
18. Active participation personnel training (VAMKs own training and EduLab) as agreed in the appraisal discussions
19. All learning material is available for the students on Moodle. The objective is that the student's energy is not directed to copying the teacher's texts
20. Networking

Knowledge mapping at VAMK.

The competencies of VAMK personnel were surveyed twice with a similar questionnaire at VAMK in spring 2012 and 2013. These surveys were conducted before defining VAMK knowledge map. The basis for the questions in the survey was the competency criteria in current job advertisements, and the competency criteria at levels 6 and 7 in EQF (European Qualification Framework) required from university graduates. The surveys included an inquiry for the whole personnel about common competency, for the managers about manager competency, and for the teachers about their pedagogic competency. Teacher competency consists of substance knowledge but also of teaching skills and other skills needed in the work community. Society and generations change which means that teachers will have to develop their teaching skills accordingly.

Pedagogic competency. VAMK teachers were asked to evaluate their pedagogic competency from the point of view of substance knowledge, ICT skills, and teaching methods supporting learning process. There are about 150 teachers at VAMK of whom 93 participated in the survey in 2012 and 110 in 2013. The weaknesses concerned especially the knowledge of business life and mastery of video conferencing, as well as project and process-based teaching. 65 in-service trainings have been organized for VAMK personnel from autumn 2010 to spring 2013 of which 6 have been language training, 21 ACT training, 14 trainings concerning teaching, and 4 internationality.

Feedback on the study unit. At universities students give verbal feedback on teaching. The feedback covers the following areas:

- 1) The acquired knowledge with regard to the learning objectives.
- 2) The work load during the study unit measured in working hours.
- 3) Learning methods and environment used during the study unit.
- 4) Positive things during the study unit
- 5) Things to improve
- 6) Any other comments to the teacher

The teacher receives the feedback and it will be processed with the manager in development discussions. The teacher is expected to consider the given feedback when planning the study units.

COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT AND MANAGEMENT

Development discussions. The managers at VAMK have development discussions with the teachers every spring, i.e. once a year. The development discussions are based on a questionnaire filled in beforehand. The discussions concern topics such as evaluation, the upcoming work, objectives and expectations, development plans, etc. The manager will also receive feedback on the management.

Development plan for teachers. A development plan is made for teachers on the basis of the knowledge map as well as student and manager feedback. The teachers evaluate their pedagogical competency with regard to the objectives in pedagogic operations on scale 1-5 (novice - expert). In addition to this they define the objectives of their pedagogic competency, methods of development, and the schedule for development together with the manager. Reaching the objectives will be monitored and evaluated in the following development discussion.

Personnel program and orientation. VAMK personnel program provides information about work community, competency, and management development. In addition to this the objectives for development and operations program have been made for the following year. The Unit of Education formulated an orientation guidebook for VAMK during spring 2013. It is in electronic form and includes electronic links. The orientation guidebook includes statutes concerning orientation, an information packet for a new employee, information about VAMK telecommunications, and instructions for the teaching personnel. Attached to the orientation guidebook is an orientation form to enable monitoring the orientation process. The manager is always responsible for the orientation of the employees.

Instructions for the teaching personnel are updated annually. The teachers have a possibility for additional information or discussion on operations program. The aim is to achieve coherent knowledge and skills on pedagogic program, study unit descriptions, AHOT instructions, accepting credits, guidelines for final thesis and assessment.

SUMMARY

Nowadays every organization requires ICT skills and communication and language skills. Teachers' pedagogical skills are important at universities since school dropouts, graduating within standard time and employment are key factors in current financial model. Teachers' pedagogic skills also have a significant influence on the advance of student's studies. Pedagogic skills and substance knowledge need constant updating since society becomes more IT oriented and international, and students are more demanding than earlier.

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Audiovisual Materials and Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract

Audiovisual devices such as satellite and conventional televisions can offer easy access to authentic programs which are considered to be a rich sources of language input for SLA. The immediacy of various audiovisual programs ensures that language learners' exposure is up-to-date and embedded in the real world of native speakers. In the same line, in the present paper, some anecdotal as well as experimental studies conducted to highlight the pedagogical values of various audiovisual programs such as news broadcasts, movies, cartoons, series and documentary films are reviewed. The related literature indicates that most of the studies are anecdotal which highlight the pedagogical values of various audiovisual programs as sources of authentic language input particularly English as a foreign language context where access to social interaction in English as a potential source of language input is limited. As a result, teachers are encouraged to expose the language learners to various audiovisual programs to enhance second language acquisition.

Keywords. Audiovisual programs; language input; second language acquisition

Sources of language input in EFL/ESL contexts

Various sources of language input are available in English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts. Before the discussion on the sources of language input in EFL and ESL contexts is put forth, the concepts of ESL and EFL contexts need to be elaborated.

An ESL context is an environment where English language is spoken in society as the official language or the medium of communication among people from different countries. In fact, English language plays an institutional and social role in the community in an ESL context (Ellis, 2008). According to Ellis (2008), in an ESL context, English language functions as a means of communication among members who speak various languages. In contrast, an EFL context refers to an environment where English language is not the primary or secondary language spoken. Indeed, English is considered as a foreign language rather than a *second* language and the use is limited to language classrooms (Freed, 1995). In EFL contexts, English language has no major role in society and is learnt in the classroom setting (Ellis, 2008).

Back to the discussion on the available sources of language input in EFL/ESL contexts, it should be mentioned that in ESL contexts, people can have interaction with other people from different countries using the English language. English is then considered as a source of language input which can facilitate and pave the way for SLA (Gass, 1997). The social interaction in ESL contexts is one of the authentic sources of language input which can help language learners acquire the language in informal settings.

This has been emphasized by Long's (1996) Interaction Hypothesis in which conversational interaction enhances SLA. Accordingly, negotiation of meaning which triggers interactional adjustments by the native speakers or more proficient interlocutors in social interaction can contribute to SLA. In contrast, in an EFL contexts social interaction as a source of language input in an informal language learning setting is lacking. English is not used as a medium of communication or for other purposes in society in the EFL contexts. Indeed, the use of English language is mainly limited to formal settings at universities, language institutes or language classrooms. As a matter of fact, in EFL contexts, limited usage of English language can only be observed when language learners use English language in interactions with their instructors and their peers.

In short, examples of learning the language in informal setting include learners' interaction with native or non-native speakers in the target language country or a country where English is the second language. Besides,

learners' use of different technologies at home or at work via watching a movie or listening to music or song which provide appropriate language input is considered as another example of language learning in informal settings (Lightbown & Spada, 2001).

In a nutshell, by viewing, for example, a movie or listening to a song, language learners indirectly get involved in the language learning process when they try to understand the movie or the song by using different language learning strategies (Pemberton, Fallahkhair & Mosthoff, 2004). The various types of audiovisual programs are considered to be authentic language materials which have the potential to provide the necessary language input for SLA in informal setting by indirectly involving the language learners in the language learning process (Pemberton et al., 2004).

Authentic language input

Using authentic language input through authentic materials in foreign/second language learning has a long history. In relation to the concept of authentic language input, Nunan (1999) described authentic language materials as written or spoken language materials that have been produced in real communication. In fact, these spoken or written language materials are not specifically produced for the very purpose of language teaching. Nunan (1999) further highlights the assumption that authentic language input can be extracted from various sources such as news, movies, singing shows, series, and comedies, recorded conversations, meetings, and newspapers. Gilmore (2007) also defined authentic language input as the language conveying a real message produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience. In short, the point can be concluded that authentic materials that are not initially made for language teaching purposes extracted from various print or audiovisual sources which may have the potential to be utilized for language learning purposes.

Audiovisual programs as authentic language input and language learning

Audiovisual news as pedagogically valuable and rich source of authentic language input utilized for language learning has been the focus of many studies since the 1970s (Baker, 1996; Beach & Somerholter, 1997; Bell, 2003; Berber, 1997; Blachford, 1973; Brinton & Gaskill, 1987; Mackenzie, 1997; Poon, 1992).

Almost four decades ago, audiovisual news was anecdotally considered to be a rich source of vocabulary input because the recycling feature of the vocabularies can help language learners build their lexicon (Blachford, 1973). A few years later, Brinton and Gaskill (1987) provided empirical evidence to support the effectiveness of listening to audiovisual news programs on enhancing EFL/ESL language learners' listening skill. The study was carried out in Germany as an EFL context and in the United States of America as an ESL context. During the six-month research period, audiovisual news broadcasts were incorporated in advance EFL/ESL classes once a week. During the study, the 11-15 minute videotaped news materials were prepared for use in both classrooms following a transcript aimed at facilitating comprehension. Subsequently, an English-English gloss of difficult vocabulary items including the definitions and some sentences related to the context in which they would appear in the broadcast were also prepared. Some follow up listening comprehension questions were also prepared to be answered by the students. The results of the study revealed that ESL participants outperformed the EFL ones. Brinton and Gaskill (1987) highlighted the point that EFL learners' insignificant improvement in listening skill might be related to their insufficient amount of exposure to audiovisual news. Classroom materials which were used in that particular EFL context to enhance listening comprehension were not sufficient enough to help the language learners cope with rapid speech. According to Brinton and Gaskill (1987), exposure to audiovisual news language input has the potential to improve the listening skill because different newscasts bring reality into the classroom and enable the students to focus on substantive issues. Additionally, because of the recycling feature of vocabulary in different audiovisual news, EFL/ESL language learners become more familiar with many contextualized vocabulary items during a long period of exposure. Without providing any supportive empirical evidence, Brinton and Gaskill (1987) claimed that by listening to audiovisual news, language learners can enhance other language skills. In the 90s, similar studies empowered by quantitative data also focused on using audiovisual news as a type of authentic language material to improve listening skill (Baker, 1996; Cauldwell; 1996; Poon, 1992).

To go further, the possibility of using audiovisual news reports as language input for lower proficiency levels of EFL/ESL learning has been the focus of a research conducted by Mackenzie (1997). The study was conducted at Simul Academy in Japan. Mackenzie (1997) rejected the idea that the newscasters speak very fast, the content

is very multifaceted, the vocabulary is very difficult, and audiovisual news cannot be integrated into low basic levels of language learning situations. As a matter of fact, Mackenzie (1997) highlighted the point that with the careful selection of audiovisual news items and applying some simple techniques, news reports can be used even at elementary or intermediate levels. According to the study, the selection of the content of the news reports should depend mainly on the language learners' interest and background knowledge because they feel more comfortable listening to familiar content. In the same line, Bell (2003) considered content schemata, formal schemata, and linguistic difficulty as three criteria for selecting any types of audiovisual news for EFL classrooms. A similar study was also conducted by Wetzel et al. (1994). However, these studies were also anecdotal and pedagogical in nature.

In short, the review of the literature on the use of audiovisual news as a source of authentic language input for SLA reveals that most of the studies were descriptive and examined the pedagogical value, the possibility of using news at all levels of language learning, and the selection criteria without empirical evidence.

Movies is another type of audiovisual programs which have long been regarded as an important resource for foreign language instructors because it is an authentic source of material (Kaiser, 2011). The spoken language of movies often includes various types of speeches such as the speeches of various educational levels, the speeches of children and non-native speakers, slang and jargon, rural and urban speeches, and a range of regional dialects that language learners will encounter in the target language country (Kaiser, 2011). In fact, movies provide language learners with multi-sensory input that is close to what they will likely find and encounter in the real world communication (Arcario, 1993).

The review of the qualitative studies regarding the integration of movies as a source of authentic language input for language learning is limited. For example, a study was conducted by Yuksel (2009) focusing on the effectiveness of viewing captioned movie clip on EFL learners' vocabulary enhancement. The research was carried out with 120 language learners in a preparatory class. The participants were randomly divided into two groups. Before the treatment, the participants in both groups took a sample 20-item vocabulary knowledge scale pre-test. During the study, the participants of group one were exposed to some movie clips with captions while the participants of the second group were exposed to the same movie clips without captions. One month after the treatment, both groups were given another vocabulary knowledge scale test with 20 words as a post-test. The results obtained from the pre-post tests of both groups revealed that both groups demonstrated significant gains. In fact, viewing the movie clips reinforced the expansion of the vocabulary knowledge of the language learners regardless of the presence or the absence of captions (Yuksel, 2009). According to Yuksel (2009), the development in the vocabulary knowledge stems from the importance of encountering the vocabularies in the real context. In fact, incidental vocabulary learning can be facilitated through contextual cues. Accordingly, teachers are encouraged to utilize movies as authentic sources of materials to support learners' vocabulary learning instead of only explaining the vocabularies in an isolated manner (Yuksel, 2009).

The effect of exposure to movies with and without subtitles on listening comprehension improvement has also been the focus of a research conducted by Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) on. The study was carried out with 90 intermediate language learners who were randomly divided into three groups of 30 participants at an Islamic Azad University in Iran. During the study which lasted for 6 weeks, group one was exposed to some segments of various movies with English subtitle, group two was exposed to the same segments of the same movies without subtitle, and group three was exposed to the same segments of the same movies with Persian subtitle. At the end of the study, a multiple-choice comprehension test was given to all the three groups to measure their listening comprehension development and provide grounds for comparison. The results of the study were indicative of the fact that the English subtitles group performed significantly much better than the Persian subtitles group and the no subtitle group on the listening comprehension test.

More particularly, the results proved that exposure to movies with English subtitles helped intermediate students in EFL context to develop their listening comprehension significantly. According to Hayati and Mohmedi (2011), for low and intermediate language learners, watching a movie with the first language subtitle is beneficial for the better comprehension of the film because low and intermediate level language learners may have limited range of vocabulary items. On the other hand, intermediate and advance levels language learners may have little problem in understanding the movies without subtitles because their proficiency level is higher.

Cartoons have been widely used as one of the teaching authentic audiovisual materials in language learning classes. The pedagogical value of cartoons as an authentic source of language input has been the focus of limited number of studies (Clark, 2000; Doring, 2002; Rule & Ague, 2005).

Cartoons are also considered as excellent teaching tools because they not only add humor to a topic but also illustrate the idea in a memorable way. In an anecdotal study conducted by Clark (2000), it was highlighted that cartoons can engage the attention of the learners and present information in a non-threatening atmosphere. Besides, cartoons have the potential to reinforce thinking processes and discussion skills (Clark, 2000). Another study was carried out by Doing (2002) focusing on the effect of exposure to cartoons on language learning. The results of a study were indicative of the fact that the language learners who had exposure to cartoons could produce oral answers that were very proactive and interesting in different discussions held in the classes. Moreover, the discussions were rich and the students had high confidence. It seems that the high confidence that the language learners acquire is due to exposure to cartoons which create low affective filter atmosphere for learning.

Rule and Ague (2005) also conducted a study providing evidence of the students' preferences to use cartoons in language learning. Similar to singing shows, cartoons are preferred because they create low affective filter atmosphere which causes a high degree of motivation. The high confidence and motivation achieved through exposure to cartoons is claimed to enhance the memory of the language learners when they try to make a connection between the new materials and the prior knowledge through analogy in a comfortable atmosphere (Rule & Ague, 2005). Without providing empirical evidence, Rule and Ague (2005) also claimed that students who use cartoons can improve different language skills and achieve higher test scores. However, Rule and Ague (2005) did not specify which language skill(s) can be improved through the use of cartoons. The evidence thus far points to cartoons as a source of authentic language input which may prove effective in developing different language skills of differentiated language proficiency language learners.

Series, as a type of authentic source of language input to be employed in language classrooms, has not captured the attention of many researchers. As an exception, Chiu (2006) highlights the use of comedy to enrich language learners' vocabulary based on his own experiences of using comedy in a college course of reading and vocabulary in Taiwan which lasted for one academic semester. For every two-hour reading course, the instructor played one episode of a sample comedy. While watching, each student was required to pick up as many words as he/she wanted to learn from the show. After the end of the show, the students were asked to volunteer to list on the board the vocabulary words they picked from the show. Then, the instructor selected ten words from the list of the words on the board to be discussed according to their meanings in the context of the situation comedy.

Conclusion

Considering the fact that SLA simply cannot take place without having exposure to a sort of language input, various audiovisual programs brought by different technologies have the potential to provide the necessary language input for SLA development particularly in EFL contexts where social interaction as a source of language input does not exist or is limited. In short, wide arrays of audiovisual programs are available as authentic sources of language input for SLA in EFL and ESL contexts. What is concluded from the related studies can be summarized in the following four parts: the claims made by the studies conducted regarding the pedagogical values of the use of various authentic audiovisual programs to provide the necessary language input for SLA are mostly anecdotal, most of the studies have investigated the psychological aspects of various audiovisual programs. For example, cartoons, movies, and singing shows can enhance language learning through creating low affective filter atmosphere, the related studies have mostly investigated the formal language learning setting. Indeed, informal language learning setting which has a great potential for SLA has not been investigated.

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Principles of Museum Educational Programmes for Students. An Application Example

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Abstract

Museum – educational science is an extremely interesting area, especially for the modern museum aspect. Through its educational role, museum wishes to succeed in both, the communicational and enjoyable character. In addition, museum is a place that attracts the modern school's interest that seeks alternative ways of learning. The museum educational programs are organized to prepare students for the cultural wealth of the world around them. Using experiential learning these programs are designed to offer students a total interactive experience, knowledge, moreover, self-knowledge, but also a deep connection with these cultural institutions. The students may be the future museum audience. Specifically, a school museum visit are designed in order to connect the lesson of Modern Literature (mainly for High School- C Grade) with the paintings of the National Gallery of Athens - Corfu Brunch (K. Korakiana). The activities that we are propose, have variety in content and degree of difficulty and some times start from paintings and other times from literary works that include to the school curriculum. Are designed a series of worksheets to connect more effectively the theory and practice and revealing, through the final evaluation of the program, the value of museum education for the museum visitor.

Keywords. Museum - educational programs, interactive experience, school visits, Modern Literature, School Curriculum, activities, worksheets.

INTRODUCTION

One of the primary goals of any society is to realize the educational role to young people. The 20th century was marked by particularly intense pedagogical considerations on the theoretical level. Education topics and child psychology issues, were found at the scene, within and outside the academic community, but despite discussions, the practical implementation of the agreed innovation was relatively poor because the society of the last century was not so imperative (Spathari - Begliti : 214). The modern face of changing world of Information Society introduces us to a new era of overturns and requirements, some of which seek to be accomplished at school. Beyond the productive wealth of a country, the school must have the role to prepare young people for the cultural wealth. At this point fits the usefulness and appropriateness of the museum association with the school, as an alternative place of learning and educational function. The field of Museum Education, first appeared as a novelty, but then evolved into a necessity and finally understood area of interest (Chatzinikolaou 2002: 101).

Typically, Newsom and Silver, concerning the United States, said that all institutions in a country that is not schools , and who are not paid to be schools, museums are the most appropriate to try to educate young people (Black 2009 : 198). Already in 1946 Unesco founded the International Council of Museums (ICOM) made the first attempt to define the concept of the museum. The educational role of a museum is closely interwoven with the other functions of this cultural organization (study and entertainment). ICOM (International Council of Museums) gave the predominant museum definition, in 1974, in Copenhagen, according to which museum is called a permanent non-profit organization, open to the public, submissive in the service of society and of its development which acquires, conserves, studies communicates and exhibits material evidence of man and his environment in order to study, education and entertainment (Economou 2003:16). The latter definition of the term "museum" in 2007 by ICOM, not only adds the parameter of preserving intangible cultural heritage of humanity, outside of the material, but puts the educational purpose of the museum over the role of study and entertainment (retrieved from <http://icom.museum/definition.html> , 15 January, 2014). Museum Education, could be termed as the "public advocate ", the representation of human being in the educational process (Nikonanou 2005 : 18).

METHODOLOGY - THEORIES OF LEARNING - PROCEDURES

This study is interested in museum educational program creation, exposing issues of methodology and design. It also aims to describe, in depth, educational activities that take place in museum, having students as focus group and proposed to be implemented by schools towards enriching education courses through the educational use of material culture. Training activities categorization based on the existence of common characteristics (e.g. purpose, procedure).

In this paper will be analyzed a program that links the school curriculum with a gallery space and specifically Gallery of K. Korakiana (Corfu Island of Greece). Criteria for this choice were the fact that both, painting and visual arts are presented as an area of art quite approachable and popular among young people. Furthermore, had to be taken in to account the possibilities of choose in Corfu and the possibilities to connect the contents of a local museum space with school's formal curriculum. Moreover, this gallery is a branch of the National Gallery of Athens, the most important museum in Greece. Greek art measuring 110 years presence in contribution, preservation and exhibition of cultural heritage. The branch of the National Gallery in K. Korakiana, housed in two buildings, Kastellino and Kastleto, which were auxiliary buildings of the historic hotel, Castello (formerly Villa Mimpeli created with the restoration of a medieval tower). The surrounding area is of outstanding natural beauty and access to the Gallery is easy with ample parking and spacious outdoor concentration of visitor groups.

Literature and web research were used for the purpose of presenting the principles of a museum educational program's design. Moreover, similar programs in galleries were studied. For the activities of the students used the empirical method, inductive and productive method while utilized and applied learning theories according to them student discover his own knowledge (discovering method of Bruner). Also, through teamwork method, social characteristics of each student are taking always into account (social-cultural theories of Vygotsky). Apart from all the above, the constructivist teaching model were used. Constructivism wants man capable manufactures personal knowledge and considers this process inevitable. Additionally, Bourdieu's theories about "cultivated pleasure" and enjoyment of works of art were utilized: "Things that we like, it is only those whose meaning we understand". Whatever model of learning is used, it is necessary to connect the artifacts with visitor's personal and relevant experience. This is the only road to ensure accessibility of the target group (Economou 2003: 68 , 89). As an example is referred the exhibition "Stories Power", organized in 2001 by the Whitworth Art Gallery in Manchester, in collaboration with an artist from Nigeria, exposed and projects from schools in the area. Finally, interdisciplinary, experiential method and interaction are keystones in the design processes of this study.

BACKGROUND

On the one hand, museum, itself, wants to educate young people, on the other hand, teachers themselves attracted to the museum to enrich their school courses, but, mainly, because of the value of material objects for learning. This tendency of the school to approach museums will become more dominant than early 20th century and will be expressed through the development of museum education. An example is the case of the Deutsche Museum in Munich, in 1904, which was designed, from the very beginning, as a museum with predominantly educational character. The aim of the overall exhibition and presentation of educational programs, says G. Kerschensteiner, educator and partner to Deutsche Museum, a museum would act as a "laboratory" for students, as a hidden curriculum, "with the objects themselves, and not the shadow of objects, as to school textbooks "(Nikonanou 2009: 41). A common museums' goal are educational activities for pupils, training seminars for teachers and teaching material. Noteworthy is the creation of a special committee of ICOM with the subject "Education and Cultural Action in museums" ("Education and Cultural Action" - CECA) which significantly promoted the interests of museum education. The International Committee of CECA is the largest and most active of all the committees of ICOM. The proceedings of the meetings organized around the world, captured in books to inform people.

Already, since 1983, is founded the Greek Section of ICOM, which contributed decisively to the development of museum educational programs. Greek museums, organize programs, seminars for teachers and provide supportive educational material starting from the 80s (Chortarea 2002: 180) and especially during the last two decades with relevant publications and educational activities of the Ministry of Culture (Ministry of Culture 2002). For example the program MELINA-Education and Culture (1995), regional seminars on "Museum-School" (the 1st in Argolida, the 2nd Dion, the 3rd in Patras in 1993, 4th in Ioannina in 1994, the 5th in

Kalamata in 1997 and 6th in 2002 in Kavala, et al. (Chatzinikolaou 2002: 105). Benaki museum, in Athens, since 1978, is using similar programs (Chalkia 2002: 297). Benaki museum, in collaboration with Museum of Greek Children's Art in Athens, participate in the international program for the museum education, called turbinegeneration.

Communication and education are roles that often cannot be separated in the modern view of the museum. Today, emphasis is placed on educational programs, especially for schools, and this is the reason that many believe in students lies the solution to the problem of reduced visitation to museums.

CONDITIONS FOR CREATING A MUSEUM EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The cooperation between museum and school is an essential issue when target group is student. The special educational programs of the museum must provide school teachers with any information or educational material museum has, to start preparing the program. Museum, in contact with school, aims to improve the services provided in terms of adapting the program to the specific characteristics and interests of the group, to "see" the possibilities of connection with the exhibits and with the curriculum of a particular school grade. This point has a meaningful evaluation for the program (Chalkias 2002: 299). Normally, the creation of educational programs should be integrated in the process of construction of the museum, in its physical dimension, and the "setting" of collections.

The program manager is beneficial to have in mind the form of the new museum visit seeking modern audience that has more need to live an "experience" in the museum as a result of the successful synthesis of the personal dimension of visitor – student, his social dimension and the physical dimension of space, according to the model of the interactive experience of Falk and Dierking (Economou 2003: 84). It has been shown that team members participating in the program, they need to communicate, collaborate, entertain into the museum, as an alternative form of output, not only learning (" learning fun ») (Black 2009: 205). Moreover, the visit to the museum is not only a socially important activity, but also an opportunity for social interaction among visitors, friends or strangers (Galanis 2006: 9) .

Museum educational programs adopt learning models that give freedom to the visitor and seek the active participation of such experimental learning, following the sentence "learn by doing". The museum is an appropriate area for blended learning theories. According to the view of constructivism, the role of the curator of the museum is limited to provide opportunities for visitors to work interactively and to "build " their own meanings (Black 2009: 178-179).

PRINCIPLES OF CREATION A MUSEUM EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME

Each museum educational program, conducted through three stages: before the visit (preparation stage), during the visit (main stage) after the visit (control stage of knowledge and experience and evaluation of the program). During the visit to the museum can implement the five principles of the Nuffield Schools in Great Britain (Black 2009: 209).

- ü Questions: learning through discovery related questions and answers.
- ü Challenges: encourage children to persist, to assume, to combine, to discuss, to understand.
- ü Occupancy and economy sources: a few, well-selected authentic sources.
- ü Depth: depth study in order to attain true knowledge.
- ü Accessibility: prefer activities that are accessible to children and use them as a basis for the sequel.

First we define the focus group for which prepared the program. This program for Gallery of K. Korakiana aimed at C grade students in High School. Then, we define the theme and key messages and connect the content of the Gallery, in this case, with school curriculum. This program will attempt to investigate the connection of the course of Greek Literature and Poetry with the paintings of the Gallery. Will discuss about Ionian School in painting, School of Athens, the effect of Munich School, about movement of realism and the painting with scenes of everyday life. The theme is backed by goals which are inseparably connected with the age of the participants, their cognitive level, past experiences or not in museums, interests, abilities and any peculiarities. Teacher's information about qualitative and quantitative composition of students group, will increase the chances of success of the program.

Also we define the schedule. This program designed to cover a school year (annual plan). We define the learning models of our choice, taking into account not only the fact that not all students learn in the same way,

but also the fact that the museum offers a combination of learning theories. Besides, the museum allows multiple interpretations and does not promote one absolute truth. Regarding the artworks, these have the particularity of being redefined and 'change', although the physical dimensions remain constant, because "consumed", each time, by a different observer - visitor (Fillis 2004: 127). This "freedom" in interpretation and communication with a painting, is an advantage for a museum educational program.

Then we collect the existing educational material and prepare the new, aiming to create a complex experience based on the widest possible variety of instruments to interdisciplinary and interactivity. Today, in general, the use of technology and interactive websites of museums can encourage active participation (such as to put the visitors in the role of the archaeologist in a virtual excavation on a computer screen) (Economou 2003: 85). Particularly young people fascinate games, playing roles, observation, participation in workshops, competitions, treasure hunts, art activities, audiovisual experiences, virtual tour and computer games, "dip" in the representation of history. The visitors 'go out' of themselves and become, for a while, part of the story (eg warriors in the past). Children play in specific rooms of the museum (use sounds and pictures) (Kotler & Kotler 2008: 27).

Gallery has two CD-ROM, one relevant with Greek landscape and the second with a virtual tour of the National Gallery of Athens. This material was used in the preparation of students before the visit to the museum. Also was used the Gallery's book with pictures of the paintings and a range of specialized workbooks (separate notebook for student-teacher). Generally, educational materials must comply with following principles: to be friendly to the user, based on original material, not copyrighted in order for educational use (Black 2009: 216).

The duration of the activities should not discourage or tired the participant. For this reason, we give attention to the number of activities and the number of students in each group (depending on the age and the difficulty of actions). The number of groups can vary from 5 to 10 children and considered that there should be no more than six activities for each group. Calculating the indicative time of 15-20 minutes for completion of each activity, the total planned time of creative activities during the visit should not exceed two hours. For students, the overall objective is to "enjoy" visit, without resentment or difficulty to cope with the demands of the actions requested by them. These actions will be appropriately selected and aligned with the interests and the abilities of this group. We avoid reprimands and encourage students. Pestalozzi says that a teacher must be simply assistant to his student (Kalouri 1998 : 48).

We utilize all the possibilities of the museum as a physical space. People visiting the museum are prompted not only for the collections but also for the architectural environment in which paintings are exhibited (Kotler & Kotler & Kotler 2008: 28). Regarding the interior space of the museum, students must have an 'easy' run and places for rest. Other practical issues that should be solved by the leaders of the museum educational program is safety of students, easy access, good services at the ticket office, library, museum shop, restaurant, toilets, parking. When visitors feel comfortable in the environment of the museum, they enjoy better their visit and this point is an advantage for the whole project (Economou 2003: 87). Behavior of frontline staff (the workers at the museum who come into first contact with visitors) contributes decisively to the program, affecting, positively or negatively. To the end, program is evaluated by all stakeholders (museum, teachers, students, and the state).

SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES AND WORKSHEETS FOR THE BRANCH OF THE NATIONAL GALLERY OF GREECE, IN CORFU

Division into groups

Student create groups (4-5 people), in the space of the Gallery playing game of blind man's buff. A visit to the museum is not only a socially important activity, but also an opportunity for social interaction among visitors, friends or strangers (Galanis 2006: 9). It is an opportunity for the students themselves to improve their social status among their peers. Each group can choose a name. This fact will unify them as a group and will create a greater sense of cooperativeness.

Selection Criteria. Categorization

The criteria by which selected the proposed activities were basically covered all learning goals associated with the project title ("The painting conversing with poetry and literature in Greek art of the 19th and early 20th century") through thematic variety (paintings with different themes and artistic currents of the time). On the

other hand, the hierarchical order of activities was centered thinking to keep both, undiminished interest of students and the degree of their concentration in the program. For this reason, in the second part, preferring activities in style of the game looking for a winner even without requiring less effort or having less value as a learning process .

The activities will be presented, categorized as follows:

Group A: Easy, descriptive activities, first contact

Group B: Creative writing and literature - direct connection with the painting (from the painting led to the text or vice versa, from a given text, we try to discover the artwork). The text can be set in a framework of literature that has studied from the students or to be studied at school soon. This text might have been written by the students themselves. The quickest student and the most correct wins (learning through play and without presupposed knowledge of art).

C group: Discovery games of specific paintings as "race" with the election of the winning team. The teams will define the rules of the game and put obstacles in the «opponents " in finding the correct answer.

Group D: Game fantasy and role play, creating short dramatic scenes from the students themselves (performance of " language" of colors with communication through words. (What happened before, what after that students see in a painting - performance of feeling and thoughts that stimulate by the painting Children create lively dialogues - empathy and internal penetration in the project).

Group comparisons: compare paintings in the same or different theme.

Group activities A: paintings description

General purpose

In this type of business the principal purpose is to bring students into first contact with the works of the gallery, tour the hall trying to identify paintings and painters, to feel comfortable and familiar with the area. In this scope, contributes the workers in the museum.

Links to the group - description

The activity can be adjusted according to the paintings we choose, for students of C grade in secondary school or of A grade in high school. If it is the first time that student come to contact with works of art, it is advisable to select paintings that relate to familiar images. This Gallery exhibits works and landscapes of Corfu, but also images of nature consistent with the natural landscape of the island. Generally, in the room, downstairs, exhibit works from the early periods of Modern Painting, like Ionian School, School of Munich (eg Lytras, Gyzis: painters) works of early landscape painting and portraiture , paintings with scenes of everyday life, paintings with historical and religious themes.

In this first group of activities may include two worksheets. First, it will be purely declaratory character. Students simply walk and discover, for example, titles from specific paintings, recording two to three names of painters and portraits. Children can connect eg Ionian School in painting, with Ionian School in literature (Kalvos , Solomos etc). The first worksheet is preferred to be individual, and all the rest, are addressed in each group.

The second activity is linked to a new worksheet, more demanding this time, seeking to increase the degree of concentration and prompts personal view of each student. Each group has a different task to describe.

As an example description works for the first contact with the Gallery states:

The Corfu fortress after 1848, by Francesco Pitze (link to literary works that are referenced in historical monuments : eg Hymn to Parthenon by K. Palamas , The patriot by A. Kalvos and The Amateur by I. Polyas.

Expected results

Specifically, at first , the purpose is to direct the viewer - student to " know " through a quick look at the works (first activity) and then (second activity) , to ' read ' deeper the painting that has been given, by terms of technical characteristics of visual art (eg contour , colors , shading, or naturalness of posture and psychological burden on forms when it comes to portrait) and finally to comment the content of the painting. Through the specific questions of the second worksheet, we aim to ' keep ' the student as a spectator for a while. The ideal thing is to direct student without depriving his thought, his imagination and the ability to express a personal opinion. We desire the connection with Modern Literature school course, sometimes more loosely and freely and sometimes more directly. At this point preparation at school is necessary.

Generally, the first group of activities leverages the knowledge of students, trying to connect their personal experiences and “images” with the Gallery and seeks the exercise of their observation.

Recommended time: 15 - 20 minutes

Links to other activities

These first descriptive attempts of young visitors can be combined with any activity of the second group (creative writing) or fourth (descriptions by creating theatrical images: fantasy games).

Group activities B: Creative Writing

General purpose

Students can understand that visual arts, in this case, poetry and literature, are different kinds of art, language expression and communication with different media.

Links to the group - description

Specific activities preferred portraits or paintings with scenes of everyday life, especially if in the first activities group we choose landscapes (second worksheet). The reason is that the description of persons and roles - characters or scenes can easily be connected to literary works in school curriculum. Students are accustomed to analyze human types and "see" behind the paintings.

At the first worksheet, we give a ready description (external or internal) and we ask children to connect this description with paintings. At the second worksheet, we request the opposite: to stand forth in a portrait or a painting scene and produce their own text. They'll try to describe both, the appearance of the depicted persons and their feelings or even their character if they can.

Examples connection with textbook includes:

1. Mayday in Corfu (C. Pahlis) to describe the scene with style and vocabulary of Karkavitsas or Xenopoulos (are writers) .
2. Daughter's head (P. Gyzis – a painter): connection with the beggar by Karkavitsas
3. After the Memorial (N. Gyzis) : Connection to: Oblivion by Mavilis / Voices by Cavafis (poet)
4. Portrait of Corfiot lawyer named Donatos Dimoulitsas (By M. Tsokos) : A form and substance of Xenopoulos
5. Given text in writing style of Xenopoulos: association with: George Pyrran , harbormaster of Zakynthos (N. Koutouzis, painter) .

Expected results

From these activities, we expect students to develop both, analytical and synthetic thinking. On the first worksheet, is deliberately more playful style, invites students to discover what the painting is. In the second activity of this group, student attempt to communicate with the paintings. This procedure makes the child creative.

Recommended time: 20 minutes

Group activities C: Exploration games through a " race ."

General purpose

The overall goal of this group of activities is to activate most of the students, applying the method of “entertaining learning”, thus renewing the interest of children for both, paintings and the overall experience of visiting the museum.

Connection with the team and description

Through its past activities, students, from one hand, have been in close to contact with several paintings and feel comfortable in the place of museum, on the other hand, is the right time for something different that will relax them, and stimulate their attention but lacks in learning power. A " racing " is a very popular game for the children and develops the competition and the collaborative spirit, motivates feelings satisfaction. It also stimulates confidence and creates a pleasant climate. Thus, from this perspective, these activities are close in temperament and interests of students, escaping from traditional ways of learning and contributing to the success of the experience of the whole visit.

In this category of activities, all teams have the same tests on their hands in order to compete on equal terms. Otherwise, the tests can be called "missions" having nominally more playful style. The word "mission" is used today (there are courses through computer known as Web Quest lessons). In each group, share a friendly, small musical instrument. Every team use this instrument when has a ready answer. Each correct answer gives points to the team and every mistake, removes points. Other rules of the game can be defined and addressed by each teacher and suggestions from students themselves, before the visit, to be aware of what comes next in the museum, to have the whole process and the element of surprise. Speeds are required and also spirit of collaboration, readiness and seriousness on the part of students to achieve the correct answer. The types of tests - missions under proposed are as follows:

" Race Speed : find it and won ! "

1. We give teams an enlarged view of a detail of a painting, and ask them to find the title of the painting. Select paintings to 'cover ' a cognitive space in which do not address previous activities, such as the existence of the eastern element (Orientalism) in some paintings.

Examples: Little negro by N. Lytras , Arab soldier courtship by Th.Rallis . We can connect with the Harem By G. Vizyinos (writer).

2. We give some words - keys and ask them to ' discover ' the painting. If we want to make this test more interesting, we can invite students to find a hidden piece of a painting to fill a puzzle. Generally, we may ask the title of a painting or the name of a painter.

3. We offer students a ready script, a contract according to which are invited to discover the protagonist of the story are given.

Example: They look for the " perpetrator " of slaps (The first cop By I. Rallis) , through information given to them , which will lead to a portrait of a male figure exhibiting in the gallery .

Proposed paintings: The first cop by Th.Rallis (link to First remembrances by P. Delta, a writer) .

The sailor who smokes by L. Ransom (connection T'agnantema by A. Papadiamandis, a writer)

George Pyrran, harbormaster of Zakynthos by Koutouzis (painter)

4. We give students the picture of a painting that is not in the gallery and ask them to find the artist. We can help with some in formations.

Recommended time: 15 minutes

Links to other activities

These activities can be combined with the second group of activities, creative writing (from text driven to visual work) and the comparison group. You may presuppose some missions, cooperation among groups and the sharing of points. (Eg a group finds " offers " on the other , the hidden element that needs to " discover " the table) .

Activities of creation theatrical scenes

General purpose

Students after the " race " feel more psychologically liberated. It is believed that it will be able to cope with theatrical game that introduces students in acting ability and in expression of their imagination.

Connect with the team and description

In schools we often observe that students are reluctant to speak out and take part in a school concert or a school theater, especially students from the last classes. However, most people, when given the opportunity to engage in such a process enjoy it and add a pleasant experience into the baggage of memories. We give the groups separately (maybe every two groups) some instructions, contracts, and some paintings of the Gallery (1-3). They are required to develop a monologue, a dialogue or a theatrical scene, inspired by the paintings. Children will distribute the roles. So, a member of the team can help them in creating dialogue, and others to interpret. This activity is not necessary to connect to a specific text book of Literature, but with an artistic movement or style of a writer or poet. What exactly teacher, depends on the composition of his team. The teacher knows better than anyone what are students skills and basics of their character.

Expected results

We expect student enjoy the " dip " in the entire process , developing a deeper relationship with these works of the Gallery that will give them and learning about literary movements. In addition, we aim to introduce the student to the world of the art of painting and involved them with it (critics, buyers, sellers etc.). In this way, the art market is connecting with real life. Through this step, we will achieve even the biggest "bonding" between the members of each group creating an atmosphere truly artistic.

Recommended time: 15 - 20 minutes

Links to other activities

Can be combined with the second group or with activities of comparison

Comparison activities

Main purpose

To develop the synthetic and analytical thinking, sharpen their observation, broaden their knowledge.

Links to other activities

This type of activity will not be analyzed separately, simply because it can be incorporated into any of the preceding groups as an activity with a greater degree of difficulty.

Suggested comparisons:

Girl by G. Avlivos - head of his daughter Gyzis .

Daughter's head by Gyzis - literary texts are proposed in which the girl of the painting portrait could be heroine. Any portrait can connect with a framework of school literary book. We give 2-3 portraits and a particular literary text. Students must choose three paintings to depict the story of literary text and to match paintings with the atmosphere of the text.

Another way is to give students an excerpt from a literary work and ask them to choose some paintings to ' illustrate ' it.

CONCLUSIONS

Regarding to education matter, stakeholders, more and more pressingly, are invited to meet the needs of preparing young people for the Information Society which they will become productive members. Abilities such as searching, research and recording of information, organizational and communication skills, management experience and experiential collaborative ability are vital areas of development (Spathari - Begliti : 215) . The shaping of personality is in need of new smooth and deep relationship with cultural property and cultural heritage in general. In these double scopes, collaboration school - museum is necessary. School and museum are factors of learning process, two opposed doors to knowledge (Kakourou - Years: 12) .

Museum education science, exist to serve the goals of modern school that seeks different roads on teaching. Modern museum through its educational role, aims not only to this role, but also to the social and recreational character. Surveys about public museums showed that young visitors, as students, which came in contact with museums , came back to museums as adults.

This program was designed for the branch of the National Gallery of Athens located in K.Korakiana in Corfu Island. The activities were designed based on the general principles of educational programs and concerning about the possibilities offered this Gallery and the needs of the official school program. Activities promote knowledge through experiential teaching and an enjoyable process in a space that is not the traditional classroom. Also aim to succeed communication and entertainment between the members of each group. This program design want to succeed a total interactive experience in the model of Falk and Dierking, combining personal context of each visitor (knowledge, experience) with the social features of each person and museum physical space (Economou 2003: 84) . The activities are easily adaptable to the characteristics of the group will visit the museum and it is not necessary to be used in their entirety turning museum visit into a painful physical and mental process for visitors.

The program give the possibility to teachers and students to evaluate both, the degree of knowledge and the kind of overall experience in the museum, improve the facilities and redefining its position in the local community. Museum educational programs contribute decisively to the creation profiles of a future adult who will know better himself and his cultural identity.

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Ali Tantâvî'nin Makalelerinde Öğretmen ve Öğretim

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Özet

Ali Tantâvî Suriyeli bir edebiyatçı ve hukukçudur. Suriye siyasi ve sosyal tarihinin önemli devirlerine şahitlik eden Tantâvî; Osmanlı, Fransız ve Suriye Arap Cumhuriyeti dönemlerini yaşamıştır. Medrese usulünün yanı sıra modern eğitim alan ilk nesillerden olmuştur. Eğitim hayatında iki farklı yöntemi görmesi ve erken yaşta öğretmenlik mesleğine başlaması onun derin analizler ve eleştiriler yapmasını sağlamıştır. Öğretmenlerinin derste takip ettikleri yöntemin kendisi için çok önemli olduğunu, öğretmeyi öğretmenlerinden öğrendiğini söyleyen Tantâvî'de öğretmenlerinden yola çıkarak oluşturduğu öğretmen profili önemlidir. Bir öğretmen olarak, çocukların psikolojisini göz ardı ederek eğitim verilmesinin eleştirisini yapmıştır. Öğrencilerin beyinlerinin tam olarak kavramadıkları bilgilerle doldurulmasını da şiddetle eleştirmiştir. Öğretmenlerin sınava yönelik olarak dersi şekillendirmesini ve öğrencilerin derslere sınavda kullanacakları daha sonra hafızalarından silecekleri bilgi yığını olarak bakmasını doğru görmemiş ve var olan eğitim sisteminin öğrencileri buna sevk ettiğini söyleyerek sistemi eleştirmiştir. Öğrencilerin, insanın en güzel ve en verimli çağları olan gençlik yıllarında dört duvar arasına hapsedilmesini de eleştirmiş ve daha bireysel daha özgür bir sistemin geliştirilmesi gerektiğini savunmuştur. Özet olarak Geleneksel eğitimin yanı sıra batı eğitimi de alan Tantâvî, iki kültürü de bilen bir şahsiyet olarak eğitim ve öğretimle ilgili önemli ve değerli analizler yapmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler. Ali Tantâvî, Suriye, öğretmen, eğitim, makale, edebiyat.

Giriş

Ali Tantâvî Suriyeli bir edebiyatçı ve hukukçudur. Suriye siyasi ve sosyal tarihinin önemli devirlerine şahitlik eden Tantâvî, medrese usulünün yanı sıra modern eğitim alan ilk nesillerden olmuştur. Suriye, Irak ve Beyrut'ta öğretmenlik yapmıştır. İlkokul, ortaokul, lise ve üniversite dâhil olmak üzere eğitim ve öğretimin tüm aşamalarında görev almıştır. Pek çok gazete ve dergide yazılar yazmış, radyo ve televizyon programları yapmıştır. Hukuk fakültesi mezunu olan Tantâvî avukatlık ve kadılık (hâkimlik) da yapmıştır. Bu çalışmada kısaca Tantâvî'nin hayatına değinildikten sonra ilkokuldan üniversiteye eğitim hayatı, öğretmenliği, eğitim ve öğretimle ilgili değerlendirmeleri ve öğrenci ve öğretmenlere verdiği bazı tavsiyeler ele alınacaktır. Farklı coğrafyalarda ve farklı siyasi ortamlarda öğretmenlik yapan Tantâvî kendi çağında yaşamış olan insanların dertlerini sorun edinmiş ve çözmek için entelektüel bir çaba sarf etmiş nadide kişiliklerdendir.

Hayatı

1909 -1999 yılları arasında yaşamış olan Tantâvî, soyadından da anlaşıldığı gibi aslen Tantalıdır. Dedesi h. 1255 yılında Mısır'ın Tantâ kentinden Dimeşk'a göç etmiştir. Babası Mustafa et-Tantâvî'dir. Şam'ın sayılı âlimlerinden olan babası, fikhî pek çok meselede mahkemelerde danışmanlık yapmıştır. Bunun yanı sıra özel bir okulda müdürlük de yapmıştır. Annesinin ailesi de Şam'ın âlim ailelerinden olan Ali Tantâvî'nin dayısı Muhibbuddin el-Hatib Mısır'da yaşamış ve "el-Fetih" ve "ez-Zehra" gazetelerinin kuruluşunda etkin bir rol oynamıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 133; Tantâvî, 1989: II, 107).

Ali et-Tantâvî, temyiz yaşına girdiğinden beri etrafında babasının öğrencilerini gördüğünü onların okulda gördüğü öğrencilerden farklı olduklarını, derslerinin farklı olduğunu, anlamasa bile sürekli olarak onların derslerini dinlediğini, böylece eğitiminin sonuna kadar bırakmadığı medrese eğitiminin de başladığını ve ilk hocasının da babası olduğunu söylemektedir. Babasının öğrencileri ile olan derslerinde onlara hizmet ederken pek çok kitabın ismini öğrendiğini de eklemektedir. Medrese eğitimi ve modern eğitimi beraber alan Tantâvî bu şekilde eğitim gören ilk kuşağa mensuptur (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 71; Tantâvî, 1989: II, 112; Tantâvî, 1989: 5).

İlkokula Osmanlı'nın Suriye hakimiyeti döneminde babasının müdürlük yaptığı özel okulda başlamıştır. Daha sonra Çakmaklı özel okuluna ve bir devlet okuluna devam etmiş, liseyi ve ortaokulu da o zamanlar Dimeşk'teki

tek lise olan Anber okulunda okumuştur. 1928'de mezun olduğu bu liseden övgü ile bahsetmiş ve kendisini çok etkileyen 6 yılı burada geçirdiğini anlatmıştır. Babasının erken ölümü sebebi ile kardeşleri ile ilgilenmek ve annesine yardım etmek için çalışmaya başlamış; muhasebeci, esnaf, gazeteci ve öğretmenlik gibi farklı işlerle uğraşmıştır. Eğitimine ara vermiş ama esnaf olamayacağını anladıktan sonra tekrar okula dönmüştür (Tantâvî, 1989: II, 112-114). Liseden sonra Mısır'a gitmiş ve Dimeşk'ten Mısır'a giden ilk öğrenci grubunun başkanlığını yapmıştır. Orada bir yıl kaldıktan sonra geri dönmüştür. Bu süre zarfında Ezher ile ilgili düşüncelerinde hayal kırıklığına uğradığını ve Dâr'ul Ulûm'a başlamaya karar verdiğini söylemektedir. Suriye'ye dönünce hukuk fakültesine başlamış ve 1933'te buradan mezun olmuştur. Üniversite hayatında Mısır'da gördüğü halk hareketlerinde ve direnişinde aktif olan öğrenci konseyini örnek alarak Suriye Yüksek Talebe Konseyi'ni kurmuş ve üç yıl başkanlığını yapmıştır. Bu konsey Suriye'nin Fransız işgaline karşı direnişinin liderliğini yaparak pek çok gösteri ve protesto yapmıştır. 1931'de yapılan sahte seçimin iptalinde de bu konsey rol almıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 241- 256; Tantâvî, 1996: 78; Tantâvî, 2009: 206).

İlk makalesini 16 yaşında 1926'da yazan ve bir dergide yayınlayan Tantâvî daha sonra pek çok dergide yazılar yazmaya başlamıştır. 1926'da Mısır'da, dayısı Muhibbuddin el-Fatih'in "el-Fetih" ve "ez-Zehra" dergilerinde; Şam'da edebiyatçı Arnavut ve "Fetâ el-Arab" dergisinde; Yusuf İsa ile "Elif Be" dergisinde "el-Eyyam" dergisinde; Mekke'de "el-Hac" dergisi ve "el-Medine" gazetesinde yazılar yazmış; beş yıl boyunca da anılarını "eş-Şark el-Evsat" dergisinde yayınlamış ve daha pek çok dergide makaleler yazmıştır. Ali Tantâvî'nin en çok sevdiği iş gazetecilikti; ama eğitim onun en çok zaman harcadığı işti. Çünkü bu işe 17-18 yaşında daha lisedeyken başladığını söylemektedir (Memûn, 2001: 14- 16).

el-Eyyam dergisi kapatıldıktan sonra 1931-1935 yılları arasında öğretmenlik yapmıştır. Bir taraftan Fransız ihtilali ile mücadele ettiğinden, bu yıllar onun için çok zorlu geçmiş ve pek çok yere sürülmüştür. 1940 yılı sonlarında Tantâvî yargı kurumuna geçmiş ve kadılığa başlamıştır. Suriye'de dini eğitimle, medeni kanunla, fetva verme kanunları ve yüksek fetva kurulunun kurulması ile ilgili çalışmalar yapmıştır. 1963'te Arabistan'a gidene kadar fiilen bu göreve devam etmiştir. Resmen ise 1966 yılı ortalarında ayrılmıştır. Bu göreve başlamadan önce minberden, okullardan insanlara hitap ettiğini ama yargıya girince insanlarla daha içli dışlı olduğunu ve daha önce görmediği pek çok şeyi gördüğünü söylemektedir (Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 43- 44; Memûn, 2001: 16- 25).

1963'te Riyad'da Arap Dili Bölümü ve İlahiyat Fakültelerinde; Mekke'de İlahiyat Fakültesinde çalışmış ve emekliliğe kadar burada devam etmiştir. Sonrasında tamamen basın yayına yönelmiştir. Arabistan'da yaptığı TV ve radyo programları çokça ilgi görmüştür. Tiyatro ve çocuk edebiyatı alanında yazmış, okul kitapları ve hikâye kitapları yazmasının yanı sıra tahkik alanında da çalışmalar yapmıştır. Pek çok sempozyuma katılarak İslam âleminin problemleri ve Filistin meselesi ile ilgilenmiştir. İslam hukuku alanına fetvaları ile katkı yapmıştır. İslam-Arap kültürü ve çağdaş kültürü barındıran makaleler yazmıştır (Memûn, 2001: 26- 30).

Tantâvî'nin hayatta iken yazdığı pek çok eserinin yanı sıra torunu, onun vefatından sonra gazete ve dergilerde yayınlanmış yazılarını toplayarak oluşturduğu pek çok kitabı vardır. Anılarını anlattığı "Zikreyât" adlı eseri, "Kıyas minel-Hayat", "Kıyas minet-Târîh", "Rical minet-Târîh", "Suver ve Havâtır", "Fiker ve Mebâhis" en önemlilerindedir. Ali Tantâvî hakkında pek çok akademik çalışma yapılmıştır. Bunlar arasında, "Ali Tantâvî ve Modern Arap Nesrinin Gelişimine Katkısı" başlıklı doktora tezi, "Ali et-Tantâvî'nin Eğitimle İlgili Görüşleri", "Ali Tantâvî'nin Zikreyâtı" adlı yüksek lisans tezleri zikredilebilir. 1999 yılında vefat eden Tantâvî hakkında halen yapılmaya devam eden pek çok çalışma vardır (el-Elmâî, 2000: 269).

Eğitim Hayatı

İlkokul ve Lise Yılları

Ali Tantâvî'nin eğitime başladığı yıllarda Suriye'de okullar özel okullar, devlet okulları ve Hristiyanlara ait okullar olmak üzere üç çeşitti. Tantâvî genelde Müslüman kesimin tercih ettiği ve İslamî vakıf ve derneklerin kurduğu okullarda okudu. İlköğretime, babasının müdürlüğünü yaptığı ana okuldan liseye kadar süren 12 yıllık bir eğitimi içeren "İttihat ve Terakki Mektebi İdâdîsi"nde başlamıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 29). Bu okula başlamadan önce mahalle camilerine bağlı olup küttâb olarak isimlendirilen, Kur'an-ı Kerim ve hattın yanı sıra basit matematik işlemleri de öğreten ve yalnızca isteyen ailelerin çocuklarını gönderdiği zorunlu olmayan kursa gitmiştir (Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 99). Tantâvî, dört yaşlarında iken yaşadığı bu tecrübeyi anlatırken üzerinden çok uzun zaman geçmesine rağmen kalbi titreyerek hatırladığını ve onlarca çocuğun bulunduğu küf kokulu odada eli sopalı hocayı korku ile andığını söylemektedir (Tantâvî, 2001: VI, 240- 242).

İlkokul tecrübesine geri dönecek olursak; onun beşinci sınıfa kadar babasının müdürlük yaptığı okulun ilk yıllarının zorlu geçtiği ve hocasının tavırları sebebi ile çok aktif bir öğrenci olmadığı görülür. Bu yılları

anlatırken kendilerine alfabe yazma ödevi veren hocalarının ödevleri tamamladıklarında kendilerinden ödevleri silip tekrar başlamalarını istediğini, lavabo ihtiyacı dışında dışarı çıkmalarına da izin vermediğini belirtmektedir. Dışarı çıkmak için yalan söyleyen arkadaşlarını anlatırken bu tavrı ile öğrencilere yalanı öğreten hocasını eleştirmektedir. Eğitim hayatım ve hocalarım bu şekilde devam etseydi bana ait tek bir makale dahi okuyamazdınız, diyerek öğretmenlerin öğrenci üzerindeki etkisine vurgu yapmaktadır. Tantâvî, daha sonra derslerine giren genç bir hocanın olumlu tavırları sayesinde kendine güvenmeye başladığını söyler (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 29-32). Osmanlı hakimiyetinin son yıllarında devam ettiği bu okulda Türk hocalarının olduğunu, Türkçe okuduklarını ve Arapça yazdıklarını söyler. Bu bilgilerden Tantâvî'nin Osmanlıca öğrendiği anlaşılmaktadır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 52; Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 28-29).

Osmanlı hâkimiyetinin sona ermesi ile kapanan bu okulun öğrencileri diğer okullara dağıtılmış Tantâvî de el-Mekteb el-Sultanî'ye başlamıştır. Eğitim politikası ve yöntemi farklı olduğu için Tantâvî beşinci sınıfı tekrar okumak zorunda kalmıştır. Bir sene sonra sınıftan bir arkadaşı ile fasih Arapça konuştuğu için arkadaşlarının dalga geçmesi sebebi ile Çakmakıyye medresesine geçmiştir (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 57- 63; Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 30-32).

Tantâvî bu dönemi anlatırken “12 yaşına kadar Türk, Arap ve İngiliz yönetimlerine şahitlik ettim, sırada Fransız yönetimi var.” diyerek özel hayatının ülkesinin siyasi tarihi gibi karışık ve olaylı geçtiğini ifade etmektedir (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 66). Şeyh İ'd es-Sefercelenî'nin kurduğu bu özel okulda babası da bir dönem hocalık yapmıştır. Muallimüş-Şam olarak bilinen Şeyh İ'd, Tantâvî'nin üzerinde çok etkili olmuştur. Tantâvî bu hocadan ders almadığı halde odasına gidip onu dinlediğini, onun sözlerinin kendisinde çok büyük bir etki bıraktığını söylemiştir. Tantâvî bu okulda Mahmud el-Akkad, Salih et-Tunusî ve Şeyh el-Kafî gibi hocalardan ders almıştır. El-Kafî okul dışında da klasik yöntemle ona ders vermeye devam etmiş ve pek çok metin ezberletmiştir. (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 66- 80, Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 30- 32)

Fransız işgalinin başladığı dönemde, ailesinin yaşadığı yeri değiştirmesi sebebiyle Ali Tantâvî tekrar okul değiştirmiş ve Muhâcirîn okulunda beşinci sınıfı tekrar okumaya başlamıştır. Tantâvî bu yılları anlatırken nicelik olarak 3 yıl kaybettiğini ama nitelik olarak çok şey kazandığını, ilmi açıdan çok bereketli 3 yıl geçirdiğini söyler. Altı yılın sonunda yazılı sınavdan sonra bir komisyonun önünde sözlü sınava tabi tutularak alınan ilkökul diploması ile 14 yaşında buradan mezun olmuştur. Tantâvî bu komisyon tarafından düzenlenen sınavı, hocaların kendi bilgileri ve birbirileri ile yarıştığı küçük öğrencilerin korkulu rüyası olarak tarif eder (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 85-86).

Tantâvî bugün pek çok üniversite öğrencisinin bile okuyamadığı “el-Eğânî”, “el-Mustatraf”, “el-Keşkül” gibi eserleri okul dışındaki zamanlarında okuduğu ve boş zamanlarını babasının kütüphanesini inceleyerek geçirdiği için bu sınavı büyük bir başarı ile geçmiştir. Ortaokul ve lise eğitimine Suriye'deki tek tam lise olan Mektebetül Anber'de başlamıştır. Tantâvî altı yılını geçirdiği bu okulu ömrünün en verimli yılları olarak tanımlar. Bu okulda dönemin en ileri gelen edebiyatçılarından olan Şeyh el-Mübarek el-Cezâirî'den, Selim el-Cündî'den, Abdurrahman Selam'dan ders almıştır. “Ta'rifu'l-âmm bi dîni'l-İslâm” kitabının başında lisede ve medresede ders aldığı hocalarının isimlerini ayrıntılı bir şekilde vermiştir (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 95- 101, 191- 198).

Selim el-Cündî'yi, babası gibi sevdiğini ifade ederek öğretmenine çok büyük bir sevgi beslediğini, ondan hiç ayrılmadığını sınıf içinde de dışında da sorular sorup ondan istifade etmeye çalıştığını söyler. Tantâvî lisede iken çok sosyal olmayan ve derslere düşkün bir öğrenci olmuştur. Bu yönünün sekizinci sınıfta tüm okulun İngiliz bakan Belfor'un ziyaretini protesto amacıyla okula gelmediği gün okula gidip okulda hiç kimsenin olmadığını gördüğünü söyler. Aynı öğrenci birkaç yıl sonra Fransız bir görevlinin emirlerine uymadıkları için okuldan uzaklaştırılan arkadaşlarına destek için tüm okulun öğrencilerinin dersleri protesto etmesine sebep olmuştur. Milli eğitim bakanının sözleri bile onun ve arkadaşlarının geri adım atmasını sağlayamamıştır. Öğrenciler okuldan ayrılıp çarşıda halkın desteği ile protesto dalgasını büyütülmüştür. Bu olayın ardından Tantâvî gözaltına alınıp tek kişilik bir hücrede hapsedilmiştir. O gün en önde olmanın kendisine vereceği zararların farkına varan Tantâvî bu olaydan sonra hiçbir olaya liderlik etmediğini insanların hutbelerinde ve makalelerinden etkilenip galeyana geldiklerini ama kendisinin buna önderlik etmediğini söyler (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 156, 167, 171).

Tantâvî'nin okul yıllarında bile çok etkili bir hatip olduğunu gösteren bu olay okuduğu lisenin ve ders aldığı hocaların eğitiminde ne kadar etkili olduklarını göstermektedir. Lise eğitimi sırasında Emevi Cami'nin okula yakın olmasından faydalanan Tantâvî camide ki ders halkalarına da iştirak ederek modern eğitimin yanı sıra klasik eğitimi de sürdürmüştür (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 75).

Üniversite Yılları

Ali Tantâvî, liseyi bitirmeden kız kardeşi ile Mısır'a gidip iki ay kalmış ve tanıştığı hocalardan ve düşünürlerden çok etkilenmiştir. Dr. Abdurrahman Azzam ve Seyyid Kutub tanıştığı insanlar arasındadır. Liseyi bitirdikten sonra da Mısır'a gidip üniversite eğitimini orada tamamlamak için Edebiyat Fakültesi dekanı Taha

Hüseyin'e evraklarını sunmuştur. Basın yayın alanında çalışan dayısı Muhibbuddin el-Hatib ve Taha Hüseyin, cahiliye şiiiri ile ilgili yazdığı bir kitap sebebiyle, arasında çıkan gerginlikten ötürü Suriye'ye geri dönmüştür. Üniversite kayıt tarihlerini kaçıran Tantâvî bir sonraki döneme kadar özel okullarda öğretmenlik yapmış ve 1930 yılı sonlarında Hukuk fakültesine başlamıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: I, 241- 264; Tantâvî, 1989: II, 166; Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 37).

Tantâvî üniversite yıllarını anlatırken hocalarını sınıflara ayırır ve bir grubun ansiklopedi gibi çok bilgili kişiler olduklarını söyler. Fâris el-Hûrî, şair Şefik Cubrî, Ebü-l Yüsr Abidin ve Sa'îd Mehâsin bunlardandır. İlk ikisine zikreyatında özel bir bölüm ayırmıştır. Ebü-l Yüsr'un Hanefi fıkında konuşan bir fihrist gibi olduğunu, Mehâsin'in ise Suriye ve Mısır'ın en iyi medeni hukuk avukatı olduğunu söyler. Diğer grubu işini yapan, alim olmayan ama cahil de olmayan insanlar olarak tanımlar. Son olarak da bir kısmının zayıf olduğunu, zayıflıklarını kelimeler ve ifadelerle oynayarak gizlediklerini söyler (Tantâvî, 1989: II, 166- 171).

Öğretmenliği:

Ali Tantâvî eğitimin her aşamasında hocalık yapmıştır. İlkokuldan üniversiteye kadar her kademedeki öğrencilere eğitim vermiştir. Özel okullarda da devlet okullarında da çalışmıştır. İlk olarak on beş yaşında ilkokul dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerine nahiv dersi vermiştir. Kısa bir süre devam eden bu tecrübesinin ardından liseyi bitirdikten sonra hukuk fakültesine başlayana kadar çeşitli okullarda çalışmıştır. 1932 yılında, Suriye'nin Fransız sömürgesinde olduğu yıllarda, devlet okulunda öğretmenlik yapmaya başlamıştır. Yabancı bir yönetime boyun eğme kaygısıyla göreve başlama konusunda mütereddit olsa da halkının ilme ihtiyacını göz önünde bulundurarak başladığı görevine uzun yıllar devam etmiştir (Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 43- 44; Tantâvî, 2007: 171- 172).

Sömürge yönetimini eleştirmesi ve yaptığı konuşmalarla halkı etkilemesi sebebiyle gittiği yerlerden pek çok kez sürülmüştür. Bu sürgünlerin, en çok da ders verdiği öğrencileri etkilediğini; sürgünler yüzünden tam öğrencilere alışmış ve kendisini sevdirmişken onlara en faydalı olacağı zamanda görev yaptığı okulları bırakmak zorunda kaldığını söyleyen Tantâvî, kadılık vazifesine geçene kadar Suriye'nin çeşitli yerlerinde; Bağdat, Basra, Kerkük ve Beyrut'ta hocalık yapmıştır. Kadılığa başladıktan sonra bile bayan öğrencilere öğretmenler enstitüsünde ders vermeye devam etmiştir (Memûn, 2001: 28- 35; Tantâvî, 2001: VI, 257- 265)

Köy okullarında görev yapmış ve bunu yaparken öğrencilerini bakanlığın istediği gibi sınav için değil ahlaklı ve iyi bir Müslüman olmaları için eğittiğini söylemiştir. 1936'da Irak'a gitmiş önce Bağdat'ta merkez lisede, sonra batı bölgesi lisesinde hocalık yapmıştır. Öğretmen Enstitüsü'nde de ders vermiştir. Akabinde Şeriat (İlahiyat) Fakültesine dönüşecek olan İslam Enstitüsünde de ders vermeye başlamıştır. Dürüstlüğü ve cesareti Şam'da olduğu gibi burada da ona sorun çıkarmış ve Kerkük, Basra gibi yerlere sürülmesine sebep olmuştur. Bu süre zarfında Bağdat ve Irak'tan çok etkilenmiş, sonrasında anılarını bir kitapta toplamıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: III, 242- 261; Tantâvî, 2007: 172).

Bağdat'ta lise öğrencilerine ders vermenin mutluluğunu yaşamış ve ilkokul öğrencilerine veremediği bilgileri lise öğrencilerine şehirde sunma imkânı bulmuştur. 1937 yılında Beyrut'ta İlahiyat Fakültesi'nde hocalık yapmasını saymazsak 1939'a kadar Irak'ta kalmış sonra Dimeşk'a dönüp Mektebetül Amber'de hocalık yapmış ama kısa bir süre sonra mevlit kandilinde yaptığı bir konuşmadan dolayı Dîrazûr'a sürülmüştür. Yarıyıl tatilinde Dimeşk'a gitmeden verdiği Cuma hutbesi sebebiyle geri çağırılmış ve zorunlu tatile çıkartılmıştır (Tantâvî, 1989: II,229- 250).

Eğitim ve Öğretime Dair Eleştirileri

Ali Tantâvî, eğitimle ilgili görüşlerini ve tecrübelerini paylaşmasını isteyen bir okuruna cevap verirken bu alanda uzman olmadığını ama uzun yıllar öğretmenlik yapmış olmanın etkisi ile bazı şeyler söyleyebileceğini belirtir. Tantâvî'ye göre eğitim; faydalı alışkanlıkları yerleştirip, zararlı olanlardan vazgeçmektir. İnsanın davranışları alışkanlıklarının toplamıdır. Yaptığı her yeni iş yeni bir alışkanlığın başlangıcıdır. Zamanla ya onu sürdürür ya da ondan vazgeçer. Öğretim ise bilgileri öğrenenlerin zihnine aktarma üslubunu seçmek ve anlatılana anlamasına mani olacak engelleri ortadan kaldırmaktır. Üslubu seçebilmek öğrencinin kapasitesini bilmeyi gerektirir. Eğer öğrenciye kapasitesinin üzerinde bilgi verilirse öğrenci zihnini tamamen kapatır (Tantâvî, 2001: 235).

Tantâvî'nin öğrenciler arasındaki bireysel farklılığı da göz önünde bulundurduğu görülür. Doğru üslubu seçmek için öğrencilerin hazırbulunuşluk düzeyleri ve algı farklılıkları göz ardı edilmemelidir. Ona göre bu farklılıkları dikkate almak öğretmenin de farklı yöntemler kullanmasını gerektirir. Öğrencinin anlamasına engel olacak şeylerden bahsederken bunların öğretmen kaynaklı olabileceğini bu sebeple öğretmenin görünümünde, davranış biçiminde, konuşma tarzında öğrencinin dikkatini dağıtacak şeylerden kaçınması gerektiğini söyler.

Kendi başarısının üç temel sebebi olduğunu dile getirerek her öğretmenin bunlara dikkat etmesi gerektiğini ifade eder. Başarılı olmanın birinci şartı öğrettiği dersi iyi kavramak ve konuya hakim olmaktır. Öğretmen konu ile ilgili tüm kaynaklara bakmalı bir kaynakla yetinmemelidir. Üniversitede öğrencilere tek bir kitap tavsiye etmesi ve tek kaynağa yönlendirmesi ise asla kabul edilemez, bunu yapan üniversite hocası değil ancak ilköğretim hocası olabilir. İkinci şart öğrencilerin konuyu anlaması için her yolu denemesidir. Bir ifade anlaşılmadığında bir başka ifade ile konuyu kavratmayı denemelidir. Son koşul ise doğal olmasıdır. Bilmediği konuda bunu açıkça ifade edebilmeli, hata yaptığında hata yaptığını itiraf edebilmelidir (Tantâvî, 2001: VI, 237).

Tantâvî makalelerinde ve anılarını ele aldığı Zikreyat'ında kendi öğrenciliği ve yaşadığı dönemin öğrencilerini kıyas etmekte ve kendi döneminde öğrencilerin pek çok zorlukla karşılaştığını, pek çok metni ezberlediklerini ve bu metinlerin sadece İslamî ilimlerle ilgili olmayıp fen bilimleri, coğrafya ve Arapça ile ilgili olduklarını söylemektedir. Öğretim yöntemleri daha iyi ve öğretmenler daha yumuşak olmasına rağmen bugün öğrenciler daha zayıftır. Bunun öğrencileri dersten alıkoyacak şeylerin çokluğu ile bağlantılı olduğunu kendisinin çocukken tek eğlencesinin babasının kütüphanesi olduğunu söyler. Bugün öğrenilecek şeyler ve imkânlar daha fazladır ama istek çok daha azdır. (Tantâvî, 2007: 169- 173)

Tantâvî dersleri işlerken teorik kısımların kuru kuru verilmemesini, haccı anlatan bir fıkıh hocasının fotoğraflarla bilgiyi öğrenciye aktarıp hayatla bilginin bağının kurulması gerektiğini söyler. Tantâvî Arapça'nın öğretilmesine ve dilin korunmasına çok önem vermiştir. Kur'ân dili olduğu ve en köklü dillerden birisi olduğu için Arapça önemlidir. O, Arapça konusunda Arapları uyarmakta ve Arapça'nın ihmalinin en temel sebebinin Arapların onu ihmal etmesi olduğunu söylemektedir. Halkı İngilizce ve Fransızca yerine kendi dillerine sahip çıkmaya davet etmektedir. Ayrıca Tantâvî, Arapça derslerinden bahsederken kompozisyon, gramer ve edebiyat dersleriyle ilgili eleştiriler ve öneriler sunmaktadır. Bu bağlamda kompozisyon dersinde öğrencilere bir konunun dayatılmasının doğru olmadığını, konu seçiminin öğrencilerin tercihlerine bırakılması gerektiğini söylemektedir. Konu seçiminin öğretmen tarafından yapılması ve öğretmenlerin bu ders için belirli bir eğitim planı geliştirmemesi, bu derse önem verilmemesine yahut verilen önemin azalmasına sebep olmaktadır. Halbuki kompozisyon dersi dil gelişimi açısından en önemli derslerdendir (Tantâvî, 2007: 171- 177; Tantâvî, 1988: 153).

Eğitimle ilgili eleştirilerini sunarken öğrencilere bir konunun öğretilmeden ezberletilmesini doğru bulmadığını da dile getirir. Örneğin dil eğitiminde yapılması gereken, dil kurallarını ezberletmek değil, dil melekelerini geliştirmektir. Ayrıca o eğitim süresinin on iki yıl olmasını gençlerin en güzel yıllarının işlerine yaramayacak bilgileri öğrenmekle geçirmesini eleştirmektedir. Tantâvî'ye göre ilköğretim ve lise birleştirilmeli, toplam süre yedi yılı geçmemelidir. Bu sürede dil iyi öğretilmeli ve meleke haline gelmesi sağlanmalıdır. Gerektiği kadar matematik, coğrafya, tarih öğretilmeli sonra iki ya da üç yıl üniversite eğitimi alınmasının ardından seçtiği alanda pratik yapıp uzmanlaşmalıdır (Ebu'l-Kasım, 1999: 220- 226).

Tantâvî, öğretmenlerin sözlerinin ve tavırlarının birbirine uygun ve birbiriyle tutarlı olması gerektiğine vurgu yapar. Çünkü bugünün alelade öğrencisi yarının Hasan Bennâ'sı, Mevdûdî'si, Ahmed Şevkî'si olabilir. Öğrencilere örnek teşkil eden öğretmen, söylediği basit bir sözle ya da herhangi bir tavrıyla onlar üzerinde çok büyük bir etki bırakabilir.

Ortaokul ve liseyi okuduğu *Mektebetü Anber* için yazılan kitabın önsözünde orada geçirdiği altı yılın benzersiz olduğunu ve hayatının en önemli yıllarının o zamanlar olduğunu söylerken öğretmenleriyle baba-oğul gibi olduğunu, onları örnek aldığını, fark etmeden onlar gibi konuşmaya başladığını da belirtir. Bu sebeple öğretmenlerin, öğrencilerine karşı örnekliklerini göz ardı etmemeleri gerektiğine temas eder (Tantâvî, 1997: 35).

Öğrencilere Tavsiyeleri

Tantâvî bir arkadaşını ziyarete gittiğinde; arkadaşının oğlunun, renginin sarardığını görür ve hasta olduğunu zannederek durumunu sorar. Arkadaşı sınavlara hazırlandığı için gündüz uyuduğunu gece kalkıp ders çalıştığını söyler. Tantâvî bu duruma çok şaşırır ve şu tavsiyelerde bulunur:

- 1) Sınava gireceğiniz dönemlerde iyi beslenin ve 8 saat uyuyun.
- 2) Başarılı olmanın yolu kendini tanımaktan geçer. Kendinizi tanıyın; işitsel misiniz, görsel misiniz? Bunu bularak işitselseniz sizin gibi bir arkadaşınızla çalışın ve o okurken siz onu dinleyin. Görsel iseniz tek başınıza not tutarak çalışın.
- 3) Programlı çalışın ve programınız tek tip olmasın. Matematik ve geometriden sıkılırsanız edebiyat ve tarihe geçin. Bir işten başka bir işe geçerek değişiklik yapın. Çalışma esnasında önce kitaba hızlıca göz atın, sonra bölüm bölüm okuyarak önemli yerlerin altını çizin özet kısımlarını okularla belirtin. Çalışma bittikten sonra tekrara başlayın, konu konu sınavda sorulmuş gibi kendi kendinize anlatın hatırladığınız yerleri atlayabilirsiniz. Hatırlamadığınızda çizdiğiniz ve işaretlediğiniz yerlere tekrar bakın. Hiç hatırlayamazsanız bölümü tekrar okuyun.

- 4) Korkmayın, kalan zamanı ve çalışmadığınız yerleri düşünüp paniğe kapılmayın. Kalan zamanı iyi planlayın.
- 5) Sınav öncesi tüm konuları hatırlamaya çalışıp panikleme, hepsini hatırlayamamak normal bir durumdur bu bilmediğinizi göstermez.
- 6) Derse çalıştıktan sonra dinlenip farklı bir şey yapın; defalarca, üst üste tekrar yapmak konunun yerleşmesini sağlamaz, karışıklık yaratır.
- 7) Sınav gecesi dinlenin, basit bir roman ya da hikaye okuyun. Arkadaşınızı ziyaret edin. 9- 10 saat uyuyun, unutmaktan korkmayın.
- 8) Sınavın genelde doğru bir ölçüt olduğunu ama bazen yanıldığını unutmayın. Kâğıtlarınızı okuyanların da insan olduğunu göz ardı etmeyin. Rahat bir durumda iken dikkatle, yorgunken yüzeysel okuyacaklardır. Dikkatleri her an aynı olmayacaktır bunu unutmayın. Peki bunun için ne yapılmalıdır? Cevapları güzel bir şekilde yazın; başlıklandırma yapın; gereksiz bilgilerden ve uzatmalardan kaçının. Bildiğinizi belli etmek için istenmeyeni yazıp bilgisizliğinizi ortaya çıkaracak hatalardan uzak durun.

Yapılması gerekenler bunlardan ibaret... Çalışın, üzerinize düşeni yapın, gerisini Allah'a bırakın... (Tantâvî, 1996:133)

Tantâvî 1959 yılında yazdığı bu yazıda öğretmenlik ve öğrencilik tecrübelerinden faydalanarak öğrencilere bunları tavsiye etmektedir. Bu tavsiyelere bakıldığında Tanâvî'nin eğitim ve öğretim hayatında ki tecrübeleri yansıttığı ve pek çok açıdan öğrencileri düşünen ve kendini onların yerine koyabilen bir öğretmen olduğu görülür.

Sonuç

Suriye'de doğan ve yetişen Ali Tantâvî, ülkesinin tarihi için önemli olan pek çok farklı siyasi olaya şahitlik etmiştir. Medrese usulünün yanı sıra modern eğitim de alan Tantâvî ülkesinde hem medrese hem modern eğitim almış ilk nesillerden olmuştur. Eğitim hayatında iki farklı yöntemi görmesi ve sonrasında erken yaşta öğretmenlik mesleğine başlaması tecrübelerini artırmıştır. Eğitimin her kademesinde hocalık yapmıştır. Öğretmenliğinin yanı sıra hem edebiyatçı, hem de hukukçu olarak görebileceğimiz Tantâvî farklı coğrafyalarda farklı görevlerde bulunmuştur. Bu görevden sonra hâkimlik de yapmıştır. Emekliliğinden sonra Arabistan'da, televizyon ve radyo programları ile halkı aydınlatmaya devam etmiştir.

Ali Tantâvî; akademik anlamda da kendisinden çokça istifade edilen, pek çok teze konu olan bir ilim insanıdır. Eğitim ve öğretimde izlenen yöntemleri ve gençlerin zamanlarının boşa tüketilmesini eleştiren Tantâvî gençlere yönelik pek çok makale yazmıştır. Onlara verdiği dini ve ahlaki öğütlerin yanı sıra dersleri ile ilgili tavsiyelerde de bulunmuştur. Öğretmenlere de daha başarılı olmaları için tecrübelerine dayanarak öğütler vermiştir. İnsanın gelişiminde en önemli dönemin ilkokul olduğunu bildiğinden öğretmenlerden özellikle de ilkokul çağında olan öğrencilerine karşı daha dikkatli davranmalarını onlara dürüstlüğü sözlerle değil eylemleri ile öğretmelerini istemiştir. Çünkü ona göre, bugünün öğrencileri yarının ileri gelenleridir, dolayısıyla onlara söylenen küçücük bir cümle, yapılan en ufak bir muamele onlarda büyük ve derin izler yaratabilir. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin derslerde bilgi ile hayatın bağıni kurmalarının gerektiğini telkin eder.

Ali Tantâvî, Arap diline oldukça büyük bir önem atfetmektedir. Arapçanın öğretilmesi ve korunmasını önemsemektedir. Özellikle Kur'an dili ve en köklü dillerden biri olduğu için Arapça onun için önemlidir. Arapçanın korunması konusunda Araplara eleştirilerde bulunmakta; bu dilin ihmal edilmesinin sebebi olarak Arapların onu korumamasını göstermektedir. Halkın diline sahip çıkmasını, ona İngilizce ve Fransızcadan daha fazla önem vermeleri gerektiğini söylemektedir. (Tantâvî, 2009: 83; Tantâvî, 2006: 261).

Ali Tantâvî; öğrenim hayatı, icra ettiği meslekler ve görevler, bulunduğu hizmetler, yazdığı makaleler ve kitaplar, gençlere, öğretmen ve öğrencilere yaptığı tavsiyeler göz önüne alındığında önemli tavsiyeler ve eleştirilerde bulunmuş bir edebiyatçı ve hukukçudur. Geride bıraktığı eserler ve izler dikkate alınmalı ve araştırılmalıdır. Tavsiyeleri eğitim alanında gerek öğretmenler gerekse de ilim talibi öğrenciler tarafından hayata geçirilmedir.

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Assesments on the Status and Future of Map and Cadaster Education in Vocational Schools

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Abstract

As in various countries around the world, technology has been developing in our country and the need for trained and qualified technical staff has been growing in parallel to this development. Maps constitute the groundwork of the planning and project designs conducted in the fields of engineering related to infrastructure. Cadastral mapping technicians play an important role in all the studies conducted in order to obtain these maps. For this reason, it is necessary for cadastral mapping technicians to renew themselves in parallel to these developments. Today, the tools used in the mapping sector are being renewed in parallel with the rapidly changing technological developments and software and hardware are also updated in accordance with this renewal. For this reason, it is necessary to review the mapping education given at vocational schools by taking the current conditions and developments into consideration.

Keywords. Map and cadaster, education , land registry cadaster, cadastral mapping technician

INTRODUCTION:

In Turkey, technician training was first started in a planned manner in 1953. By 1962, the number of technician training schools had reached 26; 22 of which were evening and 4 were day schools. Due to several reasons, technician training programs were ended in 1967 and high technician training programs were ended in 1972. A total of 45 schools (colleges) affiliated to YAYKUR were opened in 1975 and in 1979 the number of technician schools was increased to 59, including 45 vocational schools. In 1982, vocational schools were defined in the Higher Education Law No. 2547 and subordinated to universities. These schools offer education and training under technical programs, economics and administrative programs, health programs and marine programs. Students who graduate from the technical programs of vocational schools are granted the professional title of “technician” and the graduates of social programs are granted the professional title of “professional staff member”. Alongside other factors, it is necessary to employ well-trained and qualified staff to do the work in order to achieve the expected result in any kind of work. This affects all the engineers, technicians and mechanics working in the mapping sector. Unfortunately, the education performed in the mapping sector has never been discussed and examined as a whole or deficiencies and problems have not been identified to create solutions. In solving the problems, it is necessary to discuss the education given at universities together with the education given at high schools. In this study, certain suggestions are provided regarding the current state of “cadastral mapping technician” education, problems encountered in the programs and the solutions to these problems.

MAP AND CADASTER PROGRAMS:

In our country, there are map and cadaster programs offered at 44 vocational schools which are affiliated to 36 universities in various population centers. Some of the programs at these vocational schools also offer evening classes (Table 1).

It is highly important that the cadastral mapping technicians educated at these schools, who will meet the needs of various public institutions, municipalities and the private sector, start their professional lives as qualified individuals. Our colleagues working in the mapping sector are employed not only within the country but also abroad and they have to compete with their colleagues from other countries in the international arena. The only way to be successful in this competition is to have qualified personnel who know their profession well, are highly skilled and have strong practical skills. In fact, our colleagues working in the mapping sector.

Courses and curriculums:

The vocational schools that train cadastral mapping technicians did not change the curriculums of map and cadaster programs for years. Certain partial changes were made in the programs through the Development of Human Resources through Vocational Education Project (IKMEP) in the academic year of 2009-2010. However, there were certain inconsistencies in the distribution of the courses to semesters and in the curriculums because the opinions of experienced academic staff who had taught in these programs for years were not taken when implementing these regulations. Some subjects to be taught were included in the courses given in the first or the second semester without considering whether the students had acquired the necessary background. Besides, the developments in technology should be taken into account and the regulations should be performed accordingly when modifying the courses and determining the syllabuses.

Tools, laboratories and equipment:

Properly equipped computer laboratories and the tools and equipment used in the practices of the sector should be available at educational institutions in order to be able to train the qualified and skilled technicians demanded by the mapping sector. Unfortunately, most mapping and cadaster programs at various vocational schools neither have properly equipped computer laboratories nor are equipped with tools and equipment of the latest technology. Those who have such tools and equipment possess them in very limited numbers. However, the intermediate staff of a profession should have strong practical skills. Therefore, the groups formed for applications need to be composed of a fairly small number of students. This problem can be solved by having adequate numbers of tools and equipment. But under the circumstances, the qualified staff required by the sector equipped with the tools of the latest technology cannot be trained.

Another important point in training cadastral mapping technicians is that the teaching staff of the programs is selected from among geomatics engineers with bachelor's degrees and since these engineers do not have much experience and any pedagogical training, they experience considerable ineptitude especially in their first years. Due to the lack of the required number of teaching staff members, in many schools the existing instructors teach excessive hours and have to teach classes that are not related to their fields, which result in a lack of efficiency. Furthermore, it is necessary for the members of the teaching staff to update their knowledge in parallel with the developments in technology. The necessary staff development studies are not carried out in many vocational schools.

Table1 Available in Turkish Universities Vocational Schools System ,Teaching staff

Name of University	Vocational School	Number of students accepted	Name of University	Vocational School	Number of students accepted
Selçuk Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	40	Celal Bayar Üni.	Köprübaşı VS	50
Atatürk Üni.	Erzurum VS	40	Muğla Sıtkı Koçman	Muğla VS	40
Uludağ Üni.	Gemlik AKVS	30	Mersin Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50
Hacettepe Üni.	Polatlı Tech. BVS	40	Niğde Üni.	Bor VS	50
Erzincan Üni.	Vocational School	50	Celal Bayar Üni.	Sarıgöl VS	40
Uludağ Üni.	İzmit VS	40	Selçuk Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	40
İnönü Üni.	Malatya VS	40	Bülent Ecevit Üni.	Zonguldak VS	50
Yıldız Teknik Üni.	Yıldız VS	40	Afyon Kocatepe	Emirdağ VS	50
KTÜ	Trabzon VS	50	Giresun Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	80
Akdeniz Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50	Afyon Kocatepe	Sandıklı VS	40
Mersin Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50	Sütçü İmam Üni.	Göksun VS	50
Muğla Sıtkı Koçman	Muğla VS	40	Selçuk Üni.	Taşkent VS	35
Süleyman Demirel	VS of Tech. Sciences	60	Artvin Çoruh Üni.	Artvin VS	40
Fırat Üni.	Sivrice VS	50	Tunceli Üni.	Tunceli VS	40
Dokuz Eylül Üni.	İzmir VS	45	Süleyman Demirel	VS of Tech. Sciences	60
Çukurova Üni.	Karaisalı VS	40	Ahi Evran Üni.	Kaman VS	80
Dokuz Eylül Üni.	İzmir VS	45	Atatürk Üni.	Pasinler VS	45
Düzce Üni.	Kaynaşlı VS	35	Sinop Üni.	Boyabat VS	40
19 Mayıs Üni.	Kavak VS	40	Selçuk Üni.	Kadınhanı VS	90
Akdeniz Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50	Süleyman Demirel	Uluborlu VS	60
Harran Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	40	Süleyman Demirel	Uluborlu VS	60
Trakya Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	55	Selçuk Üni.	Hadım VS	80
Mustafa Kemal Üni.	İskenderun VS	50	Fırat Üni.	Sivrice VS	50
Amasya Üni	VS of Tech. Sciences	40	Selçuk Üni.	Güneysinir VS	80
Dumlupınar Üni.	Tavşanlı VS	40	Tunceli Üni.	Tunceli VS	40
Bitlis Eren Üni.	Tatvan VS	40	Harran Üni.	Şanlıurfa VSTS	40
Adıyaman Üni.	Kahta VS	45	19 Mayıs Üni.	Kavak VS	40
Doğu Akdeniz	Comp. and Tech. S.	2	Trakya Üni.	Edirne VSTS	55
Korkut Ata Üni.	Osmaniye VS	50	Mustafa Kemal Üni.	İskenderun VS	50
GOP Üni.	VS of Tech. Sciences	50	Korkut Ata Üni.	Osmaniye VS	50
Hitit Üni.	VS	40	Düzce Üni.	Kaynaşlı VS	35
Adıyaman Üni.	Kahta VS	45	Amasya Üni	Amasya VSTS	40
Hitit Üni.	VS	40	Niğde Üni.	Bor VS	50
Celal Bayar Üni.	Köprübaşı VS	50	Afyon Kocatepe	Emirdağ VS	50
GOP Üni.	Tokat VSTS	50	Selçuk Üni.	Kadınhanı FIVS	90
Sütçü İmam Üni.	Göksun VS	50	Giresun Üni.	Teknik Bil. VS	80
Dumlupınar Üni.	Tavşanlı VS	40	Celal Bayar Üni.	Sarıgöl VS	40
Okan Üni.	VS	12	Tunceli Üni.	Tunceli VS	40
Bülent Ecevit Üni.	Zonguldak VS	50	Sinop Üni.	Boyabat VS	40
			Ahi Evran Üni.	Kaman VS	80

Status of students:

As is known, when vocational schools were first opened, they accepted students from both vocational high schools and common high schools requiring a certain score (first 120 then approximately 105). Although not very high, students were accepted based on a score; therefore the qualities of graduates were considerably high. Vocational high school graduates could easily adapt as they had a certain degree of vocational background. Later on, the changes in the university entrance system caused a significant decrease in the number of students who attended to vocational high schools. In order to increase the number of students at these high schools, vocational

schools at universities started to accept vocational high school graduates according to their average grades without requiring a score for the university entrance exams, which is known as “open admission”. Unfortunately, this practice, which was initially started in good purpose, did not give the expected result. On the contrary, the students that come to vocational schools through open admission considerably decrease the quality of these schools. Since the academic backgrounds of these students are very weak, let alone teaching professional skills and new developments, instructors have to revise certain subjects from primary and secondary school curriculums. Frankly speaking, despite the good purpose behind it, open admission practices have been unsuccessful. The directors and the teaching staff members of these schools continuously mention the negative and unfavorable aspects in this regard at meetings and symposiums. Almost all the academic staff members of vocational schools want open admission to be cancelled or at least the admission of students based on an entrance exam score, as was the case in the past.

Suggestions:

The desired results cannot be achieved in the education of cadastral mapping technicians, who constitute a functionally important component of the mapping sector of our country. The following points should be taken into consideration in order to be able to train well-educated and qualified cadastral mapping technicians demanded by the sector:

- The physical structures of schools, such as classrooms, equipment laboratories and computer laboratories should be optimized.
- The existing courses and curriculums should be revised at the meetings that will be held with experienced teachers working at vocational school and the courses to be canceled, new courses to be included in the programs, the syllabuses and semesters of these courses should be determined. These studies should be carried out through the collaboration of vocational high schools and universities.
- The number of the teaching staff at vocational schools should immediately be increased to adequate levels and the number of students per instructor should be decreased. Instructors should not teach 4-5 different courses as if they are primary education teachers, but branch out in certain fields. If possible, experienced professionals who worked in the field for a certain time should be included in the teaching staff.
- Cadastral mapping technicians are professionals who work among engineers and other staff and defined as the intermediate staff of the profession, therefore, they should have strong practical skills. Vocational schools should have an adequate number of tools and software applications used by the private sector and public institutions in order to train the technicians in a manner that they can successfully perform their duties either in the field or in the office. Old and out-of-date tools should be renewed as soon as possible and the equipment at schools should be replaced with new models of the latest technology.
- The issue of open admission should immediately be discussed and canceled or reformed. The most accurate step to be taken in this regard would be giving priority to vocational high school graduates but at the same time obliging them to get a certain score at the university entrance exams (approximately 100-150). Vacancies should be given to general high school graduates without waiting for additional placements.
- Mapping and cadaster programs are one of the most opened programs at vocational schools of universities. Since obtaining the required equipment and setting up laboratories are easier and more economical compared to other programs, mapping and cadaster programs were opened in many vocational schools without considering employment options. When the admission quotas for the academic year of 2013-2014 are examined, it can be seen that there were vacancies left in some schools. The future might be dangerous for the mapping and cadaster programs at certain universities. Considering the employment opportunities of students, it should be thought very carefully when opening new schools.
- Although practical training has constantly come to the fore, its problems have not been solved as desired. Cadastral mapping technicians have their practical training in the mapping offices of the private sector, rather than the public institutions related to our profession and municipalities. Most of the intern students state that the practical training they have at those places do not contribute to their development and they are employed for tasks that any layman can do. It should be maintained that municipalities and related public institutions accept an adequate number of interns for practical training.
- Technicians who graduate from vocational schools perform their military services under the same conditions as high school graduates. Shorter military service periods for technicians compared to high school graduates may motivate them and may also increase the interest towards vocational schools.

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Nonlinear Circuit Analysis Using PSPICE in Electrical Engineering Education

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Abstract

Computer simulation is a common technique in analysis and synthesis of electrical circuits in electrical and electronics engineering education. The models for components and devices together with operational blocks aid in the design and analysis of various circuits by allowing for detailed simulation of the circuit being tested. This paper describes application of Orcad PSpice on the analysis of nonlinear circuits over selected simple examples together with theoretical background. In this study, the educational role of the powerful simulation software Orcad PSpice in Electrical Engineering is investigated over three example circuits, each having at least one nonlinear circuit component, which effectively utilize the potential of the simulator. The examples are selected considering their educational value. Simulation results have shown that Orcad PSpice is highly visual and effective for understanding the theory underlying the circuits.

Keywords. Orcad PSpice, simulation, nonlinear circuit analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Computer simulation is a common technique for predicting the real world behaviour of a circuit. Although simulation software only reflect the capability of the model used in the back-plane and they cannot substitute the real-time experimentation, they have proven educationally useful due to their easy to construct and visual properties. Orcad PSpice is a general purpose circuit simulator and one of the various versions of SPICE capable of handling analog logical and mixed-signal parts, circuits and systems [1,2,3,4,5]. It has been extensively used by Universities and semiconductor manufacturers as an CAD [6,7,8,9,10] tool because of its simplicity and effectiveness. Evaluation versions suited for educational purposes are available and can be found at the URL : <http://www.pspice.com/>. Many parameters of circuits and devices can be profitably simulated using these free educational versions of PSpice.

In the simulation procedure different approaches may be followed, namely, electrical component level, subsystem functional block level and higher system level comprising both of the previous ones[11].

On the other hand, many electrical devices are built from nonlinear components. In order to understand the design of these devices, a fundamental understanding of nonlinear circuits is necessary. Moreover there are no hard and fast rules to analyze most nonlinear circuits.

This paper treats three worked examples each including at least one nonlinear component with an educational view. Somewhat detailed theoretical background is presented followed by an Orcad PSpice construction and analysis completed with output graphics. Inside looks of any hierarchical blocks of models are also provided.

WORKED EXAMPLES

Example 1 : The circuit in Fig. 1a has a nonlinear component. $V_s(t)$ is given as $E.\sin(t)$, so that $E \ll 12$ V. Obtain the time expression for current $i_3(t)$.

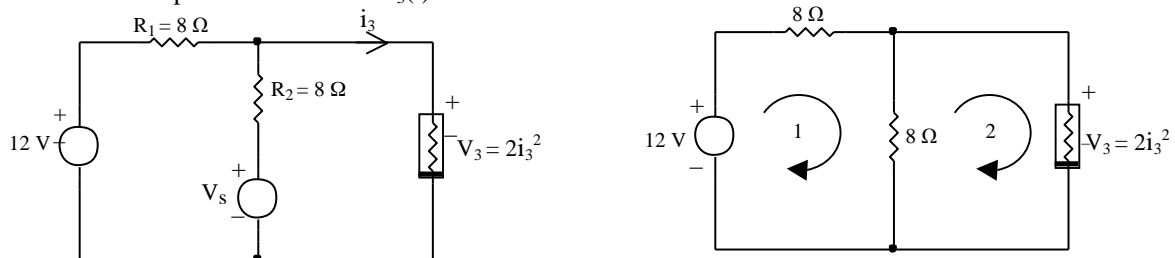


Figure 1a : Ex. 1 circuit

Figure 1b : Ex. 1 circuit with only DC source

Theoretical : Apply superposition together with linearisation, since $12 \gg E$.

With DC source in circuit:

Using mesh currents yields,

$$-12 + 8I_{C1} + 8(I_{C1} - I_{C2}) = 0 \quad (1a)$$

$$8(I_{C2} - I_{C1}) + 2I_{C2}^2 = 0 \quad (1b)$$

If one takes out I_{C1} from (Eq.1a) and substitute in (Eq.1b) gets,

$$8I_{C2} - 4I_{C2} - 6 + 2I_{C2}^2 = 0 \quad (1c)$$

of which roots are -3 and 1. Meaningful root is

$$I_{C2} = 1 \text{ A} = I_3$$

Linearisation of I_3 around this value gives,

$$\left. \frac{\partial V_3}{\partial i_3} \right|_{i_3=1 \text{ A}} = 4 \Rightarrow R_3 = 4 \Omega$$

Thus, for varying small signals the circuit becomes as follows:

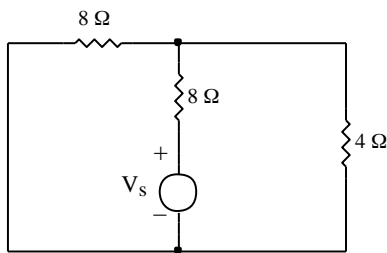


Figure 1c : Ex. 1 circuit for varying small signals

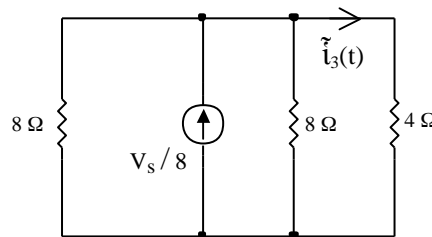


Figure 1d : Norton form of Fig. 1c circuit

from where, one obtains, $\tilde{i}_3(t) = V_s / 16 = (E / 16) \cdot \sin(t)$

Final solution is the superposition of DC and AC currents:

$$i_3(t) = I_3 + \tilde{i}_3(t) = 1 + (E / 16) \cdot \sin(t) \text{ A} \quad (1d)$$

PSpice solution : The nonlinear element in Fig. 1a can be modelled with a *Eval* component in PSpice as follows:

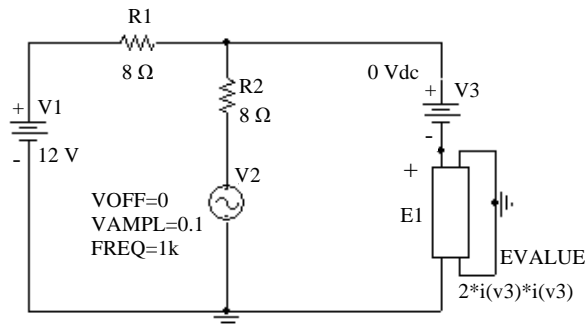


Figure 1e : Fig. 1a circuit constructed in PSpice

The result of a time (transient) analysis so as to watch a few cycles of the sinus wave appears as in Fig. 1f.

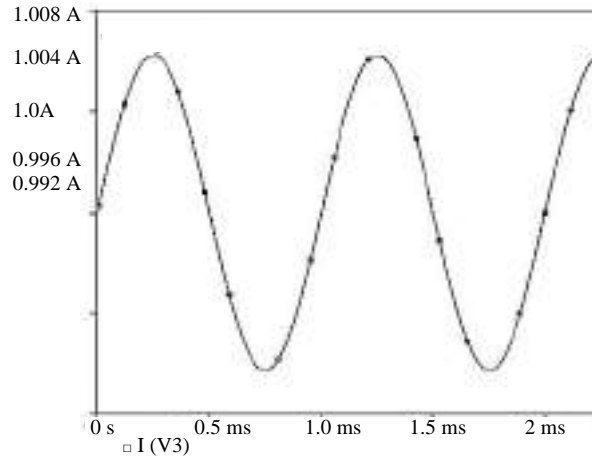


Figure 1f : Current $i(V3) = i(E1)$ waveform of Fig. 1e. (Note that V3 is a dummy component needed for seeing its current)

It is possible to apply superposition in Fig. 1e just by entering zero voltage value for either source instead of replacing them with a short circuit:

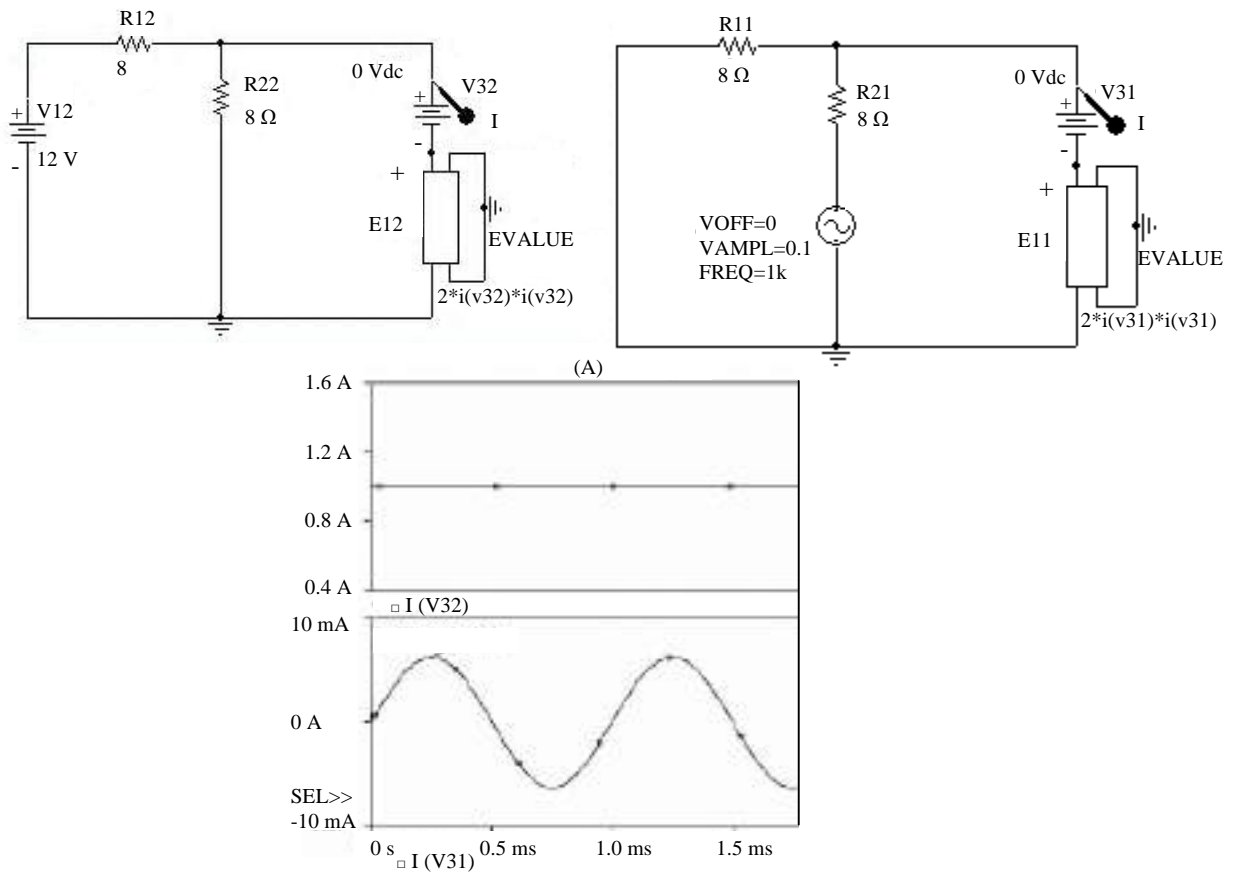


Figure 1i : DC (upper) and AC (lower) components of the nonlinear component current in Fig. 1e.

Example 2 : The circuit in Fig. 2a has a nonlinear component of which mathematical model is provided beside it. Obtain the current i_3 using graphical method.

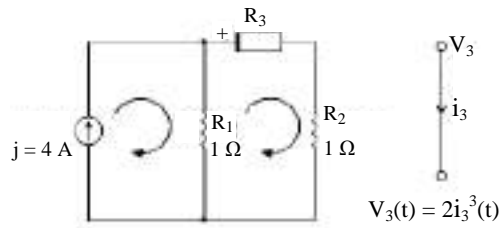


Figure 2a : Ex. 2 circuit

Theoretical : Mesh equations are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ i_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -V_j \\ -V_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (2a)$$

Substituting the defining equation of the nonlinear component in the second equation of (2a) yields,

$$2i_3^3 + 2i_3 - 4 = 0 \quad (2b)$$

Of three roots of Eq. 2b two are complex and the real root is $i_3 = 1$, which is the solution.

Graphical method : Intersection of (i-v) characteristics of the nonlinear component and the second matrix equation, which is the defining equation for the whole circuit seen between the terminals of the nonlinear component, gives the operation point for the circuit as follows:

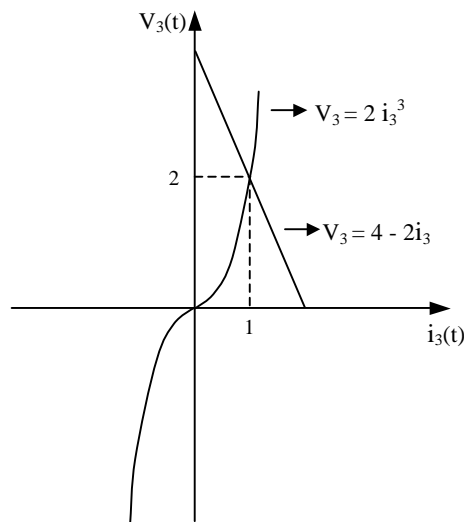


Figure 2b : Finding operation point of the Fig. 2a circuit using graphics

PSpice solution : The nonlinear element in Fig. 2a can be modelled with a *Eval* component in PSpice as follows:

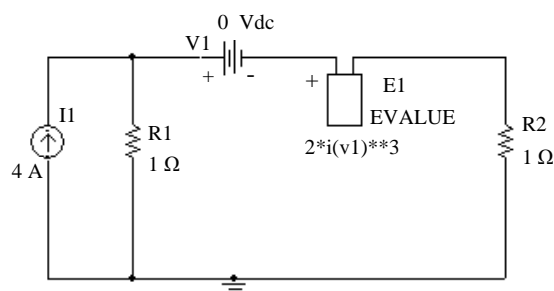


Figure 2c : Fig. 2a. circuit constructed in PSpice

A time analysis of any runtime outputs the current and voltage of the nonlinear component as following (during actual work part names might be changed as a result of copy and paste process, which is usual working in simulation medium and should be ignored) :

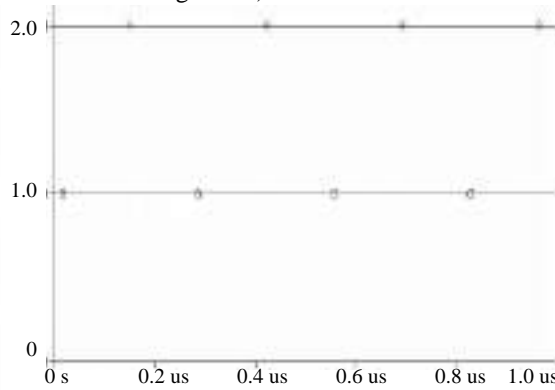


Figure 2d : Result of voltage values for the nonlinear component. In order to obtain current and voltage values) the following construction is contrived, where the EVALUATE part allows copying the sweep current thus making two graphics drawn in the same plot):

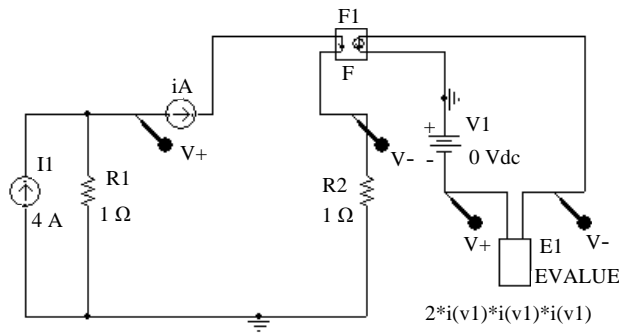


Figure 2e : Schematic for plotting graphical solution of the circuit in Fig. 2a. (DC sweep analysis is applied with i(A) as the sweep variable)

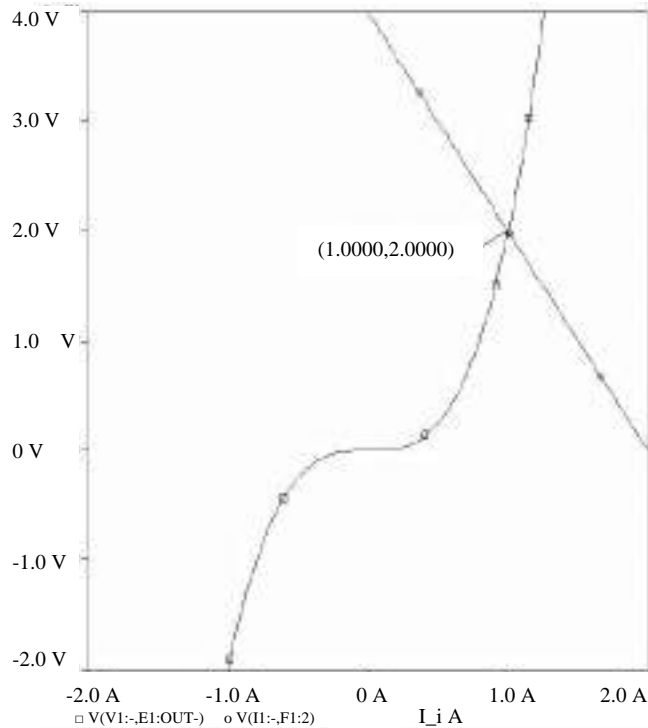


Figure 2f : The result of DC sweep analysis of the circuit in Fig. 2c, illustrating the operational point values

Example 3 : The circuit of Fig. 3a is considered, where $i_e = V_e^{1/3}$

- a) Find i_e for the case of ideal diodes [Fig. 3a. (a)]
- b) Repeat the problem with nonideal diodes [Fig. 3a. (b)]

Theoretical : Straightforward circuit analysis yields:

- a) $i_e = 2 \text{ A}$
- b) $i_e = \sqrt[3]{7} \text{ A}$

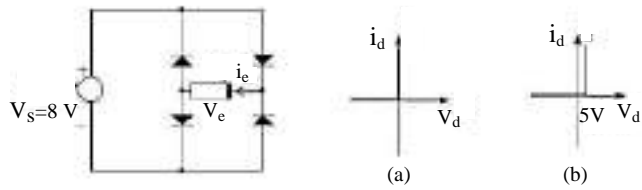


Figure 3a : Ex. 3 circuit with the diode models

PSpice solution : Construction of Fig. 3a circuit in PSpice is below together with the inside look of all the subcircuited ideal diodes for case (a).

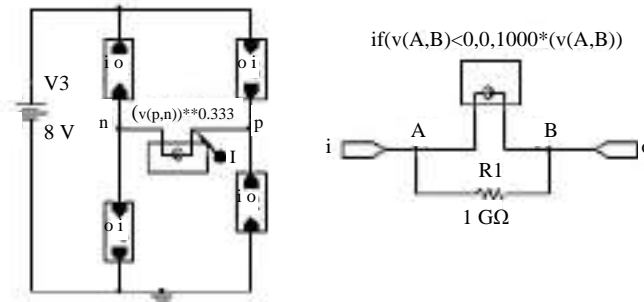


Figure 3b : Schematic of Fig. 3a circuit in PSpice, with the subcircuit for ideal diodes and ABM part for the other nonlinear component, case (a)

The result of a time analysis of any duration reveals the desired current as following:

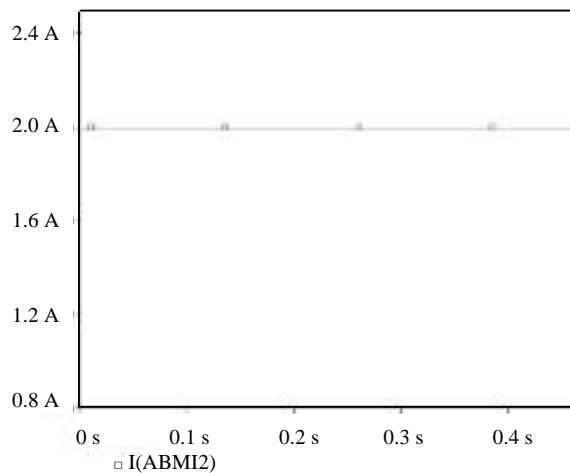


Figure 3c : Time analysis of the Fig. 3a for the part (a) of the problem

Construction of Fig. 3a circuit in PSpice is below together with the inside look of all the subcircuited nonideal diodes for case (b).

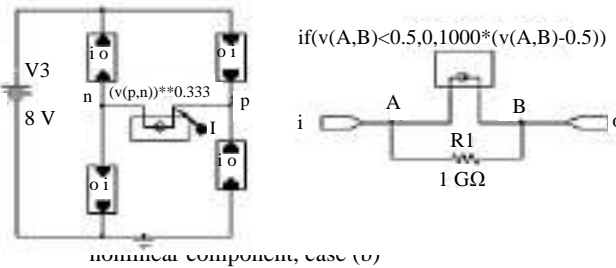


Figure 3d : Schematic of Fig. 3a

art for the other

The result of a time analysis of any duration reveals the desired current as following:

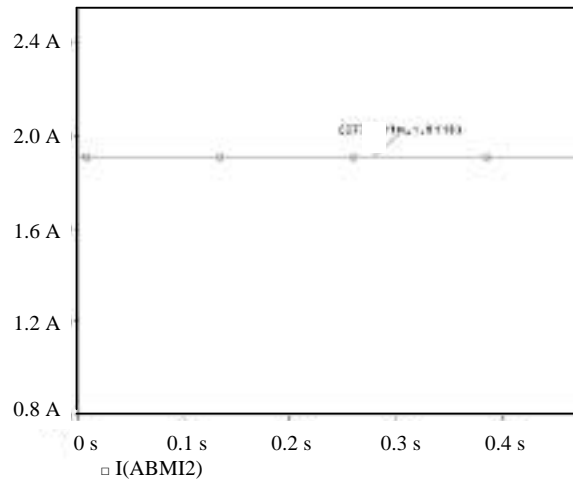


Figure 3e : Time analysis of the Fig. 3a for the part (b) of the problem.

CONCLUSION

The educational role of the powerful simulation software Orcad PSpice in Electrical Engineering is investigated over three example circuits, each having at least one nonlinear circuit component, which effectively utilize the potential of the simulator. The simulation results are observed to be congruent and illustrative to the theory underlying the analysis of nonlinear circuits and shows that Orcad PSpice being highly visual is very useful in the analysis of nonlinear circuits in Electrical and Electronics Education.

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Challenges Facing Teacher Educators' Mentoring on Professional Progress of Teachers in Nigeria

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Abstract

The commitment of teacher educators to professional development of teachers in Nigeria is very minimal especially after the teacher –trainees have graduated. Professional relationship between the training institutions /teacher educators and those they trained are faint. Strong mechanism of monitoring what the graduates are doing in the field and helping them face their challenges partially exists. Consequently great differences exist between the attitude and commitment of the teacher-educators to professional ethics, and that of those who graduated from them. This paper focuses on the factors that make mentoring on professional progress of teachers by the teacher-educators difficult. Such factors include, some over/wrong assumptions, poor record keeping and monitoring, political factors, the quality of the teacher educators that train the teachers, challenges of professionalisation of teaching in Nigeria, poor funding of teacher-education, lack of policy guidelines or legal frame-work on mentoring on professional development of teachers in Nigeria. Implications of the above lapses on the fate of teaching profession in Nigeria are highlighted. The paper concludes with suggestions on how to tackle the challenges.

Keywords. teacher-educator, teacher trainee, mentor, mentee, professionalisation, teaching practice, funding, continuous professional development, teacher education institutions.

INTRODUCTION

Mentoring is one of the pristine methods of imparting knowledge .The ancient Greek used it as a ,means of imparting social, spiritual and personal values to young men .According to Metros and Yang(2006) , mentoring as we know it today is loosely modeled on the historical craftsman/apprentice relationship where young people learn a trade by shadowing master artisan .It is a career development strategy whereby mentee or protegee (learner) is made to learn or understudy the skills and knowledge of the master. The term *mentor*, according to Penner (1997) stems from Greek mythology in which Odysseus entrusted the care and education of his child to a friend named Mentor while the father was away on his adventures and travels .From that initial origin of the word, mentoring has come to be used for a variety of relationships(Penner,1997). Some of its synonyms include *role model, coach, guide, sponsor, friend, and adviser*”.He presented some sample definitions of mentoring as follows:

Mentoring is a lifelong relationship in which a mentor helps a protégé reach her or his God-given potential (Biehl, 1996).

Mentoring provides, first, an instrumental or career function (e.g., sponsorship, coaching, corporate culture instruction), and second, an intrinsic or psychosocial function (e.g., serving as a model, a confidant, a friend) (Cunningham, 1999).

Mentoring is a power-free partnership between two individuals who desire mutual growth. One of the individuals usually has greater skills, experiences, and wisdom (Weinstein,1998).

The person offering the mentoring is usually referred to as a *mentor*, while the recipient or partner may be identified as a *mentee* or *protégé*.

According to Garvey and Alfred (2003) mentoring is a learning partnership between a more experienced and less experienced individual. Grossman and Rhodes (2002) described it as a process involving emotional (friendship, acceptance, supports, etc) and instrumental information, coaching, advocacy, sponsorship and relationship that becomes impactful overtime. Mentoring is an age long practice through which master trainers in

all fields of trade and craft do not only impart skills to their trainees but monitor the trainees development and progress in mastering and using the skills effectively. It is a process and not a once-for-all habit of imparting knowledge and skill. As a process, mentoring makes provisions for monitoring, follow-up, sponsorship and guidance .It follows the approach of apprenticeship and internship. A once-for-all approach abandons the trainee (on graduation) leaving him/her to grapple in darkness and stumble in many mistakes in the process of applying the knowledge and skills received.

Mentoring aimed at further professional development of teachers, who graduated from teacher-education institutions is lacking in the three levels of teacher-education in Nigeria. Teacher educators in Teacher Training Colleges, Colleges of Education and Universities do not have any formal mentoring partnership or relationship through which the skill and pedagogical development aimed at professional growth is fostered. By a formal partnership we mean a formal arrangement whether documented or not by which a fresh graduate teacher is mentored, through close follow-up, advocacy or support in the school he/she is posted to teach. Whatever exists at the informal level, if any does not have any citable impact A mentoring relationship is defined by Parloe (1992) cited in Metros and Yang(2006) as helping and supporting people to manage their own learning in order to maximize their professional potential, develop their skills, improve their performance, and become the person they want to be. A once –for-all-approach mentioned above is what is in vogue up until now (the reasons for this and problems associated with it will be discussed later).

RATIONALE FOR MENTORING

Some important concepts in the definition that need to be emphasized are helping and supporting people, skill development, and improvement of performance. Organisations or institutions employ people that are assumed to have the necessary qualifications to work. These qualifications are mere paper certificates that show the area of knowledge in which the employee is trained. The new employees can not fit in properly if he does not painstakingly understudy the older and more experienced staff. This involves a purposeful helping and supporting with skill, knowledge, ideas, workable strategies which providence and experience have bestowed on the mentor. Again mentorship involves skill development. It could be observed that higher institutions in Nigeria exposed the students more to the theoretical aspect of their curriculum. Development of professional skill which in turn guarantees career development is in most cases learnt on the job .Development of professional skills takes place in the field and is best and faster done when an experienced hand is available to train or to be understudied.

Improvement of performance is another thing that mentorship aims at achieving .Improvement on ones skills invariably leads to the improvement of performance. Again mentoring has a serious element of close supervision. Increased performance and quality output are directly linked. Training under a good and experienced senior colleague helps improve performance on the part of the new staff. Under the rubric of intelligence, mentorship not only provides a transfer of knowledge, but demonstrates how to acquire and apply the critical thinking skills and the habits of enquiry and logical argument needed to create and communicate that knowledge (Ross and Mahy,1997).Thus mentoring turns a neophyte to a genius. It transfers the masters knowledge to the mentee and equips him/her with philosophical foundations through which solution to problems in the organisation could be sought for whether the mentor is around or not.

The United States of America has applied mentoring approach in their school systems and found that it is enhancing the teachers performance and productivity. Barlin (2010) revealed that after a large body of evidence showed that mentoring approach significantly improved performance of new teachers, many education leaders started to invest in new-teacher mentoring. He said “when mentors are well-selected, well-trained, and given the time to work intensively with new teachers, they not only help average teachers become good, but good teachers become great” It is also organized in the US in a way that it could be between the faculty and students , and between students and students . All the mentoring approaches in the US are yielding good result.

TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN NIGERIA

Teacher education refers to the policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviors and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school and wider community. Teacher education programmes in Nigeria are offered in three education institutions namely Teacher Training Colleges ,Colleges of Education, Universities/Institutes of Education Nigerian Teachers Institute . Each of these awards different professional certificates in Education. Teachers Training Colleges award Teachers Grade 11 certificate(TC11) . Colleges of Education award Nigerian Certificate in

Education(NCE) while Universities and Institutes of Education award Bachelors (BSc.Ed, BA.Ed, B.Ed) Post-graduate Diploma in Education(PGDE) and Masters degree (MEd.MSc.Ed). National Teachers Institute also awards TC11,NCE and PGDE. The award of bachelor degree in education was started by the University of Nigeria Nsukka in 1961 through the inspiration the University got from Ashby Commission and the Carnegie Seminar on Education held in the University. Other universities that followed later also modeled their teacher education after Nsukka structure (Ukoha,1999).The curriculum structure of Teacher Training Colleges is basically designed to train teachers for primary schools, the Colleges of Education are to train teachers for the primary and junior secondary schools while degree programmes in the Universities are basically designed to train teachers for the secondary schools. The first approach was based on making sure that the teacher trainees receive more in-depth and specialized training in their chosen subjects in addition to the pedagogical training(Ukoha1999:21)The second approach is what Ukoha described as consecutive approach whereby the Universities admit university and polytechnic graduates who read course other than education into one or two year programmes leading to the award of Post Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE).The Universities also train teachers who specialize in courses leading to the award of masters and doctorate degrees. Many of the teachers with higher degree certificates teach in Universities, Polytechnic and Colleges of Education. Teacher educators in Nigeria, therefore ,comprise of those that teach in all the teacher education institutions that train teachers for different levels of school systems in Nigeria.

Mentoring in Teacher Education in Nigeria

The research carried in Nigeria by Aladejana, Aladejana and Ehidero(2006) shows that mentoring among University academics takes place in informal and unstructured manner that most mentoring relationship were channelled towards research and publications while negligible part is directed towards classroom teaching. The study further finds that most mentoring relationship were initiated and sustained by proximity and academic related activities. Apart from such academic activities that mostly benefit the mentor heavily mentoring in other areas (especially professional development) is very negligible Teacher educators depend very much on teaching practice exercise as a major academic programme through which professional training is developed in the teacher-trainees. Each of these training institutions gives teaching practice a priority. It lasts a minimum of six months and three months for regular NCE and degree programmes respectively. Every student teacher is by regulation supposed to be supervised by teaching practice supervisors (teacher educators) for a minimum of four times. The goals of teaching practice are to expose the teacher trainees to initial on the field experience where they can put theory to practice National Commission for Colleges of Education (1991), Ogwo (1999) and Amadi (2001) identify the goals of teaching practice as that of providing student-teachers with opportunity where they can put theory into practical classroom situation. The National Commission for Colleges of Education outlines the objectives of teaching practice as follows

- i.To help student-teachers develop positive attitude towards the teaching profession
- ii. To expose student-teachers to real life classroom experiences under the supervision of professional teachers
- iii. To enable student-teachers discover their own strength and weaknesses in teaching and develop opportunities to consolidate and overcome them.
- iv. To provide a forum for student teachers to translate educational theories and principles into practice
- v. To familiarize student-teachers with school routines
- vi.To expose the student-teachers to the total school environment
- vii. To provide student-teachers with necessary skills, competencies, personal characteristics and experiences for full time teaching after graduation.
- viii. To serve as a means of assessing professional competence of student-teachers (p.1).

The goals were set on the premise that all the stake-holders namely teacher-educators, co-operating teachers and schools and the student-teachers will perform their duties .The turn-out of events beginning from the last three decades of 20th century till now show that teaching practice in Nigeria can not be hoped on as a sure base for providing a platform on which much of pedagogical and skill development can be solely relied upon.

Thus it is a pre-service arrangement and not a post-graduation experience. It is believed that after a successful teaching practice exercise a teacher trainee must have acquired all necessary skills required for full operation in the teaching profession and therefore could be certified as a professional teacher. Further professional development could be experientially acquired through interaction with older teachers in the field. This assumption has failed to deliver the needed results because of the under-mentioned observations .The time student –teachers spend in the cooperating schools (schools where they are posted for the exercise) depends on a lot of uncertainties .Uncertainties arising from number of months public schools can be in session without strike action from the teachers . It is again determined by uncertainties arising from the ability of the teacher-educators

to come for supervision due to incessant strike action embarked upon by tertiary institutions in Nigeria. University teachers went on strike from July 1 to December 11, 2013. Colleges of Education went on what they called warning strike while the Polytechnics went on strikes twice in the same year. One could imagine the quality of supervision striking University or College Of Education teachers gave their student-teachers during the periods of strike.

Poor supervision by the supervisors constitutes another problem. Most supervisors adopt hit-and run approach during supervision exercise, No quality time and attention is given to the student-teachers. Many are not patient to stay with the student-teacher from beginning of a lesson of forty minutes to the end. Some cooperating teachers who should help in directing these student-teachers do not play their roles. Many see it as an opportunity to rest or be engaged in other ventures. Student- teachers are therefore left alone most of the time. This fails to meet the apprenticeship system approach (inherent in teaching practice) whereby the cooperating teachers are more or less the master-trainers.

Negative attitude of some student-teachers account much for this problem. The authors have been supervising for twenty years now. They observe great dishonesty and truancy among some student-teachers. Poor writing of lesson plans and notes, poor mastery of contents, delivery skills and wrong application of instructional materials and methodology to mention a few are other problems associated with present crop of student-teachers in Nigeria.

Problems affecting effective Mentoring

The first problem stems from the over assumption or wrong assumptions. These assumptions are (a) that the course on teaching methodology and the teaching practice exercise are enough to equip teacher trainee with all needed skills for professional growth, (b) that on graduation, the teacher should learn on the job by interacting with older teachers. Both assumptions are fraught with a lot of fault. Some teachers of “special method or teaching methodology” may not be committed to their job. Truancy among some teaching staff is one of the major problems school administrators face. Teachers in this category have less professional development impact on their students. Secondly, problems facing teaching practice discussed above make the other assumption unworkable. Again some young graduates find it difficult to humble themselves as to be mentored by the older staff. This is worsened by the traditional practice of allocating subjects to the new graduate teachers immediately they are posted to a school without the head teacher giving them professional orientation.

Poor records of where the teachers are posted after graduation constitute another problem. Mentoring is better done when the mentee has initial classroom contact with the mentor. It is not easy to adopt a teacher from no where as one’s mentee. There must be some link between the teacher educator and a person he wants to mentor. Often times political factors which underlie employment of primary and secondary teachers in Nigeria make it difficult for a teacher educator to see many of his former students teaching in any of the schools around. It is a fact that some states in Nigeria do stay for years without employing new teachers

Funding is a very serious problem in Nigeria. Annual budgetary allocation to education in Nigeria is still far behind the United Nations recommendation. The UN recommended that 26% of the annual budget should be allocated to education. With inadequate funding no Teacher Education institutions can take the responsibility of paying staff that are going to schools on mentorship schedules. The poor teacher who hardly feeds well can not afford the cost of traveling to see the teacher-educator for discussion on mentoring issues.

Mentoring has no legal status in Nigerian education or school system. In other words there is no policy establishing mentoring by teacher educators. The National Policy on Education which is a document that is always referred to in any issue concerning education in Nigeria does not say much about mentoring nor give it a special attention as a crucial component of professional development. This creates a problem on whose responsibility it is to initiate mentoring of classroom teachers and school administrators.

Over-burdening of the National Teachers Institute (NTI) has made its mentoring efforts ineffective. NTI was established by Act No7 of 1978 to organize programmes for upgrading and updating of teachers in the primary and secondary schools. For now it is the only teacher education institution that has a near-policy related issue in matters of mentoring. Even at that Nigeria is too large to be covered by this Institute. It does not have enough personnel and fund to cover the nation. Retraining of teachers, upgrading and updating their professional skills which are part of the mandate of NTI have not been effectively done. Fareo (2013) highlighted that the retraining of teachers in Nigeria has not received desired attention from the Local, States and Federal

Governments. She observes that there has not been any systematic attention to regular up-dating of the teachers' knowledge and teaching skills in the light of changes in the curriculum and the wider society. The mentoring efforts of NTI which could be gleaned from its commitment to equipping serving teachers with practical skills and enhancing their mastery of subject matter as well as developing positive self-concept towards teaching profession though laudable, yet lacks the close relationship, partnership and support which distinguish mentoring from mere school supervision.

Many teachers' reluctance or refusal to register with Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) constitutes great problem in mentoring of teachers. Established in 1993, the TRCN has one of its functions as registration of teachers in Nigeria, organizing continuous training and development to enhance the instruction skills of teachers in all areas necessary in its Continuous Professional Development Programmes. The problem of poor records of where teachers are posted after graduation would have been solved if every teacher in Nigeria is registered with TRCN. Many teachers in tertiary institutions in Nigeria are not yet registered with TRCN. Helping teacher educators locate those they would like to mentor or outright allocation of teachers to mentors would have been very easy if all are registered with TRCN which stands in good position to start a formal mentoring exercise for teachers.

Attention also has to be drawn to problem of relying on the two models of Continuing Professional Development being used in Nigeria. They are the workshop model and the school based –teacher professional support model (Mohamed,2006 cited in Fareo,2013).The former is the practice whereby workshop is organized for teachers of some subjects who are made to go to a particular centre during holidays to listen to facilitators .The latter is the practice whereby practicing teachers work collaboratively with the head teachers to provide supervision and support from older teachers in form of staff meeting corrections and demonstration classes. This is an internal and local arrangement which depends on the administrative style of the head teacher. Teacher educators are hardly involved in this model.

It may also be good to mention the lopsided nature of the workshop model. It appears to be discriminatory to the advantage of mathematics and science subjects and English language. The writers observed that subject areas other than those mentioned above do not receive equal attention.

BENEFITS OF MENTORING

Every one, the mentor, the mentee and organization or institution benefits from mentoring. Penner(2001) presented full discourse on the benefits of mentoring in higher institution. We shall therefore adapt his ideas since they are apt to the discussion in this paper

For the Mentor

Enrichment through seeing someone else grow and succeed.

Human development theory holds that among persons reaching mid-life there is a need to develop the next generation (Levinson). Investing in the success of one or more persons earlier in their life and career development provides opportunity to fill that need.

Creativity generated by issues and ideas generated by someone younger and newer.

When someone comes to a role or organization with questions and new ideas, creativity is stimulated. Pairing a senior and junior faculty member could provide stimulus for the senior faculty member's ongoing creativity.

Friendship.

While the basic value of mentoring may be either an organizational or personal benefit to the mentor, the possibility exists that the relationship may develop into a friendship that lasts a lifetime. Biehl advocates that mentoring relationships be considered a lifelong relationships.

For the Mentee

Speedier adaptation to a new role and/or organization and reduced likelihood of frustration and failure.

One of the values a more experienced mentor brings is access to information and suggestions for success. To have someone be proactive in behalf of one's orientation and success should speed up the adaptation process and reduce the chances of making organizational gaffes.

Increased exposure to ideas and connections. *By definition one of the contributions of a mentor is to offer the mentee helpful information, suggestions, and even introduction to others who can be helpful to the person.*

Friendship. *While initially one cannot expect friendship, it may well be an outcome and long-term benefit. {48}*

For the Organization

Stronger individuals offering higher quality performance.

Since one of the goals of a mentoring relationship is professional success, to the extent it is operational in a college, one should see overall teaching quality rise. Mentoring also is positively linked to student retention (Ross-Thomas).

Increased connectivity and caring.

People enjoy working in caring and connected workplaces. Creating a network of good relationships among faculty raises the general relational climate in an organization and is of overall benefit.

Support to formal employee orientation and development programs.

Mentoring programs are generally not seen as substitutes for orientation and training. These still need to be in place. However, the mentoring relationship can be a wonderful reinforcement for the training and orientation received at the time of entry.

Greater spiritual protection for persons and the organization.

From a Christian perspective, there is less likelihood that persons will fall prey to personal or professional bad decisions or moral failure if such persons are in an open, caring, ongoing mentor relationship. In that sense, when there is such care, including prayer support for one another, the organization enjoys greater spiritual protection.

IMPLICATIONS

Problem of poor professional development among Nigerian teachers has continued to re-occur because of poor mentoring policy for teachers.

It will continue to lead to low quality of teachers in the primary and secondary schools. Effective mentoring process ensures faster means of passing latest research information and discoveries of improved pedagogical skills to teachers. The absence of mentoring relationship between the teacher-educators and the teachers they trained slows the process of transmitting such information to teachers.

All the benefits of mentoring discussed above will be lost by the school as an organization. The classroom teacher (as a mentee) and the teacher educator (as a mentor) will continue to lose their benefits accruable from mentoring. Nigeria will continue to suffer the same problems that schools have been facing since independence. Nasiru observes that the problems teacher education in Nigeria has been engulfed with since independence have affected the result of the system. The problems among others include low output of teachers and poor quality of the teachers produced. Till date those problems persist and get worsened as many unqualified personnel find their ways into the profession. The over-all implication is obvious. Nigeria school system will be out of the best practices in the global society if nothing is done to improve mentoring of teachers in the field and if urgent steps are not taken towards bringing up a formal mentoring policy geared towards professional development of teachers by teacher educators in the country.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Mentoring involves mentor-making on the part of all teacher education institutions. It is all about being concerned not only with one's own success but also that of one's graduate or colleague. It is also all about projecting organizational goals and training new entrants so that they can imbibe organizational objectives with the aim of improving their professional skills thereby improving and increasing performance. Mentoring requires sitting a young colleague or fresh graduate down and asking him or her to understudy a more experienced staff or his teacher. This is different from orientation or refresher training courses. What is being emphasized here involves transfer of positive experience to successive generation. According to Metros and Yang (2006)

For mentoring to effect institutional change in higher education, it must be more than informal or spontaneous. The leadership within an institution must first recognize and identify the need for mentoring, and then plan, develop, support, and promote a program that directly addresses specific workforce gaps—both current and future.

This means that mentoring should be formally organized by all teacher education institutions in the country so that they can ensure professional development of their products (graduates)

Teacher education institutions should be actively involved in the two models of Continuous Professional Development currently in vogue in Nigeria. They should cooperate with National Teachers Institute in her attempts on professional development of teachers. They should collaborate with NTI in workshop organization as well as with primary and secondary schools on working out functional mentoring programme for teachers. Robinson and Latchman's study cited in Fareo (2013) mentions some identifiable stages in the process of

becoming a teacher. This includes five stage model of a novice, advanced beginner, competent performer, proficient performer and expert teacher. Planned Continuing professional development programmes through carefully organized teacher educators mentoring programmes in Nigerian school system will help to facilitate the process of transforming a novice teacher to a proficient performer.

The Local, State and Federal government, other managers /proprietors of schools in Nigeria as well as the teacher education institutions are major stake-holders in Nigerian School system. Each should play its expected roles in either providing adequate funding, coming up with a mentoring policy, providing the necessary personnel and enabling environments (as the case may be) to make sure that Nigerian teacher education institutions take effective start formal mentoring programmes for their graduate teachers. Anything that can be done to improve quality of instruction in Nigeria schools and anything that facilitate professional development of Nigerian teachers is worth the sacrifice.

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SOUNDIA-A Learning Application for Musical Correlations According to “The Musical Space”

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Abstract

“The Musical Space” provides a framework for teaching musical correlations to beginners and experts alike. It does not require any previous knowledge and uses a very unique approach to look at – or listen to – possibly familiar compositional and sound engineering techniques and phenomena.

This paper presents an app (Soundia) for this innovative music teaching concept, where the characteristics of “The Musical Space” are introduced. In this space, sound objects can be placed in a way so that they either disturb or complement each other, or coalesce. They are used to represent musical correlations. Sound objects do not necessarily represent a single instrument. Several instruments might form a single sound object, whereas a single instrument may correlate to several sound objects.

So far, “The Musical Space” was only presented by chalk and blackboard. In order to reach a larger audience outside the class room, a learning application was called for to facilitate the envisioning of “The Musical Space”.

Keywords.

INTRODUCTION

Perception of music largely depends on musical listening habits. Therefore, one of the main goals in music teaching lies in the formation of adequate listening skills, to “perk up one’s ears”.

Gruber developed a teaching concept entitled “on the search for order in music” (Gruber, 2008) in the course of his master degree in composition (with a focus on arts and pedagogy) because he perceived classical music theory as “cluttered”. His approach focuses on breaking listening habits in order to enable an abstract access to music, independent of the music genre or instruments. His concept works with analogies to sensual perceptions beyond listening. One of his ideas rests upon the imagination of “The Musical Space” (Ehrentraud, 2013) where sound objects can be placed. As an interesting aspect, these objects can either disturb or complement each other, or coalesce. Using such representations for exemplary songs, Gruber illustrates structures within musical ideas and parallels between different songs. Thereby he instills abstract and active music listening skills.

While diverse music visualizations are mainly used for teaching musical instruments or music theory (Ferguson, Moere, & Cabrera, 2005; Ng & Nesi, 2008; Percival, Wang, & Tzanetakis, 2007; Smoliar, Waterworth, & Kellok, 1995; Yin, Wang, & Hsu, 2005), none of these systems uses visualization in a way similar to Gruber’s musical space. Within *reactTable* (Jordà, 2003a, 2003b) sound objects can be placed on a round plane. There is no visualization of a possible acoustic fit of the objects, though.

In contemporary music software, object representations are often used to illustrate sound characteristics, like in *Blip Shaper* by subcycle labs (*BlipShaper*, 2013), or to visualize sound producing correlations of single elements in non-linear sequencers, like *NodeBeat* (*NodeBeat*, 2013). Nevertheless, these visual representations were helpful in finding suitable visualizations for *Soundia*.

Some musicians use graphical notations, as outlined in (Cage, 1969). They equally represent sound objects in a visual manner. Most of these notations are read on a time scale left to right, and do not represent a space.

The positive effect of visualizations (among other tools) on the grasp of music theory or instruments has been widely documented (e.g. Fober, Letz, & Orlarey, 2007; Gkiokas, 2008; Knight, Boulliot, & Cooperstock, 2012; Yin et al., 2005). There are also intentions to establish educational standards for music teaching, for example with the pilot study “*HarmoS Musik*” (Huber, 2008) where Huber defines seven categories for pedagogical goals for music teaching.

Currently, the visualization of “The Musical Space” is done via drawings on the blackboard or scribbling on paper. It rather concentrates on representing relationships between the sound object graphically, and describing

its qualities verbally with visual analogies. Since so many analogies within “The Musical Space” are borrowed from the visual domain, the teaching could be supported by an interactive learning app. Note that a visual representation of sound objects themselves wasn’t part of the original teaching concept, and represents a major contribution of this work. Its goal is to facilitate a playful and interactive way to comprehend music within “The Musical Space”.

This leads to the research questions: “To what extent is an interactive visualization of “The Musical Space” and its ideas helpful for the comprehension of musical correlations as laid out in the original teaching concept?” and “To what extent does it facilitate the recognition of these correlations in similar contexts?” To reach the set objectives, the following methods were used:

- Gruber was interviewed to provide his teaching concept in written form.
- Educational goals and scenarios were derived using Bloom’s Taxonomy (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, W.H., & Krathwohl, 1956).
- A concept for the visualization and user interaction was created to account for the defined educational goals.
- For selected parts of the visualization concept a prototype was implemented.
- To test for a successful achievement of the set goals, an evaluation was conducted.

APP CONCEPT

This section introduces the learning application’s concept by defining general parameters, aspired teaching goals, a suitable example scenario, essential and optional requirements, and appropriate learning steps. These lay out the basics for the prototype implementation and the subsequent evaluation.

General Parameters

The intended audience has been set to teenagers from 16 years of age and adults who hold an interest in music and have some spatial sense. Concerning language understanding, they should be familiar with the notion of “dimension” and “3D space”. Furthermore, a certain amount of self-reliance and autonomy with respect to learning activities is expected, since the app represents an informal learning tool.

Teaching goals

From Gruber’s teaching concept (Ehrentraud, 2013) the following teaching goals could be derived that deal with the comprehension and application of the concepts of “The Musical Space”:
The student is able to

- L1. classify a sound into the four presented categories of sound generation.
(Understand/Classifying)
- L2. classify a sound into the categories “undefined“ and “defined“.
(Understand/Classifying)
- L3. recall the basic categories of extra-musical terms for sound description.
(Remember/Recalling)
- L4. use suitable non-musical vocabulary for sound description.
(Understand/Inferring)
- L5. distinguish a sound within a piece of music according to a given sound description.
(Analyze/Differentiating)
- L6. define a given sound by means of a sound description.
(Apply/Implementing)
- L7. partition a perceived piece of music into sound objects and arrange them within “The Musical Space” graphically or in his/her mind.
(Analyze/Organizing)
- L8. assign one or more of the roles rhythm, harmony, and melody to a sound within a piece of music.
(Analyze/Attributing)
- L9. discover correlations between sound objects within a piece of music.
(Analyze/Organizing)
- L10. compare several pieces of music with respect to sound descriptions, sound generation category, roles of sound objects, and overall sound impression.
(Evaluate/Critiquing)

- L11. make qualitative statements about balance, limits (within the panorama, the pitch, and the offset in depth), colorfulness and overall sound impression of a piece of music using the analogy of “The Musical Space”. (Evaluate/Critiquing)
- L12. recognize colliding sound objects in a piece of music. (Evaluate/Checking)
- L13. use predefined methods for resolving collisions. (Apply/Execute)
- L14. achieve improvements in the sound impression of a piece of music by applying insights gained by inspection in the domain of “The Musical Space”. (Create/Generating)

Table 1 shows the arrangement of these teaching goals within the revised scheme of Bloom’s taxonomy of the cognitive domain (Krathwohl, 2002).

Cognitive Process \ Knowledge	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual	L3	L1, L2	L6	L5, L7, L9	L10, L11	
Conceptual	L3	L1, L2, L4	L6, L13	L7, L8, L9	L10, L11	L14
Procedural			L6, L13	L5, L7, L9	L10, L11, L12	L14
Metacognitive				L7, L9		

Table 1: Teaching goals in Soundia according to the revised Bloom’s taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002).

Example Scenario for L7

In order to achieve the stated teaching goals, a collection of 28 interactive learning scenarios was designed. One of these was selected for realization as a prototype app. The scenario intends to satisfy teaching goal L7:

Multiple sounds are played back and are displayed in “The Musical Space”. Details correlating to the basic dimensions are explained. Additional characteristics like ranges where pitch becomes indiscernible or locatability of low pitches are shown. To place emphasis on interactivity, several sounds are played back simultaneously, with the option to mute single sounds. A more sophisticated way of interaction could be achieved by making sound objects moveable within the dimensions of “The Musical Space”. This influences pitch, panorama, offset in depth, and possibly also their sound description.

Requirements

In order to develop a useful learning application, the selected example scenario was analyzed for basic and advanced requirements. Basic requirements cover the teaching goals with a minimal amount of interactivity:

- 2D visualization of “The Musical Space”.
- Non-interactive visualization of single sound objects by simple rectangles representing position and expansion.
- Non-interactive audio output for sound examples. At least one contrasting sound example for each explanation step.
- Explanation of the dimensions of “The Musical Space”.
- Explanation of ranges where pitch becomes indiscernible.
- Explanation of the dependence between locatability and the pitch of a sound.
- Explanations are given in written form next to the visualization of “The Musical Space”.
- “Next” and “Previous” buttons to jump between explanation steps.
- Additional requirements cover advanced ways of interaction:
- Controls to interactively adjust position and expansion of sound objects.
- Manipulating sound objects influences sound output. For example, if the height of a sound object in the pitch dimension is being increased, then the notes are distributed in the chosen pitch range.
- Explanation steps are shown in the manner of the “steps-left” pattern, and it is possible to jump freely between explanation steps.

Explanation Steps

The subject area was split up into 6 main topics and several small explanation steps to facilitate comprehension:

- Introduction – 7 steps
- Panorama – 3 steps
- Pitch – 3 steps
- Offset in depth – 2 steps
- Ranges of indiscernible pitch – 2 steps
- Locatability – 2 steps

PROTOTYPE APP

In order to reduce the complexity of the overall system, it has been subdivided into functional components and their respective interplay. Then suitable technologies for the implementation of these abstract functions were selected, and the interfaces were defined. An important aspect was the representation of the sound parameters and the visual elements.

Functional Concept

The functional concept comprises three components, as shown in Figure 2. The component “Musical Brain” is a master controller which supervises the scenarios (e.g. help texts, size and positioning of sound objects), and controls the communication between the scenarios. The component “Visualization & Interaction” is responsible for the UI and the communication with the user. The component “Audio Generation” takes abstract parameters from the “Musical Brain” and transforms them to acoustically useful ones.

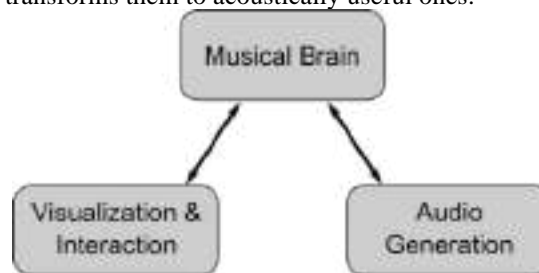


Figure 2: Main components of the prototype

Implementation

After some initial test, Java in combination with Processing, as well as FL Studio and Flowstone for a real-time sound generation were chosen for the implementation.

Figure 3 depicts the interplay of the applied technologies. While the functional components “Musical Brain” and “Visualization & Interaction” are implemented entirely in Java, the component “Audio Generation” had to be split up into a Java part, a Flowstone part, and an FL Studio part. In general, Java provides abstract audio parameters via TCP to Flowstone which itself is embedded into FL Studio as a plug-in. Flowstone decodes the TCP messages and converts them into commands for FL Studio.

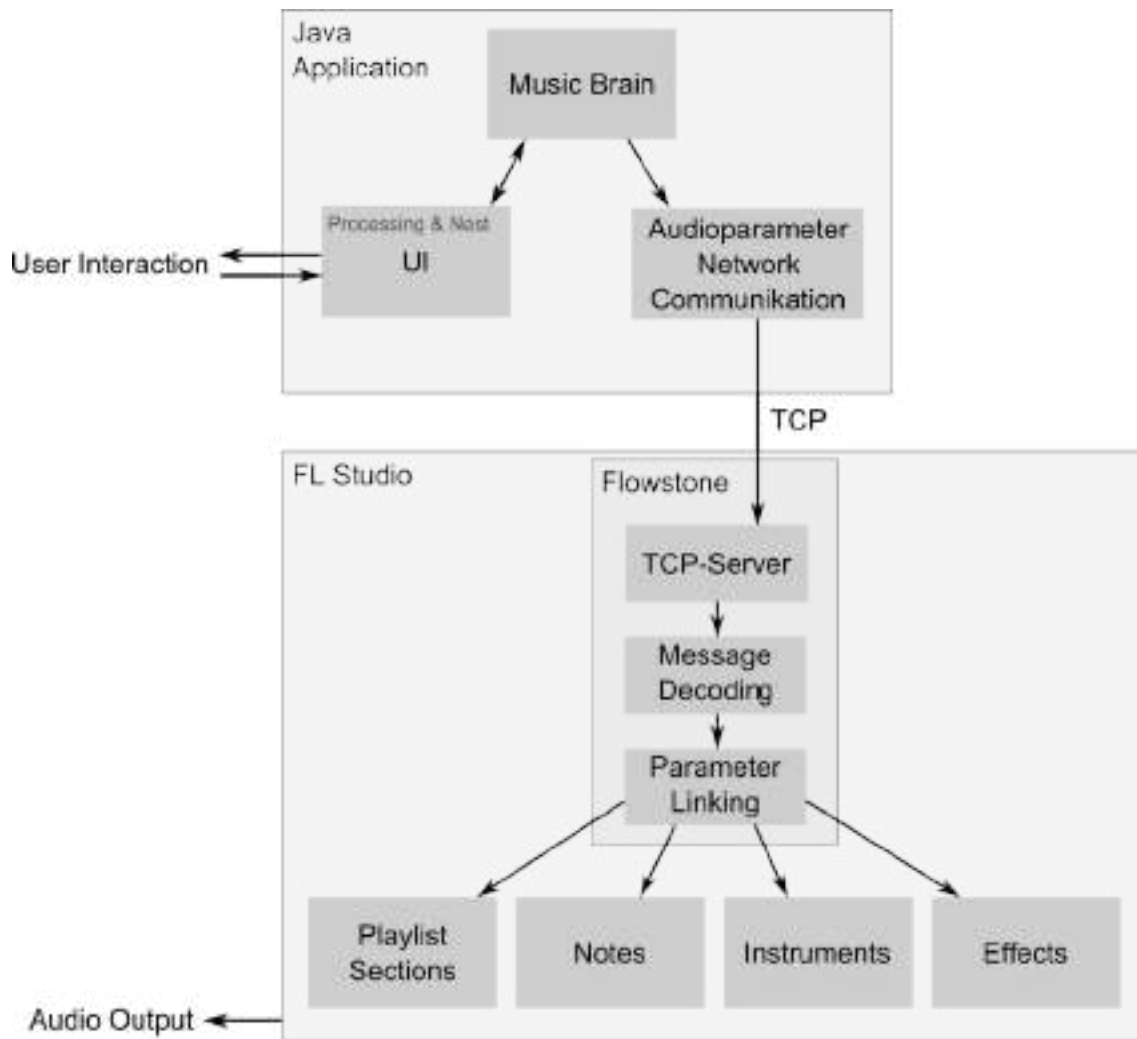


Figure 3: Implementation architecture

The usage of the network protocol TCP generally enables the distribution of the app onto two separate computers. This has been successfully tested and resulted in a marginally higher latency caused by the network communication.

Processing

With Processing one can either use the included IDE for developing an app, or its core library only is used in a regular Java project. Soundia was developed as a Java project since it allowed the inclusion of regular Java libraries and the use of the IDE Eclipse. Apart from the Java standard libraries the Processing library Nest was used in order to implement the UI with components as a scene graph.

FL Studio

With the digital workstation FL Studio it is possible to record music, generate music with synthesizers or add audio effects. This software tool was selected because of its large freedom in generating and manipulating synthetic sounds. Furthermore, it allows the change of notes in real-time that have been imported via Flowstone. Additionally, pieces of music can be partitioned with song markers which are used as jump targets. These markers are used in Soundia to delimit sound examples.

Flowstone

Flowstone is a visual programming environment that runs as a plug-in in FL Studio. It facilitates the generation and processing of audio, MIDI, and control data. A screenshot of the Flowstone interface can be seen in Figure 4 where the first layer of the audio generation is depicted.

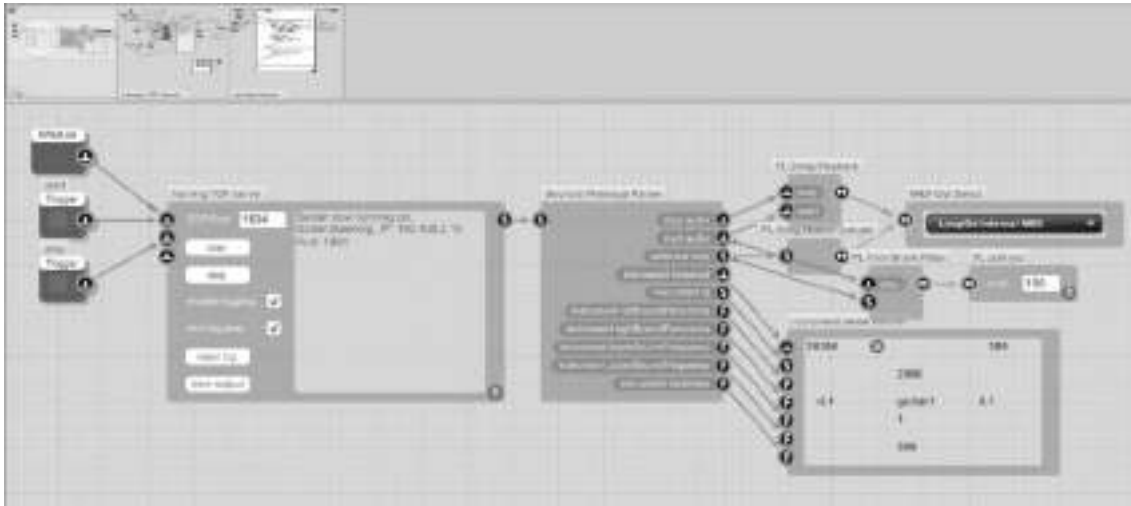


Figure 4: Screenshot of Flowstone showing the first layer of the audio generation

The plug-in for Flowstone offers a module for TCP communication and one for controlling FL Studio. With this it represents an interface between the abstract Java sound objects and the audible examples in FL Studio. Hence it provides means to jump between audio examples, to manipulate effects like echo, or to play and change MIDI notes.

Interfaces

Music Brain → *UI*

- show the start screen
- show the learning scenario
- jump to an explanation step within the scenario
- show the end screen

UI → *Music Brain*

- click the start button to start the learning scenario
- click the back button
- select an explanation step
- indicate the completion of a step
- transfer the position and range of each sound object after manipulation by the user

Music Brain → *Audio parameter-network communication*

- forward position and range of each sound object
- stop audio rendition
- select an explanation step to load the respective music example

Audio parameter-network communication → Flowstone

This interface transfers data via TCP with the Java application as client and Flowstone as server. TCP was chosen because it represents a standard communication between software components. Its advantage over UDP lies in the guaranteed correct transmission of data.

Soundia uses four types of messages. These are shown below with typical values:

- stopAudio
- startAudio
- selectStep=stepX
- instrumentParameters={instrumentId=instrumentX;leftBoundPanorama=1.0;rightBoundPanorama=1.0;lowerBoundFrequency=20;upperBoundFrequency=20000;loudness=1.0}

Flowstone → FL Studio

Flowstone translates the received messages into commands for FL Studio. The first three messages (start and stop of audio renditions, as well as jumps to song markers) are translated into MIDI messages. The changes of parameters of sound objects (fourth message type) are translated into FL Studio parameters.

Sound Parameters

For the prototype it was necessary to find acoustic representations of visually changeable parameters. According to Gruber's teaching concept arbitrary pieces of music are representable in "The Musical Space". This doesn't necessarily include that a certain visual representation results in a single acoustic representation. Therefore certain acoustic representations have been chosen for each interaction in the prototype. These affect the three dimension of "The Musical Space".

Dimension: Stereo Panorama

The pan parameter of the mixer has been associated with the movement of a sound object in the stereo panorama. This proved as simple and effective. The change of the width in the stereo panorama eventually was associated with a stereo separation effect which made the sound effectively seem wider or less wide.

Dimension: Pitch

It took a lot of research to make this dimension interactively changeable. In the prototype it has been solved by means of a real-time manipulation of MIDI notes.

Dimension: Offset in depth

Initially this parameter has been associated with the volume of the mixer only. The acoustic rendition could be improved by adding reverb. When the sound object is moved to the back, its volume is decreased and its reverb is increased simultaneously. This seemingly moves the sound object further away, even if there is only one object.

Visual Elements

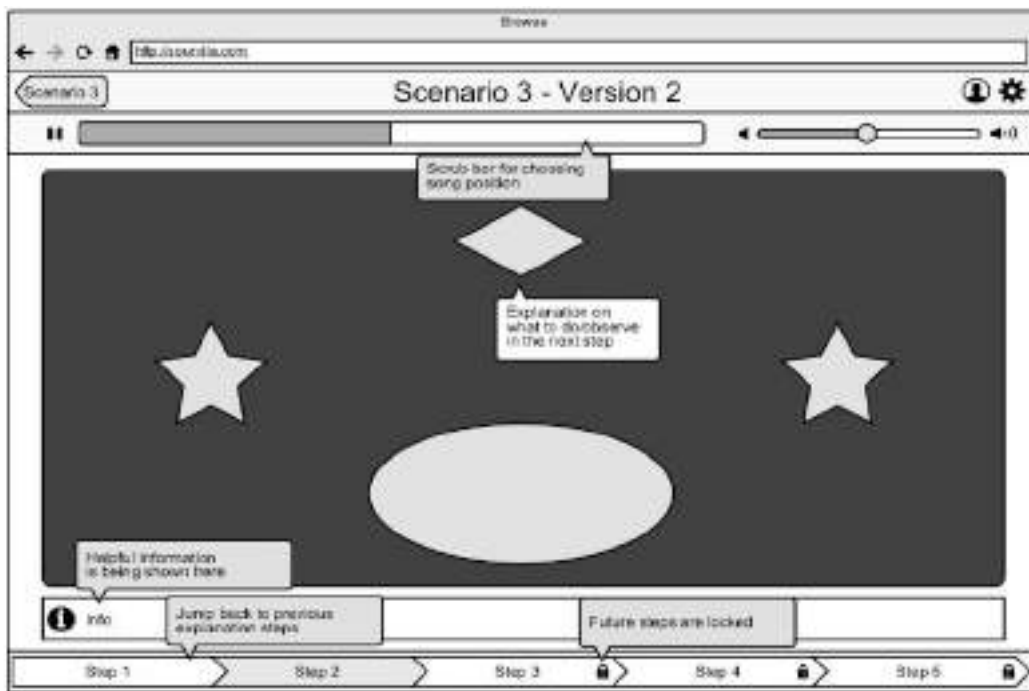


Figure 5: General UI concept, mock-up

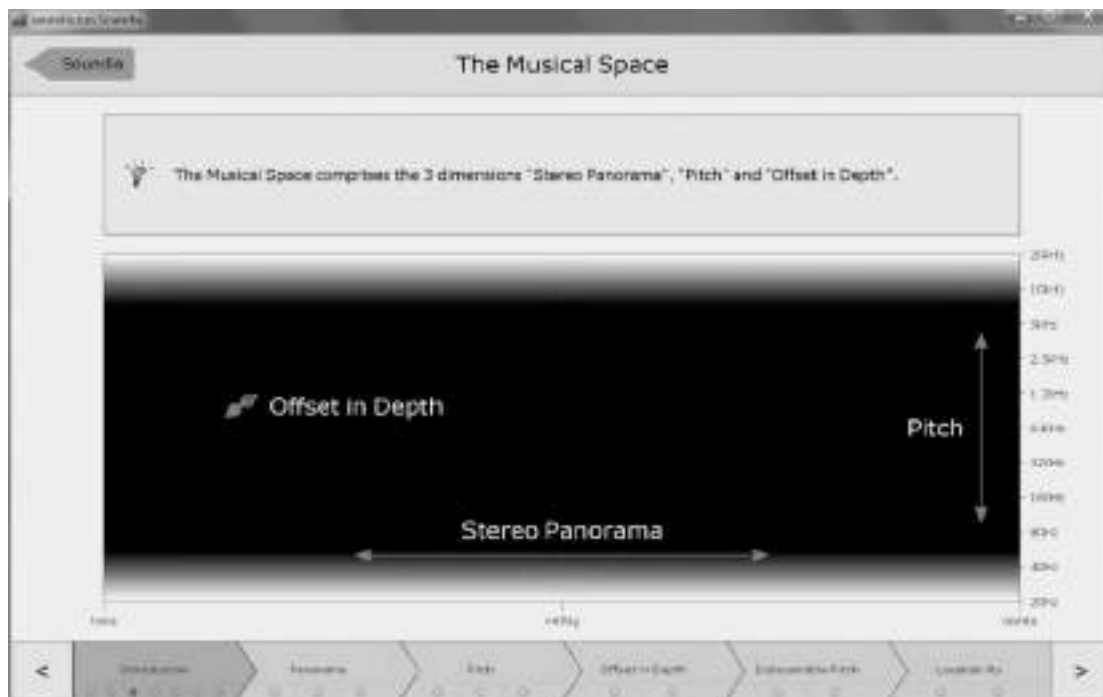


Figure 6: Visual representation of "The Musical Space" within SOUNDIA. Introduction of the three dimensions: pitch measured in Hertz, stereo panorama as in left/right, and offset in depth as in overlapping objects.

The interaction area is detailed in Figure 7. Special ranges at the top and the bottom are represented by a black-to-white gradient to mark it as an area of indiscernible pitch. Sound locatability in dependence of pitch is denoted via diagonal lines.

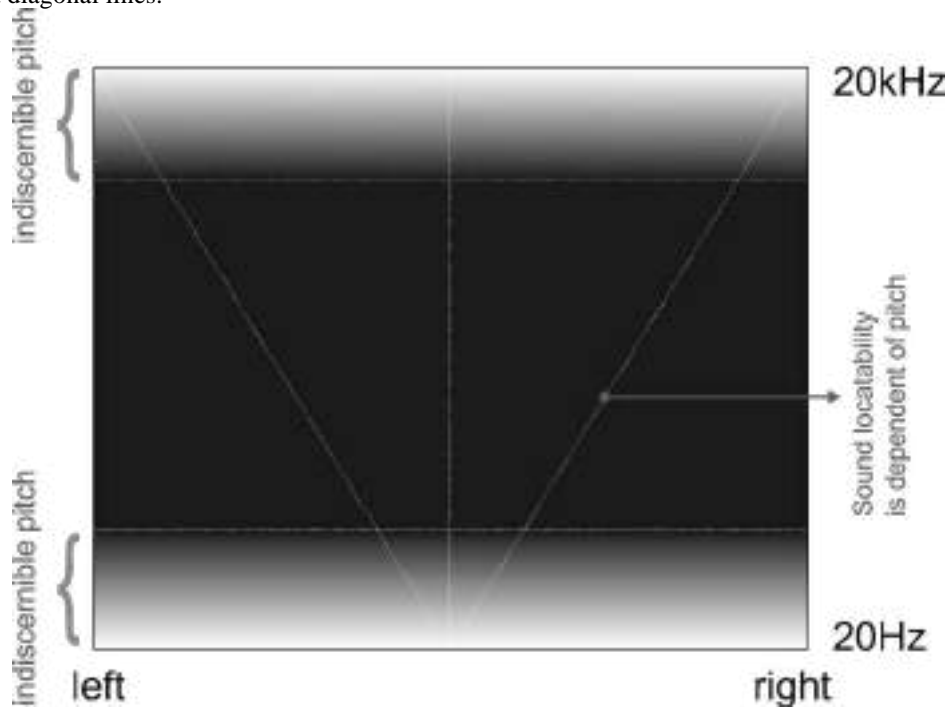


Figure 7: Special ranges in stereo panorama and pitch

In Figure 8 a top-down view on the 3D-space is shown. This visual concept was designed for a learning scenario other than the realized one, but it denotes how louder sounds can mask more quiet ones.

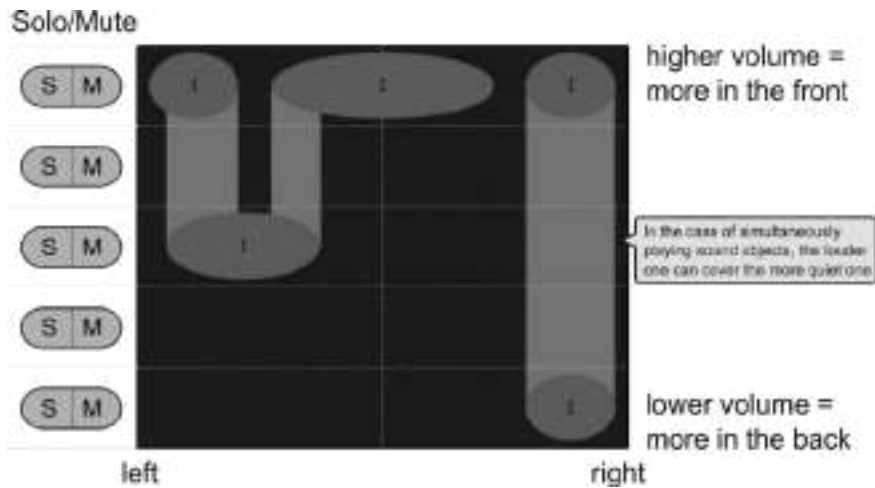


Figure 8: Offset in depth

Figure 9 shows the concept for a visual representation of sound object descriptions. For the prototype this was not employed, but it will be necessary for the realization of further scenarios.

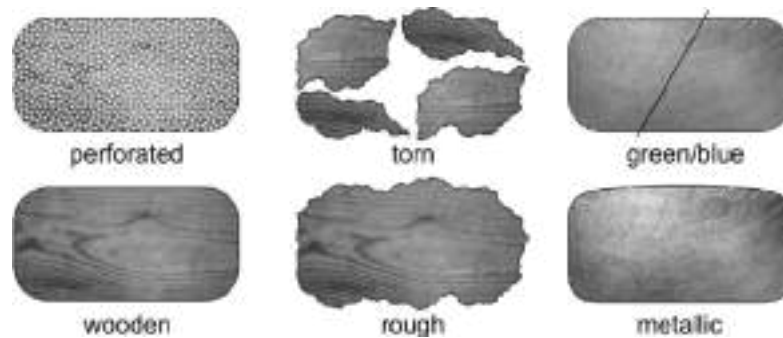


Figure 9: Representation of sound objects

EVALUATION

The evaluation was done with a group of eight test subjects with diverse educational background. After using the app the test persons were asked questions about the presented music theory and had to solve practical exercises. Their responses were all well-considered. It could be shown that the app is suited even for people without previous musical knowledge, and that it increased the interest in musical concepts. The test persons appreciated the possibility to interactively visualize music. They found the app instructive. The feedback also showed that for some parts visual representations should be improved. The representation for the offset in depth caused problems for some test persons. There is also a discrepancy between the musical impressions of a test person and the teaching concept, as could be seen with the locatability of low pitches. Furthermore, there is no visual representation for time in the prototype. It could be concluded that the interactive visualization proved to foster the understanding of musical correlations as intended. Another finding was that test subjects were pleased with the playful way to learn with this software, and were motivated to engage further in the learning contents.

CONCLUSION

The focus of this work was an interactive visualization of “The Musical Space” by means of a learning app. It could be shown that this app supports the comprehension of musical correlations as intended. Firstly, Gruber was interviewed to lay down his ideas of “The Musical Space”. Based on this interview, 14 learning goals could be derived. In order to devise a learning app, these goals were embedded into 28 scenarios. Additionally, an appropriate visualization and interaction concept was developed. In order to evaluate the approach, one of the scenarios was chosen to be implemented as a prototype. The evaluation was done with eight test persons. While it generally proved the usefulness of the app for the comprehension of “The Musical Space” and its teaching goals, it pointed out some problems and suggestions for improvement.

Inevitably, there is a limitation for any possible implementation: auditory impressions and imaginations happen on an individual basis. Therefore visualization can only be offered by way of choice. This could be seen in the variety of solutions to the practical exercises of the evaluation. Nevertheless, the app in general proved useful, especially since it offers new ways of looking at and listening to music. In summary, it can be concluded that an interactive implementation of Gruber’s music teaching concept is possible in a way that enhances the comprehension of the teaching goals.

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