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DARIO PÉREZ-FLORES - GALERIE DENISE RENÉ

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Direction / Editor
Guy Tchibozo

Analytrics
7 Quai du Général Koenig – 67000 Strasbourg – France
Contact@analytrics.org – Conference-2008@analytrics.org
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Avant-propos

Cet ouvrage rassemble une sélection des principales contributions présentées au cours de la Conférence Internationale Économie, Éducation et Société, tenue à Paris du 17 au 19 juillet 2008. Les contributions retenues ont été sélectionnées pour leur qualité. Elles reflètent bien aussi la richesse des thématiques abordées lors de ces journées. Les questions soulevées touchent aux préoccupations fondamentales de la recherche internationale contemporaine en sciences de l'éducation. Mais en outre, nombre des contributions présentées ici ou pendant la conférence illustrent bien les développements récents de la discipline, l'émergence de questionnements nouveaux, directement inspirés par les transformations sociales et techniques, et surtout une remarquable capacité à renforcer progressivement la rigueur de ses approches et méthodes de recherche.

Par la qualité de son contenu et l'effectif de ses participants, cette première conférence est incontestablement un succès. Je voudrais en remercier ici tous ceux qui y ont une part, notamment Mme Patricia Champy-Remoussenard, Professeure à l'Université Lille 3 et Présidente de l'Association des Enseignants et Chercheurs en Sciences de l'Éducation (AECSE), qui a bien voulu prononcer l'exposé inaugural ; les auteurs dont les contributions figurent dans ce recueil ; les membres du Comité scientifique, qui ont su guider le travail des auteurs de contributions ; et les membres du Comité d'organisation. Ensemble nous espérons que les travaux présentés dans cet ouvrage seront utiles à la communauté internationale des chercheur(e)s en sciences de l'éducation.

Dr. Guy Tchibozo
Président de la conférence

Foreword

This book gathers some of the major contributions presented at the Paris International Conference on Education, Economy and Society 2008. These contributions were selected based on their quality. They mirror the richness of the topics discussed during the conference. The issues addressed belong to the core areas of contemporary international educational research. In addition, most of these papers – as well as many others presented during the conference – feature recent promising trends in our field, especially the introduction of new issues relating to social and technical change, and steady progress towards sound research approaches and methods.

High quality content and the large number of participants have made this first conference a success. I would like to thank here all those who have taken part in this, especially the President of the French national association for educational research (AECSE), Professor Patricia Champy-Remoussenard from Lille 3 University, who delivered the keynote address; the authors of the papers gathered in this book; the members of the Scientific Committee, who provided the contributors with helpful directions; and the members of the Organizing Committee. We all hope that the contributions presented here will be of interest to a large international audience of educational researchers.

Dr. Guy Tchibozo
Conference chair

Connaissance/reconnaissance du travail et compréhension de la relation travail/éducation/formation : enjeux actuels.

Professeure Patricia Champy-Remoussenard, Présidente de l'Association des Enseignants et Chercheurs en Sciences de l'Éducation, Directrice de rédaction de la revue *Recherche & Éducatives*

Laboratoire Cirel-Proféor, Université Lille 3

Patricia.Remoussenard@univ-nancy2.fr

Résumé

Professionalisation accrue de l'enseignement et des formations, intérêt porté aux compétences et à la reconnaissance des savoirs informels, frontières entre formation initiale et formation continue s'estompant dans une société en quête du *lifelong learning* dessinent un paysage éducatif en pleine évolution. L'analyse et la connaissance du travail constituent des enjeux stratégiques de ce contexte, incontournables pour la réflexion actuelle sur l'éducation et ses fonctions sociales. Un certain nombre de dispositifs institutionnels et de pratiques des acteurs de l'éducation et de la formation matérialisent tout particulièrement le statut actuel de la connaissance/reconnaissance du travail humain. Formations en alternance, actions en vue du rapprochement entre école et entreprises, processus d'ingénierie de formation et de reconnaissance et de validation de l'expérience seront analysés de ce point de vue.

Introduction

Je voudrais tout d'abord vous souhaiter la bienvenue à tous. Je suis très honorée d'avoir été invitée à prononcer cette conférence d'ouverture et j'en remercie les organisateurs. J'ai choisi d'aborder des questions qui sont au cœur de mes propres travaux de recherche et qui me paraissent être des questions sociales et éducatives vives et susceptibles de se poser dans différents pays.

Je vais donc essayer de pointer certaines des caractéristiques actuelles de la relation entre éducation, formation et sphère des activités professionnelles. Ce faisant, j'insisterai sur les exigences de professionnalisation fixées au système éducatif tout entier et illustrerai les changements en cours à partir du cas des mini-entreprises dans l'enseignement secondaire et de la Validation des Acquis de l'Expérience pour les adultes.

Cette analyse sera conduite avec une perspective critique et dans l'objectif de dépasser certaines idées reçues, certains allants de soi néfastes à l'analyse scientifique des questions éducatives, c'est-à-dire, pour reprendre Gaston Bachelard, un point de vue qui se distingue radicalement de celui de l'opinion.

En préambule, je ferai remarquer qu'on parle souvent de *monde* éducatif et de *monde* du travail, comme si ces deux contextes de la vie sociale étaient disjoints,

comme si l'un et l'autre constituaient toujours des mondes à part. Il me semble que ce type d'expression, très présente dans le langage courant français est l'indice de certaines réalités; mais fait aussi perdurer une perception décalée de la réalité sociale qui, elle, est plus nuancée.

En effet, la relation entre champ des activités professionnelles et champ des activités de formation traverse tous les niveaux d'enseignement, du fait du caractère central du travail dans notre société. A cela s'ajoute que nos gouvernements incluent dans leurs orientations politiques très clairement et de manière plus forte que jamais l'objectif de professionnalisation des études et le rapprochement entre système éducatif et sphère des activités professionnelles.

Ces questions sont des questions éducatives, vives, sensibles. Traversées par des affrontements idéologiques, des pressions de différents groupes sociaux, des urgences socioéconomiques, elles exigent le recul et la rigueur d'une analyse scientifique des pratiques éducatives.

Je commencerai par pointer quelques axes quasi permanents de la réflexion et du débat sur la relation entre système éducatif et sphère des activités professionnelles.

1. Trois caractéristiques de la relation entre sphère éducative et sphère des activités professionnelles

Le monde de l'école et le monde du travail font partie des différentes instances éducatives qui dessinent, à un moment donné, la forme éducative de la société.

L'Ecole n'est pas seule à faire œuvre éducative. La « forme éducative » de la société repose sur le jeu de différences instances sociales : institutions scolaires, organismes de formation mais aussi famille, institutions religieuses, associations, médias, culture, univers professionnels, etc. (Charlot, 1987) qui jouent un rôle dans l'éducation. Quelquefois qualifiée d'écoles parallèles (Lesne, 1984), ces instances entretiennent les unes à l'égard des autres des relations variables de rivalité, d'indépendance, de partenariat, etc.

La période que nous traversons tend à valoriser les partenariats entre ces instances. Les politiques européennes distinguent trois catégories de modes d'apprentissage « pertinents » (Mémoire sur l'Éducation et la Formation tout au long de la vie, 2001). *L'éducation formelle*, *L'éducation non formelle*, qui « peut s'acquérir sur le lieu de travail » *L'éducation informelle* « corollaire naturel de la vie quotidienne. Les politiques incitent aujourd'hui clairement à une prise en compte plus forte de l'éducation non formelle et informelle et mettent en avant le rôle d'autres instances éducatives que l'école et leurs liens avec elle.

Si le concept de forme éducative manifeste l'action « naturellement » conjointe du travail et des institutions éducatives dans la formation des individus, la question de l'ouverture ou de la fermeture de l'Ecole vis-à-vis du reste du monde est également centrale pour les questions que je veux poser aujourd'hui. Deux tendances s'opposent, l'une prônant l'ouverture de l'école, l'autre sa nécessaire clôture. Pour J. Houssaye (1987), la « séparation est inhérente à la formation

professionnelle telle que la conçoit la pédagogie traditionnelle », dans la continuité d'une conception monastique de l'école, et dans le sillage de penseurs comme Alain (1932) qui met en évidence l'origine monacale de la clôture de l'école, rupture nécessaire parce qu'elle constitue une « préparation indirecte » à l'apprentissage de la vie. Pour P. Bourdieu (1997) l'école est une institution scolastique, c'est à dire une situation où celui qui apprend est séparé et protégé des impératifs et des urgences de la vie ordinaire

Le caractère ouvert ou fermé du système éducatif, la perméabilité ou l'imperméabilité des activités éducatives avec celles qu'impliquent d'autres aspects de la vie sociale constituent une des tensions inhérentes aux faits éducatifs et un des débats récurrents qui l'agitent.

Enfin nous sommes à l'ère d'une valorisation de la fonction éducative du travail. Contextes riches en apprentissages potentiels, les situations de travail sont éminemment formatrices. Le travail peut être considéré comme l'une des activités humaines qui révèlent et convoquent les processus d'apprentissage les plus nombreux, les plus riches et les plus complexes.

Les orientations et incitations des instances européennes mettent là encore largement l'accent sur l'attention à porter à ce caractère hautement formateur du travail. Du Livre blanc sur l'éducation et la formation tout au long de la vie (1995) au *Memorandum* (2002), jusqu'à aujourd'hui, le message est remarquablement stable. Le rôle formatif du travail est reconnu, ce qui a pour effet d'obliger à réviser la définition de la relation entre travail et formation.

Pourtant que le travail soit formateur et contribue au développement de l'homme n'est, en fait, pas du tout une idée neuve (cf. le compagnonnage et ses théoriciens). En revanche, les modalités actuelles selon lesquelles, dans notre société, l'organisation de l'éducation et de la formation prennent en compte ce principe le sont.

Nous allons retrouver ces trois axes de réflexion dans notre analyse de la professionnalisation et dans les deux exemples de pratiques que j'ai choisis.

2. Le mouvement vers une intégration accrue de la professionnalisation dans les finalités éducatives

Le terme Professionnalisation est aujourd'hui omniprésent dans les discours et dans les pratiques.

Mais l'engouement va au-delà du mot : les institutions éducatives se trouvent depuis un certain temps confrontées à la « nécessité » de professionnaliser. Leur capacité à préparer celles et ceux qui sortent des dispositifs de formation à mobiliser des compétences adéquates dans les milieux de travail est continuellement interpellée. Tout un ensemble de dispositifs, d'outils, de stratégies ont pour objectif de développer des compétences chez des individus et dans des collectifs et les intégrer au mieux dans les milieux de travail. Ils relèvent de cette logique de professionnalisation.

La professionnalisation traduit le souci de l'usage et de l'utilité sociale et plus particulièrement professionnelle des connaissances transmises par les institutions de formation.

Les débats éducatifs à ce sujet ne sont pas propres à notre époque. On note des positions très antagonistes à ce sujet chez les penseurs de l'éducation. Prenons l'exemple de l'âge de la vie auquel il convient de s'employer à préparer les individus à des activités professionnelles. Durkheim (1938) défendait ce principe selon lequel l'enseignement secondaire, au moins dans certaines de ses filières, ne devait pas préparer directement à l'exercice des métiers : « Le collègue n'apprend pas un métier, mais il forme l'aptitude à juger, à raisonner, à réfléchir qui est particulièrement nécessaire dans certains métiers ». Sans exclure ce qu'on nommerait aujourd'hui une perspective de professionnalisation, il considérait, qu'à ce stade, elle devait être *indirecte* et différée

Aujourd'hui la perspective de professionnalisation oriente les pratiques des acteurs et des institutions

Pour conquérir leur légitimité, la plupart des dispositifs éducatifs doivent actuellement pouvoir se réclamer d'un caractère professionnalisant. La professionnalisation y fonctionne comme un principe évaluateur des investissements, des activités et des acteurs.

Mais les instances éducatives ne sont pas seules invitées à veiller à leur portée professionnalisante. Les milieux professionnels, dont la vocation première n'est pas de transmettre des connaissances mais de produire, sont appelés à travailler dans ce même sens. Favoriser le développement d'une connaissance professionnellement utile. Si les organisations sont supposées être *qualifiantes* ou *apprenantes*, si les contextes de travail sont désignés comme des contextes d'apprentissage, c'est qu'ils sont eux aussi considérés pour leur capacité à œuvrer vers la professionnalisation.

Le succès « social » de l'idée de professionnalisation est localisable tout à la fois dans les deux sphères que sont le travail et la formation.

Aujourd'hui la professionnalisation retentit aussi sur le système de certification (d'attribution des diplômes).

Il est aisé de constater ces dernières années en France le succès des diplômes dont la visée professionnalisante est explicite et directe (bac pro, BTS, DESS, master pro). Les termes « professionnels », « professionnalisants » résumés par le vocable « pro » constituent une indication symbolique de ce qui fait la valeur et l'attractivité des diplômes qui sont donc évalués, jaugés à l'aune de leur capacité à professionnaliser. Le mouvement de dévalorisation des autres filières est d'ailleurs d'ores et déjà entraîné par la survalorisation du « pro ». Forts du succès de ce type de diplômes, irait-on, en matière d'offre de certification, vers un modèle du tout professionnel ? Paradoxe, tensions demeurent. On voit ici que deux modèles restent en présence.

Enfin et troisièmement, la professionnalisation accompagne aujourd'hui la flexibilité sociale.

La flexibilité du travail suppose le mode de gestion le plus souple possible de *la relation formation/emploi*, plus que jamais recherché en dépit des travaux, qui 20 ans plutôt en avaient signalé le caractère « introuvable » (Tanguy, 1986). L'évolutivité rapide, voire accélérée des emplois, des formes de régulation du marché du travail, des compétences, de la division du travail, et par conséquent, la nécessité, pour les individus et pour les organisations de s'adapter génère cette attente de flexibilité. Ce qui est flexible, c'est ce « qui cède aisément aux impressions, aux influences, qui s'accommode facilement aux circonstances, ce qui est docile, commode, malléable, souple »ⁱdit le dictionnaire. La vogue de la professionnalisation s'inscrit dans une forme d'organisation sociale dans laquelle les mutations doivent se faire le plus doucement possible, sans heurts et sans délais. Dans une société où la connaissance est considérée comme une richesse, une valeur essentielle, et une garantie pour que certaines mutations s'opèrent, les institutions chargées de la transmission des savoirs sont considérées comme des auxiliaires de ce mouvement d'accompagnement de la capacité de suivre vite et doucement le changement. Et, toutes ces formes de mobilité nécessitent des transitions (Lyon-Caen, 1996) qui exigent aussi des institutions éducatives qu'elles révisent leurs méthodes et leurs pratiques.

La formation devient plus souple, au sens où elle s'adapte aux besoins de chacun pour que chacun s'adapte aux besoins de son ou de ses employeurs potentiels. Les dispositifs s'individualisent d'ailleurs autant qu'ils se professionnalisent. La logique de professionnalisation s'emploie à fabriquer un individu sur mesure pour la société dans laquelle il vit, susceptible de s'ajuster, à plusieurs reprises, aux évolutions nécessaires au bon fonctionnement du système social et cela moyennant toutes sortes de formes de flexibilité qui se traduisent par des ajustements sur divers registres (mobilité professionnelle, géographique, salariale, maîtrise de plusieurs langues ou d'une langue universelle, etc...).

3. Faire connaître et reconnaître son expérience et ses compétences : faire valoir son professionnalisme

La tension vers la professionnalisation s'accompagne d'une nécessité de faire valoir le professionnalisme. Est considéré comme un professionnel celui qui sait exercer son activité, qui la maîtrise. Le professionnel est par conséquent à la fois compétent et à même de le prouver. On assiste à un vaste mouvement de mise en scène du professionnalisme, à la nécessité de rendre lisible les *compétences*. Dans les brochures publicitaires des organismes de formation, des entreprises, dans les Curriculum Vitae et leur modalités d'écriture désormais formatées par des sites internet, dans la démarche de demandes d'habilitation des diplômes, dans la VAE, les bilans de compétences, etc.

Etre un professionnel, c'est savoir le faire savoir, le dire, le manifester. Dans une logique concurrentielle, toutes les « entreprises » ont besoin de faire la preuve de leur savoir-faire. C'est la société tout entière qui est concernée par la nécessité de faire savoir l'expérience attestée en compétences dans les situations.

ⁱ Petit Robert. Dictionnaire de la langue française.

Dans cette même logique, le faire valoir, le faire savoir deviennent quasiment aussi important que la détention du savoir et de l'expertise. Les compétences professionnelles étant « périssables et doivent toujours être renouvelées » (Maillard, 2007) et l'employabilité se redéfinissant au jour le jour.

L'enjeu de compréhension des situations de travail, de formalisation des savoirs issus de l'expérience est donc fort. C'est pourquoi on a vu monter l'intérêt pour l'analyse du travail et ses méthodes dans les milieux éducatifs. C'est pourquoi aussi un ensemble de travaux autour de l'analyse du travail et de la formation s'est développé, nécessaires pour étudier la relation travail/formation (Champy-Remoussenard. C'est pourquoi également nombre de pratiques éducatives se trouvent traversées par la nécessité de savoir faire connaître et reconnaître l'expérience et les compétences.

4. Zoom sur des dispositifs existant dans le système éducatif français

Deux dispositifs qui se développent aujourd'hui vont me permettre d'illustrer très concrètement les analyses que je viens de proposer d'un point de vue général. Ils permettront aussi de comprendre que nous assistons à de véritables changements mais dans un cadre général qui conserve certaines de ses caractéristiques essentielles, ce qui n'est pas sans introduire quelques paradoxes.

4.1 La relation école/entreprise dans l'enseignement secondaire et le dispositif « Entreprendre en lycée »

De quoi s'agit-il ?

Au cours d'une année scolaire, des élèves de l'enseignement secondaire, potentiellement issus de classes différentes et réunis en équipe de projets, ont pour objectif de concevoir et de faire vivre une entreprise. De l'idée au plan d'affaire, et à la commercialisation, toutes les étapes de la création et de la gestion d'entreprise constituent l'expérience vécue par les élèves, les enseignants et les partenaires qui participent aussi au projet en accompagnant les jeunes. Tous ces acteurs s'engagent dans la démarche sur la base du volontariat.

L'enseignement à l'entrepreneuriat ou à la création d'entreprise s'est historiquement développé dans l'enseignement supérieur et y est actuellement plus présent. Ce qui caractérise donc notamment ces nouveaux dispositifs, c'est la volonté d'étendre cela aux élèves de l'enseignement secondaire dit général.

Différents autres dispositifs sont mis en place dans l'enseignement secondaire français, dans le but de rapprocher élèves et enseignants du monde du travail. On peut citer la Semaine école/entreprise, les stages en entreprise intégrés récemment dans la formation des professeurs, ou encore l'option découverte de l'entreprise, facultative en classe de troisième et enfin, au lycée, différents dispositifs quasi similaires à Entreprendre au lycée.

Les opérations de type « Entreprendre en lycée » sont plus particulièrement destinées à développer la culture de l'entrepreneuriat (on parle d'*esprit d'entreprendre*, de *compétences à entreprendre*, de *culture entrepreneuriale*). Les mots traduisent bien le fait qu'au delà de l'acquisition de savoirs, il s'agit d'engager les élèves dans un processus de socialisation spécifique, de leur donner une « tournure d'esprit », une « mentalité » d'entrepreneurs.

Pour comprendre l'émergence de ces opérations dans certaines académies française, il faut les situer dans un contexte européen et mondial.

Une de stratégies définie au sommet de Lisbonne en 2000 identifie l'esprit d'entreprise comme une nouvelle « compétence de base ». La promotion d'aptitudes et d'attitudes entrepreneuriales est affichée comme une priorité politique du gouvernement Européen. Les systèmes éducatifs des pays membres sont donc appelés à prendre des initiatives pour développer ce type de compétences. L'un des moyens pédagogiques est *l'entreprise d'étudiant* définie comme « outil pédagogique basé sur l'acquisition d'une expérience pratique par la gestion d'un projet complet d'entreprise, entraînant des interactions avec l'environnement extérieur (le monde des affaires ou les collectivités locales) ».

Deux types de compétences attendues sont en fait définis par les experts et traduisent les différents objectifs de ces programmes.

- Premièrement des qualités génériques ou personnelles associées à ces expériences (par exemple, la créativité, l'esprit d'initiative).
- Deuxièmement des aptitudes spécifiques à la gestion d'entreprise.

Ces stratégies ne sont pas propres à l'Europe. Au Québec par exemple, la démarche est également largement développée.

Dans ses nouveaux programmes éducatifs, la France module l'objectif européen de la manière suivante: La compétence à entreprendre devient l'esprit d'initiative.

Si les objectifs de ces dispositifs convergent, ils se traduisent par des mises en œuvre inscrites sur des territoires spécifiques. Dans un certain nombre d'académies françaises dont la Guadeloupe qui est le contexte que j'ai étudié de plus près.

Ces programmes pédagogiques relancent le questionnement sur l'ouverture de l'école sur les autres instances sociales pouvant contribuer à l'éducation. Dans ce cas, comme dans les formations en alternance et la VAE, le monde du travail pénètre dans celui de l'école et le monde de l'école dans le monde du travail et ces différentes instances travaillent ensemble à la formation et à la professionnalisation des jeunes.

On voit aussi que ces dispositifs reposent sur une stratégie de valorisation de l'apprentissage par l'expérience, au plus près du réel, dont j'ai montré la montée en puissance.

Des questions se posent :

- Celle tout d'abord se pose du degré d'intégration de ces démarches au système éducatif : actuellement la forme prise est para ou péri scolaires, et ne touche qu'une partie des élèves et enseignants.

Quid, par conséquent du devenir des acquis spécifiques construits par les élèves à l'occasion de cette création de mini entreprises et qui ne se trouvent pour le moment intégrés au processus d'évaluation du diplôme préparé par les élèves. La reconnaissance de l'expérience est donc dans ce cas un enjeu considérable.

A quel âge et selon quelles modalités organiser ces expériences basées sur la découverte de la sphère des activités professionnelles ? A partir de quand commencer et comment ? Les promoteurs de l'enseignement de l'entrepreneuriat disent qu'il faut commencer le plus tôt possible ce processus qui dès lors relève d'un processus de socialisation et d'éducation à certains comportements, à certaines valeurs.

L'évolution des pédagogies

EEL est organisé à partir de méthodes pédagogiques connues mais pas centrales dans l'école française. La pédagogie du projet, de l'expérience (du « problème » dirait B. Schwartz) qui suppose une logique pluridisciplinaire elle aussi peu développée. On notera la tension entre un appel à de telles stratégies et le fonctionnement structurel de l'Ecole française

L'évolution du rapport au savoir. En toute logique ce type de pédagogie devrait modifier de manière forte le rapport aux différents types de savoirs utiles à la professionnalisation, notamment conduire à réfléchir au statut des savoir être ou compétences relationnelles dans l'école et peut-être interroger la dualité théorie/pratique.

Enfin, ces démarches devraient aussi avoir un impact non négligeable sur la connaissance que les enseignants ont du monde du travail. Cette connaissance accrue est susceptible de faire évoluer leurs pratiques et leurs représentations de l'orientation professionnelle des élèves.

Risques

Riche de très belles perspectives le développement de dispositifs tels qu'EEL comporte certains risques et notamment celui de considérer l'Ecole comme entreprise, en risquant de gommer la spécificité du rôle des différentes instances éducatives dans leur mission éducative partagée.

4.2. La Validation des acquis de l'expérience

De quoi s'agit-il ?

La reconnaissance de la fonction éducative du travail s'est trouvée traduite depuis 2002 en France par une législation qui redéfinit l'organisation de l'accès à la certification : la loi sur la Validation des Acquis Professionnels et la Validation des Acquis de l'Expérience

Rappelons tout d'abord son principe. Instaurée en France par la loi de modernisation sociale de janvier 2002, la validation des acquis de l'expérience (VAE) permet à toute personne engagée dans la vie active depuis au moins trois ans de faire reconnaître officiellement les acquis non formels et informels de son expérience, en vue de l'obtention d'un titre, d'un diplôme à finalité professionnelle ou d'un certificat de qualification (titre II, Travail, emploi et formation professionnelle, chapitre II, Développement de la formation professionnelle, section 1 Validation des acquis de l'expérience, articles 133 à 146).

La VAE a fait suite à la Validation des Acquis Professionnels, (loi du 20 juillet 1992) qui permettait alors à toute personne ayant exercé une activité professionnelle pendant cinq ans de faire valoir son expérience pour être dispensée d'une partie seulement des épreuves d'un diplôme. La VAE élargit encore le champ des possibilités de valorisation des expériences individuelles puisque qu'elle suppose une durée d'expérience plus courte (3 ans), qu'elle rend possible la validation d'expériences non professionnelles et l'obtention d'un diplôme dans son intégralité.

Que se passe-t-il, en pratique pour un candidat à la VAE ? Le candidat va d'adresser à un certificateur (une institution qui délivre des diplômes) et identifier un diplôme qui corresponde à son expérience acquise dans différents types de situations potentielles. Il va devoir ensuite passer par un processus comportant plusieurs étapes que j'appellerai le *travail* de VAE. Il s'agit dans cette phase de préparer ce qui va faire l'objet de l'évaluation du jury. Dans la majeure partie des cas, ce processus repose essentiellement sur la rédaction d'un dossier formalisant l'expérience susceptible de faire l'objet d'une validation au regard d'un diplôme donnée. Le jury qui se réunit est composé de professionnels de l'éducation et de représentants de la profession concernée.

Dans ce cas également, ces pratiques s'inscrivent clairement dans un contexte global, européen qui les a impulsées.

Dans la logique de formation tout au long de la vie définie par la politique européenne au sommet de Lisbonne en 2000, il s'agit, d'élever, par le moyen de la VAE, le niveau de formation de la population, et d'augmenter le nombre de personnes possédant un diplôme. La VAE vise l'accès au diplôme et à la certification professionnelle pour tous et participe de façon évidente d'une valorisation des savoirs de l'expérience dont nous avons déjà montré la dynamique.

Jamais la reconnaissance des savoirs non formels et informels ne s'est sans doute trouvée matérialisée aussi concrètement que dans la VAE. La démarche implique aussi un changement considérable qui consiste à détacher le diplôme de la formation à délier certification et formation qui auparavant étaient nécessairement liées.

La mise en œuvre de la VAE entend aussi rendre plus visible et mieux accessibles les voies d'accès vers la professionnalisation. La connaissance des possibilités offertes étant supposée accroître les projets des individus. D'où la création en France de la Commission Nationale des Certifications Professionnelles, du Répertoire Nationale des Certifications Professionnelles destinée à réguler et

rendre visible l'offre de certification nationale (un territoire auparavant mal balisé) qui dessine l'offre de diplômes professionnels, assortie de la nécessité quasi incontournable de proposer les référentiels de compétences de tous ceux qui y sont répertoriésⁱⁱ.

La mise en œuvre de la VAE repose sur un principe d'évaluation en lien étroit avec la capacité des candidats à mettre en valeur leur expérience. Il s'agit là d'un exercice de nature très différente de celui qui préside actuellement à l'obtention d'un diplôme par la voie traditionnelle.

La mise en mots de l'expérience, la connaissance et la reconnaissance du travail réel sont au cœur des enjeux de la VAE.

La VAE questionne aussi les liens entre système éducatif et monde du travail. La VAE a en effet notamment pour effet de faire découvrir aux praticiens du système éducatif la sphère des activités professionnelles. Puisqu'elles sont principalement déléguées à des enseignants, formateurs etc., des activités d'accompagnement et de conduite de jury de la VAE induisent des transformations des compétences, des connaissances et des identités de ces professionnels sur ce registre. Leur rapport au savoir, leurs pratiques d'évaluation, leurs regards sur l'orientation professionnelle peuvent d'en trouver modifiées. Cette ouverture sur le monde du travail se matérialise par la constitution des jurys au sein desquels enseignants et professionnels délivrent ensemble la certification et travaillent ensemble à évaluer les acquis des candidats. L'ouverture s'opère aussi à l'occasion des pratiques d'accompagnement du candidat à l'occasion desquelles les acteurs du système éducatif découvrent comment on apprend et ce qu'on apprend des situations de travail.

Risques, paradoxes, contradiction

Dans le cas de la VE la légitimité renforcée des savoirs de l'expérience cohabite avec une persistance de la forme scolaire (Vincens) et donc la prédominance de la maîtrise de la langue écrite dans les processus d'évaluation. Ceci questionne doublement la VAE. Favorise-t-elle d'une part l'égalité des chances ? Révolutionne-t-elle tant que cela le système éducatif ?

Conclusion

Ces dispositifs modifieront-ils radicalement la forme éducative de la société, le rapport aux différents types de savoirs, le degré d'ouverture de l'école sur la société, les pédagogies pratiquées, les formes de partenariat entre monde éducatif et monde professionnel ? Leur mise en œuvre signale des évolutions tendanciennes mais ne marquent peut-être pas encore un bouleversement global. La fonction sociale et d'insertion professionnelle de l'école se trouve réaffirmée par l'intérêt porté à la professionnalisation. Elle fait consensus mais le fait que le processus de préparation à la vie professionnelle *soit direct* ou *indirect*, donc la

ⁱⁱ Inscrits dans le cadre européen des certifications (*European qualification framework*).

temporalité et les modalités de cette préparation au monde du travail sont encore largement en débat.

En tout cas, le mouvement vers toujours plus de professionnalisation a pour effet de questionner les principes habituels de l'enseignement scolaire : rapport au savoir, modalités et objets de l'évaluation, compétences des enseignants, partenariats écoles/mondes du travail.

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Ready Schools Miami: Ensuring the Professional Development of Teachers/Principals

Alyson Adams¹, Dorene Ross², and Donald Pemberton³

¹ University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA
adamsa@coe.ufl.edu

² University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA
dross@coe.ufl.edu

³ University of Florida, Gainesville, FL, USA
dpemberton@coe.ufl.edu

Abstract

Leveraging the momentum of multiple Florida early childhood and school reform initiatives, Ready Schools Miami is designed to enhance local and state efforts to improve child well-being and change practice in early learning and elementary education. One of the aspects of the Ready Schools (RS) initiative focuses on the elementary schools themselves, improving the quality of teaching and learning. Educators in this initiative work together to align curriculum, assessment, and instruction; engage in professional development to ensure the use of developmentally appropriate strategies; and assure children's successful transition from early care to school. Starting with 16 schools in year one, the RS initiative will quickly expand to include all 200+ elementary schools in Miami-Dade County, the fourth largest school system in the US. In this paper, the authors present findings from pilot research, as well as an overall outline of project goals and strategies.

Keywords: Teacher Professional Development – Professional Learning Communities – School Reform – Early Learning – Elementary Schools

1. Introduction

When children enter Kindergarten in the US, they are given a barrage of tests to determine "readiness". However, how do we, in turn, assure that schools are "ready" for the entering children? As the well-documented US achievement gap suggests, schools may not be quite as ready for children as they should be. So the question to educational leaders, researchers, and school reform scholars becomes, "how can we help schools *BECOME* ready?" Moving forward on this front requires attention to the professional development of educators in order to substantially improve schools to respond to the needs to diverse children.

Darling Hammond and McLaughlin (1995) posited that the US education reform agenda requires policies that support professional development to improve the abilities of teachers to rethink their own practice, to construct new classroom roles and expectations about student outcomes, and to teach in ways they have never taught before" (para 1). A key model that has evolved as a way of supporting this paradigm change is that of professional learning communities (DuFour, 2004; Thompson, Gregg, & Niska, 2004). Although many US schools

and districts have taken steps to strengthen or create professional learning communities (PLCs) to support teacher learning and development, the evidence that these efforts impact student learning is still emergent.

In this paper we present an outline of an ambitious community-wide initiative focused on improving academic and non-academic outcomes for young children. The partners involved are numerous, but this paper will focus on the school-based piece of the initiative, aimed at improving educational outcomes for children by improving teaching, learning, and leadership in elementary schools. In addition, we present data from a pilot program, demonstrating the impact on student achievement of a professional development program designed to enhance professional learning communities in 14 high poverty elementary schools in three districts in Florida.

Our overarching goal in this PLC-based initiative is to assist these schools as they work to improve student success, and we do so through extensive year-long professional development activities with teachers and principals at each school. Inquiry, collaboration, and the use of formal and informal data to guide professional decisions form the backbone for the work, although how that is transformed into action at each school differs due to the specific strengths and challenges of each context. This pilot program in 14 schools helped to define the model for the Ready Schools (RS) initiative. This paper will describe the structure and content of the professional development model within a larger community initiative, present statistical analysis from a pilot study using latent growth models to estimate of the effect of participating in a PLC-based reform initiative on mathematics and reading achievement scores, and describe the implications of the study for teachers, teacher educators, and professional developers working to enhance student achievement through PLC-based professional development.

2. Theoretical Background

Fullan (2003) states that a major flaw in the majority of current professional development and school reform strategies is that they are based upon individualistic assumptions rather than a systems approach. He certainly does not argue against increasing the knowledge and skills of individual teachers, nor against the importance of hiring highly qualified teachers, however, he explains that the context in which teachers and students learn is the more significant factor. Coupling attention to professional development with a focus on context and school culture sits at the heart of school reform that focuses on building professional learning communities. This reform moves professional development beyond merely supporting the acquisition of new knowledge and skills for teachers toward helping teachers rethink and reinvent their practice (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). This model of professional development ultimately requires school reform that creates a fundamental change in institutional structures to incorporate five essential characteristics of professional learning communities (PLC): shared values and norms, a clear and consistent focus on student learning, reflective dialogue, deprivatization of practice to make teaching public, and a clear focus on collaboration (DuFour, 2004; Louis & Marks, 1998; Newman and Associates, 1996).

Although current professional development literature is replete with articles that extol the virtues of learning communities as an essential way to organize schools in order to maximize time spent in professional development (e.g. Bryk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; DuFour, 2004), the majority of the literature about these efforts provides descriptions of the process of creating professional learning communities, and reports of teachers' perceptions about the value of this reform (Vescio, Ross & Adams, 2008). Only recently and in only a handful of studies has the focus of this literature shifted to empirically examining the changes in teachers' practices and students' learning as a result of professional learning communities (e.g. Berry, Johnson, & Montgomery, 2005; Dunne, Nave and Lewis, 2000; Hollins, McIntyre, DeBose, Hollins, & Towner, 2004; Louis & Marks, 1998; Strahan, 2003; Supovitz & Christman, 2003). Even fewer address the merits of this reform effort in addressing the achievement of poor and/or minority students in urban contexts.

From existing studies that do report impact of PLCs on student outcomes, several findings emerge that highlight critical aspects of learning communities that contribute to student success: a persistent focus on student learning and achievement; the use of data to drive discussions and decisions; and external facilitation to help teams remain focused. Supovitz and Christman (2003) found that student achievement increased only for certain collaborative teams that were focused intensely on instructional practices and the impact on student learning. Berry et al. (2005) found that student achievement was enhanced when teams made persistent efforts to use data, professional literature, and research to make instructional decisions. Furthermore, in another study, the presence of an external facilitator helped collaborative groups remain focused on student learning (Hollins et al., 2004).

3. Description of the Ready Schools (RS) Initiative, a PLC-based Reform Model

To fully understand the RS initiative, it is important to understand the larger work of the Center that founded this initiative. Established in 2002, the Lastinger Center at the University of Florida focuses on improving academic achievement by improving the quality of teaching, learning, and leadership in elementary schools. Our partnerships target elementary schools with high poverty and high minority student populations; high teacher turnover rates; high percentages of students reading below grade level, and a history of low achievement on standardized tests. To establish an effective PLC, schools must accomplish three inter-connected tasks: building a collegial school culture, developing a clear and common commitment to equity, and adopting an inquiry stance toward student learning. Our guiding assumption is that schools need administrative and teacher leaders with the skills and dispositions to build PLCs that support teachers' and students' learning. Since 2002 the Lastinger Center has gradually developed an integrated set of supports for schools, including leadership institutes; data collection tools; on-site school facilitators; and on-line degree programs. These elements have become foundational in all the initiatives designed by the Lastinger Center, including the school-based portion of Ready Schools.

Leveraging the momentum of multiple Florida early childhood and school reform initiatives, the RS Initiative is designed to enhance local and state efforts to

improve child well-being and change practice in early learning and elementary education. Situated in Miami-Dade County, Florida, the RS initiative is a 4-year, \$10 million dollar project funded by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation. At the heart of this initiative is the development and utilization of a set of replicable strategies that can serve as a model for the state and country to mobilize community investments in child well-being and intellectual development. These strategies connect public schools, social-sector agencies, early learning organizations, governmental institutions, and philanthropic entities to leverage resources and existing initiatives to produce improved outcomes for children. The RS model, when fully implemented, will offer young children and families a smooth transition between home, early learning experiences, and elementary school along with a tightly woven safety-net of support services to enhance a child's healthy growth and development.

The school-based portion of RS is a comprehensive school improvement approach designed to help teachers and administrators improve their practice in order to ensure the success of every child, or as mentioned in the introduction, to ensure that schools are "ready" for the children that arrive. The school-based RS model is focused on 5 areas: high-quality teaching (appropriate content and pedagogy); collaborative school culture; high quality professional development; effective leadership; and evidence-based decision making.

3.1 High-quality teaching

Ready Schools have teachers who use developmentally appropriate content and pedagogy and engage all learners to maximize student success. To work on this goal, RS faculty attend summer institutes involving ten or more teachers plus administrators. Teachers read about, discuss, and view video tapes of practices that are developmentally appropriate for young learners, and then analyze current school practices that are consistent and inconsistent with these strategies. Together, school teams create plans that are then fine-tuned by other schools, and have support within PLCs throughout the year as they help each other adopt practices that are more developmentally appropriate.

We also use a valid and reliable classroom observation instrument to help schools analyze the engagement of students and teachers. The Instructional Practices Inventory (IPI) gives a school-wide snapshot that divides a typically day of instruction into 6 categories: Active, engaged instruction; student-led conversations; teacher-led instruction; student work with teacher engaged; student work with teacher disengaged; and total disengagement (Valentine, 2005). These data help schools make decisions about how to improve practice to engage more learners.

3.2 Collaborative school culture

Ready Schools establish collaborative cultures where educators make practice public, analyze student work, and explore dilemmas of practice. Because we view this as a foundational, critical aspect of the RS framework, the work on this goal begins immediately when schools are selected as Ready Schools. During summer institutes and subsequent trainings during the school year, teachers and leaders

are immersed in experiential learning to help them understand what it means to become a professional learning community where learning is supported and nurtured at all levels. In addition, RS faculties read articles to stimulate reflection on issues of educational equity and the theoretical underpinnings of Professional Learning Communities. Teacher leaders are trained in the use of structured discussion protocols such as those developed by the National School Reform Faculty (NSRF) for developing collegial relationships, reflective practice, and rethinking school leadership. These discussion tools help teams engage in structured professional conversations on school culture, teaching practice, and student learning. Throughout the year, the school-based PLC coaches lead their colleagues in discussions on readings designed to develop new knowledge, analyze data on their school culture and teaching practice, and revisit their action plans.

3.3 High-quality professional development

In Ready Schools, inquiry-based professional development (PD) is designed & delivered using best practices for adult learning and is aligned with school goals to address student needs. Teachers need access to the latest research-based content and pedagogy, but they also need support as they try new strategies, study the implementation of those strategies, and adapt future instruction based on student learning. This approach goes beyond traditional PD, where teachers are taught new strategies, but little attention is paid to helping them try out the strategies back in their classrooms. Therefore, the RS model must use a two-pronged approach to enhancing teacher knowledge and practice that addresses both areas.

Teacher knowledge is enhanced by providing PD to teachers on a variety of timely topics, based on student and teacher needs. The PD content training is available online and onsite in order to provide access to top university scholars who are not always available onsite. The workshops extend beyond a one-shot training in order to emphasize the use of practices in the classroom. For example, teachers across several partner schools may participate in a 3-session training on Vocabulary and Comprehension, where they learn new strategies in vocabulary instruction, watch video taped segments of new practices in action, create lesson plans together, and then, in subsequent sessions, teachers bring back evidence of student learning based on the implemented lesson plans and learn how to strengthen their strategies to meet student needs. This approach to professional learning deepens the knowledge of teachers and also helps them use the new knowledge in practice immediately.

The PD described above is available to all teachers in the RS initiative. However, some teachers are able to deepen their learning even further by enrolling in a job embedded graduate degree program. Teachers who are interested in pursuing a graduate degree and who meet the entrance requirements of the university are selected to participate in a full-tuition-paid degree program. In this program, site-based university faculty members provide classroom support and feedback as participants implement new strategies and design inquiries to assess impact on student learning. Programs emphasize the development of teacher leadership for school improvement as well as advanced content and pedagogy for master teachers.

In addition to on-site professors in residence who teach the graduate students in this program, there are also several external facilitators that support the development of school-based teacher leaders. Facilitators meet regularly with school leaders to design, implement, and evaluate the plans for school improvement activities. Also, facilitators guide inquiry by conducting meetings to lead teachers through a process of systematically, intentionally studying their own practice. They help lead teachers through a process in which teachers develop questions related to practice, collect data to gain insight into those questions, analyze data and read relevant literature to expand their understandings, and take action based on the data. The ultimate purpose of these external facilitators is to support the teacher leaders as schools develop internal capacity to do this work on their own, within their improved collaborative school cultures.

3.4 Effective leadership

Ready School leaders (principals & teacher leaders) convey expectations for continuous learning of all educators and put the supports and conditions in place for learning to occur. As mentioned in the previous section, part of our goal is to increase the internal capacity of schools to lead these changes themselves. We also work closely with principals to increase their abilities to lead through shared decision making, granting teacher leaders more authority and responsibility for school improvement.

School principals in the US are typically one of the most isolated of all education professionals. At their schools they have no peer support group, no collaborative team, and district principal meetings are typically seen as opportunities to present and mandate district-wide actions rather than provide principals the opportunity to talk about challenges of leading for school improvement. Therefore, in the RS initiative, we bring principals together in their own learning community 4 times a year to read literature on school change, to discuss and develop leadership capabilities, and to analyze the dilemmas of leading change.

3.5 Evidence-based decision making

Ready Schools use evidence-based decision making with formal and informal measures to guide decisions about student progress and improvement efforts. The Lastinger Center for Learning provides a variety of data collection tools to help schools monitor their progress toward creating effective Professional Learning Communities, improving school culture, and enhancing teaching practice. An informal Professional Learning Community matrix is used to help school leaders lead discussions with their faculties about essential elements of collaborative school cultures. We also administer a survey developed by Gruenert and Valentine (1998) that provides feedback on faculty perceptions of school culture using 7 different factors related to collaborative school culture. Results from the survey are shared with faculties after they have a discussion about school culture using the matrix previously described, and then school teams create action plans to work on one or more areas of culture.

We also provide schools with evidence related to instructional practices. As mentioned previously, the IPI observation tool (Valentine, 2005) is used to provide a whole school portrait of teaching practice and the relative levels of teacher and student engagement. It provides valuable data for schools when they engage in conversations about student learning. School faculties study and reflect upon data generated by the IPI process. They then think collaboratively on practices that may require further examination to ensure that teaching practices facilitate active, engaged learning for students.

4. Pilot Study Research

Because the RS initiative just began this year, we were not able to provide evidence at the student level about whether this initiative had an impact on student learning. We also know that change of this magnitude takes time, and therefore wanted to study longitudinal student impact. However, despite these two restrictions, we did have access to three years of student data in schools that were involved in the pilot work of the Lastinger Center since its inception. Therefore, the study presented here is based on pilot work using a similar reform initiative, but in 14 schools around the state, not just based in Miami-Dade County.

The objective of this study is to identify the effect of a PLC-based school reform model on the mathematics and reading achievement growth of students from 3rd to 5th grade, as measured by scores on the Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test (FCAT). Analyses were performed with student and school level data. The analyses answered the following research question:

Was the growth trajectory of mathematics and reading achievement of students in partner schools different from the growth trajectory of students in comparable schools not in the program?

4.1 Pilot study methods

The research question was addressed using longitudinal data collected from elementary schools in Florida from the 2001/2 to the 2005/6 academic years. The outcomes for the analyses were students' developmental FCAT scores on mathematics and reading.

The use of statistical methods to make inferences about the effect of the Lastinger Center program on student outcomes is complicated by the fact that schools are not randomly assigned to participate in the Lastinger Center program. Therefore, nonrandom differences between Lastinger schools and non-Lastinger schools may lead to biased estimates. More specifically, Lastinger schools tend to be different from non-Lastinger schools because most of them have systematically obtained low school grades (D's and F's) from the Florida Department of Education, which indicates that they are low-performing schools. Furthermore, they tend to have high percentage of minority students. To address the problem of lack of random assignment common to observational studies, we matched each Lastinger school to five non-Lastinger schools based on their similarities before the Lastinger Center program became available to the schools.

Schools included in this analysis may have joined the Lastinger Center program in 2003/4 or 2004/5. To account for the difference in time participating in the Lastinger Center program, matching was performed separately for the schools that joined the program each year using up to 12 covariates measured in the three years prior to joining the Lastinger center program. Each Lastinger school was matched to 5 non-Lastinger schools. More information on the matching and specific covariates can be found in our 2008 AERA paper (Leite, Adams, Ross, & Butler, 2008), as well as information on the state standardized test instrument (Florida Comprehensive Achievement Test). Descriptive statistics for Lastinger Schools and matched Schools are found below.

| Group | | Minority Percentage 2002 | Percentage of students receiving free or reduced lunch 2002 | Percentage of 3 rd graders retained in 2002 | Percentage of 3 rd graders retained in 2003 |
|-----------|----------------|--------------------------|---|--|--|
| Matched | schools 2003/4 | 87.82% | 86.76% | 11.42% | 16.58% |
| Lastinger | schools 2003/4 | 87.54% | 81.62% | 12.92% | 19.08% |
| Matched | schools 2004/5 | 92.71% | 89.24% | 19.70% | 26.46% |
| Lastinger | schools 2004/5 | 89.70% | 89.17% | 22.33% | 33.27% |

4.1.1 Sample

The sample for the analysis were all 3rd, 4th and 5th grade students attending the Lastinger Schools and matched schools in 2003/4, 2004/5 and 2005/6, respectively. The total student sample size was 9794. The sample includes both students that remained in the schools from 2003/4 to 2005/6 as well as students that joined the school during this time period. If a student was not in a Lastinger school or matched school in a given year, the dataset has missing values for the student's reading and mathematics FCAT scores. These missing values were handled with the MPLUS software by using full information maximum likelihood to estimate the model. There were 8 Lastinger schools in 2003/4, 14 in 2004/5 and 8 in 2005/6. Only 8 schools were analyzed in 2005/6 due to changes in the selection process for Lastinger Center schools. The number of matched schools was 50. Although we matched 5 schools to each Lastinger school, some schools are matched to multiple Lastinger Schools because the matching is done with replacement.

4.1.2 Analysis

Latent growth models (Hancock & Lawrence, 2006; Meredith & Tisak, 1990; Willett & Keiley, 2000; Willett & Sayer, 1994) were used to estimate the effect of participating in the Lastinger Center program on student growth in mathematics

and reading FCAT scores. The student data analyzed were from the cohort of students that were in 3rd grade in 2003/4. Due to space limitations in this paper, we cannot fully describe the intricacies of this model. However, more information as well as the latent growth formulas and visual models can be found in our recent AERA paper (Leite, Adams, Ross, & Butler, 2008).

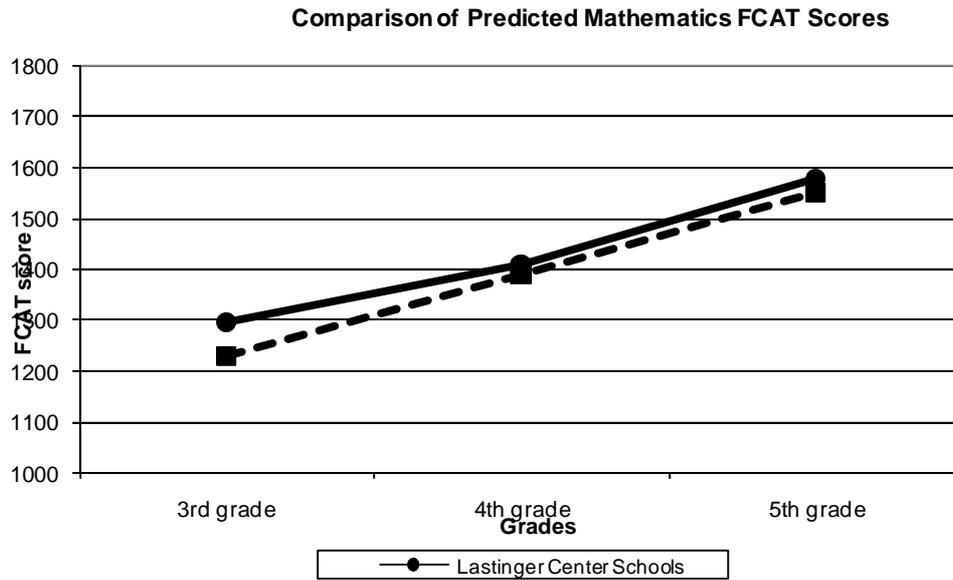
4. 2 Pilot study results

The fit of the latent growth models for FCAT mathematics and reading was adequate, as shown below:

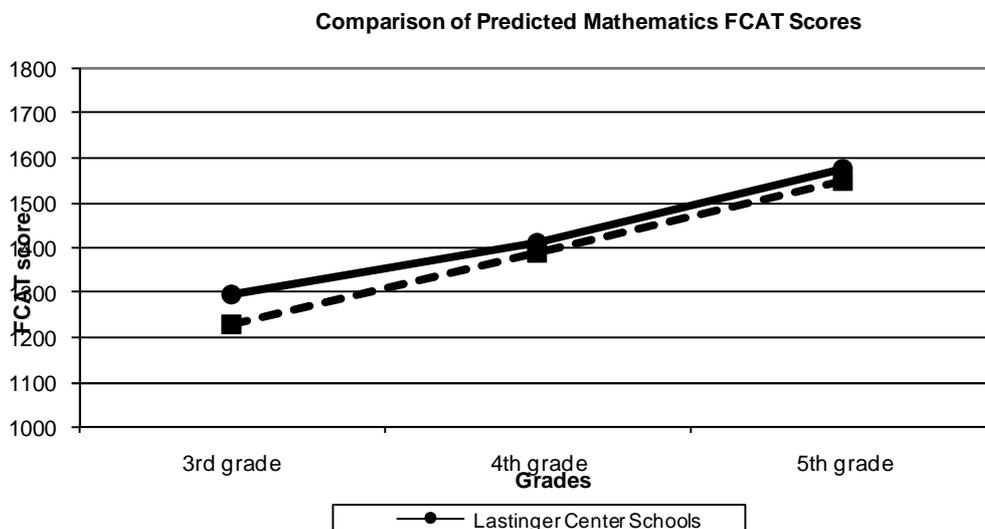
| Outcome | χ^2 | p | DF | CFI | TLI | RMSEA | CI RMSEA |
|---------------------|----------|-----------|------|------------|------------|--------------|------------------|
| Mathematics FCAT | 100.716 | $p > .05$ | 12 | 0.990 | 0.983 | 0.027 | 0.023 - 0.033 |
| Reading FCAT | 303.311 | $P > .05$ | 12 | 0.971 | 0.950 | 0.050 | 0.045 0.055 |

Note. N = 9794

For the mathematics FCAT scores, the estimated level was 1228.411 (SE = 3.56, $p < 0.017$), which is the expected Mathematics FCAT score of a 3rd grade student not in the Lastinger school in 2003. The estimated mean of the shape was 160.84 (SE = 1.74, $p < 0.01$), which is the expected change in FCAT mathematics scores per year. The correlation between level and shape was -0.50 (SE = 0.04, $p < .01$) which indicates a tendency for students who obtained lower mathematics FCAT scores in 3rd grade to demonstrate faster growth in mathematics scores (a catch up effect). The participation of a school in the Lastinger Center program was found to correspond to an expected increase of 65.257 points (SE = 8.058, $p < 0.01$) in the Mathematics FCAT scores of the students in the Lastinger Center schools, as compared to students in the matched schools. This difference is best interpreted with reference to the mean expected growth per year (160.842). The ratio of the difference in scores and the expected growth is 0.4 which indicates that the difference between the scores of students in Lastinger schools and matched schools corresponds to 40% of the expected growth in mathematics scores in a year. For 2004/5, the expected difference in mathematics FCAT scores between students in Lastinger and matched schools was 19.152 (SE = 5.566, $p < .01$), and for 2005 the difference was 26.753 (SE = 7.706, $p < .01$). The predicted growth of mathematics FCAT scores for students in Lastinger and matched schools from 3rd to 5th grade is shown below:



For the reading FCAT scores, the estimated level was 1212.023 (SE = 4.471, $p < 0.01$). The change in reading FCAT scores is characterized by a nonlinear shape of 211.551 (SE = 3.152, $p < 0.01$). The nonlinear shape indicates that the students are expected to improve 211.551 in their reading FCAT scores from 3rd to 4th grade and only 40% of that amount (84.620 points) between 4th and 5th grade. The correlation between level and shape was -0.50 (SE = 0.04, $p < .03$) which is identical to the estimate obtained with mathematics scores. For 2003, the estimated difference between the reading FCAT scores of a student in a Lastinger Center school and a matched school was 25.799 (SE = 9.753, $p < .01$). The estimated difference for 2004/5 was 27.592 (SE = 7.259, $p < .01$). The estimated difference for 2005 was not statistically significant. Figure 4 presents the predicted growth in reading FCAT scores for students in Lastinger and matched schools from 3rd to 5th grade.



Parameter estimates and standard errors are shown below:

| | Mathematics | Reading |
|--|------------------------|------------------------|
| Mean of level | 1228.41* (3.57) | 1212.02* (4.47) |
| Variance of level | 56068.15* (1418.46) | 95402.96* (3640.57) |
| Mean of shape | 160.84* (1.74) | 211.55* (3.15) |
| Variance of shape | 2077.07* (593.62) | 15627.28* (2424.85) |
| Correlation between level and shape | -0.50* (0.04) | -0.50* (0.03) |
| Effect of Lastinger Center participation in 2003/4 | 65.26* (8.06) | 25.80* (9.75) |
| Effect of Lastinger Center participation in 2004/5 | 19.15* (5.57) | 27.59* (7.26) |
| Effect of Lastinger Center participation in 2005/6 | 26.75* (7.71) | -13.27 (10.34) |
| Effect of leaving the Lastinger program in 2005/6 | -5.66 (7.99) | -45.26* (10.81) |

Note. * = $p < 0.01$

5. Conclusions and implications

The results at the student-level indicate that participation in the Center's PLC-based reform program has resulted in significantly higher mathematics FCAT scores in all three years analyzed and in significantly higher reading FCAT scores in two of the three years analyzed. These results are promising, especially in light of the fact that the analysis is based on the first 3 years of data when the center was just developing. As noted above, all schools included in this sample experienced a summer institute and some level of on-going support during the year but access to the full array of supports from the Lastinger Center varied. Since then, the Center has continued to refine and strengthen its model and now has 37 schools in the Lastinger Center partnership network, 16 of which are involved in the RS initiative. The findings suggest that working with school leadership to strengthen the culture of the school in ways that improve the professional learning community and help all community members to stay focused on the goals of improving teaching practice and student learning is a promising school reform strategy, and therefore a strong basis for the RS initiative.

A school-based learning community has been advocated as a reform strategy that revitalizes important developmental processes and reinvigorates the moral dimensions of school life (Louis, Kruse, & Associates, 1995; Sergiovanni, 1994; Victor & Cullen, 1988). Educational leaders have viewed community as a means to reenergize the work-life of teachers and build closer connections between teachers and students. Given the current context of high stakes testing, school grading, and performance-based teacher accountability, high-poverty schools would benefit from identifying, implementing, and supporting vehicles that engage the authentic involvement of teachers in responding to these pressures. Professional learning communities have been offered as a viable vehicle. They

create contexts for reflective discourse that becomes part of a school's culture (Dunne & Honts, 1998; Lieberman, 1995) and contributes to deeper student learning as teachers analyze evidence of student learning in order to explore and improve upon their pedagogical practices (Dunne & Honts, 1998).

The recent challenge for schools, especially those in low socioeconomic neighborhoods, has been to expand the benefits of community to the entire school, creating a school-based community in which all stakeholders embrace the educational vision and mission with the goal of improving student achievement (Bryk, Lee, & Holland, 1993; Louis, 1994; Meier, 1995; Senge, 1990). The current study provides clear documentation that whole school job-embedded professional development designed to support teacher and administrator learning within the context of a robust professional learning community has the power to demonstrate a positive impact on student achievement in both reading and mathematics.

However, PLC has been advocated as a reform structure with such regularity that some fear the term may lose real meaning. When every grade level team, school faculty, or district department becomes a PLC without a clear understanding of the essential characteristics of the concept, it is inevitable that many will be PLC in name only. In fact, DuFour (2004) cautions that "the term has been used so ubiquitously that it is in danger of losing all meaning" (para 2). In order to prevent the PLC model from the same dismal fate as other well-intentioned reform efforts, the Lastinger Center model provides tools and data that enable schools to assess their progress in recreating their school culture. These tools that help them determine whether they are making the kinds of changes likely to improve teacher and student learning. For example, the Center has created a rubric that enables school leaders to assess their progress in restructuring their culture. The rubric enables them to assess their progress in areas such as: establishing a collaborative culture, developing a deliberative plan for professional development, using evidence to make decisions about instruction and professional development, the levels of engagement of learners, and the authentic engagement of school leaders in the work. Additionally, the Center collects and analyzes formative data using a culture survey (Gruenert & Valentine, 1998) and the Instructional Practices Inventory (Painter & Valentine, 1995) to assist schools in their evidence based decision-making. These supports that assist schools in staying focused on the key characteristics of effective learning communities seem important in creating PLCs that impact student achievement.

This study also has implications for schools undergoing radical restructuring based on failure to meet NCLB standards for adequate yearly progress (AYP). Schools that fail to make AYP for five consecutive years are required to take corrective action that may include replacing staff and curriculum, employing an external expert, providing extended learning time, and/or changing organizational structure. The type of comprehensive school reform advocated for in this paper is both long-term and proactive, and can provide support for schools in their efforts to create more positive outcomes for teachers and students. We believe that comprehensive school reform efforts of this nature will help create schools that are READY for and responsive to children.

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The Elderly People and the Environmental Challenge

Constancio Aguirre¹, Ma Carmen Utanda²

¹Teacher Training School of Cuenca (UCLM) Dpt. Filología Hispánica – Spain

constancio.aguirre@uclm.es

² Teacher Training School of Cuenca (UCLM)– Spain

MariaCarmen.UHigueras@uclm.es

Abstract

In this paper we present the results of the work developed during three courses of the four-monthly subject "Nature and Environment I" within the University Program for Elderly People imparted by the University of Castilla-La Mancha in Cuenca (Spain). The contents given in that subject as well as having a divulging character, as it corresponds to this type of education, try to also have a character of motivating and awareness with respect to the environmental problems that affect the planet and the world community as a whole in the beginning of 21st century. These Problems will probably continue and extent for the next decades. The results obtain at the end of each course will be displayed. A questionnaire about knowledge, attitudes and the personal and social measures to be taken to face the environmental problems was passed at the beginning of each course. The results show a progressive attention and awareness towards problems such as the climate change, the global warming and the greenhouse effect, sustainable solutions to energy problems, endangered species and lost of biodiversity, etc. The concrete contents, questionnaire and results will be shown in the complete communication.

Keywords: Elderly - Environmental-Education – sustainability-motivation

1. Introduction

In Spain, as Orte (2003) says most of the university programs for elderly people began to operate from 1998. At present, these programs are distributed throughout the whole country. In regard to the objectives pursued in these programs, more than half of them are trying to integrate the collective of seniors at the University. This integration takes normally place through specific formative offers of varied duration. Most of them share their interest in contributing to the perception of a positive image of aging considering various aspects such as cultural and educational development, intergenerational relationships and the improving of the quality of life. The contents offered by these programs show a wide range, but with greater weight corresponding to the social, medical and technological sciences. Moreover, according to Arnay (2003) one of the most interesting challenges of university programs for elderly people, is to ensure that university training be useful firstly for the intellectual and personal development, and secondly for the projection and social participation of the elderly people that were involved in them.

2. Antecedents

As stated in the agreement Andres Bello (Orlik et al 2004), the popularization of science for people of all ages: children, youth and adults and seniors is very important not only from the perspective of educational policy of Ministries of education, but also to modern society in general because it influences in the affairs of everyday life and in the economy. Besides it is of human culture. Also, as Millar (1993) points out: A person with a high level of science education, better understands not only the interesting aspects of the natural sciences, but also their own place in the universe. This empowers a more conscious decision-making in the daily life; for example in relation to their health, their eating habits, the choice of materials to use in their daily lives, medicaments and so on; in relation to agriculture, environmental protection, energy use, etc.. In a study conducted at the University of Utah (Scott et al. 2003) states that *The natural environment has been a missing topic from education and public policy forums concerning an aging society*. A series of questionnaires was passed to 394 elderly people of southwestern UTA, in them a high degree of variability among respondents in regard to environmental attitudes and concerns was found. Despite a personal attitudinal desire to protect the environment, most older adults did not want to become involved in protective actions for the environment. And they conclude that the most influential factors associated with willingness to take action in support of the environment were having higher levels of active/social concerns, and higher levels of awareness of environmental consequences and that the opinions and actions of older adults will play a significant role in the stewardship and sustainability of natural resources, particularly in retirement hot spots.

In recent years there has been a lot of discussion in Spain about the type of university educational programs for elderly people in Symposia, Meetings, Conferences, etc. on everything. So, for Alfageme (2004) university programs for elderly people should be put within the framework of ***the learning throughout life or lifelong learning***.

The University for Elderly People "José Saramago " as an integrated programme within the structure of the university of Castilla-La Mancha (UCLM) began in the academic year 2001-2002 with the idea of not only cover some alternative needs of formative nature but with the clear intention to meet the demands of a world in which the elderly people cannot stay on the margins of society but they must be involved in it as a form of personal and collective promotion and improvement. The University as *alma mater* of society must make a continuing development and cultural training to help citizens understand and adapt to the rapid changes that characterize our time.

Within the programme of the University for Elderly People and in the campus of Cuenca of the UCLM a variety of subjects are taught as can be seen in the following chart:

| Cuenca | | |
|--|--|---|
| First Course | | Obligatory (1,5 Credits) |
| First Semester | | Second Semester |
| Literature I | | Literature II |
| Laws I | | Laws II |
| History I | | History II |
| Health sciences I | | Health sciences II |
| Informatics I | | Informatics II |
| | | |
| Second Course | | |
| First Semester | | Second Semester |
| Artistic Education I | | Artistic Education II |
| Informatics III | | English I |
| Literatura III | | The origin of Man |
| Nature and Environment I | | Nature and Environment II |
| Economic Sciences I | | Economic Sciences II |
| | | |
| Third Course | | |
| First Semester | | Second Semester |
| Art I | | Art II |
| Requirements and challenges of today's society I | | Requirements and challenges of today's society II |
| English II | | English III |
| Psicology | | Health sciences III |
| Integrated optional subject I | | Integrated optional subject II |

Chart 1

3. Nature and Environment

In the previous programme, the subject "The Nature and Environment" is conducted during the first semester of the second year with a duration of 1.5 credits (15 semester hours). It primarily focuses on point and point out, in a divulgative and pleasant way a number of contemporary environmental problems, which, on the other hand, are continuously focusing the attention of the Scientific community and the media. We can point out, among others, the following:

- Pollution
- Global Warming and Climate Change
- Depletion of natural resources
- Sources of Energy
- Biodiversity loss
- Management and disposal of industrial and municipal waste
- etc.

In order to develop a preliminary assessment of the degree of knowledge of this topic, an questionnaire about environmental problems were passed to the participants in the course during the three years that the experience has (a summary of the three results can be seen in Annex I in the form of one horizontal diagram)

The programme developed along one semester were as follows:

Topic 1.- The Environmental Science. Definitions. Relations with other sciences

Topic 2.- The Planet Earth and its terrestrial and marine ecosystems: Tundra, taiga, temperate deciduous forests, grasslands, savannas, deserts, tropical rain forests. Influence of longitude and latitude.

Topic 3.- The cycles of matter and energy on Earth. Water cycle, carbon cycle, nitrogen cycle, phosphorus cycle. Trophic chains. Pyramid food. Relation to the greenhouse effect and climate change.

Topic 4.- From the Geosystem to the Ecosystem. The solar system: our home. Planet Comparisons. Interiors and exterior planets. The singularity of life on Earth. Necessary conditions for life. Hypothesis of Drake and Sagan. Nature of life. Neguentropy. Open and closed systems. Populations. Evolutionism.

Topic 6.- Obtention of energy. Sources of energy. Renewable and non-renewable energies. The depletion of fossil fuels, and the problem of global warming. Nuclear energy.

Topic 7. Greenhouse Effect and climate change. The Kyoto protocol

Topic 8. The pollution. Different types of pollution. Urban, industrial and agricultural waste. Noise and luminic pollution.

COMPLEMENTARY ACTIVITIES

An Inconvenient Truth an American Academy Award-winning documentary film about global, presented by former United States Vice President Al Gore and directed by Davis Guggenheim.^[2] was projected in the class promoting a great interest about its contents. .

Other documentaries projected in the class were the following BBC films:

-Wild Weather: The Heat. 2002 BBC Worldwide Ltd.

-Wild Weather: Cold. "

-Wild Weather: wet "

We think that all these documentaries have contributed to increase the elderly people interests about the environmental problems and have been an appropriate complement to the theoretical classes

4. Conclusions

1.- During the four years studied, it has been found an increase in the environmental awareness among groups of seniors who have followed the course of Nature and Environment of the University of Castilla-La Mancha.

2.- To this increase appear to have contributed not only the active attendance of the course, but also the impact that documentaries such as "An Inconvenient Truth" of Al Gore or burning issues of today such as the drought and the sudden and unexpected temperature changes have had. As well, an important reason could be the growing space that the media devote to the ecological and environmental issues.

3.-As can be seen in the answers to the questionnaire, a high percentage of these seniors are quite or very much concerned by the environmental problems at local, regional and global scale. Almost all of them knew the main notions related with the topic such as: Environment, Greenhouse effect, Sustainable development, renewable energies and climate change.

4.- The majority think that renewable energies are necessary, but a little contradiction appears when they are asked about the advantages and disadvantages of each type of energy, because they also think that the advantages are predominant in the case of the oil and the nuclear energy.

5.- They are also very concerned with the environmental problems nearer to themselves or their neighbourhood.

6.- Their disposition to act in favour of the environment is not so high as their consciousness of the problem. The reason for that may be that it is easier to have an intellectual attitude than to act in everyday reality

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ANNEX I**ENVIRONMENTAL QUESTIONNAIRE****PERSONAL DATA**

| | | | |
|---|------------------------|--------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | SEX | Male (A) 8 | Female (B) 12 |
| 2 | AGE | 50-55 (A) 9 | 55-60 (B)4 +65 (D) 6 |
| 3 | PROFESSION | | |
| 4 | INTEREST IN THE MATTER | Little (A) 3 | Quite (B) 3 Much (C) 15 |

Are you worried about the environmental problems?

| | | A | B | C |
|----------|-------------------|---------------------|----------|----------|
| 5 | At local scale | Nothing at all 3 | Quite 5 | Much 15 |
| 6 | At regional scale | Nothing at all 3 | Quite 5 | Much 11 |
| 7 | At global scale | Nothing at all 4 | Quite 5 | Much 11 |

Do you know the following notions?

| | | A | B |
|-----------|-------------------------|-----------|----------|
| 8 | Environment | Yes 20 | No 0 |
| 9 | Greenhouse effect | Yes 19 | No 1 |
| 10 | Sustainable development | Yes 17 | No 3 |
| 11 | Renewable energies | Yes 15 | No 5 |
| 12 | Climate change | Yes 17 | No 3 |
| | | | |

Do you believe that the renewable energies are (surround the chosen answer)

| | | A | B | C |
|-----------|------------|----------|----------|--------------|
| 13 | Necessary | Yes 15 | No 13 | No opinión 1 |
| 14 | Profitable | Yes 17 | No 3 | No opinión 0 |
| 15 | Clean | Yes 15 | No 3 | No opinión 1 |

According to your opinion, energy sources following what dominates its advantages or disadvantages

| | | Advantages are predominant | Disadvantages are predominant |
|-----------|----------------------|----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 16 | Oil | A 17 | B 3 |
| 17 | Nuclear Energy | A 19 | B 1 |
| 18 | Solar energy | A 15 | B 3 |
| 19 | Wind energy | A 13 | B 5 |
| 20 | Hydroelectric Energy | A 8 | B 11 |

OTHER GENERAL QUESTIONS

21) Are you concerned with the protection of the environment and the surrounding neighbourhood?

a) Yes No

22) If so, to what extent?

a) Very Concerned b) Somewhat concerned c) Shortly concerned
d) Not at all concerned

23) Do you like your neighbourhood?

a) yes b) no

24) Do you like living there?

a) yes b) no

5) What actions do you make to preserve your environment at home?

a) Selective sorting of household waste
b) Saving water (eg. not let tap water run)
c) Putting batteries in an appropriate place
d) Limiting your intake of energy (low consume bulbs)
e) some
f) Other specify

26) Would you be willing to make simple and day life gestures to preserve the environment?

a) Yes b)No

27) Are you sensitive to renewable energy (solar, water, plants and heat of the earth)?

a) Very sensitive b) Few sensitive c) Somewhat d) Not at all sensitive

28) Do you have enough information about renewable energies?

a) Yes b) No

29) What kind of water do you drink?

- a) Bottled water b) Running water

30) If this is not running water, why?

- a) Lack of confidence in its quality b) Unpleasant taste

Other:

B) RIVER WALKS**31) Do you know the walks along the river Júcar ?**

- a) Oui b) Non

22) Do you like to go there to promenade?

- a) Yes b) Non

33) How do you find the state of the river?

- a) Very dirty b) Dirty c) Clean d) Other

34) do you like to make pic-nic on the edge of the river?

- a) Yes b) Non

35) If yes, what do you do with your waste?

- a) I just let it on the ground b) I carry it with me c) I put it in the recycling containers on site d) Other

C) WASTE**36) In your district, there is a system of collection for:**

- a) green packaging waste b) paper and cardboard c) glass d) plastics e) batteries

37) Are you sufficiently informed of the collecting days of bulky trash, scrap metal, packaging, green waste?

- a) Yes b) No

38) What do you do with your waste such as tissue paper, cigarette butts ... ?

- a) I throw them on the public road
b) I keep them and then empty into a garbage can as soon as possible

39) What do you think of the selective collection in your district?

- a) Needless b) Simple c) Practical d) Complex e) Waste of time

40) If you do not do, why?

- a) lack of time b) laziness c) lack of motivation d) other

41) If you have a garden, what do you do with your green waste (leaves, branches ...)?

- a) I throw it into the Dump b) I practice composting c) Other

42) Where do you put your rubble?

- a) I throw it into the Dump b) I recycle c) I deposit it before the bins d) Other

43) Do you have any remarks on the handling of waste?

- a) Satisfactory b) Convenient and easy c) unsatisfactory d) Complex e) Other:

D) TRANSPORTS

44) What means of transport do you use most often?

- a) Car b) Bus c) On foot d) Bicycle e) Other

45) On what occasions do you use this means of transport?

- a) To buy the bread, the newspaper b) To get to work c) To take the children to school

- d) For recreation e) Other

46) How do you move into the neighbourhood?

- a) on foot b) by car c) by bicycle d) by bus d) other

47) Do you think that the means of transportation pollute the environment?

- a) Yes b) No

E) INFORMATION

48) What could be done to improve the quality of the environment in the neighbourhood?

- a) nothing b) very few c) something d) many things

Science Museums and Informal Education: Three experiences with Teacher Students of Primary Education included in the Formal Curriculum

Constancio Aguirre¹, M^a Carmen Utanda², Ana M^a Vázquez³

¹Teacher Training School of Cuenca (UCLM) Dpt. Filología Hispánica – Spain

Constancio.aguirre@uclm.es

² Teacher Training School of Cuenca (UCLM)– Spain

MariaCarmen.UHigueras@uclm.es

³ Teacher Training School of Albacete (UCLM) - Spain

Ana.vazquez@uclm.es

Abstract

During the last years we have developed in the Teacher Training School of Cuenca (University of Castilla-La Mancha) three educative experiences focused on the education in Museums like non formal educative resources included within the formal curriculum. This approach conceives science museums as special educative spaces and as innovative places of learning. The three experiences have been carried out like a programmed activity within the educational programme of the subject named "Didactics of Experimental Sciences". For its development we have considered the theoretical frame developed by the (GREM) of the University of Québec, and the ideas of Légendre, Hein and Wagensberg. In each one of them students had to implement different. In the third one, students visited and compared through a questionnaire "ad hoc" three different science museums: *Sciences Museum of Castilla-La Mancha* (Cuenca), *Cosmocaixa* (Madrid) and the *Science Museum "Príncipe Felipe"* (Valencia). The results of the questionnaires fulfilled by the students and the main conclusions of them will be exposed during the oral presentation of the paper.

Keywords: museums – science - non-formal – education - constructivism

1. Introduction

Taking into account the works of Hein, Legendre , Allard and Wagensberg on education in Museums, we have developed in the last years a series of didactic experiences with students of second and third course of Teacher Students of Primary Education of Cuenca and Albacete (University of Castilla-La Mancha in Spain) within the subject "Sciences of Nature I" and "Science Education". We have tried to integrate in the formal curriculum of the subjects a non-formal resource as it is the visit to one or several museums of Science. We have followed a series of guidelines established by one of these authors and its group (Allard) considering that our students as future teachers are able to organize and manage the visit to a museum of science with their future students of Primary Education.

In Spain there are, at the present time, more than twenty museums or science centres sponsored by public and private organizations (autonomic Governments, City councils, financial organizations etc. Some of them have chosen another kind of denomination perhaps agreed with the function they try to develop:

"House of Sciences" in Corunna, "Park of Sciences" in Granada, "Interactive Centre of Science" in Malaga, "Space of the Science" in San Sebastián and so on...

Ampler information on these and other museums or centres of Science and Technique can be found in some Spanish publications (Perez and others, 1998), at least of the existing ones at that moment although in the last eight years the list has remarkably grown. Another work of the same authors includes a later compilation including some new centres created afterwards (Hill, M and others, 2000).

An important characteristic of these spaces is that they are almost always accompanied by other complementary facilities like "Planetariums", that is the case of Cuenca, Barcelona, Corunna, etc., "Aquariums" (Corunna, Valencia...), IMAX cinemas or other types of great format projection systems. These installations doubtless constitute an added attractiveness that stimulate the visit. In application of the ideas of Allard, Lègendre, Hein, we have intended to use a series of non formal educational resources near the city of Cuenca as the Museum of Sciences of Castile-La Mancha located in the same City, the "Ciudad de las Artes y las Ciencias" with the "Museo Príncipe Felipe" in Valencia and the "Museum of the Science: COSMOCAIXA" in Madrid, with the purpose of working on several aspects of this type of museums with third year Teacher training students of Primary Education in the subject of "Didactics of Experimental Sciences" (DES from now on). In principle, these students are not especially motivated towards science due to the specialties they attend in the Teacher Training School, although, they are, of course, interested in didactic resources susceptible to improve the teaching-learning process. Consequently, we have put in the programme of the subject a very important thematic block dedicated to Museums and Centres of Science in which the following aspects are included:

- formal/non formal and informal education
- Science Museums and centres as educative resource
- The role of the Science Museums and centres in the scientific literacy of society
- Guided visit to a Science Museum: A school museum process
- Preparation and presentation of a topic (Didactic Unit) of Primary Education using as external resource some of the contents of the museum.

2. Theoretical frame

The experience made during these five academic courses could be included in the non formal or extra school education defined as "*Non-formal education: any organized educational activity outside the established formal system — whether operating separately or as an important feature of some broader activity — that is intended to serve identifiable learning clientele and learning objectives*". (Coombs, 1973, quoted in Fordham et al., 1979: 210—11).

The non formal education is characterized by the accomplishment of a series of activities that are:

- organized and structured (otherwise they would be classified like informal education).
- designed for a group meta identifiable.
- organized to obtain a specific set of learning objectives.

- non institutionalized, carried out outside the established educational system and sometimes oriented to students who officially are not registered in the school (even if in some cases the learning takes place in a scholar establishment).

Besides, we have take into account the question of the pedagogical triangle proposed for Légendre (1983) making that the own students act as museums guides (agent) (figure 1) (Allard et al. 1996).

This it is a model that considers a pedagogical situation as a series of relations:

Didactic Relation: planning by an agent of a content adequate to favour the learning of the subject.

Teaching relation: communication process destined to favour learning.

Learning relation: knowledge acquisition or development of abilities or attitudes, all of them inserted in an environment (place in which the pedagogical situation is developed) among three elements:

The subject: a person or a group of people for whom the pedagogical situation starts up.

The agent: person who facilitates the learning of the object by the subject.

The object: objectives, contents and methodology of a program.

This model tries to include all the complexity of the activities that are developed in an educative centre. Nevertheless, this model applied to the museums entails difficulties of understanding and application

The museum is an educative place, in the ample sense of the word, although a nonformal or informal one according to we have previously seen, thus we maintain the element *environment*.

In the model of Légendre, the teaching relation is established bidirectionally between the agent and the subject and could be defined as follows: *A communication process whose goal is objective to favour learning* (Légendre, 1983. p. 228). The relation that unites the pupil/student-visitor with the Thematic it is not limited to the learning understood in a pure cognitive sense, it also implies affectivity, imagination and sensations. From this point of view, we can wonder: can teaching be reduced to the relation established between the agent and the visitor? The answer to this question is the one that has made to replace the expression "education relation" by "support relation", relation that is shaped in the strategies and means planned by the participant.

The didactic relation fits, in the model of Légendre, as a biunivocal relation between the object and the agent, from a certain disciplinary content and frequently formulated in terms of objectives. Planning a content adequate to favour the learning of the subject corresponds to the agent. However, the term "*didactic relation*" lends to confusion and can suggest diverse interpretations. It designates at the same time an educative discipline and an applied human science that consists on elaborating, applying and evaluating pedagogical strategies. This term employed as an adjective describes a school communication based on the authority of the teacher. In few words, the didactic term generates an epistemological confusion. In consequence, the notion of transposition that does not imply a reduction of the scientific speech but its adaptation to the capacity of appropriation of the student-visitors has been proposed (Allard, 1999).

In the systemic model of Légendre, The learning relation designates a bidirectional relation between an object and a subject that leads to a "*knowledge acquisition or to a development of abilities or attitudes*" (Légendre, 1988, p.36). In the Museum, the relation that is established between the visitor and the object (understood in its material sense) can also include affective, aesthetic or

imaginary elements. Therefore, the expression “appropriation relation” is replaced by that of “learning relation”.

These reflections have made to the members of the GREM to propose a version of the adapted pedagogical triangle to the museum. This version shows simultaneously the approach from the museum to the school and its specificity. It can be illustrated with the model showed in figure 1 (Allard et al. 1998)

Thematic: Unifying subject of all the objects collected in a museum for collection, investigation, education and exhibition purposes.

Participant: member of the museum staff or not that takes part in the visit to the museum during or after it.

Visitor: person who visits a museum alone or in group.

Appropriation relation: relation by which the visitor takes intellectually, affectively or imaginary an object of the museum for himself.

Support relation: The aid contributed to the visitor of the museum in its process of appropriation.

Transposition Relation: adaptation of the museum thematic to the capacity of appropriation of the visitor.

In the University of Quebec in Montréal the *Groupe de Recherche sur l'Éducation et les musées* (GREM) has carried out research on education and museums as a result of which they have developed a model of use of museums with educational purposes harnessing between the school and the Museum (Allard and Boucher, 1991)

The process proposed for this group integrates, both synchronically and diachronically, fine series of interacting factors. It is based on an intellectual process (development of questions, data gathering, analysis and synthesis) of the object (interrogation, observation, appropriation) involving three steps (before, during, and after the museum visit), three points in time (before, during, and after the museum visit), and two locations (school and museum).

The great advantage of this model resides in the fact of the union of the museum and the school in a same pedagogical process. It proposes a series of elaboration pictures, accomplishment and prolongation of didactic activities that are developed in the museum and in the school. It does not oppose the two institutions but reunites them.

Of course, in practice, the development of questions carries over into the completion phase and continues at the museum : analysis is refined after the museum visit; and synthesis begins at the museum. This schematic diagram should not restrict the dynamics of the real-life situation. It does, however, give a visual presentation of a process that begins and continues at certain levels, and brings together various elements of a learning situation that goes beyond the narrow confines of either the school or the museum.

The text included in the section or subsection must begin one line after the section or subsection title. Leave two blank lines (10 point) before the section title and one line before the subsection title.

2.1. The constructivist museum

George E. Hein (1993) has elaborated interesting theoretical reflections with regard to the education in museums in relation to the theory of education. In order to understand constructivism, it is useful to consider the nature of any theory of education. As Jackson and Russell (1994) point out (2) an educational theory consists of two major components: a theory of knowledge and a theory of learning. In order to consider how a museum is organised to facilitate learning, we need to address both what is to be learned and how it is to be learned.

These educational ideas can be applied to museums. For any consideration of learning in museums, we can ask an epistemological question, What is the theory of knowledge applied to the content of the exhibitions? We also need to ask a question about learning theory, How do we believe that people learn? These two components of our museum educational theory will lead to a set of four positions, similar to the ones described above, each of which represents a different kind of museum. These are illustrated in Figure 2.

Constructivism, the bottom right hand corner, represents one of four quadrants of the diagram. Constructivism argues that both knowledge and the way it is obtained are dependent on the mind of the learner. This view, based on idealist epistemology as well as developmental psychology, and in recent years supported by research in cognitive psychology, comes as a shock to those who wish to preserve the idea of knowledge independent of individual learners or communities of learners. It has been called radical constructivism. Proponents of constructivism argue that learners construct knowledge as they learn; they don't simply add new facts to what is known, but constantly reorganise and create both understanding and the ability to learn as they interact with the world. Further, the knowledge that is constructed through this process is individual or social, but has no ontological status outside the mind of the knower.

2.1.1. The characteristics of the constructivist museum

What does a constructivist museum look like? The lack of predetermined sequence has already been mentioned, as has the use of multiple learning modalities. Howard Gardner had the constructivist museum in mind when he used the museum as a model for education. Another component of the constructivist museum would be the opportunity for the visitor to make connections with familiar concepts and objects. In order to make meaning of our experience, we need to be able to connect it with what we already know. Constructivist exhibits would encourage comparisons between the unfamiliar and new. Inviting South Asian immigrant women into the V&A to design and make their own embroidered tent hangings Akbar (1993) can achieve the aim of making the museum more accessible to the community. Inviting hundreds of youngsters from diverse countries to make exhibits about their local rivers and to

share them in a grand festival (Roze, 1993) can help them all learn about each other's cultures.

2.2. Basic principles of the modern scientific museology

Another important contribution to this topic was made for the Sciences Museum Manager of Barcelona Jorge Wagensberg (2000). In this paper he indicates 13 principles that, according what is written in the prologue, must be considered as a hypotheses of work obtained after e 20 years of experience in the museum and can be enunciated as follows:

1. - A Science Museum (SM) is a space devoted to create, in the visitor, stimuli in favour of the knowledge and of the scientific method (what is obtained with its exhibitions) and to promote the scientific opinion in the citizen (what is obtained with the credibility and the prestige that its exhibitions give to the rest of activities that are made in the museum: conferences, debates, seminaries, congresses, etc.)

2.- The audience of the exhibitions of a SM is universal without distinctions of age from 7 on, nor of education, nor cultural level, nor any other characteristic. There are no "other kinds" of visitor at SC. This is possible because the exhibitions are based on emotions and not on prior knowledge. The rest of the activities, on the other hand, do indeed depend on the background of the citizen, they may have special purposes and be aimed at particular sectors catering for a particular level, interest or skill

3.- The priority museological and museographical element is reality, that is, the real object or real phenomenon. Text, voice, image, game, simulation, setting or computer model are priority elements in other media such as publications, TV, cinema, theme park, classes, lectures, theatre... but in museography these are only complementary elements. An exhibition should never be based on such accessories, that is, an exhibition of accessories of reality may be many things, but not an exhibition.

4.- The museographical elements are used, first and foremost, to stimulate in terms of the following three types of interactivity with the visitor:

- 1) Manual or provocative emotion interactivity (Hands On)
- 2) Mental or intelligible emotion interactivity (Minds On)
- 3) Cultural or cultural emotion interactivity (Heart On)

5.- The best stimuli for the citizen to follow the scientist are inspired by the same stimuli that make the scientist do science

6.- The best method for imagining, designing and producing museographical installations in a SC is the scientific method itself (based on the principles of objectivity, intelligibility and dialectic

7.- The content of a SM may be any piece of reality from Quark to Shakespeare, provided that the stimuli and method of exhibition are scientific. Priority will

always be given to the real object or phenomenon, for the knowledge of which the appropriate and diverse scientific disciplines are then used, because "nature is not responsible for the curricula of schools and universities."

8.- The SC is a collective space (although it can be enjoyed individually). This defines a hierarchy of values in the museographical space in respect of the number of visitors that can access to it simultaneously

Level A: Accessed by all visitors (The general setting, lighting, murals, emblematic central bodies, audiovisuals, cinema, general sound, etc.)

Level B: Accessed by a group of visitors amongst whom a conversation is possible (5 or 6 people, a family..). (An experiment module, an object, a small area ...)

Level C: Accessed privately by just one visitor (texts, illustrations, computers) .

9.- The "guiding thread" concept is just one of the possible options. In no case is it obligatory.

10.- There are subjects that are specially museographical and subjects that are better dealt with by other media.

11.- There is museographical rigour and scientific rigour. The museum has to be museographically rigorous (it must not pass off reproductions as real objects, neither overvalue or undervalue the importance, the singularity or value of an item, ...) and scientifically rigorous (not use false metaphors, not present truths that are no longer valid, not hide the degree of doubt in respect of what is exhibited ...). Museographic rigour is agreed between museologist and designers and scientific rigour is agreed between museologist and scientists specialising in the subject in question.

12.- In a SC the visitor is treated as an adult, in all senses, as a scientist or future scientist would be treated. A citizen is museologically adult as soon as he or she can read and write. Visitors always have the right to rework their own truth for themselves. Special messages guaranteed or armoured by tradition or scientific authority should not be transmitted.

13.- The role of a SC in a democratically organised society is that of a common and credible setting between four sectors: 1) Society itself understood as the ordinary citizen who is benefited by science (or/and suffers science) 2) The scientific community where scientific knowledge is created 3) The production and services sector where science is used 4) The administration where science is managed.

Wagensberg concludes his proposal affirming that the nature of science like living being who, like all the living beings, try to last in the time and, in addition, must fight by its credibility and its prestige.

2.3. Consequences for a methodology on education in science museums

In application of these ideas, we have tried during the last five years (five academic courses) to use three science museums near of the city of Cuenca as non formal educative resources integrating them into the formal curriculum. These three museums are: the *Sciences Museum of Castilla-La Mancha* in Cuenca, the Science Museums "*Príncipe Felipe*" in Valencia and the Science Museum of "*Cosmocaixa*" in Madrid. Our purpose was to treat several aspects of this type of museums with students of the third course of Teacher Training in the subject of "Didactics of Experimental Sciences" (DEC). In principle, these students are not specially motivated towards sciences due to their specialty although as future teachers, they are eager to know pedagogical and didactic resources suitable to improve the teaching and learning process. Consequently, we have included in the program of DES a very important Thematic Block dedicated to Sciences Museums in which the following evaluable aspects are included: - Formal, non-formal and informal Education.

- Science museums as educational resources.
- The role of the science museums in the scientific literacy of society
- The Science Museum of Castilla-La Mancha in Cuenca: contents. **Obligatory character**
- The Sciences Museum "Príncipe Felipe" in Valencia: contents. **Optional character**
- The Science Museum "Cosmocaixa" in Madrid: contents. **Optative character.**
- Visit guided to the Sciences Museum of Castilla-La Mancha (including two sessions of the Planetarium and the temporary exhibition).
- Semiguided visit to the "Príncipe Felipe" and "Cosmocaixa" science museums.
- Analysis and debates of the visits.
- Preparation of a didactic unit of Primary Education using as resource some of the contents of the visited museums.
- filling up of a Likert type questionnaire about each one of the visited museums and a comparative survey of the three museums.

3. Conclusions

With the answers of the first above mentioned questionnaire, we can have a quite clear idea of what have students made and learnt during their visit to the museum and also their opinions about the interactive and constructivist character of them. With the second one, we obtain a "picture" of their opinions about the comparison among three museums. With these results a hierarchical structuring, based on the students opinions, can be established among the three museums taking into account the different categories in which they are divided according to the scientific literature consulted.

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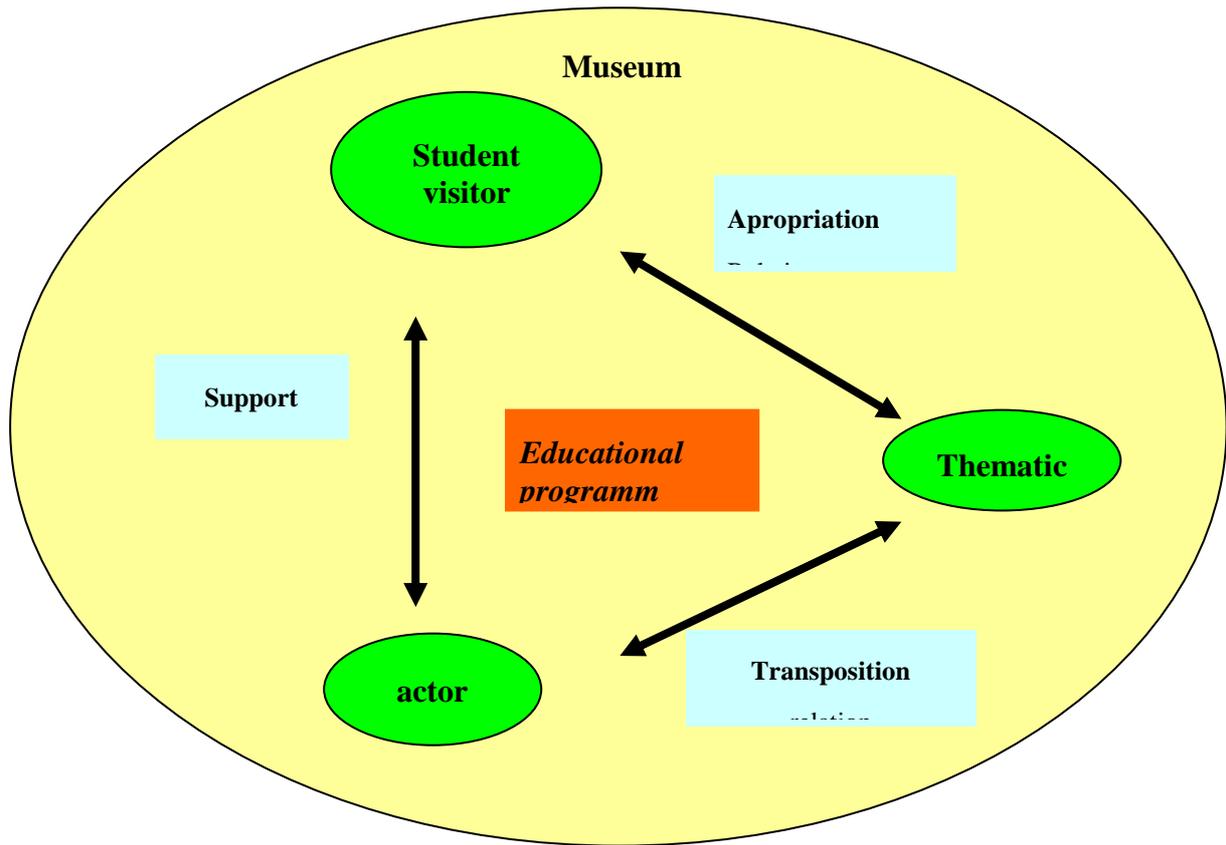


Fig. 1 The Theoretical model for using museums for educational purposes

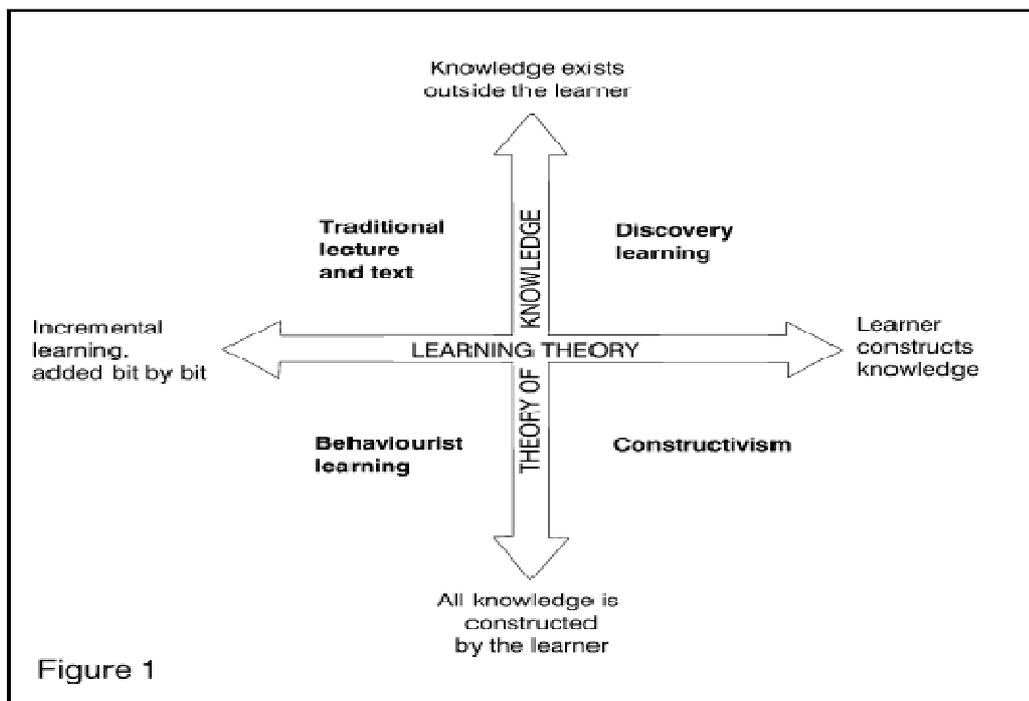


Figure 1

Fig. 2. Typology of museums according to the theory

| MOMENTS | PLACES | STAGES | APPROACHES | PROCESSES |
|---------|--------|-------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| Before | School | Preparation | Development of questions | Integration of object |
| During | Museum | Completion | Data gathering and analysis | Observation of object |
| After | School | Follow-up | Analysis and synthesis | Appropriation of object |

Table. 1 A school museum process

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. The Museum seems to me appropriate , with adaptations, to be visited by pupils of third cycle of Primary Education | | | | | |
| 2.-The main interest of the museum is in its motivational character | | | | | |
| 3. The four basic sciences (physics, chemistry, biology and earth sciences) are sufficiently represented | | | | | |
| 4. the museum building seems to me suitable for its functions | | | | | |
| 5. What I have liked more is the building by its spectacular character | | | | | |
| 6. The Museum seems to me located in suitable surroundings | | | | | |
| 7. I already had knowledge of the majority of the scientific concepts treated a in the museum | | | | | |
| 8. the most interesting thing is the interactive character of the majority of the exhibitions of the museum | | | | | |
| 9. the degree of interactivity of the different experiences is sufficiently achieved | | | | | |
| 10. I think it is a museum of divulgative character oriented to the "great public" more than to the educative system | | | | | |
| 11. The concepts and experiences exhibited are easy to understand and assimilate | | | | | |
| 12. All the topics of the "Knowledge of the Natural Environment" subject of Primary Education are sufficiently covered | | | | | |
| 13. It has been to me surprising all the exhibits of the museum | | | | | |
| 14. It has been a pleasing surprise: I have found more than I hoped | | | | | |
| 15.- The denomination "Sciences museum" seems to me suitable | | | | | |
| 16. The idea of using the Museum as a didactic resource for Primary Education seems to me absolutely necessary | | | | | |
| 17. The idea of using the Museum as a didactic resource for Teacher Training Students seems to me absolutely necessary | | | | | |
| 18. I think I have profited the visit to the Science museum very much | | | | | |
| 20. In general, I like to read all the theoretical frame of an experience before starting the hands-on practice | | | | | |
| 21. I like to understand more the theoretical explanation of the phenomena and experiments observed than the real phenomena and experiments | | | | | |
| 22. I start quickly to manipulate the modules before reading the explanations | | | | | |
| 22. I find the Museum interesting just at motivational level | | | | | |
| 23. A visit to the museum well prepared by the teacher can replace one or more theoretical lessons in the classroom | | | | | |
| 24.I think that a previous knowledge of the museum, explained by the teacher, is essential before the visit | | | | | |
| 25. I have the intention to visit the museum again and dedicate more time to the sections that have interested me the most | | | | | |
| 26. If I were a practicing teacher I doubtless would take my pupils to visit the museum | | | | | |
| 27. The urban surroundings of the museum seem to me suitable | | | | | |

Table 2. General Questionnaire

| COMPARATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT ALL THREE MUSEUMS | | | | | |
|--|------------------------------------|--|---|---|--|
| | A | B | C | D | E |
| 1. EXPLANATORY PANELS (interactive Modules) | I do not read them | I read them before or during the handling | Los leo después de la manipulación | Sometimes I read them and sometimes not | I quit when it does not work at first |
| 2. Museum Cuenca | I have learnt things I didn't know | I have seen things I knew but from a different point of view | The most part of things were new for me | It has been boring because I knew almost everything | I have not liked it at all for different reasons |
| 3. Museo "Príncipe Felipe" Valencia | I have learnt things I didn't know | I have seen things I knew but from a different point of view | The most part of things were new for me | It has been boring because I knew almost everything | I have not liked it at all for different reasons |
| 4. Museo "Cosmocaixa" Madrid | He aprendido cosas que no sabía | I have seen things I knew but from a different point of view | The most part of things were new for me | It has been boring because I knew almost everything | I have not liked it at all for different reasons |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Mark the three visited museums by their "constructivist" character from 1 to 5 | | | | | |
| 8. Museum Cuenca | | | | | |
| 9. Museum Valencia | | | | | |
| 10. Museum Madrid | | | | | |
| Mark each visited museum from 1 to 5 by its interactive character | | | | | |
| 11. Museum Cu | | | | | |
| 12. Museum V | | | | | |
| 13. Museum M | | | | | |
| Mark each visited museum by its "complete" character taken into account the attention it pays to all Nature Sciences (Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Geology, Medicine, etc.) | | | | | |
| 14. Museum Cu | | | | | |
| 15. Museum V | | | | | |
| 16. Museum M | | | | | |
| Mark each visited museum from 1 to 5 based on the possibility of adaptation of its contents to be visited by Primary School pupils (till 12) | | | | | |
| 17. Museo Cu | | | | | |
| 18. Museo V | | | | | |
| 19. Museo M | | | | | |

Table 3. Comparative Questionnaire

Critical Thinking in Academic Reading

Ainon Jariah Muhamad, Khairiah Othman, Ratnawati Mohd Asraf

International Islamic University Malaysia – Malaysia

ainon@iiu.edu.my, khairiah@iiu.edu.my, drratna@iiu.edu.my

Abstract

This paper aims to examine whether students were able to respond critically to academic texts given. Lack of critical thinking skills in reading, especially at tertiary level, is a great handicap to undergraduates, as they will find it difficult, or even unable, to analyze and evaluate reading materials. The critical reader then, according to Seyler (2001), is characterized as being fact-oriented, analytic, open-minded, questioning, creative, and willing to make a stand. Data were gathered via the think-aloud protocol, the questionnaire, and the face to face semi-structured interview. The results of the study revealed that although undergraduates were able to utilize the critical thinking strategies, they were able to do so only to a certain extent. It is therefore incumbent upon instructors and policy makers to seriously look into the teaching of critical thinking skills in the effort to enhance the quality of education.

Keywords: Critical thinking skills – English academic texts – Tertiary education – Reading strategies – Critical reading.

1. Introduction

The realization of the importance and need for critical thinking have long been felt by educators. Efforts have been directed towards the teaching and the learning of the critical thinking strategies in schools and in institutions of higher learning. Despite that, it is still generally felt, and commented by teachers, that students have too often been seen as passive receptors of information (Oliver and Utermohlen, 1995), and this is supported by Wheeler (2001), who states that there are too many college students who have not learned to read beyond the level of extracting information. In other words they lack the critical abilities that would enable them to provide useful comments of their own.

The amount of reading students have to do, and the endless exposure to materials of all kinds make it crucial for them to be able to read effectively. To do this, undergraduates need to acquire the necessary skills to read critically. There is a need to investigate whether, and how, students respond critically to English academic texts as these are important knowledge sources at the tertiary level. Attempts at investigating the students' critical thinking strategies in reading are thus crucial in providing valuable insights into the reading process; a positive step in trying to improve the teaching and learning of English in academic settings.

Critical thinking in reading thus calls for higher-order cognitive skills and abilities of analyzing, interpreting, inferring, and evaluating, to name a few. According to

Oliver and Utermohlen (1995) and Beyer (1995), students need to develop and apply critical thinking skills to their academic studies, to the problems they will face, and to the critical choices they have to make as a result of the information explosion and other rapid technological advancements.

The main purpose of this paper therefore was to examine whether tertiary level students were able to critically respond to academic texts, and if so, what were the critical thinking strategies they employed in responding to the texts.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Reading and the Critical Thinking Process

The interactive process of trying to comprehend a text leads us to another aspect of understanding the nature of reading, that is, by looking at the cognitive theory of reading, which is based on cognitive psychology and schema theory. The cognitivists claim that the reader is seen as being actively engaged in constructing meaning, making use of the visual cues in the text, and non-visual information (background knowledge), and applying the necessary strategies before confirming, revising, or discarding hypotheses made earlier. The interactive process of reading therefore emphasizes 'schemata', the reader's preexisting concepts about the world and about the text to be read. Into this framework of 'schemata', the reader fits what he finds in any passage. If the match fits then reading is successful. As such, meaning may differ from reader to reader. This application of 'schemata', according to Wallace (2003), is one of the key principles in reading critically.

The Schema theory posits that there is no absolute meaning on the page to be interpreted the same by all, that is, there is no correct comprehension. Readers weigh and compare data from their schemata, the text, and the context in which it occurs. Synthesis of information from these three sources and the creation of meaning consistent with all of them require constant inferring and assessment of the inferences made by the readers. In fact Schank, as cited by Lewis (1991), contends that there is no literal comprehension, that even the simplest statements involve the making of inferences. These show the involvement of critical thinking. Due to differences in the reader's knowledge, experience, worldview, and interpretation of the communicative situation, more than one coherent version of the text can be constructed.

From a schema theory description of reading discussed by Anderson & Pearson, Norris & Phillips, Rummelhart, and Spiro, cites Lewis (1991), comprehending itself can be conceptualized as a critical thinking act. The terms academic reading, skilled reading, and effective reading, are all very much inter-related, and can be associated with a kind of interactive reading, assert Lunzer and Gardner (1979). In reading for academic purposes, the reader will employ the necessary reading and thinking strategies for him or her to understand the text, while applying his or her background knowledge and the current situation in question.

One of the most influential of the critical thinking models is Bloom's Taxonomy of Higher Thinking (1956). This well-known theory of thought has been viewed as being representative of the educational perspective of critical thinking theory. To Bloom, critical thinking is synonymous with a high level of thinking, especially 'evaluation'. The ability to evaluate is fundamental to critical thinking. The process of critical thinking involves the evaluation of ideas, solutions, arguments and evidences. In Bloom's Taxonomy of Higher Thinking, the skill of evaluation is rated as being at the highest level of thinking. Bloom lists a set of six levels of thinking from the simplest to the most complex. The list begins with knowledge and moves to comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The evaluation skill, according to Bloom, is the goal of the learning and thinking process.

Vacca (1981) finds that Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives in the cognitive domain underscores the complexity of intellectual activity, where questions formulated and identified by the taxonomy can be used to stimulate thoughtful responses in content area reading. Hence, student behaviours in identifying issues, making appropriate generalizations, and making judgements based on conscious knowledge, can all relate to appropriate questions that attempt for clarification and better understanding of textbook content, as well as the areas beyond the material under study.

Watson and Glaser (1980) on the other hand, view critical thinking as a composite of attitudes, knowledge, and skills. Attitudes of enquiry involve an ability to recognize the existence of problems and an acceptance of the general need for evidence in support of what is asserted to be true, while knowledge is concerned with the nature of valid inferences, abstractions, and generalizations in which the weight or accuracy of different kinds of evidence are logically determined. The skills are then needed in employing and applying the above attitudes and knowledge. Competency in critical thinking, according to them, include inference, recognition of assumptions, deduction, interpretation, and evaluation of an argument.

Norris and Ennis (1989) defines critical thinking as "reasonable and reflective thinking that is focused upon deciding what to believe or do". This basic definition, which finds a good consensus amongst theoreticians and practitioners of critical thinking, is further supported by Scriven and Paul (1996) as the process of skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action. Critical thinking, therefore, according to Wade (1995), involves asking questions, defining a problem, examining evidence, analyzing assumptions and biases, avoiding emotional reasoning, avoiding oversimplification, considering other interpretations, and tolerating ambiguity.

Beyer (1987) views critical thinking as using criteria to judge the quality of something, from a simple activity, such as normal daily activities to the conclusion of a research paper. According to Beyer, critical thinking is a disciplined manner of thought that a person uses to evaluate the validity of something, which could be statements, news ideas, arguments, or research. He defines critical thinking as assessing or judging the authenticity, worth, or

accuracy of something, and that this higher thinking process of critical thinking consists of discrete skills.

Another model of critical thinking is the model generated by Facione (2004;2007), which is based on the work of a panel of experts who had worked together to find out how college level critical thinking should be defined. The panel consisted of forty-six experts from throughout the United States and Canada. They represented many different scholarly disciplines in the humanities, sciences, social sciences and education. These experts participated in a research project entitled 'Critical Thinking: A Statement of Expert Consensus for Purposes of Educational Assessment and Instruction', that lasted two years and was conducted on behalf of the American Philosophical Association. According to Facione, there are six core critical thinking skills involved in the critical thinking process. The skills are that of interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and self-regulation.

Thus, the intellectually disciplined process of actively engaging in the skills explained by Scriven and Paul (1996), such as gaining additional insights and understanding that go beyond comprehending just topics, main ideas, or supporting details, and that deals with determining the author's point of view, his purpose, his intended audience, and the tone in which he writes, is sometimes referred to by Lunzer and Gardner (1979) and Kurland (1995), as critical reading or reflective reading.

2.2. Critical Thinking as Viewed in Islam

In the context of Islam , to be able to read with a critical mind enables readers to understand the ways texts and other sources portray views of the world and how writers can 'persuade' readers to interpret the content to a particular worldview. It is important to understand what lies between the lines or what can be inferred. Thus, the ability to read critically based on a firm foundation on faith and belief in Islam as *addin* is crucial so as to be able to resist or revise representations or interpretations as appropriate. Surah Al Hujerat (49) verse 6 of the Qur'an, for example, cautions mankind that news that is conveyed should first be verified to see its truthfulness; otherwise further action might be harmful to people. The Qur'an places such a high value on proof and validity that it advises believers not to accept that of which they have no knowledge.

Ibn Khaldun, a Muslim philosopher of the thirteenth century for example, begins his discussion of education with an analysis of the faculty of reflection or the ability to think, emphasizing the method of questioning and answering to develop the students' power of comprehension and analytical thinking. Students were to examine, weigh, judge and criticize all aspects of the assignment given pertaining to language, style, diction, and thought. They were also required to spot the weak points in the arguments of the author and to question the validity of his statements. Ibn Taymiyah, like Ibn Khaldun, also strongly wanted people to think for themselves in the light of The Qur'an and the Sunnah (Qadir, 1988). He too opposed blind imitation. It is the faculty of reflection that distinguishes man from all other animals and makes him work for his livelihood in competition with other men and that directs his attention to God.

The importance of acquiring knowledge through reading, reflection and contemplation is frequently mentioned and stressed in the Qur’an and Hadiths. They were advocated and practiced by the great Islamic philosophers, thinkers, and educationists, as seen in the ideas of Al GhaḏĒli, Ibnu Khaldun, Ibn Taymiyah, Zanuji, and many others, in various fields of knowledge. Knowledge viewed from the Islamic perspective is therefore knowledge obtained through reading, experience, and observation. By using one’s critical thinking ability, one should be able to evaluate the knowledge he or she receives for the benefit of mankind and to strengthen one’s faith in God.

3. Research Design and Methodology

This case study adopted the qualitative measures of collecting and analyzing data, in that verbal protocols and interviews are used, while data from the questionnaires and taped observations served as triangulation measures. As the paper is concerned with the critical thinking strategies employed by undergraduates, the setting, as well as the participants chosen for the purpose, are those of the university where we are serving.

Seven second year law students referred to as Wak, Rah, Fay, Zar, Ras, Fah and Faz, were the participants in this study. Each of them went through all the stages of the data collection process, which involved the completion of the questionnaire, the face-to-face semi-structured interview, and the think-aloud protocol, which was immediately followed by the retrospective interview. The think-aloud protocol as the main data collecting method made use of three different Islamic Criminal Law topics as the reading materials. The questionnaire used was basically a strategies questionnaire adapted from Carrel’s Metacognitive Questionnaire (1989). Audio and video tapes were also made used of at different stages of data collection.

Data gathered were transcribed, translated, and analyzed for recurring themes. The core critical thinking skills as outlined in Facione (2004), were used as the framework for the analysis of the data gathered as his model was found to be the most comprehensive for the purpose of this study. Each of the core critical thinking skills is detailed into sub-skills as shown below:

Critical Thinking Strategies

| Categories | Strategies |
|----------------|---|
| Interpretation | Categorization |
| | Decoding significance |
| | Clarifying meaning |
| Analysis | Examining ideas |
| | Detecting arguments |
| | Analyzing arguments |
| Evaluation | Judging an author’s credibility |
| | Comparing strengths and weaknesses of interpretations |
| | Determining the credibility of a source |
| | Judging if statements contradict each other |
| | Judging if evidence supports conclusion |

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| Inference | Querying evidence Conjecturing alternatives Drawing conclusions |
| Explanation | Stating results Justifying procedures Presenting arguments |
| Self-regulation | Self-examination Self-correction |

4. Findings

The findings provided a strong indication that all the seven students responded critically to the given academic texts. This was exhibited by the adoption of all or some of the critical thinking strategies of interpreting, analyzing, evaluating, inferring, explaining, and self-regulating, on the three academic texts given.

4.1. Interpretation

Interpreting seemed like what most of the participants do most frequently. 35% of the total strategy use was shown to be interpretive strategies. Interpreting, as a critical reading strategy, includes the sub-strategies of categorizing, decoding significance, and clarifying meanings. There was a heavy reliance on paraphrasing in the attempt to clarify meanings. The attempt to clarify meanings using paraphrasing involves students' changing the words, the structure, or the sequence of information, without changing the meaning of the text, in order to understand better. The tendency to paraphrase could, to a certain extent, give an indication that it is the easiest strategy compared to the other critical reading skills, as it is done almost automatically, especially when the texts were 'not so difficult', or 'ok' to them. This also implies that if students find that texts are too difficult for them, then paraphrasing or clarifying would probably be substituted for other more suitable strategies. Even so it cannot be generalized that when texts are easy students will paraphrase, as it is different with Ras and Faz. Both of them found that text 3 was easy, but yet they did not attempt to paraphrase, or use any of the other sub-skills of the interpreting strategies. Wak, Rah, and Fay on the other hand, made frequent use of clarifying meaning as their strategy in interpreting the meaning of the texts without much difficulty. The tendency to use a lot of interpretation as a strategy was also evidenced in Norazman's (2000) study, where interpretation was found to be very frequently used by students in comprehending the academic texts given.

Paraphrasing was also found to be done in the native language, a strategy used by Ras (for texts 1 and 2) and Zar very frequently. They both admitted to their lack of proficiency in English, but for the most part, it was not a hindrance to the understanding of the texts. Most of their think-aloud statements showed that they were thinking in their native language, something that is probably very reasonable because of their lack of proficiency in English, especially when speaking. The use of translation in paraphrasing to aid comprehension is very much a part of both the students' reading strategies. It probably has become a habit for them when reading in the second language. But the act of trying to clarify meaning, even though by paraphrasing in their native language,

nevertheless, shows a certain degree of understanding on the students' part, indeed a good basis for a deeper kind of reading as in critical reading.

4.2. Analysis

Results of the analyzing strategy tend to support the idea that the students were generally able to examine ideas, detect arguments and analyze arguments. The most used strategies were examining ideas and analyzing arguments, which made up about 15% of the total critical reading strategy used. All the participants made use of this strategy, or at least one of the sub-strategies when interacting with the texts.

4.3. Evaluation

Compared to the interpretation and analysis strategies explained earlier, the results also showed that fewer evaluation strategies were generated by the participants, a probable indication that it is one of the strategies that is difficult to apply. It could also be the reason why Bloom (1956), places evaluation at the top of the hierarchy of all critical strategies, although Facione (2004) did not rank it as such. Evaluation accounted for only 3% of total critical reading strategy used. There were a total of 17 evaluation strategies consisting of 5 sub-strategies. The sub-strategies that were the more frequently used by the students were comparing the strengths and weaknesses of arguments or interpretations, and determining the credibility of the source of information. Very few evaluation strategies were adopted, even by Wak (6 strategies), who usually used a lot of strategies. Ras did not evaluate at all, while Rah did so only once, which was not surprising as they were only confirming what they had said in the interview, that, "I don't want to think deeply," and "I just agree what is their opinion".

4.4. Inference

Inferring made up about 16% of the total critical reading strategies employed, and was more frequently used compared to evaluation and analysis. The background knowledge that assists the readers can be in the form of knowledge acquired from previous readings, observations, or personal experience. Those who read a lot, like Wak, Fay, and Zar, would find it easier and beneficial to integrate information across the texts and relate their experience to the content of the text for better understanding. Wak linked ideas in the texts with what he got from reading previous texts on the same subject over the internet. Besides Wak, the analysis also showed that Fay also utilized a lot of inference strategies, especially when drawing conclusions. Both of them linked and connected new information with information previously stated in the text, or with information from their own personal experience to make more sense of what they are reading about. The inferring strategy, however, was not part of Ras' and Rah's process of understanding content, as both of them scarcely inferred at all, compared to the other participants.

Making connections and associations based on background knowledge is very much a part of critical reading. This is what Wallace (2003) meant when she stressed that content schemata is an important aspect of being a critical reader. Without relevant and enough content or knowledge one will not be able to, or rather, will find it difficult to query the evidence, to suggest alternatives, or to draw conclusions. Being able to infer, as witnessed from the think-aloud statements of Wak, Fay, and Zar, shows that these students are critical readers. These are effective as well as active readers who know what to look for, how to find it, relate new knowledge to old or previous knowledge, make patterns and connections, as well as ask questions about the text.

4.5. Explanation

10 % of the total critical reading strategies were on explanations. The sub-strategy of explanation that was frequently utilized was presenting arguments. The other two sub-strategies of stating results and justifying procedures were not employed at all. One possible explanation may have to do with the content of the texts which rendered it unnecessary to comment on results and procedures as they were more expository texts than research papers. These second year law students were not really exposed to materials which require them to know the conceptual, methodological, and criteriological aspects of their field of studies. What little they knew were from writing the term paper or a mini-research in their English for Academic Purposes (EAP) class, which was not sufficient to get them to explain and justify the procedures pertaining to methodologies of research as such. Even though the participants had limited knowledge in justifying procedures, they were generally able to present arguments based on the texts they read, which goes to show that they are, to an extent, critical readers.

4.6. Self-Regulation

This strategy was used in a lot of instances in all the three texts. Also termed as 'meta-cognition', because it involves self-consciously examining one's own thinking or one's cognitive activities (Facione, 2004), this strategy seemed to be very useful for the students. 21% of the total critical reading strategy used was on self-regulation. Both sub-strategies of self-examination and self-correction were utilized. These included identifying problem words or terms, phrases, sentences, and even sometimes the whole paragraph. Having identified these difficulties, the students would go a step further by guessing the meanings first, then checking and retracing their reading. Besides guessing, the students would flick through the pages, turning back and forth, for some kind of explanation or clues. The inability or failure to make connections with their own background knowledge, especially when faced with new words or concepts, initiated them to make guesses and to search the text to find some kind of answer, or something they could verify their guesses with. The danger would be when students decide to give up, having failed to find the answer after searching for some time. Fah, as revealed in her self-reported strategy based on the questionnaire for example, usually gave up and stopped reading. Although the other students reported that they rarely did that, continued guessing may also lead to inaccuracy, which in turn can lead to prolonged misunderstanding of the related ideas in the text. For

all the participants, the self-regulation strategy mainly consisted of identifying and questioning problems in the text, and checking to see whether their answers are correct. These proved to be useful in monitoring their understanding of the text, as revealed from the think-aloud statements.

5. Conclusion

The purpose of the paper was to examine whether undergraduates could respond critically to texts, and if so, what were the critical thinking strategies used. The qualitative approach employed enabled us to have an insight into the types of strategies used by the students in dealing with academic law texts.

An important implication arising from the findings is that there is a need for the teaching and learning of critical thinking strategies. Critical reading of academic texts should be taught at the undergraduate level to allow for more effective learning and acquisition of knowledge to take place. As Beyer (1987) asserts, the critical reading of academic subject matter gives both purpose and direction for undergraduates to think critically, because it not only prepares them for better academic performance, but also prepares them for the challenges ahead.

The findings also revealed that perceptions and attitudes are important factors that affect or influence one's willingness to read critically. An effective approach to teaching about thinking must include strategies for building intellectual character, and not to rely exclusively on strengthening cognitive skills (Facione, Facione & Giancarlo, 2000). It will not be sufficient only to strengthen students' skills on how to interpret, analyze, infer, explain, evaluate, and self-regulate. These skills will only be beneficially utilized if students are made aware of what it means to read critically, and the benefits it brings. They need to appreciate the role of critical thinking in learning and in acquiring knowledge.

If we want our students to be both willing and able to engage in critical thinking when dealing with academic texts, then we have to include critical reading at all levels of education, from the schools right up to the higher institutions of learning. The acquisition of critical thinking skills is an important process of development in reading, and therefore should be developed at all levels of the educational hierarchy. This being the case, then there is a need also to develop the curricula for professional and instructional development, as well as assessment strategies, such that both learners and instructors would benefit.

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Towards A Technology-Oriented Classroom: The Use of Computerized Graphic Package

Lanre Idowu, **Francisca Aladejana and Lade Adeyanju

*Faculty of Education,
Obafemi Awolowo University,
Ile-Ife, Nigeria*

****faladeja@oauife.edu.ng, faladeja@yahoo.com**

Abstract

Fine Art is practical oriented but the present situation in Nigeria is such that the learners are exposed to poor methods of teaching and performances are poor. This study examined the extent to which the use of computerized graphic package can affect the performance of learners. This is predicated on the theoretical frameworks of constructivism and Gagne learning theory. The research design is the pre-test-post-test control group design. The research instruments are the Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test and the Graphic Design Achievement Test. They were administered on 60 Junior Secondary School students selected using stratified random sampling. The results showed a significant difference in the performance of students exposed to computerized graphic package as those exposed to computerized graphic package performed significantly better in graphics than those exposed to conventional method. The implications for a technology-oriented classroom are discussed.

Keywords: Computerized Graphic package - Technology-oriented - Constructivism - Fine Art

1. Introduction

The teachers' responsibility of educating and developing the young is a challenging job that goes beyond imparting knowledge. They have to facilitate the management of students' learning styles using the instructional process (Buch & Bartley, 2002; Aladejana & Aladejana, 2005). The learning of Fine Art, a practical oriented subject in the secondary schools has been beset with serious problems and challenges. It can not be learnt in isolation but with interactions between teacher and students, students and students and between students and materials. The depth of content to be covered as a separate school subject in the curriculum is enormous for the number of periods allocated for it, as a result of which the theoretical aspects are mostly emphasized neglecting the acquisition of necessary skills and practical experiences.

According to the Chief Examiners report of the West African Examination Councils (Owokade, 2006), students perform poorly and are deficient in the practical aspects like Graphics. The present situation in Nigeria in which the learners are exposed to poor methods of teaching may not be unconnected with the recorded poor academic performances of the learners (Aladejana, 2006).

One possible area that could be applied to solve learners' problems in Fine Art is the use of instructional media. Instructional media are channels of communication through which teaching and learning can take place. Some examples of media are: television, computer, radio, projected, and non-projected visual materials that carry the entire instructional message (Akanbi, 1988). The use of media provides instructional effectiveness especially when information is difficult to explain verbally, where specific procedure must be performed, and when exact interpretation of information is necessary.

Effective use of instructional media would not only illustrate the instructor's concept to the trainee but will also add emphasis to essential points. Ardil (2003) provided a broad description of interactive learning environment in the sense that a person can navigate through it, select relevant information, respond to questions using computer input devices such as keyboard, mouse, touch screen, or voice command system, to solve problems, complete challenging tasks, create knowledge representations, collaborate with others near or at a distance or otherwise engage in meaningful learning activities.

Since the formal introduction of Fine Art education by Kenneth Murray into the Nigeria educational system, the subject has not been given adequate recognition in the School curriculum. In Osun State, Nigeria for instance, the government at a time sacked most Fine Arts teachers in the secondary schools, with most of the schools without well-equipped studios, qualified teachers and instructional facilities for effective teaching (Adeyanju, 2003). In consequence, the learners are often exposed to poor methods of teaching. Students generally run away from Fine Arts classes because in their own perception they are not good at drawing and production of lettering. With the current trends in computer use, students can easily make use of good lettering; change the colour as well as the fonts to taste without any problem. This problem can be addressed with the use of computerized graphic package; thereby, putting in the learner the confidence to approach the task in design. Aladejana and Idowu (2006) found positive attitude to the use of ICT in teaching and learning in Nigerian schools.

It could be practically impossible to improve or develop vocational-technical education programmes without an adequate application of information technology. This is because vocational-technical education involves that aspect of education, which leads to the acquisition of practical and applied skills as well as basic scientific knowledge. Vocational-technical education (VTE) involves instructions, which are generally given to those who need to be employed in commerce and industry or in any type of enterprise, which involves the use of tools and other machinery for carrying out their services.

The introduction of information technology in Vocational-Technical education within the last five years has contributed positively to the training and development of students in our various institutions of learning in Nigeria. Indeed, although Nigeria is still a developing country, two of the four Vocational Technical Education objectives, as stated in the National Policy on Education (2004) are to train people who can apply scientific knowledge to the improvement and solution of environmental problems for the use and convenience of man and to enable young men and women to have an intelligent understanding of the increasing complexity of technology.

This study is therefore designed to examine extent to a technology-oriented classroom using computerized graphic package can affect the performance of learners. The study tested the hypothesis that:

There will be no significant difference in the performance of learners exposed to computerized graphic package and those exposed to conventional method.

2. Theoretical Framework

This study is based on the premises that computer assisted learning provides the active participation and hands-on-experience that learners require to construct meaningful learning and that the unique differences that exist in the way learners perceive, think, respond to others and react to their environment all of which constitute the cognitive style can influence learning. These assumptions are rooted in the theoretical frameworks of constructivism, Gestalt theory and Gagne learning theory.

Gagne learning theory stipulates that there are different types of learning. The significance of these classifications is that each of the different types of learning requires different types of instruction. Gagne identifies five major categories of learning, they are: Verbal information, Intellectual skills, Cognitive styles, Motor skills and Attitude (Gagne, 1965). According to Gagne, different internal and external conditions are necessary for each type of learning. For example, for cognitive styles to be learned, there must be a chance to practice newly developed solutions to problems. From Gagne's point of view, learning must be carried out in hierarchical form that is from simple to complex and from concrete to abstract. This is the approach that this exercise will follow when learning computer graphics in Fine Arts.

According to the constructivist view, meaningful learning is a cognitive process in which individuals make sense of the world in relation to the knowledge, which they already have constructed, and this sense-making process involves active negotiation and consensus building (Wilson, 1996; Huitt, 2003). According to Dede (2005), shifts in students' learning style will prompt a shift to active construction of knowledge through mediated immersion.

3. Methodology

The research design is the pre-test-post-test control group design. The target population consisted of all junior secondary school students from ten homogenous schools in southwest Nigeria. The samples for the study were 60 J. S. S. III students drawn from ten schools which were selected using stratified sampling technique from a total of thirty five (35) secondary schools. Availability of computer and Fine art teacher for a minimum period of five years was used as strata in the sampling procedure.

The research instruments are the Graphic Design Achievement Test (GDAT), a 20 multiple-choice items based on elements and principles of design which measured the cognitive ability of the students on theories of Fine Arts and the Graphic Package. The Corel Draw 10 was used to measure students'

psychomotor ability in the areas of the use of colour and other elements of design. The GDAT has test-retest reliability coefficient of 0.78.

The 60 Junior Secondary School students selected using stratified random sampling were randomly divided into two - the experimental and control groups. Both experimental and control groups were subjected to the pre-test and post-test using the GDAT.

The students were taught the elements of design, principles of design and design materials. The materials used with the control group are the physical materials, while the experimental groups were exposed to the tools on the computer. There was also a practical demonstration and teaching of the use of Corel screen (the computer package) and the use of computer to make design using the Corel Draw 10 package. Experimental group was thus exposed to computerized graphic package while the control group was taught using conventional method. GDAT was re-administered on the two groups as post-test. Data analysis employed inferential statistics (t test of significant difference).

4. Results and Discussion

The hypothesis tested is:

There will be no significant difference in the performance of students exposed to computerized graphic package and those exposed to conventional method.

The results of the pretest is presented in Table: 1

Table 1: T-test of Pretest Scores of Students Exposed to Computerized Package and those exposed to Conventional Method

| Group | n | X | s.d | df | tc | tt | Remark |
|--------------|----|-------|-------|----|------|------|-----------------|
| Computerized | 40 | 27.13 | 11.71 | 19 | 1.13 | 2.09 | Not significant |
| Conventional | 20 | 22.95 | 14.34 | | | | |

$P < 0.05$

Results presented in table 1 shows that there was no significant difference in the pre-test performance of students in Graphics before they were exposed to the treatment ($x_1=27.13$, $x_2=22.95$, $df=19$, $tc=1.13$). This shows that students involved in the study were homogenous with respect to knowledge of graphics before the treatment commenced.

Table 2 T-test Summary of Students' Posttest Scores

| Group | n | X | s.d | df | tc | tt | Remark |
|-------------------------|----|-------|-------|----|------|------|-------------|
| Computerized S E G M | 20 | 47.53 | 14.71 | 19 | 2.52 | 2.09 | Significant |
| Conventional S E C M | 40 | 38.45 | 9.37 | | | | |

$P < 0.05$

Results presented in table 2 shows a significant difference in the performance of students exposed to computerized graphic package and those exposed to conventional method ($x=38.45$, $x=47.53$, $df=19$, $t=2.52$). This result shows that students who were exposed to computerized graphic package performed

significantly better in graphics than those exposed to conventional method. Therefore, the null hypothesis generated was rejected.

Based on the analysis of data it has been found that there was a significant difference in the performance of learners exposed to computerized graphic package and those exposed to conventional method. It was found that those exposed to computerized graphic package performed significantly better in graphics than those exposed to conventional method. The implications of the findings is that there is the need to integrate technology into the classroom in such away as to make learning more activity oriented and effective as well as improve acquisition of practical skills and academic performance.

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An Assessment of Effective Leadership Qualities in Teachers: A Case Study of Nigerian Teachers

*Francisca O. Aladejana and Tony I. Aladejana

*Faculty of Education,
Obafemi Awolowo University,
Ile-Ife, Nigeria*

*faladeja@oauife.edu.ng, faladeja@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study examined the status of leadership of Nigerian teachers. It also examined the leadership qualities a teacher should possess in order to train learners effectively for the future and how these qualities can be acquired and maintained. The instrument of study is a forty-item structured questionnaire designed to elicit information on the leadership status, roles and qualities of the teacher. The sample consisted of 515 teachers selected by stratified random sampling using the criteria of level of teaching and qualification. The questionnaire was administered on these teachers and 218 randomly selected university undergraduates. Data collected were subjected to descriptive statistics. Findings from the study identified the leadership status and roles of the teacher, their leadership qualities and ways by which they can acquire and maintain these qualities. These findings were discussed in the context of promoting effective leadership qualities in teachers.

Keywords: Leadership – Qualities – Assessment – Teachers

1. Introduction

Effective leadership is an area of growing research interest because leadership of the school is widely acknowledged as one of the keys to effective schooling. Leadership can come from a group of teachers rather than just the principal or head teacher. According to Reborá (2002), leadership comes in different forms. The consensus is that it entails active involvement and a quest for improvement in the life of the people being led. Leadership entails the ability to solve problems, build teams and bring about change. Effective leadership in Nigeria connotes positive socialization of the youth into the norms and values accepted by the society (Ikegbunam, 1999, Aladejana and Aladejana, 2005). One of the key socialization agents is usually the teacher.

An essential aspect of the socialization outcome is active, constructive and cumulative change in behaviour, which is often aided by an organized planner and instructor. Fafunwa (1967) described the African competent teacher as a good citizen, a community leader, an innovator and one that is influential beyond the classroom. One of the goals of the National Policy on Education (2004) is to help teachers to fit into the social life of the community and the society they serve. It is thus expected that they (teachers) will play some leading roles in their society. It is therefore imperative that for a teacher to be successful, he must possess some leadership skills.

Astin and Astin (2000) identified specific individual qualities for effective leadership. Amongst these are: commitment (passion and persistence that motivates); empathy (capacity to put oneself in another's place); competence (knowledge, skill and technical competence required for success); authenticity (consistency between one's actions and one's values and beliefs), and self-knowledge (awareness of the beliefs and emotions that motivate one to seek change).

Various studies have identified some areas important in determining the quality of leadership to include: having a sense of mission (National Commission on Education, 1995); ability to involve others in a participative approach (Sammons *et. al.*,1997); instructional leadership (Reynolds, 2002); frequent personal monitoring of staff performance (Levine and Lezotte, 1990); motivating staff to have expectations for students (Reynolds,2002); and evaluating the systems of the school (Murphy, 1990).

Rebora (2002) identified other specific leadership traits to include: a strong record of past achievement, critical thinking, speaking skills, an ability to maintain perspective in difficult situations, sensitivity and respect for others and a commitment to under-privileged communities. Therefore, teachers will be effective leaders if they have those traits that will make them effective. These qualities also include firmness and determination, quickness of perception, promptitude of action, sincerity and candidness, scholarship, fair judgment and impartiality (Ikegbunam, 1999).

According to Ohuche (1999), it was easy for the teacher to carry out his leadership role in Nigeria up to the mid-sixties because he was respected, admired, cherished, revered and feared. He was an adviser to the parents and guardians, a counsellor to the elders, a disciplinarian and an authoritative member of the community. The teacher in turn was responsible and disciplined. He was a symbol of what was good in the society and a lot of confidence was reposed in him. The teacher was thus a community leader who must be consulted on many issues- domestic, political, social, economic or academic.

It will appear that the situation today has changed. Nigerians seem to have rejected the old concept of a "know-all" teacher. The prestige and leadership position enjoyed by the teacher in the past has reduced drastically. The issues under focus in this study therefore are the status of leadership of teachers in terms of their relevance today to the learners, parents and the society in general and the effectiveness of such teachers as determined by the leadership qualities exhibited by them. Also of interest in the study is how a culture may cultivate leadership roles and maintain such. Since effective leadership is a major component of school effectiveness, it is important to assess how effective the teachers of a nation are as leaders as their level of effectiveness will ultimately affect the quality of students' learning.

The specific objectives of the study are therefore to:

- (1). Examine the present status of the leadership of Nigerian teachers
- (2). Identify the leadership roles teachers play in school and society
- (3). Determine the factors influencing the leadership status of teachers
- (4). Enumerate the leadership qualities the teachers possess

(5). Identify ways by which teachers can acquire and maintain leadership qualities.

2. Methodology

The research instrument is a self-devised forty-item structured questionnaire designed to elicit information on the leadership roles of the teacher in the school and community. It is designed along the Likert Scale format having five point scales of strongly agree, agree, neutral, strongly disagree and disagree. The items were based partly on teachers' leadership roles and qualities identified by previous researchers (Astin & Astin, 2000; Reynolds, 2002; Education World, 2002; and Reborá, 2002). The questionnaire was validated through review by seasoned researchers in education. The instrument was administered in a pilot study on 41 teachers and 33 undergraduates randomly selected from the study area. A test-retest reliability coefficient of $r = 0.91$ was obtained.

A total of five hundred and fifteen (515) teachers were selected as samples for the study from Osun State of Nigeria. Selection was by stratified random sampling, using the criteria of level of teaching and qualification. Also, 120 National Certificate in Education (NCE) teachers were selected from primary level, 97 NCE and 103 graduates from the secondary level, 70 graduates and 125 Masters/PhD holders from tertiary institutions.

The questionnaire was also administered on 218 randomly selected undergraduate student teachers from Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile Ife, Osun State of Nigeria as they have been in contact with teachers in the schools for a substantial period of their training to enable them (undergraduates) to assess fairly and accurately what leadership roles teachers play in the society. The undergraduates can easily recollect the leadership qualities they have observed in such teachers. The data collected from teachers undergraduates were pooled together and subjected to descriptive statistics.

3. Results

The respondents agreed that teachers are expected to play some important leadership roles such as: nurturing the lives of learners with useful knowledge (91.7%), teaching learners practical skills (88.1%), equipping learners with proper value orientations (76.6%), serving as role models for learners (81.4%) and showing pervasive influence beyond the classroom (82.7%).

The results show that with regards to the status of leadership, most of the respondents (82.7%) agreed that teachers are highly influential as academic advisers to students. Also, 51.4% agreed that teachers are influential in the decision-making of parents over their children's academics. However, only 36.4% of the respondents agreed that teachers are authoritative members of the society (i.e. community leaders) and 30.9% agreed that teachers serve as advisers to students on social and domestic issues.

The subjects perceived that the status and prestige of teachers have declined from what it was years back. They attributed such decline to different factors. These factors include poor and irregular remuneration (76.5%), corrupt and poor values of the society (71.4%), indiscipline among learners (68.1%), inefficient teaching (59.8%), poor attitude of the government to teaching (47.1%) and unattractive and unhealthy school environment (47.2%). The sale of handout (21.4%) and aiding examination malpractices (35.6%) by teachers were also considered as likely causes for the decline in the status and prestige of the teachers.

The findings of the study also revealed some leadership qualities that teachers should have to enable them to exhibit effective leadership in the school. These qualities have percentage agree/strongly agree responses above the mean of 50% (50.5 – 80.4%). These qualities include: having a good sense of humour, well-defined vision for the school, total commitment to their calling, respect for others, good teaching practice and willingness to take responsibility. Others are that teachers should be firm, diplomatic, trustworthy and straightforward, appreciative, protective and cooperative (Table 1).

The analysis of the responses revealed some ways of acquiring and maintaining the aforementioned qualities with mean percentage of agree/strongly agree responses above 50% (50.1 – 81.2%). These ways include improved and regular remuneration (81.2%), improved teacher education (50.1%), restoration of the dignity of teachers (76.5%), recognition in the society (75.6%), regular promotion (61.8%), professionalization of teaching (55.4%), and having the right school environment (55.2%).

In the analysis of all the forty items, the percentages of neutral responses are very low as they ranged between 0.0 – 15.8% with a mean of 6.6%.

Table 1: Teachers' Leadership Qualities

| No | Items | Agree/ Strongly Agree | Disagree / Strongly Disagree | Neutra l |
|----|--|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| | The following are essential leadership qualities in a teacher | | | |
| 1 | Has a sense of humour | 51.0 | 48.1 | 0.8 |
| 2 | Is trustworthy and straight with students and staff | 65.4 | 23.4 | 11.2 |
| 3 | Willingness to take responsibility when it needs to be done | 68.2 | 44.8 | 10.4 |
| 4 | Shows respect for others | 60.5 | 29.0 | 10.5 |
| 5 | Firm with students and bad teachers | 71.4 | 49.3 | 8.3 |
| 6 | Appreciative to both teachers and students | 57.1 | 37.1 | 5.8 |
| 7 | Is a role model for staff and students | 80.4 | 12.9 | 6.7 |
| 8 | Shows total commitment to duty | 72.1 | 23.0 | 4.9 |
| 9 | Has well-defined vision for the school | 51.3 | 36.3 | 12.4 |

| | | | | |
|----|--|------|------|------|
| 10 | Can develop leadership skills in others | 61.8 | 30.5 | 7.7 |
| 11 | Protects staff from teaching distractions | 42.1 | 42.1 | 15.8 |
| 12 | Feels the thrill of challenge | 55.5 | 30.9 | 13.6 |
| 13 | A brilliant, knowledgeable person | 71.4 | 26.5 | 2.1 |
| 14 | Is very diplomatic | 69.6 | 26.5 | 3.8 |
| 15 | Can make good plans to achieve perceived goals | 66.5 | 27.9 | 5.6 |
| 16 | Cultivates good teaching practice | 77.4 | 16.8 | 5.8 |

4. Discussion

The findings in the present study provide ample data- based cross-cultural validation of what literature records as the roles played by leaders, especially teachers in advancing development in their given society, and the qualities often exhibited by such leaders. The findings show that teachers in Nigeria are leaders who are actively involved in improving the lives of their students. Specifically, a large proportion of the subjects believed that teachers are academic advisers to students, and that teachers make valuable input into the decisions of the parents on the education and career of their children. Teachers also nurture the lives of the students, teach the students specific social and practical skills, and instill value orientations in the students. Teachers are inspirational models for their students.

Teachers are advantageously placed in unique positions to make concrete contributions to the lives of their students. The students stay for a considerable period of time of their growing up under the watchful eyes of the teachers in the school, college and higher institution. The teachers are equipped with the required knowledge, skill and interactive opportunities, more than any other socialization agent in the society to imprint important life values in the minds of the children. The esteem with which both parents and the children hold teachers in Nigeria has enabled them (teachers) to be strong potential influence on the lives of the students. This agrees with the description by Fafunwa (1967) of a competent teacher.

It is instinctive to reason that the high status and position enjoyed by teachers may have been contingent upon the qualities exhibited by such teachers. Most of the subjects in this study indicated that teachers showed high sense of humour, and exhibited definite vision for their students. The subjects also indicated that teachers show commitment to their calling, and respect for others. The subjects indicated further that teachers often show willingness to take responsibilities and that they (teachers) show enough diplomacy and trustworthiness. Definitely these qualities are motivating enough to make teachers in Nigeria enjoy a lot of prestige and respectability.

However, there is ample evidence in the response of the subjects that the unique position and status enjoyed by teachers in Nigeria in the past have waned down considerably in recent times. Different interacting factors were identified as responsible for the decline. These include indiscipline among students, poor attitude of government and society to the teaching profession often manifested

in poor and irregular remuneration for teachers' services. Other factors cited by the subjects include poor and unhealthy school environment. The teachers themselves were cited as contributing to the decline through misconduct and indiscipline among some teachers such as sale of handouts and poor habits capable of aiding and abetting examination malpractices.

It is worthy to note that in Nigeria today, the remuneration of teachers especially in the primary and secondary schools is relatively low compared with that of their counterparts in other sectors of the economy although the government is making spirited efforts to rectify this anomaly. This problem is further compounded by the fact that salaries are often delayed and promotions rarely come. Such group of people may not effectively show leadership roles in a society that is corrupt and places a lot of importance on material wealth.

The study found that the qualities and traits of good leadership particularly among teachers could be acquired, maintained and improved upon by improved and regular remuneration and improved teacher education. The other strategy proffered is due recognition for teaching in the society. Effective leadership can also be influenced by circumstances in the environment. The traits that make for good and effective leadership are therefore both innate and acquired. Hence, a conducive teaching and learning environment in the schools can motivate effective leadership of the teacher. Improved teacher education programmes will adequately prepare the teachers for the leadership roles they are to play in the schools and society. These qualities agree with those in earlier findings of Astin and Astin (2000); Reborá (2000); Reynolds (2000).

The percentage of neutral responses recorded is quite negligible and probably evidence that the respondents understood the issues at stake and can make up their minds clearly about what the real situation should be.

5. Conclusion

The study has identified some leadership roles expected of teachers amongst which is having pervasive influence beyond the confines of the classroom. However, it has been found that in reality, the teachers' influence appears to be largely in academics. They seem to exert less influence in the social and domestic lives of the students as well as in serving as role models as was in the past. This is obviously evidence that the leadership position of the teacher seems to be falling from what it used to be.

The decline in status and position of leadership can be attributed to factors such as poor and irregular remuneration, corrupt and poor values of the society. There are essential leadership qualities identified for teachers, which will enable them to carry out their expected leadership roles in the school and society. These traits can be acquired and maintained through various ways amongst which are improved teacher education and improved conditions of service

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The Rationale and Relevance of an Ethnography of a Downtown Elementary School (DES)

Sidonia Alenuma, Ph.D.

Assistant Professor

Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable. College

800 W. College Ave.

St. Peter, MN 56082

507-933-7451

salenuma@gustavus.edu

Abstract

This paper is about an ethnography that was conducted for a dissertation, two years ago. In the paper, the rationale for and the relevance of an ethnography as far as research on an inner-city school is concerned, is given. The author presents not only an overview of ethnography, but also present the methods of data collection used in the research. The research question it addresses is "what is the rationale and relevance of using an ethnography to conduct a research on an inner-city school"? The research methodology is qualitative and leans heavily on narrative rather than numbers. Methods of data collection include observation, interview and documentary information. Results include that ethnography was the best method to use in the study. Additionally, DES was identified as a pedagogical community and a place where praxis was being practiced at its best. These taken for granted aspects of the school were only noticeable with the help of an ethnography.

Keywords: Qualitative Research - Ethnography - Education - Praxis - Pedagogy

1. Introduction

This paper explains the rationale and relevance of an ethnography that was conducted on a predominantly Black student populated school that has both magnet and professional development school (PDS) programs. The paper presents the methods of data collection and explains the rationale for the choices as well as the relevance of the selection of multiple methods.

In the paper, an overview of ethnography and that of critical ethnography, the data collection methods used, and how the data were analyzed are presented. In selecting the methods of data collection, the author was inspired by this quote: "Methods must be selected according to purposes; general claims about superiority of a technique over another have little force" (Hammersley and Atkinson 1983:x). In this paper, the author explains why she chose to do an ethnography and the methods of data collection that were used in the study. As Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) so eloquently put it:

Once one begins to recognize the complexity of the scientific enterprise, the different functions that research can serve, and the failings of the single study model, one is in a better position to appreciate the contribution that ethnography can make to social

science. It should be clear that we do not regard ethnography as an 'alternative paradigm' to experimental, survey, or documentary research. Rather it is one method with characteristic advantages and disadvantages, albeit one whose virtues have been seriously underestimated by many social researchers owing to the influence of positivism (p. 23).

2. Ethnography: An Overview and Rationale and Relevance.

With the advent and popularity of qualitative research, social science research has come to be associated with such methodological ideas as the importance of understanding the perspectives of people under study, and observing their activities in everyday life, rather than relying solely on accounts of their behavior or experimental simulations of it. Ethnography is just one of the many qualitative research approaches available to social scientists. The author could not help but notice the relevance of fieldwork and how appropriate the words of one of the founding fathers of ethnography are even after almost a century:

Good training in theory, and acquaintance with its latest results is not identical with being burdened with 'preconceived ideas'. If a man sets out on an expedition, determined to prove certain hypotheses, if he is incapable of changing his views constantly and casting them off ungrudgingly under the pressure of evidence, needless to say his work will be worthless. But the more problems he brings with him into the field, the more he is in the habit of moulding (sic.) his theories according to the facts and of seeing facts in their bearing upon theory [what better way is there to explain the use of *praxis* in research than this], the better he is equipped for the work. Preconceived ideas are pernicious in any scientific work, but foreshadowed problems are the main endowment of a scientific thinker, and these problems are first revealed to the observer by his theoretical studies. (Malinowski 1922:8-9, quoted in Hammersley and Atkinson 1983:29).

Various writers including Agar (1980), Fetterman (1989) have defined ethnography as the written description or depiction of a people's culture, beliefs, and daily activities. There is agreement among many social scientists (e.g. Fetterman, 1989; Spradley 1980) that an ethnography is in some cases, a study describing a culture with the central aim of acquiring an understanding of the native point of view. This study is basically a study of the culture of a school that is both a magnet and a PDS and as such, ethnography is a particularly appropriate research approach. Although ethnography is at the heart of anthropology, it has been and is being used by scholars and researchers in various other disciplines.

The best way in which to acquire an in-depth knowledge about what was going on at DES as far as the PDS and magnet programs were concerned was to become part of the school. Consequently, the author has done a type of qualitative research referred to as an in-depth, step-by-step ethnography (Fetterman 1998). It is a long-term study in which the researcher immerses herself/himself in the community or institution being studied in order to gain a rich and clear understanding of the cultural processes involved. This is done by

observation, participation and interviewing with an emphasis on face-to-face interaction and document collection. The intention is to provide a whole, complete picture of what is going on.

Several of these methods were employed in the present study. For example, the author first began with the process of gaining entry and moved to casual observation before becoming more intrusive through the use of participant observation. When the author's presence had become taken-for-granted, and when no one's comfort zone was being threatened, she embarked on formal and audio-taped interviews, while continuing with conversational interviews throughout the study. The use of a combination of methods enabled the author to tap more into the emicⁱⁱⁱ perspective that the use of one method may have failed to unravel and then to compare it with my etic perspective of all the data being gathered. Like Robinson's *Ethnography of Empowerment*, this study could never have been possible without the use of these specific methods, almost all of which involve face-to-face interaction between the ethnographers and their participants.

Throughout the study the author made critical statements and raised questions. For example, it is good to have an excellent school like DES that attracts students of different race and social economic background in a predominantly black neighborhood, but what does it mean for the poor? Do children in that neighborhood get a fair chance at being in the magnet program? Is the technology freely available to all the children in the school? As far as the PDS goes, some of the questions that nagged my critical mind were, who gets to be a mentor and whose voice over rides the other in the learners/teachers relationship between mentor/student? How about that of the University and DES, what are the power dynamics, does research report carry more weight than what is really going on in the mentor teachers' classrooms? All these questions could not have been answered without an ethnography. Therefore, it is believed that the qualitative research methods of data collection and the ethnography of the school DES were my best choices for undertaking this study (Geertz 1973).

3. Participant Observation

As advised by Glesne and Peshkin (1992), the author used participant observation for the purpose of being there to catch the "moments," developing an understanding of my research participants and acquiring the status of "trusted person" to facilitate the collection of data. As one that eventually became a substitute teacher in the school, she began as a participant-observer at first who later became observer and then finally a participant-observer and attending major events such as school carnivals and speeches on Martin Luther King Jr. day, etc. Through participant observation (through being part of the social setting of the school) the author tried to learn firsthand how the actions of the research participants correspond to their words; see patterns of behavior; experience the unexpected; develop a quality of trust with my research

ⁱⁱⁱThe perspective of the insider, those being studied, is usually referred as emic as opposed to the outsider perspective which is known as etic.

participants that motivates them to tell me what they might not otherwise tell an outsider or a stranger.

As noted by several scholars, Anzul & Ely (1991), Glesne & Peshkin (1992), Spindler (1997), participatory observation served as the essential means of gathering ethnographic data. Besides being useful as a tool for establishing rapport, it is also useful as a method of gathering data. Participatory observation covers a continuum of different kinds and degrees of participation.

The type of participatory observation that was used during the first few weeks of the research was mostly observation without note-taking, in order to give the research participants the chance to become used to the author's presence. She then gradually began to take field notes and make arrangements to observe certain individuals and functions of the school. The approach eventually became as interactive as possible depending on the type of rapport that was established in each instance/situation or moment of the research process.

Besides day to day observations and interactions with individual teachers and staff throughout the two year study, the author had the opportunity to observe five major events: the carnival, the launching of the school book coupon, the Martin Luther King Birthday celebrations, and the black month cultural celebrations. Each event, although not a one day celebration, ended with a gathering of the entire school for an hour or two of exuberant performances such as dances, speeches, recitals and pep-rallies. The author also had the chance to interact with the whole school population on a day to day basis in the capacity of a substitute teacher, get the feel of what is going on, observe and learn the language of my new environment as she became fully immersed and her presence no longer bothered anyone.

4. Interviewing

The second major data collection method that was employed was interviewing. Informal conversational interviews were carried out throughout the research. That is, the author asked questions on the many occasions when something was happening that she wondered about, and had conversations with the people she came in contact with, without formally arranging a time to ask the questions. In terms of formal interviews, the author conducted open-ended and semi-structured interviews whereby appointments with selected research participants were set up. Ten interviews were conducted with two University representatives, the principal, two parents, two interns and two mentor teachers who were willing to have an in-depth conversation with me.

The University officials that were interviewed have a longtime relationship with DES as well as expertise in teacher education, magnet schools and professional development schools. One of them has worked as a representative of the University in its collaboration with DES in the training of teachers by assigning them as interns to various mentor teachers. The other University official that was interviewed is an expert in teacher education and has served for a long time on various committees that represent the University in the PDS consortium of universities and is behind the beginning of the University of Tennessee's

collaboration efforts with the neighboring public schools.

The principal and the administrative staff that were interviewed have both been with DES for a very long time and have seen it move from being magnet school as it was originally intended to also being a professional development school. In fact, the school administrator has been with the school since it was founded, first as a classroom teacher, and then a curriculum supervisor.

The two parents that were interviewed have first hand knowledge about their children's school because they both work there and so are well informed about issues of concern and the advantages of having their children enrolled in DES. The fact that they are parents and teaching assistants rather than classroom teachers makes their perspective a useful addition to the picture because they are able to view issues from different angles and appreciate issues that may not be of much concern to the teachers and other members of staff of the school.

Two mentor teachers were also interviewed. One was a former intern at the school who got recruited after completing her teacher education program. This teacher therefore had a considerable knowledge and experience base that consists of knowing what it means to be an intern and what it means to be a mentor and therefore offered a lot insight on the issues at stake. The other mentor teacher has several years of experience as a teacher and a mentor and is a recipient of several teaching awards and so speaks with authority on the issues that were discussed. At the time of the interview, she had just won an award for excellence in teaching skills. She had a lot to offer as to what the school was doing with the interns and teaching in DES in general.

The two interns from the University that collaborates with DES that were interviewed, were at different stages of their program and worked at different grade-levels so the author was able to tap into their different perspectives based on the length and type of interaction with the school and length of time spent in their teacher training program thus far. All in all, therefore, the author had a diverse population of respondents with different perspectives that she hoped will provide an insight to the broader picture.

5. Documentary Information

Documentary information was gathered from various publications and manuscripts such as affiliated university students' term papers, local newspapers, DES's handouts, application forms, announcements about events and agenda of events, description of programs and activities of school, etc. The author was also able to obtain and study documents that guided the development of both programs at the school. Some of the other documents include historical news letters of churches, notes that have been written by various members of the civil rights movement at the time of the desegregation of the city. The handbook of the County's Substitute Teacher, The Title One Parent's Handbook, the School's Staff Handbook.

6. Data Analysis

Data analysis was part of the research process right from the very beginning to the end. The data included field notes, ten audio-taped interviews, photo-copies of newspapers and other printed materials mentioned above under documentary information. Data analysis entailed the summarization of data, transcription of interviews, coding and interpretation. It also entailed the integration and presentation and all of the above; i.e. the integration of the summarization of data, transcription of interviews, coding and interpretation in a way as to make sense of it all and give an organized picture of the process and outcome of the research.

As advised by various experienced qualitative researchers such as Harry F. Wolcott (1990), Judith A. Dawson et al. (1988), and Matthew B. Miles & Michael Huberman (1984) Data categorization and the writing of research report were started early in the study and continued after the field research was over. Field notes were organized by day and time and where observation took place, the audio tapes were labeled according to the interviewee.

As the author continued to gather, organize and summarize the data, clusters or analytic units began emerging (in the form of ideas and phrases repeating themselves), which were then used as tools for organizing the description of the data. Some researchers stress that in qualitative research all stages of research are interdependent. This has been the case with the present study and so data was in fact invariably analyzed throughout the research process. There have been several mini-analyses all throughout the research as the author sought to summarize and make presentations, interpretations and integrations with every bit of data she gathered each day.

The ten audio-taped interviews were transcribed into type-written texts and then read over and over by the author to familiarize herself with their contents. Field notes and some information from documents were also transcribed, scrutinized, sifted and as time went on themes began to emerge (in the form of ideas, topics and subject matter) and the data was categorized according to these themes which are further *crystallized*, i.e. reflected, refracted and the findings discussed in the next chapter. In essence, The author did not only focus on portraying a detailed description of events and processes at the school (at the micro level) but also on "making the familiar strange and the strange familiar, drawing on the real life situation and the ideal and teasing the data to see if there is common ground for the past, present and future advances at DES and the idealized versions of the school's magnet and professional development programs (at the macro level).

Thus the analysis process included grouping data from different sources together to provide concrete thick descriptions that consist of different aspects of DES *culture* and provide a rounded picture that makes theoretical implications possible while heeding to the warning from Hammersley and Atkinson (1983),

Theorized accounts give much poorer representation of the phenomena with which they deal. On the other hand, assuming the theoretical ideas are well founded, they begin to give us much more knowledge about how

particular aspect of social process is organized and perhaps even why events occur in the patterned way they do. (p.177).

There is the need for triangulation in order not to rely on only one piece of data rather than different kinds of data. Hammersley and Atkinson (1983), indicated that the danger of undetected error built into data-production can be minimized through the use of different kinds of data rather than a single piece of data. They assert that if different kinds of data lead to the same conclusion, then one can be a little more confident about that conclusion, bearing in mind that the different kinds of data have different kinds of error built into them.

Hence, the author did not only gather different kinds and sources of data, but also tried to remain systematic, rigorous and robust in conducting this research exercise. Through reflective thinking, nothing was taken for granted as she worked on "making the familiar strange and the strange familiar" (Splinters, (1982, pp. 23 & 24). In order to facilitate the process of making the familiar strange and the strange familiar, the author did not only review the available literature on magnet and professional development schools, but also immersed myself in DES, a school that has both programs, as well as triangulate various other techniques of data collection. Data from one method complemented, authenticated or contradicted data from another method and/or provided ways and means of carrying out other methods of data collection. In other words, through casual observation, the author was able to design questions to investigate during participant observation. All the stages of the research are intertwined and interrelated. They are framed and formed from one another and data from one are crossed examined through the use of another method. For instance, interview questions were framed from notes taken during observation and the entire collection of data from interviews, observation and documents were triangulated not so much to "commend the use of different methods as to give weight to the idea of reflexive triangulation" (Hammersley and Atkinson 1983:200).

In addition, data from different respondents gathered at different moments and in different situations were triangulated and never taken at face value. For instance, through participant observation (through being part of the social setting of the school) the author tried to learn firsthand how the actions of the research participants correspond to their words; see patterns of behavior; experience the unexpected; develop a quality of trust with the research participants that motivates them to tell her what they might not otherwise tell an outsider or a stranger.

The outcome is an ethnography that is as simple as a narrative, but also complex enough to turn the elementary, taken for granted issues into analytically abstract issues and vice versa for theoretical and practical purposes attaining an optimum level of analysis based on *praxis*. Some of the major themes that emerged and are discussed in the next few sections.

7. DES as Pedagogical Community

A theme that emerged was the school as a learning team or a community of learners. This is made possible and facilitated by the school's magnet program. There are computers everywhere, at least two in the non-magnet classrooms and up to five or more in the magnet classrooms. There are also two computer laboratories and i-Note-Books for some of the higher grade magnet students to be used both at school and at home for note-taking and for doing homework. There are computer classes for parents, the community tries to stay connected as a school, a family of friends, who shared each other's expertise in trying to raise the students as not only knowledgeable but also decent up-right respectable future leaders.

It was not always easy, but in as much as possible, every staff member and some of children's guardians tried to stay involved in the school's activities in general and especially in the activities of individual children. The principal and assistant principal were the ones who, for the most part, deal with some of the most difficult daily situations such as misbehavior and disrespect of students. The administrative staff, especially those who have been there for a long time, have a way of calming down whatever situation there might be that inhibits learning and encourages disrespectful behavior of each other and of grown-ups. Each person in the school, in their assigned role and capacity played a very important role in trying to bring about the success of the students.

Different children with different problems and needs were assigned staff with special expertise to deal with these needs and it was not always easy but they tried their best. Eye and dental care was provided to all students periodically, extra speech and reading lessons for specific students, projects/programs for the gifted and talented as well as extra-curricular activities such as music and dance are made available to students whose parents were interested in having their children take up such lessons and extra-curricular activities. Also related to that is the involvement of most parents.

8. Praxis at its Best: A Collaboration Between Different Experts

Another theme that emerged was the implementation of praxis "at its best"? The question mark is there for a reason. Although the author was not always seeking to find where theory was intersecting with practice, she could not avoid the nexus of that interplay. For example, some of the most difficult questions facing classrooms were those of teachers who do not seem to be able to bridge the generational gap between them and their students in terms of the magnitude of the social problems students face. The different interns and teaching assistants that worked with the different teachers and classrooms were able to coordinate efforts even when their approaches were different.

The interns are able to learn from these teachers what they need to do to become better teachers and yet maintain their unique approach or style of teaching. Teaching or serving (in the cafeteria, as janitor, as counselor, as skills personnel, administrative staff, etc.) in a school such as DES, is a very difficult challenge and a labor of love and care. Some had to quit frustrated, a lot are still

persevering so that they may be able to take care of our future leaders and responsible citizens. Some of them are so up to the task that the job seem like an effortless activity. Sometimes the tasks seem effortless to the observer because the one performing them has long years of experience, love or enthusiasm for and dedication to the profession, and frequent professional development training on different ways of achieving the same goal.

As expressed by one of the participants, the collaborative aspect of the two programs (magnet and PDS) is helpful in achieving the school's goals, giving every child a fair chance of obtaining good quality education and providing teachers of the school a chance to interact with preservice teachers and their professors in order to stay informed about the latest theories and research findings in education. Another participant, a member of staff and curriculum specialist said she was very impressed by the fact that the collaborative effort between the school and the University made it possible to get to know about events such as conferences and even made it possible to attend them. This never happened prior to the collaborative effort and she has been learning a lot not only from the conferences but also from the University students and their professors. A University administrative staff said it is a win-win situation because the school makes it possible for their students to intern in a real life situation and conduct collaborative research with teachers who are not new in the field.

Through observation and the notes that were kept on how this unique school functions, one came to the conclusion that it is a school that expends considerable effort to ensure that everyone's contribution and voice is heard. Many of the school's faculty and staff indicated that they know that what they are doing and have to do is not an easy task but they are content in the fact that at least they are doing something positive about taking care of the children and community's needs jointly. The different interns worked in collaboration with their mentors in different unique ways as befits their different personalities and approach to the issues, be it lesson, content, discipline or classroom management.

The different groups of workers had different roles and they all had to work together in a collaborative manner to get their work accomplished. As a substitute teacher of the school, the author got to understand that the most difficult tasks of the teachers was classroom management and control over the children and she also realized that there are different approaches and it is easier for those who have been in the system longest and best know the class, individual students and their parents. Parents and grandparents frequent the school to check on their children's performance and welfare. The children are sometimes a source of information on how to go about managing the class and dealing with the different children especially when you are new in the school as was my case - as a researcher and a substitute teacher. The teaching assistants are especially very helpful to the children and teachers and although they perform different roles from the rest of the school, they are an essential part of the wellbeing of the entire school.

The janitors, cafeteria workers, parents and teachers are a source of learning about good manners, proper language and acquisition of the necessary skills for becoming good and responsible citizens in their community. The administrative staff especially the principal and assistant principal has a greater control over the

children in terms of improper behavior in the classroom, hallways and cafeteria.

Also, when they first encounter someone new in the school environment (substitute teacher, researcher or community resource persons) the reaction of the children is different and there is always the need for those who have been in the school longest to assist them. Initial reaction of the children is that of excitement and questioning in order that they may get to know the person better and also find out if the person is in a good position to teach them. Upon reflection on her work as researcher and substitute teacher at the school, the author realized that there is the need for humility especially when people with different talents get together so that they can dialogue on their common concerns. Especially, as a researcher, there is the need for one not to be over-confident but humble enough to show some ignorance, admit faults and respectfully learn from your participants. These are also essential qualities in the teachers, the administrative staff, the other workers, parents and the entire community as well as the University affiliates in the PDS collaborative effort if there is to be a successful and productive collaboration between them.

9. Conclusion

In conclusion, the author has shown the rationale and relevance of a Downtown Elementary School (DES), by outlining what an ethnography entails. She has also shown what the ethnography entailed by presenting the methods of data and the results of the research to further emphasize the point that the choice of an ethnography was relevant and rational.

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Teacher professional development: Perspectives from Ghanaian junior secondary school science teachers implementing continuous assessment

Mawuadem Koku Amedeker

University of Education – Winneba, Ghana

mawuden@yahoo.com

Abstract

Our purpose of in this paper is to answer the research question: Why does teacher professional growth appear to stagnate in some educational systems? The study is based on Knight's (2002) proposition that teacher professional developments that are dominated by events like workshops are not likely to make the same impact on teacher professional growth as communities of practice. Other arguments are based on lack of consideration of factors that motivate teachers to take part in professional development and processes of teacher change (Guskey, 1986; Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002). Also criticisms against the traditional top-down approach to teacher professional development (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995) were considered. Data were gathered from junior secondary science teachers (n=56) in an education district in Ghana through a questionnaire and a focus group meeting (n=6). The findings reveal that most teachers did not link improvements in their professional development with that of their students' achievements.

Keywords: Curriculum research - Science education - Teacher professional growth

1. Introduction

Teacher professional development is an important aspect of the improvements envisaged in the school system of every nation. Education authorities in Ghana have involved teachers in a number of professional development workshops with the aim of improving teacher performance as well as improving schools (Ministry of Education Youth and Sports, 2004). Invariably all these workshops tended to be top-down approach types with minimal teachers' inputs on what to learn. There is also a dearth of information on the influence of workshops on teachers' performance in the classrooms in Ghana. This paper presents junior secondary science teachers' opinions about what professional development workshops mean to them and how they could be improved.

2. The structure of the education system in Ghana

In Ghana the structure of the pre-university education comprises a six-year primary, three-year junior secondary and a hitherto three-year senior secondary (to be made four years in September, 2007) education. The primary and junior secondary systems form the compulsory component called basic education and must be attended by all children resident in Ghana. The government, therefore, provides free compulsory universal basic education (FCUBE) for all children of

school-going age. Students completing the basic education, which is nine years of schooling, take an examination called the basic education certificate examination (BECE) in order to be certificated. As the junior secondary may be a terminal point for some students, the BECE becomes high stakes examinations. Some students may branch into apprenticeship while others proceed to pursue further education at the senior secondary, vocational and technical institutes.

The premium placed on the basic education certificate by parents and students makes it imperative that students perform well in the BECE which is made up of 30% of school-based teacher assessment called continuous assessment and 70% of one shot external examination in each subject (Kwawukume, 2006). The West African Examinations Council (WAEC) organises the external examinations component of the BECE. As students' performance is linked to teachers' classroom performance then junior secondary teachers have a duty to prepare students well for them to pass continuous assessments and the external examination. Teachers' preparedness to perform to the best of their ability in the classroom and the resultant improvement of students' learning output can be achieved through on-going professional development (Darling-Hammond 2000; Goodrum, 2003). In the case of Ghana, junior secondary teachers would need on-going education on how to use continuous assessment to help students to improve their science learning as means of preparing towards their final examination, BECE. In-service education for teachers in Ghana, however, is infrequent and most of the activities organised are not picked in consultation with the teachers.

The teachers in this study completed a survey questionnaire based on the following three questions: (a) How do teachers view professional learning in relation to their practice? (b) What factors do teachers consider as likely to improve a professional learning workshop? (c) What factors do teachers consider as obstacles to the successful implementation of professional learning?

3. Importance of teacher professional development

Knight (2002) gives four reasons why teachers need to engage in continuing professional development. These are the continual growth of knowledge; expansion of student populations with diversity in their backgrounds; improving professionalism of teaching; and the life-long learning nature of the teaching profession. These reasons imply that high quality professional development programmes should be organised to educate teachers on how to improve their effectiveness. Guskey (1986), however, notes that very few professional development programmes have the quality being advocated. Howey and Vaughan cited in Guskey (1986, p. 5) describe current professional development programmes as "not frequently engaged in on a continuing basis by practitioners, not regarded very highly as it is practiced, and rarely assessed in terms of teacher behaviour and student learning outcomes".

In-service education for teachers is not a new phenomenon in Ghana. It is noted, however, that often the Ministry of Education or the Ghana Education Service determines the types of in-service education to be given based on problems they have observed in the schools. On the other hand, when a new curriculum is

introduced or a reform is to be implemented in-service programmes are organised by the Ghana Education Service for teachers. These programmes often target changes in teachers' classroom practices and continuing teacher professional development (Borko, 2004; Fullan & Miles, 1992). Despite the good intentions of many professional development programmes they have been noted to assume top-down approaches that need modification to include teachers' voice, motivation and formation of communities of practice (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995; Zeichner, 2003).

In addressing why most teacher development programmes may not impact upon teachers, the two main factors identified have been given as *teacher motivation* and *the process of change used* (Fullan, 1982; Guskey, 1986). A systemic approach to the change process has been advocated in the literature so as to involve all stakeholders in the educational system (Knight, 2002). Knight believes that change processes dominated by top-down approaches of handing down courses, workshops, seminar and others of the like are ineffective as compared to change models in which teachers have inputs. He further states that though a 'hand-down' professional learning programme may have its good sides "It is just not fit for all the purposes to which it is applied" (Knight, 2002, p. 230). The literature is, however, not clear on whether teachers, especially inexperienced ones, are able to identify their professional development needs.

According to Guskey (2002) teachers are motivated to attend professional development programmes by the belief that they would improve upon their teaching and enhance their students' learning. Scribner (1999) ascribes the motivation of adults to learn to intrinsic and extrinsic factors. For teachers, the intrinsic factors are the realisation of gaps in their content knowledge, teaching methods, classroom management skills and improvement in their students' learning. On the other hand, the extrinsic factors are consideration for pay increases and acquisition of professional licence.

Guskey (2002) identifies three main outcomes of teacher professional development as "change in the classroom practices of teachers, change in their attitudes and beliefs, and change in the learning outcomes of students" (p. 383). A number of models, differing in complexity, have been proposed for the process of teacher change (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002; Guskey, 1986; Guskey, 2002; Guskey & Huberman, 1995; Huberman & Miles, 1984). The complex nature of the change processes should be an indicator that one does not need to stick rigidly to a model. It is, however, not clear if all teachers will like to follow the same change process. Guskey (2002) argues that one must experience a change through a process in order to affirm a belief in it.

In the literature, teachers' professional learning is considered to comprise both psychological and professional development perspectives (Kwakman, 2003). In cognitive psychological learning teachers are considered as life-long learners who should ensure the success of their own learning. Borko and Putnam (1996) argue that this type of learning is very much individualised as it is based on the knowledge and beliefs that one has. On the other hand professional development activities, over the years, have been traditional in form and have been handed down in forms regarded by resource persons as appropriate for teachers. This approach to teacher professional learning has been criticised as lacking the working context needed to help teachers to learn innovative methods of teaching

(Kwakman, 2003). The current study, however, attempts to find out science teachers' views about professional learning workshops and the constraints that may prevent them from practising what they learn there.

4. Methodology

The data in this study were collected from junior secondary science teachers (n=56) in an education district in Ghana at a workshop. A focus group meeting was conducted (n=6) to allow for triangulation with the questionnaire data. The teachers were served with a questionnaire that was completed by them and collected on the spot. A total of six teachers, three experienced and three inexperienced were selected with the help of the circuit supervisors for a focus group interview (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000) to obtain in-depth information on some of the questions on the questionnaire. Teachers who had taught science for 10 or more years were considered experienced while those with less than five years teaching were considered inexperienced. The interview encouraged detailed discussions about the teachers' perception of gains made from the workshop activities, suggestions for improving future workshops and the frustrations of implementing the workshop activities. The interview was audio-taped transcribed verbatim to retain as much of teachers' ideas as possible.

5. Data sources and data analysis

The data in this study were collected with an open-ended teacher questionnaire during a professional learning workshop as it is not easy to go round the schools due to the disparate nature of their distribution around the districts. The transport expenses of the teachers are paid and lunch organised for them when they attend workshops so patronage of workshops are often encouraging. The completed questionnaires were returned by all 56 science teachers attending the workshop. It is estimated that there are about 40 junior secondary schools in the district with about 70 teachers teaching science as some schools may have more than one science teacher. The return rate of the questionnaire, thus, was about 80%. The data collected with the questionnaire were complemented with a focus group meeting of six teachers.

Data from the questionnaire were analysed for themes and grouped into categories which were coded and an SPSS computer programme used to determine the per cent of teachers giving each category of responses. Interview responses were used to corroborate data from the questionnaire.

6. Findings

The findings of this study reveal the concerns of some Ghanaian science teachers for improving their assessment practice through professional development workshops. The results are shown on Table 1 in terms of per cent of categories of teachers' responses. Some of the teachers gave more than one response to items on the questionnaire.

Table 1: Teachers' views about impact of, suggestions and problems with implementing continuous assessment in science (n = 56)

| | |
|---|-------|
| 1. <i>Views about impact of professional learning</i> | |
| • Improvement in my assessment practice | 75.2% |
| • Improvement in my teaching methodology | 46.4% |
| • Improvement in my reporting on students..... | 24.7% |
| • Improvement in my students' learning..... | 5.4% |
| 2. <i>Suggestions to improve professional learning workshop</i> | |
| • Increase duration and frequency of workshop..... | 73.2% |
| • Financial motivation to teachers..... | 58.2% |
| • Provision of practical activities..... | 19.7% |
| • Follow-up visits of resource persons to schools | 14.3% |
| 3. <i>Problems with implementing continuous assessment in science</i> | |
| • Overwhelming workload | 86.2% |
| • Students' attitudes to continuous assessment | 43.3% |
| • Delay in supplying assessment materials | 24.5% |
| • Lack of teaching and learning materials | 22.4% |
| • Teachers' lack of assessment self-efficacy..... | 10.7% |

7. Improvements envisaged by teachers to their professional practice

The literature suggests that the values teachers attach to professional development are linked to their willingness to make changes to their practice (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). It has also been found that teachers would opt for professional development programmes with the aim of improving their classroom performance rather than for monetary rewards (Berman & McLaughlin, 1978).

In this study, improvements envisaged by teachers to their professional practice were considered under the sub-heading *Views about impact of professional learning* in Table 1. The most frequently occurring category of responses was *Improvement in my assessment practice*. The majority of the teachers felt that improvements in their assessment practices would improve their professional practice. Similarly, the second most frequently occurring category of responses was *Improvement in my teaching methodology*. The third most frequently occurring category of responses was *Improvement in my reporting on students* and the least frequently occurring category was *Improvement in my students' learning*.

The teachers in this study appear to have placed more value on their own performance in the classroom rather than on the effect of their performance on

students' learning. They appear to measure their success in the classroom in terms of how much they can deliver.

When the teachers were asked during the focus group what improved assessment of students meant to them one of them replied: "Initially I assessed my students with written tasks only but now I know that I can assess them orally too". Then on improved teaching methodology one of them replied: "At first I was asking questions all over but now I know I have to ask both closed and open-ended questions during my teaching". The teachers appeared to be concerned with what they can do rather than their students' performance.

The majority of the teachers were concerned about the acquisition of the skills without exploring the effect of these skills on their students' learning. Studies from the United States (Scribner, 1999) on the other hand, have shown that personal benefits were lesser reasons for teachers engaging in professional learning.

8. Improving professional learning workshops

The most frequently occurring category of responses was *Increase duration and frequency of workshop*. The short duration of the workshop did not appeal to the teachers. This point was buttressed by one participant during the interview as: "We must have about three, four, or five meetings so that we would become more conversant with what we learn". This suggests that one-day workshops leave teachers' with little time to understand the skills taught. Another teacher suggested that "Such workshops should be organised during vacation periods so that we have enough time to learn what is taught at the workshops".

The second most frequent category, *Financial motivation to teachers*, indicated that the teachers felt that some monetary remuneration would help them to learn better skills taught at the workshop. When asked to explain this, one of the teachers said in the interview: "When the teacher is knowledgeable in whatever he/she is doing, it is done better when well motivated financially". An implication of this response may be the added advantage of having extra money to supplement one's meagre salary.

The third most frequently occurring category of responses, *Provision of practical activities*, indicated that the teachers felt they needed practical activities. One of them at the interview said: "Participants should be provided with some teaching and learning materials. This is because some of the things talked about can be properly followed when we practise them". This view was critical about the teaching methodology used at the workshop.

The least frequent category, *Follow-up visits of resource persons to schools*, indicated that the teachers would need further assistance in their schools. A reason given during the interview was: "It will help us because we will know if we are going wrong and whatever we have forgotten he will remind us to use it". Knight (2002) rightly points out that "new activities require much more of learners, who are better seen as constructors, not recipients of understandings" (p. 231). The zeal with which teachers leave workshops may wane when there

are no follow-up visits to encourage the practice of skills learnt and mentor teachers.

Professional learning is not continuous in Ghanaian schools due to the absence of communities of practice. As Knight has pointed out "Change is slow and not certain" (2002, p. 236) so a community of learners is advocated to enable teachers to discuss issues learnt at workshops with each other.

9. Problems of implementing continuous assessment in science

Five categories of responses emerged under this sub-heading. The most frequently occurring category was *Overwhelming workload*. In the focus group discussion one of the teachers explained: "Writing of appropriate feedback on each student's exercise has really being a problem to me because time is limited and the number of students is great". A second teacher said: "Preparing lesson notes in addition to the tasks and having to constantly prepare marking scheme for each tasks is a big problem to me".

The new approach which advocated the use of formative assessment to enhance students' learning (Black & William, 1998) required that teachers should mark their students' tasks with the guidance of marking keys and give written feedback on students' exercises. The Ministry of Education in Ghana requires that continuous assessment should comprise several different types of assessment (Ministry of Education, 2001). The teachers, thus, foresee an additional burden in using the strategies of the workshop. The revelations of this study imply that the teachers would find it difficult to implement quality continuous assessment through the workshop approach.

The second most frequently occurring category of responses, *Students' attitudes to continuous assessment*, indicates the teachers' concern about their students' response to continuous assessment. During the focus group some of the opinions expressed were: "Some students who do not attend classes regularly have low reading ability and so are not willing to submit assignments". Another teacher complained that "Some of my students just do not do the assignments given to them. There are some who use only one exercise book for all subjects so it is difficult to receive assignment from them".

Other categories of responses were *Delay in supplying assessment materials* and *Lack of teaching and learning materials*. Assessment materials are supplied by the District Education Offices of the Ghana Education Service. They comprise *Termly Assessment Plan* for recording students' marks in each subject and *The Cumulative Records for basic schools* booklet for recording students' performance in all the subjects they offer. One of the teachers explains: "Sometimes there will not be continuous assessment forms for a whole term and when they are brought at the end of the term they may be inadequate to go round the classes". Another teacher also complains "There is no science laboratory for the students to see the things we talk about and the science textbooks are not enough for each student to have a copy".

The least frequently occurring category of responses, *Teachers' lack of assessment self-efficacy* indicates that some teachers felt they did not have enough knowledge and skills to practise continuous assessment. One of the teachers expressed the following sentiments: "Some of us lack knowledge of continuous assessment and there is a lack of regular training in assessment skills".

10. Implications and Discussions

The implications of the findings of the current study for teacher professional growth are that very few of the teachers in this study envisage that their students' learning outcomes would be impacted by their professional learning. Some studies in the United States of America (Peers, Diezmann, & Watters, 2003) have found that teachers' professional learning impacted their students' learning outcomes in terms of enhanced learning strategies and improved science concepts understanding. Most of the views expressed in this study about the impact of the professional development activities were on the improvement of teachers' activities in the classroom. This may imply that the use of mostly traditional top-down approach to teacher professional development is not helping teachers to learn reforms introduced to them (Kwakman, 2003). Whilst a new notion of collaborative learning (Little, 1993; McLaughlin, 1997) and learning at the workplace (Kwakman, 2003; Scribner, 1999) have shown improvements in teacher learning, the Ghanaian education system still uses learning at workshops only. Consequently, teachers expect improvements that would enhance only their performance in the classroom.

Responses obtained from this study show that the teachers do not have knowledge of community of learners as none of them mentioned this concept. It may be concluded that perhaps traditional professional development workshops used in Ghana do not advocate collaborative learning. Kwakman (2003) gives two advantages of collaborative learning. Firstly, sharing of knowledge through interactions of teachers with each other and secondly supporting each other. In the absence of collaborative learning among Ghanaian junior secondary science teachers professional learning would remain individualised and directed at teacher performance rather than the enhancement of students' learning outputs. As teacher professional growth emanates from teacher professional learning it is bound to stagnate when professional learning remains individualised.

The teachers involved in this study have noted students' uncooperative attitudes and overwhelming workload as some of the obstacles that may limit the successful implementation of continuous assessment. Kwakman (2003) suggests that one of the learning principles that would promote teacher professional growth is experimenting with new ideas in the classroom. However, the problems enumerated by teachers in this study would be impediments to trialling new ideas learnt at professional development workshops. Further, delay by education authorities in supplying materials for implementing skills learnt at workshops may demoralise teachers. Research reports (Guskey, 1986) have shown that supports for teachers during the period they are trialling the implementation of curriculum innovation is crucial for their success. It is not surprising that the

quality of continuous assessment in junior secondary schools in Ghana has been criticised for lack of reliability (WAEC, 1993).

The call for increasing the duration and the frequency of the professional learning workshops depicts the nature of the workshops which insist on intensive learning of curriculum innovations at the workshop sessions only. Teachers are left on their own when they return to their schools without mentoring and peer support. On the other hand, teachers' demand for remunerations as means of improving workshops would have implications for teachers' attitudes to workshop activities. Some teachers at the workshop may not put up their best to learn workshop skills when they are not sure of the quantum of stipends they would receive.

While the supply of teaching and learning materials at workshops may be inadequate to serve teachers' needs, a few of them do realise their potential to enhance their professional learning. Follow-up visits to schools by experts to support teachers to implement workshop skills are rare in the Ghanaian educational system. The teachers in this study have rightly noted this as part of the problems thwarting their professional growth.

11. Conclusion

The study has revealed important findings that may contribute to the understanding of why teacher professional growth in the Ghanaian educational system may stagnate. There are no communities of practice; no follow-up visits to help teachers practise workshop skills; teachers own attitude of expecting monetary reward at the workshops; the nature of workshops as one intensive session of learning skills; teachers' anticipation of extra workload with educational innovations; and teachers' inability to link improvements in their skills with their students' learning outputs.

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TEACHERS' VIEWS FOR ARRANGING AND MANAGING GROUP ACTIVITIES WHICH ARE REQUIRED BY CONSTRUCTIVISM

Şengul S. Anagun¹, Huseyin Anilan²

¹*Eskisehir Osmangazi University, Eskisehir Turkey*
ssanagun@ogu.edu.tr

²*Eskisehir Osmangazi University, Eskisehir Turkey*
hanilan@ogu.edu.tr

Abstract

According to constructivism, learning is based on the idea that instead of receiving knowledge passively, learners comprehend and interpret it, learn different perspectives, develop their own and defend it, and are able to use it in their everyday lives. The learning environments in which constructivist learning is implemented require collaboration among students to a great extent. The fundamental reason of this is that students learn how to learn not only by themselves but from others as well. Forming small groups, students work together to solve a problem or to do task towards a common end. At the end of this process, they can revise their own learning with their peers, reflect it and learn different strategies and methods from each other. The purpose of this study is to determine teachers' views for arranging and managing group activities which are required by new educational programmes. Data were collected during fall semester in academic year of 2007-2008 by semi-structured interviews which are based on qualitative research approach. Seven classroom teachers joint the research. The data analyzed and interpreted using descriptive methods. Research results show that teachers believe the usefulness of group works. They are planning, conducting and evaluating group works on the base of constructivism. They also are having some problems with these processes. The teachers also stated that they found their own solutions.

Keywords: constructivism - group activities - learning environments - group work

1. Introduction

Constructivism is a learning theory based on learner's constructing their own knowledge rather than reproducing another person's knowledge. The individual has to construct knowledge in order to deal with the troubles their environment and experiences bring about. The reflection of constructivist approach over teaching-learning processes designing is stressed more on learning concept. Interactive learning environments, which allow students to construct knowledge and meaning, are vital for a meaningful learning environment. The role of teacher in this process is to monitor the development of learners' understanding and to guide them into the discussions through which they can verbally express their own understanding (Tobin and Tippins, 1993). In constructivism, by using methods such as inquiry based learning, collaborative learning and problem based learning; an effort is performed in order that learners learn how to learn. In this process, teacher should know about learners' previous experiences,

values and beliefs, and socio-cultural background and should arrange appropriate activities.

The learning environments in which constructivist learning is implemented require collaboration among students to a great extent. The fundamental reason of this is that students learn how to learn not only by themselves but from others as well. Forming small groups, students work together to solve a problem or to do task towards a common end. At the end of this process, they can revise their own learning with their peers, reflect it and learn different strategies and methods from each other. Working in groups contributes to having respect for individual differences, development of self-esteem and developing positive attitudes towards the lesson as well as developing in them mutual respect and communication skills (Zinicola, 2003).

Constructivist theory does not necessitate a specific teaching method. The methods that the theory follows are indirect and eclectic. However, the methods used in teaching are to be the ones through which learning takes place employing experiencing and thinking skills and based on questioning, and students' curiosity, interest, excitement and satisfaction realized (Victor and Kellough, 1997). Constructivist theory prefers group works. According to Oh (2003) quoting from Duffy, problem-based learning is one of the most suitable methods to practice constructivist theory. Problem-based learning possesses three basic qualities; involving students in a problematic situation as "individuals having responsibility", arranging the implemented teaching program around a problem with a holistic and complicated structure, and forming a learning environment in which students are guided through learning by teachers. This approach helps students to give meaning to knowledge, their efficiently-problem-solving skills to improve, students to acquire self-learning and lifelong learning skills, to develop an efficient cooperation, their inner motivations to develop in learning and them to be productive individuals (Hmelo-Silver, 2004).

1.1. Purpose

The main purpose of this research is to determine classroom teachers view's about group working which are recommended by constructivism.

2. Method

The research is designed based on documents analysis, a qualitative research method. Documents analysis is a method that involves the analysis of printed materials containing information about the phenomena and events aimed for research (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). The data obtained from seven classroom teachers by semi-structured interviews.

2.1. Data analysis

Descriptive analysis method was employed in data analysis process. Descriptive analysis is a method used in the researches in which the conceptual and theoretical framework is determined clearly beforehand. In this analysis, the data is summarized and interpreted according to pre-determined themes or categories. The research questions, the questions utilized in interview and observation processes or the dimensions in these processes are considered during the presentation of the data (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2005). The analysis of research data were carried out in the following phases:

The documents collected from the teachers were examined separately by each researcher. The researchers coded the suitable themes by independently reading the forms. where the data within the scope of the study was written. In situations where there were not any themes to mark, they formed another theme under "other" title for this data and performed the markings under that theme.

After coding the themes independently, the researchers compared the reliability of the coding keys. During the comparison, themes which included each question item and were marked by the researchers were controlled and the "agreement" and "disagreement" among the researchers were determined. If the three researchers marked the same theme or did not mark a specific one at the same time, this situation was considered to be an "agreement among experts;" whereas the situations where they marked different themes were considered as "Disagreement." The conciliation percentages were determined based on Miles and Huberman's (1994) formula. The result gained through this formula showed that there's 85% reliability. The 15% data on which the three researchers could not reach an agreement was placed into the existing themes with the consensus reached through the joint study by the researchers.

3. Findings

The findings obtained from the interviews conducted with teachers were thematized under the headings the benefits of group works, planning group works, conducting group works, evaluation of group works, the problems encountered in group works and suggestions for solution.

3.1. Findings about the benefits of group works

The teachers think that group works are useful for students in several ways. The findings reflecting the benefits of group works are presented in the table below.

The teachers are of the following opinions on the facts that group works develop students' feelings of collaboration and cooperation and increase sharing and that they contribute to the skills of listening to and establishing communications with each other:

"I find group works beneficial in terms of developing students' feelings of collaboration, cooperation, and sharing." (Teacher 1)

"I consider group works to be helpful in the way that students learn to cooperate and communicate with each other and to listen to each other's ideas through these works." (Teacher 5)

"I see group works useful in terms of developing students' friendship and commitment to the class." (Teacher 2)

As seen from these statements, group works are helpful for students to be able to acquire the roles set forth by constructivist understanding. Constructivist theory suggests that knowledge is constructed by making students support each other in interactive environments. And the teacher opinions support the fact that students gain these qualities. In addition, group works assist students in increasing their motivation, developing self-confidence and deriving pleasure from lessons. These aspects indicate affective qualities. It is known that, in constructivist learning environments, students' having positive attitudes towards lessons affect their learning positively. Teacher statements representing affective statements are reflected in the interviews in the following way:

"Personally, I think that they are useful. Group works motivate children." (Teacher 6)

"First of all, they perform this task enjoyably. It naturally contributes to their learning since they do it eagerly. I always say, 'Getting together in group works is a great happiness for them.' Some children do not have self-confidence but develop it by means of these works. They become aware of their own qualities and talents." (Teacher 4)

That students take pleasure from learning and their enthusiasm help them take on more responsibility about learning. Taking active roles in the process through group works, students form their authentic knowledge constructions and therefore develop their critical thinking skills. Teacher opinions supporting this interpretation are stated below:

"All group members participate in works." (Teacher 5)

"I think that a student always active in group works learns always." (Teacher 3)

"Group works make a significant contribution to taking on responsibility." (Teacher 4)

"In group works, students cause their friends perform better by criticizing them." (Teacher 4)

These teacher statements show that group works suggested by constructivism make constructing knowledge socially possible. It could be suggested that individuals in communication and social interaction achieve active and permanent learning in this way. Having taken on the responsibility of being a member of a group, students focus on group achievement rather than individual success. It can be said that the opinions of teachers are compatible with relevant research results in the literature (Tracy, 2003; Conrad, 2005).

3.2. Findings about planning group works

All the teachers interviewed state that they start planning group works by determining the number of students to be involved in a group and restrict groups with 4–6 students. They also state that they try to form groups of similar size by taking the number of students in the class into consideration and to form heterogenic groups.

“When I form the groups, I take care that children with different academic achievement levels come together.” (Teacher 3)

“I form heterogenic groups.” (Teacher 2)

The teachers state that they act in a democratic way in determining the subject, forming groups and task division and that they plan group works based on students’ demands and expectations.

“In group works, those students willing to work on the same subject come together. Choosing a director for each group, I encourage them to make a fair task division among group members.” (Teacher 1)

“Making group task division on their own, students choose group directors and spokesmen.” (Teacher 3)

Planning, the first step where teaching-learning process is initiated, plays a key role in active continuation of the process and knowledge construction. In this sense, careful implementation of this component in group works as well is an expected quality in terms of constructivist learning processes. The teachers interviewed state that they take student opinions into consideration in planning process and make planning based on constructivist understanding.

3.3. Findings about conducting group works

As required by constructivist teacher role, teachers state that they support and guide students when they need while performing group works:

“I help students about where they can get assistance concerning their works.” (Teacher 3)

“When students face a problem in group works, I step in.” (Teacher 4)

“I guide students towards libraries so that they do research.” (Teacher 7)

According to teacher statements below, it could be suggested that, while conducting group works, teachers apply immediate response and feedback principles in accordance with constructivist approach:

“In group works, I examine group plans and give responses like “It’s all right,” “It’s not OK”, or “You have some lacking points.” (Teacher 6)

“I determine what should be done at certain periods of time by planning.” (Teacher 2)

“By monitoring groups, I observe how task divisions are done, if group members carry out their duties, and if they are active within groups or not.” (Teacher 3)

The teachers involved in the study say that, by taking parents' support in group works, they encourage students about the fact that they can be much more successful:

"I encourage group members to perform better in group works."
(Teacher 1)

"I ask parents to support students in terms of equipment for group works." (Teacher 6)

In constructivist learning environments, constructing knowledge in social context has a key role in ensuring permanent learning. That teachers provide group works and encourage their students in this direction is indicative of the fact that they carry out their constructivist teacher roles.

3.4. Findings about evaluating group works

Through the analyses conducted based on the research questions, the methods employed by teachers in evaluating group works were determined as peer-evaluation form, rubrics, group evaluation scale, portfolio and bulletin board exhibition:

"I use the graded score key. Also I make use of peer-evaluation form from time to time." (Teacher 5)

"I delivered a form to the children so that they could evaluate each other in the last group task I arranged." (Teacher 4)

Teachers state that they employ the instruments of constructivist theory designed to evaluate the process and focus on multiple perspectives in the evaluation. These statements could be interpreted to mean that teachers prefer to use not only learning outcomes and correct or incorrect answers to monitor students' progress but they also make use of assessment tools reflecting student-centered process. One of the teachers states that s/he prepares the scales to be used to evaluate his students according to the level of his/her own class:

"I design the group evaluation scale according to the profile of our own students and evaluate group works with this scale." (Teacher 3)

Another teacher, on the other hand, points out that s/he carries out evaluation by exhibiting presentations and learning outcomes:

"We exhibit the materials related to the work of each group on the bulletin board in our classroom. This is how we carry out evaluation."
(Teacher 1)

Considering all these opinions from a general perspective, it could be suggested that teachers evaluate group works based on constructivism. Teachers evaluate not only what is learnt but also the students themselves and learning process and outcomes as a whole. It could further be suggested that learners focus on group acquisitions instead of individual ones and on how these are gained.

3.5. Findings about the problems encountered in group works

Teachers point out that the major problem they face in conducting group works derives from insufficient physical conditions of schools. Insufficiency of physical environments decreases the tendency towards group works. It is stated by teachers that group works are chosen temporarily or when there is no other way:

“Because our classrooms are tiny, we conduct group works with a great difficulty. There is mobility in the classroom as we constantly change the location of desks according to group works.” (Teacher 4)

“We change the arrangement of desks during group works since our classrooms do not have U-order. Because there remains no space in the classroom when we do that, we put the desks back to where they were after the group task. The arrangement of our classrooms, in this regard, is not appropriate.” (Teacher 1)

“Our school is not convenient for group works in terms of physical conditions.” (Teacher 7)

The environments where constructivism is applied should allow interaction and provide students with the opportunity to work in a way that is suitable for their learning styles in small groups. However, teacher opinions point out that schools do not possess the physical environments which will make this kind of activities possible. The problems encountered in planning phase, on the other hand, are; unsociable children are excluded, all students want to work with successful children, and those children whose homes are far from the school have difficulty in participating group works. The problem that unsociable children are excluded when forming groups is regarded as an issue pointed out by teachers:

“While forming groups, unsociable children stayed out of the group.” (Teacher 7)

Apart from students’ social features, another problem causing them to stay out of any group is that everybody wants to study with successful children.

“We have difficulty in forming groups. Everybody wants to be in a group where students with higher academic achievement levels are.” (Teacher 1)

The problems in group works faced by the children whose houses are far from the school are reflected in the following statements:

“There are students coming to our school by bus from various districts. It is hard for children living in different neighborhoods to come together.” (Teacher 7)

By stating that they do not prefer group works due to the reasons mentioned above, teachers indicate the problems faced in planning group activities. Teachers, who encounter a problem like this just at the beginning of the process, state that they do not plan any group task unless they have to. The teachers also say that parents won’t contribute to out-of-school activities, time is not used efficiently in the periods apart from those spent at school and family opportunities are insufficient.

"Some parents did not want students come together for group works after school because they thought students just wasted their time." (Teacher 3)

"Claiming that students played games instead of studying for group works when they met after school, parents complained about students' meeting." (Teacher 1)

"In the first group works, students always wanted to play games when they came together after school. Of course, it is only natural that they play games for some time. But then I warned parents that students should complete the assignments given. And then parents directed children to study hard." (Teacher 4)

Based on the opinions of the teachers, it could be argued that parents have not yet developed a sense of consciousness about making contribution to group assignments and are unwilling about carrying out their duties. Another problem to which the teachers draw attention is the fact that parents are not able to provide financial support due to financial difficulties. A teacher mentions this issue through the following statement:

"In group works, children cannot carry out the assignments given because of the insufficiency of their families' resources." (Teacher 2)

Considering the truths of Turkey, the opinions of the teachers could be regarded as absolutely realistic. Lack of Internet connection at every home causes a problem for preparing the assignments. The teachers also call attention to the problems deriving from students' progress levels and academic performances in addition to those which could be considered to be caused by families. Among the problems originating from students, sharing-responsibility problems seem to be the most emphasized one by teachers:

"Group works do not prove efficient because of the students who do not carry out the assignments given." (Teacher 7)

"Students cannot take on equal responsibility in group works due to the academic level differences among group members." (Teacher 2)

Another aim of constructivist activities is to develop students' awareness about undertaking the responsibility for their own learning. The statements of the teachers indicate that there are problems in developing this consciousness and sense of responsibility. Another student-based problem emphasized by the teachers emerges in the evaluation of group works. The teachers state that they come across problems in carrying out objective assessment. Stating that evaluation is a time-consuming process, they also note that they are not knowledgeable enough about this subject. Furthermore, it is apparent in teacher statements that they do not take multiple perspectives into consideration:

"There is an assessment scale attached no matter which project or performance I assign. I carry out assessment based on that. I take visual aspects into consideration as well. I consider presentational aspects when I assign a presentation. However, it does not turn out to be a clear-cut evaluation." (Teacher 7)

"In peer-evaluation, children are influenced by the incidents such as conflicts and quarrels with their friends. An evaluation made by a student is not consistent with the preceding or following one."
(Teacher 1)

The teachers also mention that students cannot be objective in peer-evaluation and make mistakes like assessing their close friends with higher scores:

"In peer-evaluation, children make complaints about their friends instead of criticizing the work done." (Teacher 4)

"In peer-evaluation, children involve their personal feelings in the evaluation process." (Teacher 6)

"Some children just do not accept criticism." (Teacher 3)

The most fundamental problem faced by the teachers in group activities is the fact that the physical conditions of schools are not adequate. Moreover, there are other problems such as the meeting of students living in different neighborhoods far from each other, inadequate support from student parents concerning out-of-school activities and the insufficiency of family opportunities. Apart from these, there are problems stated by teachers in the implementation of out-of-school activities and difficulties in terms of the objectivity of assessments.

3.6. Findings about the solution of the problems faced in group works

During the interviews, the teachers put forth how they resolve the issues mentioned above. In the statements below the teachers state that they solve the problem caused by students living in different neighborhoods far from each other by placing those living in close proximity in the same group during the planning phase:

"I form the groups with students living in close proximity to each other's homes in order to avoid any problems." (Teacher 4)

Another teacher states that s/he solves the problem caused by the insufficiency of family opportunities by forming heterogenic groups of students with different resources:

"We take students' opportunities into consideration in task division in group works." (Teacher 2)

Ensuring the development of consciousness about duties and responsibilities by assigning more group works is another suggestion made by the teachers:

"Group works are more difficult for younger students. The task is easier as classes grow older. Now with my fifth graders, I do not face any problems because they have learnt through experience." (Teacher 7).

One of the suggestions made by the teachers for the solution of the meeting problem is use of the Internet for communication, which is remarkable. The teacher's suggestion to overcome this problem of students by using the opportunities provided by technology indicates the fact that the awareness of

teachers about this issue has increased as well as representing the increase in the use of technology:

“I tell my students that they do not necessarily have to come together in a particular place to carry out group works. I tell them that they can use the Internet for this and communicate via messaging. In this way, families are not bothered, too.” (Teacher 3).

4. Results and Discussion

The findings obtained from the interviews conducted with teachers were thematized under the headings the benefits of group works, planning group works, conducting group works, evaluation of group works, the problems encountered in group works and suggestions for solution.

The teachers are of the opinion that group works let students acquire the skills about collaboration, sharing, cooperation, self-confidence, establishing communication, taking pleasure from lessons, actively participating in the process, and developing a sense of awareness about responsibility. Similar results come from the studies by Koç (2002) and Johnson & Pontius (1989).

The teachers interviewed state that they form the groups with 4-6 students considering the total student numbers in classes and take care to ensure that groups are heterogenic in terms of variables such as their socio-economic backgrounds and achievement levels. Tracy (2003) conducted a research into the implementation of the method of learning based on investigation by dividing students into groups of 3-4. It could be suggested that the teachers carry out practices compatible with constructivist understanding while determining the number of students in groups.

While conducting group works, the teachers act in a way that is consistent with the nature of constructivist theory. Accordingly, they provide support and guidance for students having problems, offering them counseling service. Also, the teachers state that they direct their students to do researches, check their work and provide immediate feedback. Conrad (1995), in his study based on constructivist applications, concludes that students' creativity and skills for carrying out independent projects develop in constructivist classrooms. Also in this study, it is observed that the teachers who carry out constructivist teacher roles contribute to the development of students' competencies.

The teachers state that they generally employ presentations and peer-evaluation forms as well as portfolios, graded score keys in evaluating group works. Involving multiple-evaluation adopted by constructivist understanding in teaching process infinitely enriches evaluation process (Arter, 1995). It is observed that the teachers interviewed prefer multiple-evaluation in group works, too. Boud (1986) also regards peer-evaluation as a part of self-evaluation and suggests that it allows increasing students' self-confidence.

What the teachers complain about most in conducting group works is the inadequacy of physical conditions. Similar results were gained in the study by

Acat, Anılan and Anagün (2007). There are also problems in forming groups such as students living in different neighborhoods far from each other, parents not providing support for out-of-school works and insufficiency of family opportunities. However, Walberg, Paschal & Weinstein (1985) and Van Voorhis (2001) suggest that family support has a significant importance in terms of monitoring of children's academic development by families and proper interpretation of the efforts made by them. In addition, there are other problems such as that children tend to play games or entertain themselves during group works and therefore works turn out to be inefficient; some group members do not, or not do not want to, take on responsibilities equally or at the desired levels; and peer-evaluation conducted at the end of group works are not objective.

The suggestions made by the teachers for the solution of these problems can be listed as placing the students living in close proximity to each other in the same groups while forming groups, taking family conditions into consideration, developing the awareness about carrying out group works and assignments, assigning task divisions based on progress level, making families conscious about the importance of group works, and doing homework through online communication.

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Relationship Between Curriculum and the Higher Education Professor

Morella Acosta¹, Ana Areba²

¹University of Carabobo – Venezuela
morellaacosta@hotmail.com

²University of Carabobo – Venezuela
anaareba@hotmail.com

Abstract

Language is one of the transverse axes present in all subjects of the so called "comprehensive curriculum" (Balboa, 1995) which governs the Faculty of Education of the University of Carabobo, Venezuela. It is responsible of the integral formation of future teachers; however, the majority of students still keep on showing comprehension problems. Is the curriculum the one that really guides the reading professor? The purpose of the present research was to unveil communicative problems (Habermas, 2002) between the theoretical normative discourse and the practical speech of the language professor. The case study was chosen, delimiting the main areas of the biographic-narrative research in education (Bolívar, Domingo and Fernández, 2001). The in-depth, phenomenological *interviewing* (Seidman, 1997) was applied to the language professor to rebuild her experience in the field of teaching reading. Results showed that the application of the curriculum is closely related to the professor's personal experience.

Keywords: Curriculum – Education – Professor – Communication – Discourse

1. Introduction

As part of the educational mission, it's the university's duty to prepare the individual, in an integral way, in order that he/she will respond and face, appropriately, to the challenges of the environment surrounding him/her and his/her set of circumstances. Undoubtedly, the curriculum must contain specific rules so that all university teachers aim their efforts towards the academic formation of a student who will be able to interpret reality. To this respect, professors must support a communicative action or interaction by means of symbols between the curriculum (The Venezuelan State as the legal entity) and their daily occupation (teachers as appliers of the law); this action " is orientated by compulsory norms that define reciprocal expectations of behavior and that have to be understood and recognized intersubjectively " (Habermas, 2003, p.21). In other words, the professor, as a *manager* of the curriculum, must be able to understand and interpret the written discourse.

However, there have been indicators (Torres, 2000; Zerpa, 2002; Castillo, 2004; Hurtado, 1999, among others) demonstrating that serious problems of comprehension of the written text still continue, and they might be affecting the academic performance of university students, during their vocational training to pre degree level and even coming out of levels of post degree. It means that universities, in general, would not be addressing the social environment

response, as for the production of knowledge expected from such a House of Studies.

Is the curriculum the one that rules the practice of reading professors?

In the present research, it has been analyzed the curriculum of the Faculty of Education of the University of Carabobo for being this faculty a teacher training institution. Comprehension of the written text would be the variable that might be affecting the complex process of reading learning. Thus, the purpose of this essay is to unveil communicative problems between the curriculum, as the theoretical normative discourse, and the practical speech of the professor.

2. Theoretical and Methodological Framework

2.1 The curriculum at the faculty of education.

The curricular rules are the interpretation of the Institutional Policy and, in turn, they respond to National Policies, within the frame of Higher Education. Hereby, such guidelines reflect specific requirements of the university context and, simultaneously, they are statements formulated to guide suitable actions that university teachers *manage* towards the integral formation of the human resource. In this respect, the profile of the curriculum defines all features and capacities that participants must fulfill to satisfy the requirements of the Program of Major in Education.

In this respect, the curriculum includes contents, objectives and educational strategies that reinforce the learning process; and also, six transverse axes of: Process Development, Ethical Formation, Area of Language and Investigation, Area of Culture, Area of Integral Health, and Socio-political Area. All these axes but, particularly, the axis of language, as reading, must be included in planning subjects, as well as, in the classroom context, which is constituted by the social relations between the professor and his/her group of students. Hereby, the university teacher, as an *instructor* in a specific area of knowledge, would be relating intersubjectively, on the one hand, to the epistemic object that takes form in the construction of the specific knowledge of the subject matter; and, on the other one, to the procurement of reproducing and legitimating legal rules that the State establishes for the integral formation of a Venezuelan citizen.

It means that the professor is also an inspired *leader* that is capable of motivating and sparking the creativity of individuals in their own context, the Venezuelan society. But, at the same time, the professor knows the influence globalization has on his/her students; they share beliefs and requirements for different world cultures. In consequence, the curriculum applied at the Faculty of Education of the University of Carabobo is a curriculum of permanent adjustment (Cambo, Yassir, Ramírez, Mayz, and Liccioni, 2001) or a *comprehensive curriculum* (Balboa, 1995), whose aim is to train the human resource for the third millennium. In other words, such a curriculum is orientated to train an interpreter of different languages (social, political, economic, communicational and ecological) to satisfy Venezuelan and world demands.

In this way, the axis of Language is shown as a crucial element to achieving an integral education since it allows the interrelationship of different contexts (academic, family and socio cultural) with academic and scientific areas (Fuguet, 2003). Therefore, language is demonstrated in each of the capacities, *to be*, *to know* and *to do*, which constitutes the profile of the graduate student from the Faculty of Education. In other words, language becomes the most powerful methodological strategy in training future teachers, since it guarantees their own identity, allows them to interact in society, and share the same culture.

Likewise, skills of different nature (Morles, 1995) interact in the graduate student's profile for the formation of a happy, successful, healthy, conscious and collaborative individual. First type of capacities (*to do*) is the most general of being developed by education, so that they must be in the performance of every Bachelor in Education: to think, to solve problems, to plan, to create, etc. Second type of skills (*to know*) allows the formation of a qualified, efficient, interactive reader, researcher and communicator, who will be able to comprehend, interpret and apply the curricular rules. And, finally, third type of abilities (*to be*) is the most specific: to work, to study, to manage his/her free time, and so forth. The present essay focuses on developing the skills for the formation of a teacher qualified to be an efficient, interactive, strategic, and communicative reader so that he/she will be able to understand, interpret and apply curricular rules.

2.2 The communicative action as a symbol of intersubjective relations.

Habermas (2003) proposes the ethics of discourse to clarify not only the conditions of the intersubjective comprehension, but also the understanding of reason, of the human being and of society. According to Habermas, it is necessary to end with the paradigm of the conscience, and instead, to reach an intersubjective rationality towards the liberation of one's ego. In the present research, such intersubjective relations take place between both discourses, theoretical (curriculum) and practical (teacher's speech).

The world is perceived and interpreted from different perspectives, depending on the subjects and their experiences; and it is "only as participants of an including dialog towards consensus, it is required from us to exercise the cognitive virtue of empathy towards the differences with others, in the perception of a common situation" (Habermas, 2003, p. 23). This means, individuals must find agreed points to achieve an inter subjectively shared practice, in which relationships among individuals can be harmonious.

The notion of subjectivity, defined as "the result of epistemic and practical relations with oneself, that emerge or are integrated to relations of oneself with others", (Haberman, 2003, p.26) gains relevance in relationships among individuals. In such exchange, it is needed not only the recognition of oneself, but also the acceptance of one another, in an attempt for locating points of convergence that please both parts.

In a "community of exchanges" or "moral community", as Habermas (2003) proposes, individuals must feel free and equal, meaning an intersubjective

freedom. That is to say, the will of the subject is established by norms determined in consensus, so that the individuals' conscience appears in the others. The participants of the *community of exchanges* need the support of shared reasons to satisfy everybody's interests.

To be part of an including dialog, a reflexive attitude is needed towards our own conceptions, feelings and motivations, as Habermas (2003) argues:

Participants must be ready, as soon as they become part of such argumentative practice, to accomplish with all possibilities of collaboration to meet acceptable reasons for others and, furthermore, to be open minded and motivated in their own "yes" or "not" answers for such reasons, and only for them. (p. 30)

Therefore, reasons that apply to all are required, in that every individual feels valued and in equal conditions as the rest of the participants. Only under these conditions, an agreement could be reached, fostering the individuals' growth, development and communication.

In the search for a common ground, *the objective is consensus*, in which the *social link* can be reflected, as participants intervene in the argumentative practice, they are part of the accomplished agreements. This social link relates directly to the area of the individuals' experiences, in that their assertive communication appears as one of the major relevant aspects. In this respect, Habermas (2003) claims: " as soon as we enter the argumentative practice, we allow to be immersed, to put it that way, in a social link that is preserved even among participants in the very divisive practice of the competition by the best arguments " (p. 31). That is to say, in any theoretical and practical discourses the social interaction that is established cause the understanding between both interlocutors.

The Theory of Communicative Action tries to explain the reasons why a person socialized in a language and in a form of culture, gets in communicative practices, assuming pragmatic presuppositions that show him/her a series of idealizations signed by any individual that speaks and interacts in such cultural practices. As long as the subject communicates and interacts in an argumentative mediation, he/she becomes part of social links and of the culture. In this respect, Habermas (2003) argues "citizens are persons who have developed their personal identities in the context of certain traditions, in cultural specific environments, and also need such contexts to support their own identities" (p. 54). The demonstrated social relations will depend on the context that surrounds individuals and will give the access to a cultural environment.

2.3 Life-history

The humanist position in Social Sciences recovers and revalues the human being as a subject of study; it also incorporates dynamic / temporary concepts throughout his/her experience to understand changeable processes. To this respect, life-histories have to turn as "representations made by means of discursive mechanisms of language, which shape them as a life-history" (Bolívar,

Domingo and Fernández, 2001, p.69)

In the field of the education, life-histories are instruments for researchers to understand how teachers assign meaning to their work. The man by means of language creates things, and human beings create themselves by means of language; this is, as a human dimension, the encounter with one another. From this attitude, one manages to construct an absolutely autonomous science of the spirit, a comprehension of self and a comprehension of the world like work of the spirit, because " the outward appearance and the juxtaposition of oneself disappear giving place to an intimate relationship among beings who are one with another, and one for the other one " (Husserl, 2000, p.21). In consequence, language, as a human reality, is going to be the conductive thread to interpret the subject's actual life-world.

In the present research, it has been chosen to analyze the life-history of one experienced EFL university teacher to uncover what sort of influence the curriculum has exerted on her teaching practice.

3. Methodology

In current times, it becomes necessary a new way of thinking and researching, a new way of seeing things from a new scientific rationality, from a new paradigm. It is needed, at the time, to look at knowledge from a different perspective that understands the humanity of the professor who applies the curriculum. Qualitative research is the necessary link to humanize investigation in education and to bring scientific advances over to real needs of society. Therefore, a qualitative approach is a way of giving *voice* to professors who do not have it, or who often remain quiet.

In this respect, the biographical - narrative investigation (Bolivar, Domingo and Fernandez, 2001) is a more in depth way of knowing the educational process because it gravitates around significant experiences found in the professor's *life-world*.

It is biographical because it provides professors different opportunities to think about their professional activity; and it is narrative because through narration the researcher constructs knowledge in the field of education. So, it is a question of understanding, in the teachers' own voice, the way they themselves experience their work, and from then on, its quality can be improved. In other words, the affective side of the education is recovered, provided that the professor is a person, and not an executor of imposed policies. Therefore, the human condition of a teacher is tied to his/her professional work.

3.1 The Informant

It was chosen a female professor from the Modern Language Department, at the Faculty of Education. Pat (pseudonym) is a qualified professor with more than ten years of English reading teaching experience, and who has a Master degree in TESOL.

3.1.1 Pat's biographical details

She was raised in a small Venezuelan village within a humble family of five: father, mother, boy and two girls. She learnt to value the importance of traditional principles (respect, honesty, study, responsibility) at home, from a very early age. Pat had always liked to become an EFL teacher but it was not before her brother supported her studies that Pat could afford to register in the Faculty of Education, as she expressed in the first interview:

. . . after finishing high school, my brother offered to pay my way to study at the University. Well, it was a dream!!. Can you imagine? To have such an opportunity!! I really wanted it, but I knew I needed somebody to help me because my parents could not afford it.

So, Pat had to move to Valencia, a city 300 kilometers away from home town, to fulfill her aspirations of becoming an EFL teacher.

3.2 The Setting

This study was set in an ESP course in the Bachelor in Education's program at the University of Carabobo in Venezuela. In this course, professors teach cognitive reading strategies in the second semester, to improve the students' comprehension of the English written text. With that being said, according to this program, it is only a 60 hour course for teachers to develop the linguistic and the content schema of English. Necessarily, professors must make the decision on what to teach and what to apply of the students' previous knowledge to be able to achieve the objectives of the course. Nevertheless, the decision making must rely not only on the professor's experience, but also on the curriculum rules. Therefore, a common ground is needed to accomplish both elements.

3.3 Data Collection

The case study was the methodological strategy chosen to understand the process of the intersubjective communication between the theoretical normative discourse and the informant's educational practice.

The data were collected through a period of four weeks. The instruments used for gathering data were non-participant class observations and the interview of the biographical life-history (Bolívar, Domingo and Fernandez, 2001), focusing on the in-depth phenomenological *interviewing* (Seidman, 1997), following the phenomenological supports (Husserl, 2000) to reconstruct the informant's experience within the topic under study: the communicative relationship between the reading teacher and the curriculum in higher education.

Class observations were performed throughout two weeks so that researchers could keep a good record of the most relevant aspects that took place in the classroom, such as: the type of relationships between the informant professor

and her students, the informant's teaching strategies, the students' organization in the classroom, their responses to the teacher's questions, and so forth. In class observations, the researcher assumed the role of a passive participant by note taking, with the consent of the informant, as Taylor and Bogdan (1996) argue "in the quasi public sceneries (private institutions) to continue with the observations, the researcher must get the permission of the owner" (p. 39). It must be said that the registers showed accurately the classroom experience.

The informant was interviewed three times of approximately 60 minutes each, as Seidman's (1997) model proposes for the in-depth phenomenological *interviewing*. The first and the second interviews were scheduled within the first two weeks; the third interview was done after class observations to contrast what the informant had said in the previous two instances, and what she really does in her English reading class.

The interviews were non structured. In this respect, Taylor and Bogdan (1996) state that "different from the structured interview, qualitative interviews are flexible and dynamic. Qualitative interviews have been described as non directive, non structured, non standardized and open" (p. 101). It is important to point out that this type of interviews is better adapted to the object of study. In the first interview, the informant was inquired about her personal past life, her childhood, and educational background. The second interview was used to know about her teaching experience in detail; and in the third interview she was asked to clarify some aspects observed in her reading classes.

4. Results

The results of this investigation showed the concrete experience of the professor in her specific area of expertise and the meaning that this experience represented in her university life-world. Three main categories emerged from the data analysis, as follows: the meaning of self-reflection; the significance of interaction; the influence of personal experience.

4.1 The meaning of self-reflection

Seidman (1997) argues that participants are continuously giving sense to their words through the whole *interviewing*; nevertheless it is in the third interview informants go deeper into the reflection of their experience. Several instances demonstrate the presence of reflection in the two previous interviews. This was seen clearly in Pat's third interview when she expressed the usefulness of reflecting on her second interview because it enabled her to become aware of the importance of her past experience. This is what she said:

. . . when we were talking in the second interview, you asked me how my past teachers had influenced on my present life. Then, I began to remember my childhood, and perhaps it was the love my teachers put in everything they did what has influenced on me. . . .

Furthermore, later in the same interview the informant made this comment: "Then, after our last interview, I have realized the need to reinforce values and, as I told you before, specially on this future generation of future teachers because they will be in charge of transmitting values".

Indeed, one of the main features of the autobiographical life-history is reflection, "the story or life-history presupposes reflection on life which is demonstrated in the one's chronicle. . . "(Bolivar, Domingo and Fernández, 2001, p. 36). Several instances reveal the informant's reflection about her personal experience and different topics, through the recurrent use of the first person. Here are her comments of the first interview: "I studied my elementary and high school in public institutions. They were very good schools; my dad decided to register me there because he wanted the best for me". Later, she also said: "The Last Rose by Gabriel Garcia Marquez caught my attention . . . that book impacted me deeply".

Moreover, self-reflection provided the informant several opportunities to explore not only *what* she knew but *how* she knew (Olson, 1995). The informant pointed out that modeling is the best strategy for students to learn something. She developed reading habits from a very early age because of her brother's influence. This is what she said in the first interview:

Then, I've always seen my brother as a model. He spent hours reading different books, and on Sundays solving crosswords. He had, well, he still has, a comprehensive lexicon base, I believe it was due to his reading habit. . .

It is also through self-reflection that the informant self-monitored herself for the purpose of attaining a greater understanding over her own practice. Self-monitoring or self-evaluation is part of the process of reflection; it represents a basic operation to the nature of the human being, and constitutes a crucial element in the narrative of a self-history in that it is concerned to the feelings and attitudes of the informant because "not only do speakers report the state of the world; they tell how they feel about it" (Grimes, 1975, p. 61).

Self-reflection enabled Pat to arrive at her own judgment as to "what works and what does not work in the classroom" (Richards, 1990, p. 119). The following comment of Pat's third interview shows the relationship between reflection and evaluation: "Sometimes, I make like a self-evaluation and say: well this student has failed, but have I failed too? What did I make wrong? What were his/her mistakes? Because one needs to realize what is right and what is wrong".

To conclude, the above examples confirm that the decision making implies a self-reflection and, consequently, a self-evaluation.

4.2 The significance of interaction

Interaction is a relevant element in the reflexive condition of the human being. Participants of a conversation face-to-face take turns to interact each other. Nevertheless, "the transference of information is not the only motivation to the turn-taking in a discourse, but also the expression of evaluations uttered by who

participate in the interaction” (Bolivar, 1997, p. 73). This interaction takes place by the interchange of questions and answers to verify the interpretation.

In this context, the informant’s reflexive condition is demonstrated by the intersubjective communication that turns up between Pat and her group of students. In her second interview, she described a class experience she had with her group of students. Here is her comment:

I was giving the feedback of a test and one of the students who had failed the exam said: professor I can’t fail because will miss my grant. Although that argument touched my feelings, unfortunately I was unable to help him because his exam was very poor. The student understood the lesson.

The above epigraph demonstrates the value of the intersubjectivity in a process of communication, because the relationship between the subjects is situated at the same communicative level. Therefore, it is this levelness that allows us to get consensus through the best argument.

4.3 Influence of personal experience

In the third interview, Pat was asked to reflect on the meaning of her experience. According to Seidman (1997), it addresses the intellectual and emotional connections between the informant’s work and life. Undoubtedly, Pat’s previous personal experience has been modeling her relationship with her group of students and with her peers.

Several instances show the relevant role that the affective aspect has had on her. From a very early age, Pat felt love from all her teachers, relatives and friends. So, she thinks that professors at any level of education are to provide encouragement to students to motivate them to be better human beings each time by teaching values.

These ideas are expressed in her third interview:

I felt how much my teacher loved what they did, . . . they gave us love, dedication. . . put their heart and soul in every detail of their teaching. That experience was very significant to me so I have tried to pass it on to my students today, they must love everything they do in life.

In general, it has been shown through the analysis of results that the informant’s comments have pointed out, unquestionable, the influence her personal previous experience has exerted on her present work.

5. Conclusions

Regarding to the research question "Is the curriculum the one that really guides the reading professor?" it is evident that the curriculum did not rule the informant's work. The interpretation the informant made of the educational process was based, mainly, from her subjective world; and from Pat's contribution on, as the interpreter, we could get a more general perspective adapted to the objective world. This outlook enabled us to understand this professor.

Indeed, communicative problems were found because of the fracture between the curriculum, as the normative discourse of the Faculty of Education, and the practical discourse of this reading teaching professor. Nevertheless, the informant's life-histories enabled us to understand and give sense, in her own voice, her actual work as a professional of education. It is only from this comprehension, it may be restored the communication and interaction among these two subjectivities.

In spite of knowing that Pat has never read the curriculum, nevertheless, we realized she performed the three roles of *manager*, *instructor* and of an *inspired leader*, which were explicitly stated in the norm. So, we can assume that it was done by a mere intuition, influenced by her previous personal experience. It is concluded, therefore, that it is Pat's personal experience, and not the curricular rules, which guided her reading teaching.

On the other hand, it was jumped to a very interesting conclusion related to the categories that emerged from results. It was drawn a triad between the *reflection*, *evaluation* and *interaction*, in a dialogical and recursive relationship; in which each element of the triad conveys the other, and it is only from that exchange of points of view, we can achieve communication in consensus. The informant's reflexive condition was explicitly demonstrated by the grade of levelness of the relations in the intersubjective communication that took place between Pat and her group of students.

In a word, it was clearly demonstrated the influence of Pat's previous personal experience in her work which, at the time, would result beneficial in the formation in values of her students. Thus, we can predict that these future teachers will teach in the same way they were taught.

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Supervising PhD candidates in Practice Led Research degrees

Dr Josie Arnold

Professor of Writing, Writing Discipline, Swinburne University of Technology - AUST

JArnold@swin.edu.au

Abstract

Supervising Practice Led Research both enables a broader view of knowledge than conventional academic gatekeeping, and involves a significant teaching and learning experience. This paper addresses some of my challenges in developing an understanding of the pedagogical practices involved in supervising PhD candidates in Practice Led Research that culminates in a submission of an artefact and exegesis. It indicates the supervisor's responsibilities in developing pedagogical insights and signposts as an informed critic/critical friend, with knowledge of genre inscription and textuality and discourse questions and theories. This paper develops from my interest in how to produce a directive and supportive yet non-didactic program that enables both the candidate and the supervisor.

In this paper I utilise the postmodernist methodology of a 'mystory' based on Gregory Ulmer's proposition that there is in academic writing the self and the researched, the conscious intellectual semiotic and that arising from storytelling. 'Mystory' encompasses the self, the story and the mystery of this and puts under erasure all claims to fact in writing, revealing the academic text to be sewn together as a compilation of the scholarly, the anecdotal or popular, and the autobiographical. This paper displays how the mystorical approach enables academic writing and language to be open, explorative and aware of its own evanescent nature.

Keywords: Practice-led Research - Supervisors role - PhD - Life-long learning - flexible-learning

1. Critical framework for this paper

This paper utilises postmodernist theories about textuality and discourse to advance the thinking about (and the practice of) the linear analytico-referential knowledge-model being overtaken by lateral postmodernist discourse. The conceptual framework involves Ulmer's 'mystory' and the pastiche of the dispersal of certainties in considering the practice of writing a discursive piece on 'Learning from psychotherapy for postgraduate supervision'.

In this paper, then, I utilise a conceptual framework following The Canadian academic Gregory Ulmer's 'mystory' (a scholarly story involving the personal, the socially learnt and the applied intellectual that is a combination of 'my story' and 'mystery'). Ulmer (1989) identifies a 'mystorical' approach to thinking and research. A 'mystory' puts under erasure all claims to fact/authenticity in writing. It shows all writing to be both personal and mysterious (my story and mystery) whatever its claims to authenticity and depersonalisation. It reveals the academic text to be sewn together as a compilation of the scholarly, the anecdotal or popular, and the autobiographical. It questions the dominant

analytico-referential model of knowledge. At the same time it accords with much late 20th and early 21st century thinking about the self, the culture and even the world as a text to be constructed and read both in and against.

Ulmer's 'mystorical' approach opens up the text to many possible readings: there is no 'one way'. Thus even the act of writing, much less the lived experience of being, displays itself as non-authoritative in the conventional sense. The implications of this are manifold. For me, perhaps the most important-and the most galvanising-is that the academic life and academic writing and language are now able to be seen as open, explorative and aware of their own evanescent nature in the same way as any other form of written or lived discourse.

Ulmer's 'mystory' enjoys many of the elements of 'narrative non-fiction' or the 'literature of fact', a new and enticing genre that challenges and even eliminates paradigmatic expectations of factual writing. (See 'Bruce Dobler's creative nonfiction compendium': [Http://www.pitt.edu/~bdobler/readingnf.html](http://www.pitt.edu/~bdobler/readingnf.html)) A model such as Ulmer's gives me room within the academy to speak in multiple 'voices' from multiple personal and professional experiences and areas of knowledge. It confronts the expectations of the establishment/academy, and in doing so brings forward a richer mix after the diminution of the 'qualitative/quantitative' binary and the 'academic corset' model. When 'reality' and 'knowledge' are revealed as constructions not unlike fiction, new possibilities of/for multilinearity may emerge. (Arnold 1994; 2007. Midgely 2004; Gallop 2002)

2. Introduction: The shape of the elephant

The most common puzzle identified by candidates is how to come to an early understanding of the shape and form of the PhD model and also to establish some guidelines for the journey (Sinclair 2004). A certain mythology seems to have arisen with PhD supervision that it has no pedagogical components. Rather it seems to be presented in quite a mystical light as something very particular and individual undertaken by the candidate as a mission that they must define, plan execute and so on. In this scenario, the supervisor seems to play a central yet strangely detached role that emphasizes the supervisor's role as being a determined critic who largely leaves the candidate to her or his own devices. There are, as in any mythology, strong elements of truth in this. The PhD candidate and supervisor are always on a singular journey whatever the constraints and demands of the academic area.

This *mystic* element should not be mistaken for a *mystifying* one. Too often such mystification leads to candidates feeling that they made it through the PhD journey as much *despite* as *because of* their supervisor. There are, again, strong elements of truth in this in so far as the journey must finally be the responsibility of the candidate and lead to her or his growth. If such a perspective is too dominant, however, it can lead to arrogating from the supervisor much responsibility for throwing light on the process of the students' journeys that helps them on their way. After all, it is significant enough for the candidate to bring content and process to writing-up and submission and success without having to spend the preliminary months floundering around trying to discover

(like the blind men and the elephants in the adage) just what the *shape* and *form* of the PhD might be as well.

Mark Sinclair's research shows the importance of 'hands on' supervision for the candidate, but I consider it to be valuable for **both** the candidates **and** the supervisors. In a successful alliance with candidates, the PhD supervisor, like any teacher, has to establish the scaffolding for a relationship with candidates that is mutual, deep, intimate, yet detached. The working alliance is quite interactive: there is no sense of Freud's famous (or infamous) 'tabula rasa' of classical analysis in which the supervisor holds back entirely. Rather, the working alliance is co-operative and leads to mutual helpful disclosures, hints, direction-giving, building on academic experiences and insights and even personal and social interactions. Sinclair calls this 'hands-on' and compares it very favourably with its opposite: *'Some supervisors take a 'hands off' approach to supervision that leaves candidates largely to their own devices. Except in a minority of cases where beginning candidates are already self-confident, independent, knowledgeable, skilled, organised and socially adroit, 'hands off' approaches tend to be associated with slow and non-completion.'* (Sinclair 2004:vi)

The PhD in writing calls for the production of a piece equivalent to a production of publishable original writing of 80,000 words accompanied by an exegesis of 20,000 words. In the initial development of this PhD in writing by artifact/product and exegesis, I was very aware of my interest in learning and teaching. The basis of my teaching philosophy is that the student's journey is paramount. Facilitating that journey has been my life's work in the classroom and lecture theatre, in planning and publishing curriculum, in developing programs for flexible deliveries, in my own research, and now in the postgraduate Master of Arts (Writing) and this very attractive, dynamic and successful PhD by artifact and exegesis.

As my teaching philosophy arises from my practical and research interest in the students' journey, my teaching strategies and methods are student-centred and facilitate deep learning as well as a lifelong-learning culture expressed in graduate attributes. My curriculum development mirrors this as well as a commitment to a flexible learning environment promoting student choice and addressing questions of access and equity. This philosophy and practice underpins the Practice Led Research model of the Swinburne PhD.

Bringing pedagogical questions to the supervision of the PhD, particularly this Practice Led Research model of the non-traditional style of PhD, meant that I wanted to clarify the steps that a candidate might take throughout their journey. I was not so concerned with the artefact/product as I am aware that those who want to make an inscription, whether on the blank page, online or in other media, are bringing a driving creative force with them. The artefact/product that makes up 80% of this Swinburne PhD is, then, able to be left largely in the hands of the candidate with the supervisor reading, editing, encouraging, critiquing and playing the artful role of a critical friend.

This is not to diminish the supervision aspect of artifact element of the PhD. The supervisors must have expertise in the artefact/product area as well as the academic one. As the artifact/product makes up 80% of the candidate's work, it is clear that the supervisors *must* be able to contribute meaningfully to the

process. The selection of supervisors with this expertise and a readiness to be open towards the artefact/exegesis model as well as to the non-traditional elements of the exegesis itself, is critical. Most academics have worked within a situation where a binary exists between qualitative and quantitative but are now within an academic environment that encourages and accepts both where they are shown to be appropriate.

3. The publishable original artefact to 80,000 words or its equivalent.

This includes a variety of written genres traditionally within the 'creative writing' or 'personal writing' genres such as:

- A traditional literary novel. In this genre the writer investigates aspects of life and living that involve quite complex philosophical ideas and activities being delivered through plot, characterisation, tone, style that are demonstrably calling for the ideal reader who is able to wrestle with them, who invites their complexity and who has a familiarity with the use of language to evoke a fictional truth or series of truths within a storyline.
- Crime fiction. In this genre the elements of crime fiction are particularised while the recognised and accepted modes of establishing detective characterisation, bringing forth forensic evidence and practices, delivering motive and characterisation of both the criminal and the investigators, introducing witnesses and alibis and perhaps above all extending to the readers the problems and puzzles that are available as clues to the solution of the crime so as to 'outguessing' the author.
- Autobiography in which the author 'now' investigates in an historical context the author 'then', bringing forth personal and psychological insights as well as contemporary commentary and photographic detail.
- Biography in which people, place and time are developed into a sociological investigation through the detective work, insights and perspectives of the biographer.
- History, local history etc. In this genre a particular geographic are is placed within historical, personal, and background detail.
- Fantasy literature including magic realism, magic, science fiction, time shifting and other elements that enable contemporary ideas, activities, challenges etc to be developed within a framework that distances the reader from the exigencies of reality while enabling similar fictionally constructed challenges to be confronted, thought about and met.

The publishable original writing includes means of discourse and inscription that are not traditionally within the 'creative writing' or 'personal writing' genres. These include such productions as:

- Curriculum: This would be a major product such as a curriculum guideline leading to a publication.
- 'How to': This would lead to a publication within a specified area of authorial expertise.
- Business writing: A large-scale review, proposal, overview, market analysis etc.
- Professional writing: This genre obviously covers many areas of communication including, for example, Quality overviews, in-house publications, projects and reports. This area introduces questions of commercial-in-confidence.
- CD Rom and WWW sites such visual and electronic publication could involve any of the writing and textuality genres.
- Filmscripts: This discourse has its own areas of scripting expertise and also involves characterisation, plot movements, the eye of the camera and a clear understanding of the industry demands.
- Visuals such as paintings/photographs: This discourse produces visual texts that stand within the chosen genre and its critical analyses.

4. The Exegesis of approximately 20,000 words.

The exegesis is an extremely flexible production that retains some elements of the traditional PhD thesis while at the same time transcending that template. In itself it is also a creative work, a parallel piece of writing that sits alongside the above personal product. However, it is not separate from the product itself nor does it act as an academic 'justification' of it.

The exegesis acts :

- as an original piece of work contributing something new to knowledge about the process of the production of the work by the individual.
- to enable personal reflections about the production of a text to be made and to then be placed within the broader context of writing about the chosen genre, within the chosen genre and by academics that have reflected upon textuality and discourse itself as well as critically analysed the genre.
- to enable the reader to understand the 'implied author' of the personal/creative product in another and more direct way.
- to enable the PhD candidate to contribute further to an understanding of the 'ideal reader' in the author's mind as she or he develops the work.
- to bring forward a reference list and bibliography that enhances the understanding of the ways in which such 'personal/creative' work can be situated within an area of academic discussion.

- As in the 'personal/creative' component above, the exegesis will develop as the PhD candidate moves through the candidature. Each student's journey will be different, and each must be enabled to make that journey without didactic supervision. At the same time, as in the traditional thesis, that journey can and should be facilitated by the supervisor.

5. Exegesis Methodology: the reflective journal

Perhaps the most pressing need in this model of PhD supervision is to convey to the candidate an understanding of the relationship of the exegesis to the other PhD component. Here we come to my assertion that the two components are not separate. Each develops as the candidate proceeds through the candidature. In this way, they enrich one another. As the larger component is usually undertaken before the exegesis, how can this be? In what ways can the two parallel works be linked together in the process as well as in the final product? How do they 'talk' to one another?

The artefact and exegesis are not parallel conversations that do not touch directly upon one another. The link between the two is the ability to reflect upon the writing, the reading, the thinking, the process as it is occurring by the keeping of a 'reflective journal'. The easiest way to understand this in traditional terms is to see this reflective journal as the data for the exegesis. After all, the new contribution to knowledge is BOTH the creative/personal product AND the insights into how the author brought this about.

The reflective journal, then, will record in real time such elements of the authorial journey as:

- **The beginning: what is the motivation?** In what ways is this project undertaken as a creative necessity, an urge, a task or whatever? What light might my reflections cast upon this process of beginning, facing the blank page/canvas/CDROM etc? What readings are there about this that engage me as both a practitioner and self-critical/reflective person? In what ways is this reflected upon by other thinkers/academics/practitioners? What will I add to my bibliography? What might I want to quote?
- **Each Step of the way:** What's working? What are the problems? How do I solve them? Are there other practitioners whose advice helps me? In what ways do academic readings help me or hinder me in my understandings of the project, the journey?
- **Memory points and signposts** for the PhD journey from beginning to end.
- **Mindmaps and plans** for the journal and for the creative/personal product.
- **Materials for each meeting** with the supervisor so that engagement is made both with the candidate's journey and with the supervisors' also.

- **Other perspectives** are given to the candidate through meetings and readings.
- **Major headings and sub-heads for** the first cut of the final exegesis that can be identified by highlighting repeated words/sentences.
- **Opportunities for cross-referencing of ideas** brought up in the exegesis so as to feed them back into the creative/personal product and vice-versa.
- **A record of the personal authorial journey** which is, after all, a major contribution to new knowledge alongside the new component of the product itself.
- **The bibliography and references.** This can be enhanced by annotations on useful books made during the reading process in the reflective journal.

In traditional thetic terms, this reflective journal provides the data for the exegesis. It also provides the methodology. In so many ways, then, this activity that goes on at the same time as the production of the major artifact itself is indeed the bridge between the two elements of the PhD by artifact/product and exegesis: it is the bar of the H that draws together the parallel but interdependent elements of the PhD.

The Reflective Journal as a record of data:

The traditional forms of collecting academic data have called for a more detached sense of the self. Indeed it was thought that the use of the first person and even the active tense was not serious enough for an academic treatise.

This began to change over the latter part of the 20th century when the scientific model of quantitative data was challenged by more qualitative approaches from, for example, sociology and literature.

The Reflective Journal as a record of methodology.

The natural sciences have given us a too often intransigent model of academic methodologies. As I have described in me Ulmeric model of a 'mystery', the exegesis is able to be enriched by a more discursive and subjective model that is, nevertheless, 'academic'. It is in this journal that candidates can begin to see how their work came about and developed not only through their own eyes, but also through a more reflective prism as a 'critical friend'.

The Reflective Journal as a record of genre reading

Because candidates are referring to their own artefact and to other works within that genre/area, many of the references will be from practitioners' works. These are valid as one of the many rich perspectives that such a PhD brings forward into the academic arena.

The Reflective Journal as a record of other genre practitioners reflections upon their own works

There is increasing interest in academic circles as to how creative artefacts are performed. References to the insights other performers/practitioners have given us into this element is another aspect of the richness of the literature review/referencing that comes about in this model.

The Reflective Journal as a record of academic reading

Most importantly, the PhD by Practice Led Research is a valid academic area. As such, it is imperative that candidates can situate their work within the academic discussion from its germinal works to current academic references.

The Reflective Journal and its interactions with the artefact/product.

The Swinburne advice to examiners and candidates emphasizes that the ways in which the reflective journal enabled the exegesis and the artifact, and also the links between the two, should be made evident to the examiners.

6. Traditional elements of textual discourse

In the postmodernist moment of the early 21st century, the idea of a text has far broader and deeper application than a definition of an inscription of writing upon a page. Textuality and discourse also applies to (for example) the construction of people, activities, and multiple cultures and cultural events in both time and space. Hence, the creative component of the PhD in Practice Led research is entitled an 'artefact' so as not to confine it to traditional writing, in particular the genre of 'creative writing'.

In acting as critical friends of the candidate in the development of the artefact/product the supervisor might essay relevant elements of textuality and discourse. For example, when reading a text, the reader **traditionally** enters into a form of contract with an author who displays a knowledge of information that they wish to share. In this conjunction, the reader is always in a subordinate position to the writer. The reader also brings a number of expectations to the authoritative text, and asks a number of questions of it. These questions are not necessarily at the forefront of the readers' attention; they arise from an interaction with the text and as such are always subject to the authority of the writer. Indeed, the two most dominant elements attracting the readers' attention involve genre and content.

They answer the unspoken basic questions:

- What is this about?
- How do I classify it?
- What might I learn from it?

Clearly, these are questions that relate to the authority of the text. They involve understanding the text within a context that enhances the writer over the reader. Even within this traditional authoritative model and context, the reader brings a large number of critical questions to the text. A number of concerns develop over the process of reading that are brought to it through enculturation regarding that very process of reading. Such questions form the basis of textual criticism and can be seen as valid whatever the genre of writing under the critical eye of the reader.

7. The artefact/product 80%

This is the original inscription in the chosen genre. In this pedagogy, I see the supervisors' roles as acting as 'critical friend' to the candidates. However, to apply a pedagogical model to the exegesis and not to the production of the artefact would be to dodge the very issue that I'm addressing.

This major aspect of the PhD calls for a timetable of delivery to the supervisors according to how the candidate works at her or his production. This is obviously a very personal part of the creative journey of every artist, writer, and producer of inscriptive material in any genre.

The PhD candidate may choose to begin with this artefact/product. It is the major aspect of the PhD and all other aspects rely upon it. These include:

- the reflective journal that records the creative/inscriptive journey itself
- questions/ideas/practices that lead to further readings within the genre
- questions/ideas/practices that lead to academic readings and insights about genre, creative journeys, inscription, cultural practices and influences, textuality and discourse and knowledge itself
- insights from critical friends
- insights and support from the critical friendship of the supervisor
- elucidation by the supervisors of other academic/genre references that may be useful to the candidate and that may extend the candidate's understandings of both the genre and her or his practices so as to situate them within useful literature; ideas; knowledge; questions; and resolutions etc.

8. Useful checkpoints for the inscription leading to the artefact/product.

In what ways, then, might some checkpoints be developed to provide a ladder and not a cage for the candidates? We might begin by encouraging them to set up:

- a timetable that establishes productive but not overwhelming work habits
- self-critical faculties within their own genres
- a network of 'critical friends' to workshop if desired
- regular expectations of delivery of work to supervisors for feedback as desired
- an understanding with supervisors of what feedback the candidate needs or expects

A timetable could involve the delivery each month to the supervisors of an agreed section of the final artifact.

The exegesis should:

- place the writing and the reflections upon it within the relevant academic and intellectual discussion
- have a literature review and methodology
- display/signpost the literature review clearly even if (perhaps especially if) the literature review is embedded in the sections. If there is no formal lit. review, but it's contextual, establish the grounds for it and the space it operates in as well as the field of the creative work/artefact.
- engage vigorously with the literature about the area under discussion to demonstrate your critical thinking. The candidates must make it clear that they don't just canvass others' opinions, but put their own as well. This is often the heart of scholarly engagement, so make it clear where the lit. review sits in the exegesis, which is a 'manifesto of the performative'.
- have DEPTH rather than BREADTH: the exegesis has a relatively small word count and every word should count!

Examiners have to tick 'boxes':

1. Accept as is
2. minor revisions submitted to supervisor
3. major revisions submitted to examiners
4. total rewrite and resubmit
5. fail

In considering the exegesis, they ask themselves: 'where does this sit?' In making their final decision, examiners need to be able to identify what changes (if any) are needed for a solid work of scholarship. They are interested in how scholars talk about the work i.e. express their data.

Whilst it is useful to read other theses in your discipline, it is necessary to remember that your work is a substantial new addition to knowledge in the area.

9. The artefact and exegesis are a package: draw them together with the preface.

The Swinburne model calls for 3 pieces to be submitted for examination: The Preface; The Artefact; and The Exegesis. The Preface plays a significant role in introducing examiners to the works and in particular to how these two works interact or 'speak to each other'. In the Preface and Exegesis introduction, candidates have the opportunity to show how this is so: 'I argue that...' 'I do this...' 'This is the relationship between these 2 pieces of work...' 'This is how I show it...'

Candidates are advised to do the final preface and introduction last: 'I'm writing about this question... and using this method ...to show that...'

All examiners agreed that the role of the exegesis was critical to the success of the candidature. It was the most commonly weak aspect of the candidates' submissions. They advise all candidates to ensure that the quality of the artefact is matched by the quality of the exegesis. It is the Preface that can help candidates to articulate clearly and incisively what they have achieved in the exegesis. Through writing a preliminary draft quite early in the candidature and altering it throughout, the candidates and supervisors can keep the academic work on track and ensure that it reaches the same quality as the artefact.

10. Practice Led Research leading to artefact/exegesis PhD

In Practice Led Research, unlike traditional research protocols and traditional thetic demands, the practice LEADS the research, hence the exegesis articulates the research 'question' in an emergent way so that trajectories develop provisionally and indeterminacy is permissible.

In the late 20th century, the research community saw a heated debate about, and an engagement with, placing qualitative research on to the conventional research agenda alongside quantitative research. (Aldridge; Carr & Kemmis; Cotterill & Letherbym; Lincoln & Guba.) Much of this was led by ardent feminists who saw the 'rational' of quantitative methodologies (and even templated qualitative methodologies) as narrowly masculine and non-gender-inclusive. (Harding; Kasper; Przybylowicz)

This was a great struggle, but most Universities have accepted that there are valuable insights into knowledge to be gained by either qualitative or quantitative research methodologies, and most particularly by a combination of each.

In general, Qualitative Research attempts to engage with the complexities of practice in such areas as Action Research, Grounded Theory, Biography, Stories and Narrative Theory. The theory leads the practice in interpreting it through an academic prism. PLR research strategies are carried out through practice and harness the tools and the methodologies of those practices. They lead to a multi-levelled research which has:

- the practitioner's work,
- the practitioner's insights into that work,
- other practitioners' works that are relevant
- their insights into that practice of their work,
- apposite academic writings and theories that enliven and enrich the practice and show how it leads the research.

11. Conclusion.

PLR takes practice and brings it into the academy as a central factor in academic research: otherwise, the practice would sit within its own arena of film, dance, photography, the novel, poetry, multi-media etc. PLR, hence, is a very rich way of drawing together practice and research as a natural uber-production. PLR takes the traditional academic view of knowledge-production further so as to transform our understandings of qualitative research into more creative research strategies that arise from a practice producing an artefact and exegesis. In this model, the practice leads the research: it is not subsumed into it as a form of data, nor does it arise as the result of a research question being identified and articulated. In our artefact and exegesis model, the questions, problems and challenges identified by the practices, insights, and needs and so on of the practitioners entice the practitioner to look even further than the initial creative act to another that is creative yet resides clearly within the gatekeeping of the academic world: the production of the exegesis.

PLR enables knowledge by importing 'messy' forms of research and challenging established and quite comforting academic paradigms. In doing so, it produces serious methodological research procedures that may well contain elements of traditional protocols and/or be aligned with them, but yet remain fundamentally different. In this way, whilst there is a significant new contribution to academic knowledge and insights, there is a rupture with traditional orthodoxies .

Practice Led Research has a profound pedagogical impact upon both candidates and supervisors. Too often, rather than defining and announcing itself as a teaching and learning event, Sinclair says that 'The PhD candidature appears to be a rite of passage into distinct research cultures that manifests in discipline-specific completions and times to submission.' (2004:iv) Yet the candidacy occurs in real-life, real-time and has very particular goals and outcomes: it changes candidates' lives. The importance of empathy, warmth, congruence, complex verbal skills, approval, supportiveness, optimism and respect (Lambert & Hawkins 2001:131-2) is significant and central to any learning and teaching engagement: it's not less in supervising a PhD candidate. It's particularly apposite in practice led research.

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Identifying and Analysing the Assessment Needs of Tertiary Students at a Regional Campus

Jaromir Audy

Edith Cowan University, South West Campus - Bunbury, Western Australia

j.audy@ecu.edu.au

Abstract

The study focuses on perceived importance and needs in assessments by students and lecturers at a tertiary level. It involved semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, as well as group discussions that were carried out separately with students and lecturers. Questions were designed to find the lecturers' and students' attitudes towards their worst and best assessment, with their own reasoning describing why this may be the case. In total, six lecturers and twenty four students were interviewed. Both the lecturers, 60%, and the students, 67%, agreed that the worst assessment usually associated with the subjects that were badly taught or not properly explained. Results showed that the assessments need to be connected with a wide variety of real-life circumstances. Finally, 88% of those interviewed agreed that, in no circumstances, the adjustments in curriculum or assessments should be appropriated towards improving retention by 'keeping the slow learners in the system', and the standard should be maintained or raised in order to keep up with the continuous developments in education.

Keywords: tertiary education - regional campus - assessment needs - retention - teaching standard

1. Introduction

Assessments employed in tertiary education systems are generally designed in various ways, aiming to generate, more or less successfully, the results to be used for monitoring (and quantifying) both the progress and effectiveness in the teaching and learning process for all partners involved (Audy, 2007: 135). Consequently, it has long been recognised and accepted (Fritz, 1996: 213) that the distinctive features of these assessments are outputs for students (and their parents), lecturers (and their supervisors, departments/universities), potential employers (in government, private, domestic and international sectors). Students usually chose the assessment results to identify the gaps in their knowledge and needs for further study (Audy, 2007: 135) as well as for informing their parents about their rank in the group or their success at university. Those less fortunate in their choices and marks may use the services of counsellors for advice in optimising the results or changing the program. Lecturers treat the results as a tool to identify the needs of individuals, groups, and classes as well as to evaluate their own teaching strategies when reporting to their supervisors, department and university. The results are also used to evaluate the progress internally, from higher to lower hierarchy levels, when looking at performance, from an educational point of view, in university, schools, departments, courses and their individual units. This helps in activities focussed on decision making, planning, identifying opportunities, implementing and testing ideas. The government uses the results as a measure when providing its

financial support to different organisations in the educational sector. Potential employers pay considerable attention to the final assessment results when making their decision about a job offer to the 'right' applicant. From the above it is evident that the assessment is a tool for monitoring the progress and performance in a way to make people aware about the significance of their activities (Audy, 2007), intentions and outcomes. It all starts from the lowest position in hierarchy *i.e.* at the students'-lecturers' level. Therefore, in order to achieve the most efficient outcomes, the assessment process should be a continuous and active one (Ankiewicz *et al*, 2006: 122) supporting critical self-reflection and the development of understanding own cognition from students' and lecturers' perspectives. Assessments need to be fair/transparent, difficulties presented to students for solving need to match their level of skill (Mawson, 2003: 120), and the assessment content needs to follow the structure and outcomes outlined in particular unit contents (Inglis and Bradley, 2005:47). To date, little information has been published on identifying and analysing the differences between good and bad assessments from research work on students' feelings and reflections, and there is only a limited awareness of the effects of assessment structure on the states of students' mind (Massimini and Carli, 1988). Consequently, the present investigations were set up to study and analyse a number of students' and lecturers' responses based on references to their feelings, situations and events associated with their worst and best assessments. An additional task was to look at possible causes for these feelings, and determine practical outcomes for implementation to existing teaching and learning resources. It is expected that the results generated will be used to carry out the restructure of assessments in existing units in the most efficient ways with respect to University plans (reduced cost and improved retention), and lecturer/student expectations (improved clarity and smoothness in 'mix mode' – class/laboratory-like – teaching and learning scenarios).

2. Experimental Details

The research approach used in this project is the one which positions the authors to the role of 'visible and involved' observers (Fisher 2004:51) and realist/positivist researchers (Fisher 2004:54). This is because the principal researcher intended to study (and seek improvements in) his own units as well as students' satisfaction and achievements in the organisation (SW-ECU-Bunbury) where (since 2004) he holds a full-time permanent position of the senior lecturer in material science. The following sub-Sections provide some important information about the evolution and progress in technology and science-related units since 2004 as well as structure of assessments used in the programme.

Study sequence of technology related units for SST Students is shown in the diagram in Figure 1. It presents an exhaustive list of units in technology education offered since 2003, when the SST course was established. From this diagram it is evident that in 2003 the core structure was created by units dealing with 'Introduction to materials and manufacturing' supported by 'Mathematic for science' in the 1st year of study. This was followed by 'Materials/technology design and construction unit' and 'Surf science project' in the second and third year of study, respectively. By the end of 2003 the 'Mathematic for science' was archived. In 2004, over \$300,000 was allocated for building a new advanced

laboratory especially for the SST programme. This enabled the course to introduce the shaping and laminating of surfboards and the testing of composite materials, including designing and making fins. Consequently, the 'Materials/technology design and construction unit' changed to 'Surf equipment design and materials'. In 2004/05 two new units were introduced to the SST course, namely 'Quality management and safety engineering', and 'Advanced processes and materials in surf science manufacturing'. In 2006/07 the ECU regional campus in Bunbury decided to restructure the majority of courses in the Faculty and to offer multi-disciplinary units across different course programs. This was aimed at improving students' retention as well as addressing the budgetary situation. As a result, the SST course structure underwent the following major changes. Technological subjects were reduced from nine (in 2005) to eight (in 2007) dropping to five (in 2008).

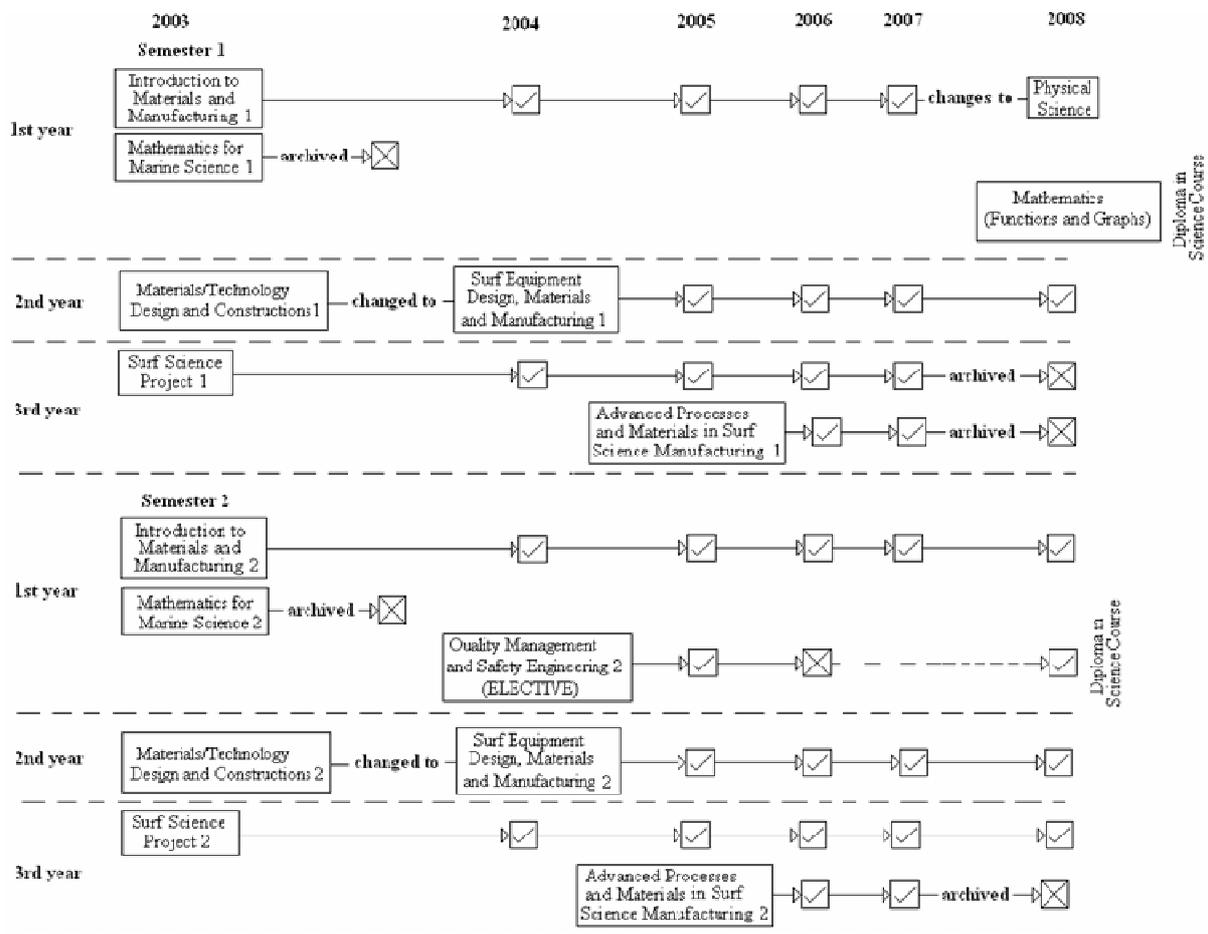


Figure 1 The diagram showing a study sequence, and changes, in technology related units at SST since 2003.

Referring to the study sequence outlined in Figure 1, it is evident that the 'Introduction to materials and manufacturing 1' unit, offered exclusively to the SST students in a period from 2003 to 2007, is going to be entitled 'Physical science' in 2008. Its structure is going to be changed in a more generalized way that would allow addressing a wider range of students from SST, education and other programmes. The 'Introduction to materials and manufacturing 2' unit as well as the 'Surf equipment design and materials in surf science manufacturing 1 and 2' units have not been changed. Finally, the major changes in 2008 will be in

the 3rd year programme. The two units, namely 'Advanced processes and materials in surf science manufacturing 1 and 2' will be archived, leaving the only 'Surf science project 1 and 2' to be offered in the first and second semesters, respectively. This 'archiving' decision also included the unit entitled 'Surf science project 1'. However, it was decided that it will run for the last time in 2008 in order to allow the current cohort of third year SST students to finish their study in the agreed order. Finally it needs to be noted that a unit entitled 'Mathematics – Functions and graphs' was adopted from ECU-Joondalup curriculum in order to support the unit content for a new – flexible - science course ("Science diploma launched at ECU", 2007) in Bunbury's South West (SW) campus to be run for the first time in 2008. It is anticipated that this one-year, eight-unit Diploma of Science course will attract school leavers as well as tradespeople wishing to get a gap year experience at Bunbury's ECU before transferring to one of two Perth's ECU campuses *i.e.* Joondalup (JO) and Mount Lawry (ML), to pursue their carrier in Sport Science, Environmental Science, Technology, Information Science or Health Science. In addition, it is expected that professionals in the resource industry may be interested in enrolling in this course regardless of intending to advance their qualifications or commencing a Bachelor's degree programme outlined earlier.

Teaching activities and assessment types in technology and science units at SST programme are described as follows: Except the Surf Science Project 1 and 2, all other units require a two hour lecture and a one hour tutorial weekly over thirteen weeks (*i.e.* 3 hours a week). The surf science project units are structured for a three hour duration time which includes the lectures and individual consultancies with students with respect to their chosen topic. For all other units there are different laboratory sessions of a 3 hours duration which replace lectures and tutorials in the weeks that they are scheduled. All topics are interrelated and are presented concurrently. The project assessments are set up in such a way so as to be fair, valid and co-operative. The key into that assessment structure is shown below

- The 1st year students, with a basic assumed level, are involved in basic laboratory based projects (B.L.B.P.). They are expected to learn the use of technology for solving simple problems and writing meaningful technical reports.
- The 2nd year students, with an intermediate assumed level, are involved in product development-based projects (P.D.B.P.). They are expected to share ideas and information; transfer knowledge when working individually or in teams; plan and conduct activities in a way meaningful from statistical and technological perspectives.
- The 3rd year students, with an advanced assumed level, are involved in final year project (F.Y.P.); essay-based project (E.B.P.); advanced laboratory-based projects (A.L.B.P.) They are expected to collect and critically analyse report data; prepare different problem-solving scenarios; recognise limitations and delimitations; solve problems; disseminate ideas and findings to fellow students; identify future work and areas requiring further attention.

The assessment also involves exams at the end of each semester, worth 50% of the total subject (100%), and different work-related projects during the

semester, worth the other 50%. More detailed information about individual types of project-based assessments is provided in the following Figure 2.

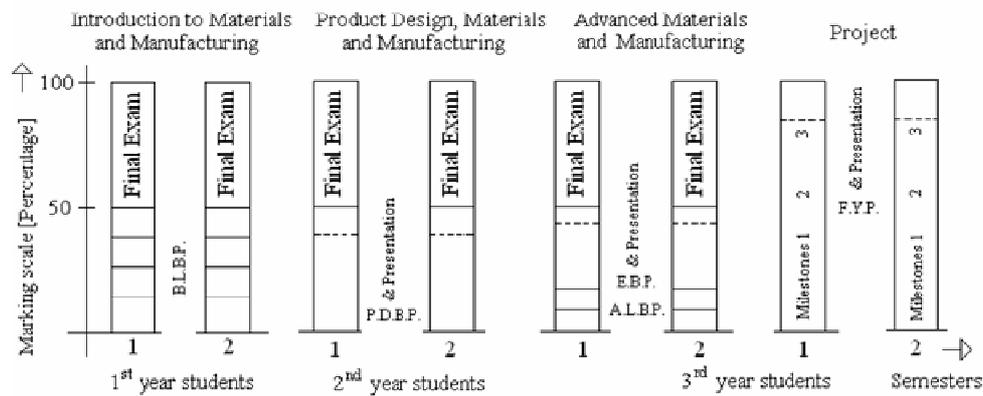


Figure 2 Relationship between units, marking scale, and types of assessments for the SST students enrolled in technology-related subjects; 2007.

Research Methods were adopted from Fisher (2004: 34 and 54). They included: structured and/or semi-structured observations which were followed by mostly Likert scale-based questionnaires and pre-coded questionnaires, as well as pre-coded-like interviews that were used as a tool to uncover/understand the strength and weakness in assessments in a wide variety of science and technology-related subjects.

Sample size and experimental groups are described as follows. For the observation-based approach, the experimental groups were ten first-year students enrolled in a materials' unit and twelve second-year students enrolled in a product design and manufacturing unit section, all of them belonging to a surf science and technology stream. The control group consisted of 6 lecturers and 24 students who were randomly approached during 2006 and 2007 at four different domestic universities (two in Victoria and two in Western Australia). They were asked to complete a questionnaire or alternatively, to give an interview with quantitative ratings and/or ranking order comments to a number of questions and statements concerning criteria for the best and worst assessment (based on their own experience) from a University and/or a high school environment. Those that provided high school examples were asked to think about University examples for comparison purposes.

Questionnaires and interviews were both set up in a similar mode to allow for mutual comparison of statements. Some responses were to Likert-type statements employing a 4-point scale, namely SA, A, D and SD for strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree, respectively. The neutral statement (not sure) was avoided in order to 'encourage' those being interviewed to pick one of the two opposing statements. In order to protect the identity of individuals the process associated with interviewing and data analysis was carried out in a way ensuring confidentiality for each respondent. In addition, names were not recorded during the survey.

3. Results and Discussion

What follows are some portions of the questionnaire distributed to, and examples of questions used in the interview conducted with, students and lecturers, and their responses to the survey.

- Interviewer: "What was your best and worst assessment, and why?"
- Student (Typical response): "I suppose that the best and worst ones were those that yielded the highest and lowest mark, respectively".
- Interviewer: "OK, if this is the case – give me some examples"
- Student: "Oh!? I do not remember individual cases, they were so many... and they differed..."
- Interviewer: "Fine, do not think too much and tell me what type of assessments stayed fixed in your memory and gave you warm feelings (and/or) bad feelings when you recall it.
- Student: "Uh, now I know what you mean. The differences between bad and good assessment usually associated with a way how the subject was taught and interactions between lecturer and students.....The examples are....."

3.1 Findings on Distributions of Knowledge by Lecturers to Students and Students' reactions to Assessments

Variations in a homogeneity of group members and the ability of individuals to learn (and/or absorb) knowledge in different ways are usually the main features that put some pressure on lecturers. Therefore, they need to think laterally in order to prepare friendly 'open' learning scenarios in which their students can feel relaxed and learn in a more efficient way as it is in classical face-to face teaching modes. Lecturers need to synchronise themselves with their students in such a way so as to create the mutual understanding and harmony that should ideally exist between those who give knowledge and those who look for guidance. Students should trust their lecturers and should not be afraid of assessments. The principal author of this paper always reminds his students- "Assessments were prepared for your entertainment. You were trained and you know what to do, so do your best and solve the problems. Life is full of surprises and you have to trust yourself and not to be afraid of complexity and numbers. Learn how to deal with the problems in the most efficient way – time is precious". While recently being at a conference in Thailand, some Asian presenters compared their lecturers to palms and bamboos. Palm trees have a tendency to grow high so the academics belonging to that category were those who did not look down and were not concerned about 'little' problems that 'little' students had. In contrast, bamboo-like academics were flexible, they moved from side to side, listened and helped whenever asked or needed. It has been concluded that there is usually no, or very little, harmony in classes run by 'palm'-like academics whose lectures are mostly based on instructions and without extra attention/help provided to the class, and they have little value to students who are medium or low level achievers. In contrast, 'bamboo'-like academics are considered to be more human in delivering their lectures, caring more for the needs of their students. The assessment results are usually more homogeneous with a failure rate at a very low level, if any.

“Sometimes there is a need to avoid retention at tertiary level” said one academic with a recognised teaching and research experience at an international level. When interviewed, he recalled several cases of students who took up to 7 years and sometimes more to complete a 4-year engineering course due to them repeating core subjects (mathematics, physics, dynamics, materials and manufacturing processes). He concluded that such students were not suited to be future engineers/scientists and/or academics. Similar opinions were expressed independently by several other people interviewed in this study.

The question to be raised here is this: ‘Who failed- the students in their learning styles, or their lecturers in their teaching ways?’ An Australian academic with European background provided two examples of his worst lecture/assessment types when he was a tertiary student.

He stated: “There was a two-semester subject focussed on technical drawings in the 1st year at the university. It was taught by two lecturers – one was in his sixties, another in his twenties. The subject was taught at a very advanced level without looking at group needs and students were struggling with it. I myself did not have any particular problems to understand the topic and to complete the assessments. It was because I came from a technical high school where over four years we had been extensively trained in technical drawings of different products. Therefore, I acquired an excellent skill to draw by memory, for example, a car engine or any part of it. Bearing this in mind, the most surprising thing for me was the fact that regardless of how good they were, the majority of my drawings (although accepted when submitted) were given low marks. I did not ask or complain about the marks. Other members of my group had to redraw each drawing several times until it was finally accepted by our lecturers, and they were struggling with time. As a result many of them failed other subjects or were forced to withdraw from individual units or the whole course. By pure coincidence the puzzle was solved several years later. I graduated from university and at that time was working as a senior lecturer there. When travelling home by bus I met that young lecturer who taught our class technical drawings. We were talking about different issues and to my surprise he said “I remember you as a talented student of mine. I am sorry that I had to mark your assessment so low. The orders were to set up the conditions in such a way that the strongest individuals would only pass and progress further. Hearing that I lost the last fragments of respect I ever had for that lecturer. It needs to be said that this trend was obviously very popular and generally accepted throughout the whole university system. In the second year of my study there was a final year assessment the results of which would serve as the major indicators of students’ preparation for the final exam. A high number of students failed both the assessment and the exam never finding out why. And finally, in my third year at the university I was enrolled in a quite complex subject. Its structure involved different technical industry-like related problems that had to be solved through geometry, vectors, movements and complex mathematical equations combined with statistical analyses. It was one of the toughest subjects, and this was not caused by its complexity but by the lecturer. It was in the way he delivered the subject to students; during the lectures he unexpectedly threw some short problems to the class and randomly selected individuals who were asked to respond in a fraction of a second. Silence, a late response or wrong response were treated as a gap in knowledge and dealt with accordingly with dark dots in his diary. Similarly, during his tutorial students were left on their own with very limited assistance to those that dared to ask a ‘correct’ question. The ‘wrong’

question was also treated as a student's gap in knowledge and the final marks were reduced sometimes close to zero according to the number of dark dots in his diary. It was not unusual for one individual to collect up to a dozen dark dots within a one 3-hrs lecture combined with tutorial. It is therefore not surprising that after his class the group was left in a deep depression. With the exam deadline coming close I was in a mess. I tried hard to find some logic between spider-like lines, numbers and equations. A night before the exam I received a phone call from that lecturer. He told me to see him in his office at 6pm. I was obviously annoyed, because I had to study for his exam. Despite this I went there to see him. When I arrived he handed me an envelope. Surprised, I asked what was inside. He told me that it contained exam questions. I swallowed hard. With a limited level of knowledge in his subject I knew that I would not be able to solve the problems over night, and what disgrace that would be to have these questions in advance and fail the exam anyway. I handed the envelope back to him without even looking inside. "I will manage somehow", I said and when I left his office, I heard him to utter the words "We will see". It needs to be noted that I married my high school sweetheart and at the time, we were both studying at different universities in the same town. Her father was a very prominent person in state holding prestigious positions in political and university levels. Therefore, it was quite possible that because of this, I was offered questions in advance. Anyway, I was determined not to fail. I rang my friend who was in his final year studying at the same university, and I asked him for help. He arrived at my house at 10pm. To my surprise he was able to explain the logic of the whole subject within half an hour. With his training I was able to understand the entire semester's topic. I passed the exam with B+ (solving 3 complex problems within a given timeframe of 2hrs and answering 3 randomly selected questions in about 15 minutes). That day, after getting back the exam, the lecturer asked me to stay a bit longer. When all students had left he asked me if I had known the questions. "I did not take your envelope" I replied. "Oh yes, yes" he nodded his head and at that moment it occurred to me that there must have been other 'chosen' students who may have received the same offer and therefore had known the questions in advance. I was quite shocked. If it was not enough that the failure rate had already been set at a very high level, to top it off, I had to compete against those that took the unfair advantage. To finish the story, from my original group of about 30 students, only eight graduated. In addition, this trend was similar in other groups. After graduation I applied successfully for a teaching position at my university; my grades were high, I had previous industrial experience, and was accepted straightaway. I was given an office at the same department as the abovementioned lecturer. We were colleagues. I did not like him and kept my distance. Although highly knowledgeable in his subjects, he was not popular between students. In addition, to my surprise, he had written only a few publications in his area preventing him from ever being promoted. From the above it is evident that there seems to be a certain stress involved in assessments.

One lecturer recalled: "The 4th and final year at high school finished traditionally with state exams, usually from four chosen subjects. The exams had their written and oral form. Students were required to pass both exams with at least 50% (25%+25%) in order to pass the whole exam (requiring a minimum of 50%). The written exams were conducted in large halls with the presence of several lecturers to keep the order and prevent the students from cheating. The questions were announced, by a government representative, via radio at 9 am

and students were given 5 hours to complete the tasks. My close friend whose overall marks ranged between 1 and 2 in a 5 level mark range (1 best ... 5 worst) was sitting motionless. Lecturers noticed it and tried to communicate with him. He did not respond, he was obviously stressed. After 3 hours he left the room, did not write a single word onto his exam paper, and hanged himself in his parent's home. He was 16 years old when he died. I do not know what caused it, but I learned a valuable lesson then, that all people react differently to an assessment and that there is pressure associated with it."

Another tertiary lecturer said:

"I lost my son soon after his graduation. He seemed to excel in both his study and social life. However, I believe that the pressure from assessments, exams and my husband (also a lecturer at university) were apparently too much for him. On the phone he told me that his life was a joke and when I came home a few hours later I found him hanged."

When discussing most recently with my older colleague the student's retention at regional universities he said: "Our generation would be ashamed to fail assessments/exams. This generation knows very little about pride and commitments. They have a tendency to walk away from problems rather than to face them and dedicate some extra time to solve them."

Bearing the above in mind the final part of this study was concerned about students' reactions to the type of assessments, their level and requirements.

3.2 Findings on Assessments and Students' Feelings with Respect to Students' Preparation and Assessment Requirements

During individualised 'semi-structured' interviews the students were asked to estimate their overall average achievement *i.e.* marks in their study subjects and to rank themselves into one of the following three categories, namely, low achievers (<60%) moderate achievers (60%><70%), and high achievers (>70%). In addition, they were asked to describe their feelings with respect to a particular type of assessment requirement. To describe their feelings there were seven words to chose from, namely, slight interest, boredom, annoyance, relaxation, excitement, worry, and panic. The complexity of assessment requirements was given by three words, namely, low, moderate and high. The ranges between these ranks were not specified by quantitative factors of importance allowing for differences between the groups depending on the perceived level achievement. Consequently, it was up to individuals' feelings and their perceived skills as to how their mind elaborated this information and responded to it. Broadly generalising, a trend in their responses was one where student's interest was influenced, in a positive or negative way, with complexity of assessments and assessments' requirements, see results in Table 1, below.

Table 1 Relationships between assessment requirements, students' skills and students' behaviour, observed at a 70% and higher level of agreements.

| Assessment requirements | Students' (feelings) / observed responses | | |
|--|---|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| high | panicked | Worried | excited |
| moderate | worried | Relaxed | bored |
| low | slightly interested | Bored | annoyed |
| Students' skill (average achievement) | Low ($<60\%$) | Moderate ($60\% > <70\%$) | High ($70\% >$) |

Students belonging to the low achievement category (with marks on average under 60%) indicated that they are generally capable to follow and replicate the example solutions worked in lectures and tutorials. When interviewed, the majority of those ranking themselves into this category suggested that they usually undergo from a 'worry' stage to a 'panic' one when assessment requirements increase to moderate and/or high levels. Lecturer's observations showed that in group projects oriented in flexible environments, such students appear to struggle and have a tendency to depend on stronger team members. Consequently, it appears that they are 'surface' learners. Moderate achievers believed that they are quite capable to transform their knowledge from, and to, other projects. They chose the moderate assessment as their preferred ones, mentioning that low level assessments would be boring to them. Some students from this category were not particularly fond of high level assessments. Finally, there were some complaints by high achievers about low and moderate assessments that according to this survey results were classified as annoying and boring, respectively, with a marginal contribution to all parties involved.

When asked to do a ranking order in measures associated with issues and interests in assessment requirements with respect to their perceived importance, the preferences differed for low, medium and high achievers, see Table 2.

Table 2 Order between different students' skills and assessment requirements observed at a 70% and higher level of agreements.

| Students' skill level | Achievements | Issues of Interest in Assessments | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------|-----------------------------------|----|----|----|
| Low | $<60\%$ | MP | D | CI | NT |
| Medium | $60\% > <70\%$ | D | CI | MP | NT |
| High | $70\% >$ | NT | CI | D | MP |

Symbols: NT – number of individual tasks in assessment; D – deadlines; CI – clarity of instructions; MP – marking pattern.

Students were also asked to rate their satisfaction with accessing the blackboard (web-enhanced) site containing lecture material. Those students that lived far away from the university acknowledged an opportunity of 'distance' learning, however, the majority (6 of 8) mentioned that this electronic-type education has not enhanced their learning. Four of them also appeared to be less satisfied with their knowledge and results than other students with their more regular access to class and face-to face contact with lecturer. In addition, the interviews (by 12 students) revealed that delays in submitting assessments can be interpreted as one form of adjustment which students can make when faced with a shortage of

time, or having difficulties in a particular subject. When asked about their perceived knowledge from high school when entering university, the majority of interviewed students (12 of 15) said that they came from government high schools and were not satisfied with their educational background in mathematics and science. As a result, their interest in science classes appeared to be marginal (6 of 15), mostly because they worried they would fail (7 of 15), or were unable to cope with requirements (9 of 15) and deadlines (5 of 15). In contrast, six of nine private school students appeared to attach higher importance than other students to independent learning, supported by lecturer's assistance whenever needed, and showed interest in complex problems during science and technology units. All students regardless of their educational background agreed that assessments without logic and connection to realistic life-like problems were meaningless and therefore should be avoided. Interestingly, the majority of students said that assessment tasks should be fair (12 of 12), up to date (10 of 12), and in no circumstances be lowered down to help the low achievers and those not-interested in the subject to progress into further semester (11 of 12). Finally, students were asked to write in rank order (from worst to least daunting) four subjects of their own choice when looking at them from an assessment point of view. Not surprisingly, mathematic-based units including science-based units containing some statistics were considered to be the hardest and were therefore least popular. However, some students (6 of 15) mentioned that it would depend on the way the subject was taught, and what type of assistance was provided to the class or individuals when needed. Interestingly, a high number of those interviewed (17 of 20) appreciated project design-based assessments as well as additional discussions during their individual presentations. They also pointed out that presentations and discussions themselves were not enough if the quality of discussion (and knowledge disseminated to the group members) are not maintained at a high level/standard.

The above results from randomly oriented interviews and questionnaires appear to support the current results on the unit entitled "Surf Equipment Design Materials and Manufacturing" evaluated in 2007 by UTEI (University Teaching Evaluation Instrument) containing a wide variety of questions and perceived satisfaction in a Likert 5-scale ranking system. The questions, ranking orders and final results are shown in Table 3. More detailed information about interactions between the lecturer's and students during face-to-face lectures/tutorials and practical work conducted in class and SST shed can be found in literature sources (Audy *et al*, 2005:187-200; Audy, 2007:133-140, and Audy, 2007:1-12).

Table 3 UTEI unit report on SST2219 subject conducted and evaluated in 2007.

| UTEI Unit Report AUDY, Jaromir | | | | | |  | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|----------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| UTEIRREP1 | | | | | | Generated on Friday, 29th June 2007 06:51am | | | | |
| Unit Code | SST2119 Surf Equipment Design, Materials and Manufacturing 1 | | | | | Campus BU | | | | |
| Scale Values | Mean | | | | | % Agreement | | | | |
| | Unit Organisation (UO) Q.1-5 | Learning Scope (LS) Q.6-10 | Evaluation Of Learning (EL) Q.11-15 | Resources & Contexts (RC) Q.16-20 | Overall Satisfaction (OS) Q.21 | Unit Organisation (UO) Q.1-5 | Learning Scope (LS) Q.6-10 | Evaluation Of Learning (EL) Q.11-15 | Resources & Contexts (RC) Q.16-20 | Overall Satisfaction (OS) Q.21 |
| Campus | 100 | 93 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |
| Unit | 100 | 93 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

Note:
Mean values are calculated after recording the responses 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (neither agree nor disagree), 4 (agree) and 5 (strongly agree) to -100, -50, 0, 50, 100 respectively.
Percentage (%) agreement is defined as the percentage of applicable responses that are either 4 (agree) or 5 (strongly agree).
Group scale values (unit, school, faculty) are calculated from the aggregated relevant group of student responses.

From Table 3 it is evident that students' thoughts on teaching quality are exceptionally good. This may be due to the main teaching strategy used in this case, whereby the lecturer allowed the third year students to work with the second year students on individualised design of fins and surfboards, therefore mixing those with some experience with those with limited experience. This reduced the gaps, improved collegiality and communication, and helped to correct beginners' mistakes in the early stages of prototyping work. Moreover, the fear of failure, if any, between the second year students was almost eliminated, and the third year students were willing to put considerable extra time to learn more about the design, testing and laminating of their individualised boards and hence achieve improvements compared to their previous year. The lecturer observed that those that participated in these extra activities performed better in project classes focussed on solving technological/design problems.

3.3 Findings on Attributes of Students' 'Best' and 'Worst' Assessments

The results summarised in Table 5 refer to the overall findings on attributes and features of good and bad assessments, based on data from interviews and questionnaires conducted in this study.

Table 5 Observed importance of major features used to distinguish between 'best' and 'worst' assessments based on data selected from 27 responses. Note: the symbol * refers to assessments at overseas universities only.

| 'Best' assessment | Type of assessment | Features | Students' comments |
|-----------------------|--------------------|---|---|
| English* (1 response) | Essay | Well organised unit with clearly set up responsibilities. | English is my first language and I was well prepared for the exam. The questions suited me. |

| | | | |
|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|---|---|
| Mathematics (2 similar responses) | Calculus | Poorly organised unit. | I was lucky. I did not have much time to revise and the exam contained the only questions I already mastered into perfection. |
| Product design (5 responses) | Project work plus exam | Well organised units with clear expectations. | Everything was clear, the unit materials were helpful, the lecturer was approachable and the laboratory tasks helped me to learn for the exam. |
| Manufacturing* (1 response) | Calculations and oral presentation | Well organised units, exceptionally good lessons with clear expectations. | Very practical lessons run at a level understandable to ordinary students. Exam questions suited to the level of knowledge distributed to the class. |

| 'Worst' assessment | Type of assessment | Features | Students' comments |
|--|------------------------------------|---|--|
| English* (1 response) | Essay | Reasonably well organised unit with not very clear responsibilities. | I can speak several languages. However at that time my English was at a very limited level. The class was run to suit those at immediate and advanced levels. |
| Mathematics (3 responses) | calculus | Relatively well organised unit, with not very clear details of expectations. | I had no idea of what needs to be completed or the level of work expected to pass. |
| Robotics* (1 response) | Calculations and oral presentation | Very chaotic lectures with lots of library work involved without any structure or clear expectations. | The lecturer missed more than 40% of his presentations. There were no clear instructions as to what to do, nobody provided feedback, and it was almost impossible to guess even vaguely the exam area. (The lecturer had a car accident and died thanks to God) |
| Electronics* (1 response) Manufacturing* (1 response) | Calculations and oral presentation | Very complex lectures, with chaotic structure, and overloading material and instructions. | The lecturer did not have time for students. The failure rate was high. <i>Lecturer was very old, aggressive and arrogant to students. The failure rate was high.</i> |

| | | | |
|---|------------------------------------|---|---|
| Environment (4 responses) | Essay-based project work | Not clear and mostly chaotic instructions, with lots of meaningless review-based work | It was very hard, if not impossible, to find out the correct solution in such a wide range of open literature sources without any help from the lecturer. It was my most annoying project. |
| Machines* (1 response) | Calculations and oral presentation | Complex, not clear and sometimes chaotic lectures with overloading materials and instructions. | The exam consisted of questions suited to professionals with several years of industrial experience, not to 4 th year tertiary students. |
| Geometry* (1 response) | Drawings and theory | Complex, not clear lectures with overloading materials and instructions. Extremely good tutorials (run by different lecturer) | The exam was hard in the sense that it consisted of real-life-like scenarios (completely different to those worked on at lectures or tutorials) with limited time to solve it. It was a hard one for the 1 st year students. |
| Materials (1 response) <i>Physics</i> (1 response) | Exam | Lectures/Tutorials /Handouts were all OK | The timetable was changed the day before the exam. I and a few other colleagues were not aware of it and when given a phone call on exam day we arrived 1 hour late. <i>I mistook the date of my exam. I thought that I have few more days to study when I was told by a friend that exam starts next day. It was completely my fault.</i> |

4. Conclusions

This study showed that assessments are particularly important – directly - to students and lecturers as well as - indirectly – to other parties involved such as supervisors, government and stock holders. Therefore there is a need to ensure that they are meaningful, stress-free and user-friendly. It appears that students and academics may be especially likely to attach additional value to those learning processes where some harmony exists between lecturers and their students, and learn from materials they feel comfortable using, and to consider lectures and assessments which seem user-unfriendly as fairly useless to them. In addition, students seem to value meaningful real-life-like assessments very highly. Indeed, regardless of the levels in the students' knowledge, both genders appeared to attach high importance to design and project-based assessments. Subjects based on mathematic and statistic concepts are still being considered as hard ones evoking fear. Consequently, there is a need for further research into

understanding the aforementioned trends. For example, did students with poor high school background attach relatively low importance to some scientific course units because they are unaware of additional support services at campus?; or because they are aware of such support but feel no need for it? (e.g. from a false belief that they can solve worked examples on the blackboard or during class); or because they feel that seeking such help would be time consuming and intimidating them? Identification of the most appropriate strategies for improvements of assessments and teaching styles depends on obtaining true answers to these questions.

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Missions Étrangères de Paris and Educational Transformation in Eastern Himalayas

Francis A.V

Loyola College of Education – India
francysj@rediffmail.com

Abstract

Priests of Missions Etrangères de Paris (MEP) arrived in Pedong, Eastern Himalayas in 1882 and found a small group of population of different castes and tribes. Their approach of holistic education from 1882 to 1937 transformed these people. This paper is a study that concerns the impacts of exogenous people or ideas on the indigenous inhabitants. As part of methodology, qualitative and quantitative approaches have been adopted. The tools for the qualitative approaches were interviews and observation techniques. At the same time, quantitative approach included stratified random sample survey. Data were also obtained from primary and secondary sources. Personal diaries, letters, legal deeds, photographs and archive documents were regarded as primary sources. The secondary sources for the present study included news bulletins, jubilee souvenirs and periodicals of MEP fathers. The main findings are categorized under six heads: (1) Education, (2) Healthcare Programmes, (3) Agricultural Technology, (4) Unifier of various castes and tribes, (5) Emergence of new faith and its impact, (6) Creation of new class.

Key words: Holistic – Education – Qualitative – Quantitative - Findings.

1. Missions Etrangères De Paris and Educational Transformation in Eastern Himalayas

Educational history of Pedong began with the arrival of the priests of Missions Etrangères De Paris in 1882 AD. Ever since missionaries established schools, hostels, churches, social service centres, health centres and agricultural farms for the physical, intellectual, moral, spiritual and cultural enhancement of the inhabitants. This paper documents the arrival of the missionaries, their interaction with locals, and statistical evaluation of the activities of the missionaries by the natives.

The prime objectives of the study were the following:

1. To trace the course of the establishment of Catholic mission in Pedong.
2. To explore the interaction process between Catholic missionaries and the local inhabitants.
3. To assess the impact of Catholic missionaries on the people.

Since this study is an exploration into the lives of human beings, a few research questions, mentioned below, served as signposts in writing this paper.

1. What were the motivating factors that prompted MEP priests to choose Pedong in Eastern Himalayas as their mission field?

2. How did the missionaries interact with Himalayan inhabitants?
3. How did the locals respond to the services of missionaries?
4. What is the assessment on missionaries by the inhabitants?

This study is mainly based on primary sources. As part of literature, a few news bulletins, jubilee souvenirs and periodicals of MEP priests have been reviewed.

As part of methodology, a blend of qualitative and quantitative approaches have been adopted. Interviews and observation techniques have been employed as tools to elicit maximum data for the qualitative research. A stratified sample survey was conducted as a tool, with the help of one hundred questionnaires, administered in three strata of the society to assess the impact of Catholic missionaries in the area of education by the local inhabitants.

For the present study, all the data derived from interviews and observations were sorted and only the relevant materials were analysed and classified under six headings.

A statistical table was used as device for summarizing the quantitative data and to present it. Descriptive analysis was done to infer the data and results obtained were analysed to identify the impact of Catholic missionaries on the inhabitants in the area of education. The results are the following:

1.1 Education

The beginnings of the modern system of education in Pedong may be traced to the efforts of the missionaries. It is due to their strenuous efforts that many institutions were established. They imparted European as well as Indian education. The first educational institution, established by MEP in 1885, is now St. George Higher Secondary School with 2325 students. The other schools which were initiated by MEP are still the feeding schools for St. George.

1.2. Healthcare Programmes

Since there was lack of medical facilities people of all communities were dying premature in large numbers. Therefore, in order to maintain a sound body, Fr. Jules Douinel built a hospital in 1898. Later, he purchased a small plot of land above the presbytery and built quarters for the patients. Each patient had a self-contained flat in order to avoid quarrel with each other. After two years, Fr. Jules paid attention to another need of the people around. Apart from the sick and infirm, there were some old and disabled people who needed a house to live in. In order to meet the need he took up the construction of homes for the aged and disabled, close to the presbytery. The homes were just cluster of a few houses where the aged and disabled people of both sex were kept separately and were fully supported by the mission.

1.3. Agricultural Technology

The fathers of MEP imparted agricultural technology to the locals. First of all the fathers with help of the orphans cleared the forest for cultivation. Oxens were exclusively used for ploughing the field. With high breed seeds the locals cultivated crops like rice, maize and other vegetables. It is worth mentioning the names of Fr. Martin and Fr. Durel who instructed the hostel children to cultivate tea and vegetables at Maria Busty. The missionaries encouraged organic farming for the cultivation of vegetables. They also imparted instruction in farming to the little children. In this way the missionaries imparted rudiments of agricultural education for the economic development of the local society.

1.4. Unifier of various castes and tribes

The population included various castes and tribes. The immigrant Nepalese had brought with them the hierarchical concept of caste system to Pedong. The casteism being practiced had dangerous portends in the society. The MEP fathers who knew no caste system interacted with Nepalese, Lepchas, Bhutias and Tibetans equally. Moreover, the fathers built the society on the fundamental principle of love which recognizes equality of all. They believed in the concept of the fatherhood of God and treated all as His children. The humanitarian work, especially educational endeavor was open to all irrespective of caste, faith and belief. Therefore, the French Missionaries through social integration created an egalitarian society towards the end of nineteenth and beginning of twentieth century.

1.5. Emergence of New Faith and its Impact

The missionaries established a new religion and its practices in Eastern Himalayas. A few local inhabitants of various castes and tribes accepted the new faith and its values. As a result in the same social group, there emerged a feeling 'we' and 'they' between the Christians and believers of traditional faith. However it is evident from interviews and observations that there is perfect inter-religious harmony in this area. Hindus, Buddhists, Protestants and Catholics live and work together. Till date, no one has heard of any religious clash in this region, since neither the local people are hostile to missionaries nor are the missionaries overpowering.

1.6. Creation of New Class

The MEP fathers considered education as an integral part of their mission work. With the spread of education in this area, there began to emerge a new class, the literate class. Education, government, literature, commerce and trade, technical, medical education etc became the prerogative of the new class. Among the new class was the small group who accepted new faith in great strides in the background of their socio-cultural moorings and became a privileged class. All who came in touch with the missionaries assimilated a value system which is a blend of oriental and occidental in nature.

2. Missions Etrangères de Paris and Educational Transformation in Eastern Himalayas

Vision is to be lived- we just cannot buy or borrow a vision or just speaking about it is not enough. The Catholic priests of Missions Etrangères de Paris (MEP)¹ upheld the living heritage of doing good without counting the cost, in Eastern Himalayas from 1882 to 1937, taking all efforts to promote life in every form and at every level of existence. Fifty five years were long enough for them to realize their vision, ideals and goals and to bring a complete transformation in education and society, propelled by Jesus' gospel of love.

The vision of MEP missionaries was translated into action in Pedong² a hilly region, nestled in the lower Himalayas in Kalimpong sub-division of Darjeeling district of West Bengal, in the Republic of India. Pedong is situated at an attitude of 5100 feet above the sea level on India-Tibet route³. It is twenty eight kilometers away from Kalimpong town and located near the confluence of Murdung khola and Rishi Khola. The locale is perched on a hill from which the table land of Tibet could be viewed⁴.

It falls in Algara block. It has both Panchayat and a Post Office with pincode-734311. Pedong and Kalimpong region rose to prominence with the arrival and settlement of MEP fathers and their interaction with the natives.

The majority of the populace in these areas is ethnic Nepali⁵ of all castes and tribes who migrated from Nepal to this region in search of job when it was under British rule. The migrants include Newars, Sherpas, Rais, Tamangs, Yalmoos, Bhujels, Sunuwars, Gurungs, Damais, Kamis, Limbus etc. T. Raatan gives a definition of Nepalese in *Encyclopedia of North-East India* in the following words " Nepalese are people either whose forefathers had come from Nepal or those who had origin in Nepal" (T. Raatan, 2004:18)⁶. Another prominent tribe is Lepcha who live mainly in Pedong and its surroundings. In the *Bengal District Gazetteers*, O'Malley states about Lepcha tribes in the following words: "The Lepchas are the aboriginal inhabitants of the country, who call themselves Rong i.e the squatters, and their country, the land of caves. The word Lepcha or as it should be spelt Lapcha or Lapche, means the people of vile speech and was contemptuous appellation given to them by the Nepalese. Formerly they possessed all the hill of Darjeeling and Sikkim but about 250 years ago the Tibetans invaded their country and drove them into the lower valleys and gorges" (O'Malley, 1907:44)⁷. Besides Nepali and Lepcha, a significant number of migrants from Tibet settled in Pedong and its neighbouring areas. They are known as either Bhutias or Tibetans. All these ethnic populace needed a new direction, a new life and new hope. They had to be economically, morally and spiritually elevated. It was at that hour that the MEP priests arrived in this region.

In 1846, Pope Gregory XVI entrusted the region of Tibet to the fathers of MEP for the purpose of evangelization. Ever since, the missionaries tried various routes to reach Tibet. Fr. Auguste Desgodins and Fr. Henry Mussot, having failed in their attempt to get into Tibet through various routes, found Pedong the most suitable place and reported this matter to their authorities in Paris and initiated the establishment of Pedong mission in 1882. The British officials in Calcutta and

Darjeeling endorsed their decision and made arrangements for the purchase of land for the mission.

Mr. Wace, the Deputy Commissioner of Darjeeling had granted the fathers three acres of land. The mission land was by the side of the mule track of the trade route between Kalimpong and Lhasa. Though the place was thinly populated, with the hope of getting into Tibet they settled down at Pedong. Since there was no hope of getting into Tibet in the near future, after planting a cross which faces Tibet, the pioneering missionaries took up humanitarian work, especially education in Pedong areas⁸.

Thus Pedong became the headquarters of MEP mission in Eastern Himalayas. Later, Fr. Jules Douinel felt the necessity of getting a foothold in Kalimpong because of its large population for evangelical prospects. In 1920, Fr. Jules acquired properties in Kalimpong and the nuns of congregation St. Joseph de Cluny were directed to start a holiday home and later schools for girls⁹.

The enterprising priests constructed places of worships, hostels, schools, healthcare centres, agricultural farms and cooperative society for the overall development of the indigenous people. Altogether eleven priests, Auguste Desgodins, George Henry Mussot, Martin Hervagault, Louis Claude Saleur, Jules Douinel, Leo Martin Durel, L. Moriniaux, Charles Monnier, Gaston Gratuze, Joseph Alazard and Queguiner interacted with Himalayan castes and tribes and tried to give shape to the vision that projected the pioneers. The priests with the help of the locals established mission stations in and around Pedong to impart holistic education. They established educational institutions based on sound principles, in the following villages: Pedong, Mariabusty, Kagay, Lingsey, Kashyong, Sakyong and Kalimpong.

Educational principles and methodology of the priests for the holistic transformation of a person is derived from the concept that every person is created in the image and likeness of God¹⁰. Through education, the MEP priests helped each one to discover his /her God given dignity, uniqueness and multiple giftedness and develop a well integrated person ready to collaborate with others in the building of a just world social order.

Education envisaged for the indigenous people had definite aims and objectives. Their broad understanding aimed at social transformation through modernization, productivity, concern for ethical values etc. The aims and objectives are both individual and social.

The individual aims and objectives of MEP educational strategy aimed at making people socially adjustable, economically well off, politically conscious of their rights and duties, religiously mutually respecting and accepting each other, psychologically sound and physically strong. For the all round development of the individual personality, the priests emphasized enlightenment of head and heart, illumination of conscience and development of psychomotor skills. Above all, they also aimed at internal harmony within a person, also external harmony with society and environment.

Education is also social activity. An individual is regarded as endowed with social nature. Therefore, Social aim of education is important because an individual

lives in Society and fulfills his/her obligations towards nation. The MEP fathers aimed at modernization of society in terms of scientific and technological advancement. In this context, modernization is not equated with westernization. The fathers emphasized individual productivity of an individual in order to build a productive society. Since educational enterprises of the Fathers, is related to the activities of the society, community participation was extremely emphasized by M.EP fathers. The co-operative society¹¹ at Pedong is a perfect example of community participation for the social and economic advancement of the natives. In short, the aims of education both individual and social were visualized by the MEP fathers to develop the innate qualities of an individual so that he/she becomes worthy citizens of India, sincerely committed to God and his/her neighbors

Fr.Desgodins chose Tibetan as a medium of instruction since the children of the Tibetan traders to be instructed in his Tibetan school. Fr. Hervagault, on his arrival at Pedong, also taught Tibetan in the school. As more and more Nepali speaking flocked Pedong, the French fathers altered the medium from Tibetan to Nepali. "Since there were no teachers in the vicinity" says Joachim Subba "qualified teachers were recruited from Ranchi"¹². Therefore, Hindi speaking teachers used Hindi text books. However, all lessons were explained in Nepali. As more and more locals got qualified to teach, the medium became Nepali, the lingua franca of the majority.

The MEP missionaries framed a curriculum keeping in view of the needs of the newly settled immigrants. The main feature of the curriculum was correlation of the curriculum with productive activity. The students were required to study language: Tibetan, Hindi and Nepali. They had to master basic skills in reading, writing, speaking with correct grammar and punctuation. Fr.Desgode's *Tibetan-Latin-French Dictionary* and *Tibetan Grammar* were used to teach Tibetan. Fr. Desgodes taught Geography by using his own maps.

Fr.Gratuze in his *Un Pionnier de La Mission Tibétaine* writes "Fr. Desgodins drew the sketches of the geographical Maps with their surroundings and environments" (Gratuze,1909:14)¹³. Arithmetic was a compulsory subject. MEP fathers were steeped in inculcating moral and religious values in children. The values were presented to children through the following religious literature, composed by the missionaries and printed either at their press at Hongkong or by their hand press: (1) Creation (2)The Original Sin (3)The deluge(4)The Sacrifice of Adam(5)The captivity of Joseph (6) The famine in Egypt(7)The Temptation of Job(8)The war between David and Goliath(9)The Nativity (10)The advent of Magi(11) (12)The four Nepali gospels(13)The acts of Apostles(14),Lives of Saints (15)The Prayer Book. The same curriculum was followed in all the MEP schools.

A well designed curriculum would be effective, if it were to be executed to well disciplined pupils. Therefore, MEP fathers believed that there would be no mental, intellectual, emotional, moral, and spiritual development without discipline. Hence, they inculcated in student self-discipline for his/her own good and development. They also believed that inborn instincts and inherent tendencies of pupils should be sublimated into spiritual qualities and values. In order to inculcate in a student spiritual values the fathers led a model life¹⁴. They were imbued with knowledge, self dynamism and possessed essential qualities of

spiritualism. They also believed that discipline is needed for the development of intelligence and rationality. Their discipline aimed at fullest and highest development of personality.

Evaluation is an integral part of teaching -learning process. The MEP fathers respected the individuality of a child and stimulated his/her creative energies. In order to evaluate the overall performance of students, the missionaries adopted oral, written and observation techniques as tools. Though, the school was recognized by the government and conducted government examination since 1909, the fathers carried on their internal assessment.

While assessing the educational impact of MEP missionaries on the inhabitants of Pedong and its surroundings, people's perspectives have been taken into consideration. The study sample constituted Buddhists, Hindus, Protestants and Catholic respondents belonging to different ethnic groups and economic strata of the society. Purposefully, the questionnaires were sent to three distinctive occupational groups, viz. professionals, businessmen and non- workers. The respondents were senior citizens of the area. A stratified random sampling method was used to select samples. In Pedong area, for the first stratum, 50 persons from among the local doctors, lawyers, teachers, officers in banks and government officers were administered questionnaires.

The second stratum comprised 50 samples from business personnel. The third stratum included 50 persons like housewives, unemployed personnel and retired people. A total of 150 respondents were administered questionnaires. The following table shows the result of survey conducted in Pedong area among 150 respondents.

Perspectives of the Local Inhabitants, Pedong Region

| Categories of people | Dimensions | Strongly supported (%) | Supported (%) | Weakly supported (%) | Not supported (%) |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| Professionals | Education | 50.33 | 42.3 | 6.33 | 0.32 |
| Business personnel | Education | 52.66 | 41 | 6.32 | 00 |
| Non-workers | Education | 41.32 | 52 | 6.66 | 00 |

Source: Field survey

In the field of education, 50.33% professionals strongly supported the efforts of Catholic missionaries in the field of education. Less than half, ie. 42.3% of the respondents supported moderately the efforts of Catholic missionaries. A marginal 6.33% weakly supported the view. Those who opposed the involvement of Catholic missionaries in the area of education were less than one percent (0.32%). The business personnel also had more or less similar trend of opinion. A little more than half 52.66% strongly supported the involvement of Catholic missionaries in the area of education. 41% of the respondents moderately supported the efforts Catholic missionaries. While 6.32% weakly supported it. There was none in the lowest extreme. Less than half of the non workers (41.32)

strongly supported the role of Catholic missionaries in educational activities. More than half of the respondents (52%) were moderate in supporting the missionaries and (6.66%) were weakly supportive. There was none in the lowest extreme. The following are the main findings of the study.

2.1. Education

The beginnings of modern system of education in Pedong area may be traced to the efforts of the MEP missionaries. It is due to their strenuous efforts that many institutions were established. They imparted European as well as Indian education. The first educational institution, established by MEP in 1882, is now St. George's Higher Secondary School with 2325 students. The other schools which were initiated by MEP mission are still the feeding schools for St. George's higher secondary school.

2.2. Health Care programmers

The MEP priests imparted instructions to the young and old regarding physical and mental hygiene. Since the Priests were pragmatists, apart from instructions, they provided medical facilities. In order to maintain a sound body, Fr. Jules Douinel built a hospital in 1898. Later, he purchased a small plot of land above the presbytery and built quarters for the patients. Each patient had a self-contained flat in order to avoid quarrel with each other. After two years, Fr. Jules paid attention to another need of the people around. Apart from the sick and infirm, there were some old and disabled who needed a house to live in. In order to meet the need, he took up the construction of homes for them. The homes were just cluster of a few houses where the aged and disabled people of both sex were kept separately and fully supported by the mission. Towards the end of nineteenth century, MEP fathers were commonly known as 'doctor sahib' in that region.

2.3. Agricultural Technology

The fathers of MEP imparted agricultural technology to the locals. First of all the fathers with help of hostel students cleared the forest for cultivation. Oxens were exclusively used for ploughing the field. With high breed seeds the locals cultivated crops like rice, maize and other vegetables. It is worth mentioning the names of Fr. Martin and Fr. Durel who were instrumental in creating agricultural farm to cultivate tea and vegetables at Pedong and Maria Busty. The missionaries encouraged organic farming for the cultivation of vegetables. In this way the missionaries imparted rudiments of agricultural education for the economic development of the local society.

2.4. Unifier of various castes and tribes

The population included various castes and tribes. The immigrant Nepalese had brought with them the hierarchical concept of caste system to Pedong. The casteism being practiced on the basis of occupations had dangerous portends in

the society. The MEP fathers who knew no caste system interacted with Nepalese, Lepchas, Bhutias and Tibetans equally. Moreover, the fathers built the society on the fundamental principle of love which recognizes equality of all. They believed in the concept of the fatherhood of God and treated all as His children. The humanitarian work, especially educational endeavor was open to all irrespective of caste, faith and belief. Therefore, the French Missionaries through social integration created an egalitarian society towards the end of nineteenth and beginning of twentieth century.

2.5. Emergence of new faith and its impact

The missionaries established a new religion and its practices in Eastern Himalayas. A few local inhabitants of various castes and tribes accepted the new faith and its values. As a result in the same social group, there emerged a feeling 'we' and 'they' between the Christians and believers of traditional faith. However, it is evident from interviews and observations that there is perfect inter- religious harmony in this area. Hindus, Buddhists, Protestants and Catholics live and work together. Till date, no one has heard of any religious clash in this region, since neither the local people are hostile to missionaries nor are the missionaries overpowering.

2.6. Creation of new class

The MEP fathers considered education as an integral part of their mission work. With the spread of education in this area, there began to emerge a new class, the literate class. Education, government, literature, commerce and trade, technical, medical education etc became the prerogative of the new class. Among the new class was the small group who accepted new faith in great strides in the background of their socio- cultural moorings and became privileged class. All who came in touch with the missionaries assimilated a value system which is a blend of oriental and occidental in nature.

In conclusion, it may be stated that the pioneering work of the MEP fathers, in formal education brought Himalayan inhabitants in touch with modern education. Their holistic approach, by breaking the man made boundaries based on ethnicity and religion, generated a metamorphosis in the intellectual, mental, socio-economic, spiritual, moral and emotional aspects of people's life. The sweet fragrance of their selfless service still excites and refreshes the hearts of the natives that are filled with gratitude. In today's world, where people are enveloped by stress and strain and are struggling in isolation for material prosperity, we can't but reflect on the wholesome education envisaged and executed by the priests of Mission Estrangeres de Paris to strike a balance between pragmatic and idealistic way of life.

Footnotes

1. It is a Society of secular priests, founded in France in the year 1663 AD. The founders are Pallu and Lambert de la Mothe. The main objective of the Society is to promote the formation of local clergy in Asian countries.

- In connection with 'Tibet Mission' the MEP fathers worked in Pedong and Kalimpong region.
2. The British acquired Kalimpong region from Bhutan in 1865. They developed the area as a hill resort.
 3. India- Tibet route was through Nathu La, a mountain pass for the traders between Kalimpong and Lhasa. The MEP fathers hoped to get to Tibet through this pass by settling in Pedong.
 4. A rumour of the presence of Christians in Tibet spread among the Christians of Europe. Therefore, many religious groups were sent to Tibet by the Catholic authorities in Rome. In 1703, Tibet was entrusted to the capuchins fathers of Italian Province of Piconum, in the Marshes of Ancone by Propaganda fidei in Rome. The fathers with the permission of the King and Dalai Lama preached Christian doctrine till 1745. Unaware of the presence of Capuchin fathers in Tibet, the Jesuit missionaries reached Lhasa in 1716. After five years they left Lhasa leaving behind the Capuchins. Later in 1846 lazarist fathers laboured in Lhasa for about six weeks. Since the same year, MEP fathers tried to enter Tibet through various routes.
 5. In the ordinary sense of the word 'Nepali' denotes a citizen of Nepal. But in this paper, multi-ethnic people encompassing all the diverse tribes and castes who migrated to Pedong region from Nepal are considered Nepali. The MEP Fathers encountered Bhutias, Tibtans and Lepchas in Pedong on their arrival. After Tibet expedition in 1888 A.D, the British encouraged Nepalis to migrate to Pedong area. Therefore, the majority of the population, settled in the land, donated to the Fathers by the British government, is Nepalis.
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 7. L.S.S.O'Malley(1907)*Bengal District Gazetteers: Darjeeling*. New Delhi: Logos press, p. 181-82.
 8. Missions Catholique-1891
 9. Fr.Douinel's letter to Mother Ursula, dated 16/3/1920.
 10. Bible, Genesis, Chapter 1, verse 26.
 11. MEP Fathers witnessed the exploitation of the poor by the rich. In order to help the poor, Fathers initiated a co-operative society for the economic welfare of the people.
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Women in Leadership: The Transformative Challenge – An Ongoing Development for the 21st Century

Armond Aghakhanian, Cassandra Bailey, Kevin Caporicci, Jill Peck, and Robin Roth

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Armond1915@yahoo.com, clybailey@sbcglobal.net,

kevin.m.caporicci@jpl.nasa.gov

Creativeart81@cs.com, robinroth@aol.com

Abstract

Leadership is an ancient art rife with stories, models, and examples from the earliest writings of Greece, Rome, Scandinavia, and scripture, according to Boulais (2002) citing Bass (1990). Disparate notions of leadership result in a variance of leadership theory, as evidenced in the lexicon of leadership literature spanning centuries and cultures. Feminist leadership theory, however, differs from traditional leadership literature, which “focuses on males as the informants about leadership” (Waring, 2003, p.). The proposed study aims to describe the leadership views of various women, including their unique views concerning definition of leadership and an analysis of different sociocultural views.

Keywords: Multicultural Education - Female Leadership - Transgressional Leadership - Transformational Leadership – Technology - Business Management

1. Introduction

“How is it that the world has always belonged to men and that things have only begun to change only recently?” --- Simone deBeauvoir, *The Second Sex*

Leadership is an ancient art rife with stories, models, and examples from the earliest writings of Greece, Rome, Scandinavia, and scripture, according to Boulais (2002) citing Bass (1990). Disparate notions of leadership result in a variance of leadership theory, as evidenced in the lexicon of leadership literature spanning centuries and cultures. Feminist leadership theory, however, differs from traditional leadership literature, which “focuses on males as the informants about leadership” (Waring, 2003, p.). The proposed study aims to describe the leadership views of various women, including their unique views concerning definition of leadership and an analysis of different sociocultural views.

Statement of Problem

Just as women have been largely erased from history—creating the need for constant reinvention among women for mentors and role models— so, too, have race considerations generally been absent from leadership literature. A discussion of leadership must include considerations of gender and race; therefore, leadership literature needs new metaphors founded in “connection,

artistry, creativity, vision, communication, morality, emotional intelligence and spirituality" (Boulais, 2002, p. 1) in order to challenge what feminist historian Gerda Lerner (1997) calls "the patriarchal principal" that leadership is masculine (p. 99). Not only are the leadership views of women of color in need of examination, but a sociocultural analysis of leadership from the viewpoint of a diverse cross section of powerful women is needed.

Purpose of Study

The proposed dissertation, through a variety of interviews, seeks to answer the following questions and more, emphasizing the need for intellectual discourse on leadership that embraces transformative social change through service, activism, and women's unique roles. Additionally, the study aims to fully explore women's views on leadership, particularly the views of traditionally marginalized and disenfranchised women of color.

2. Research Questions

Must successful female leaders drape themselves in masculinity in order to fit in, or do women and other minorities – asserts Rosenthal (2000; as cited in Stelter, 2002) -- simply adopt the power mechanisms of the ruling elite in order to fit in? How can organizations today better understand women in leadership roles? Are sexist stereotypes still standard in the general perception of leaders? Is leadership, by definition, a problem needing the creation of new language, complete with new vision and metaphors? Do many women seek redefinition of the notion of leadership itself? Do some women in positions of power consciously (or subconsciously) reflect baby boomer preoccupations with mainstream, masculine, militaristic leadership models as described by Rodriguez, Green, & James (2003)? Do women-- if emulating trait theories akin to the so-called great man – merely create copycat notions of leadership, perpetuating power hierarchies and hegemonies, designed and maintained by a certain class of elite men? How are notions of gender and leadership—radically, really, after thousands of years of patriarchy—shaping leaders of tomorrow, a regardless of gender? Will the future of organizational leadership be predicated by inclusion? How will feminist gains reshaping a pedagogical approach to leadership?

3. Significance of Study

With the appointment of Drew Gilpin Faust as the first female president in Harvard's 371-year history and Oprah Winfrey's celebrated African leadership camp for girls, the topic of women as leaders is timely. Gender differences in leadership is an apt exploration, affirms Stelter (2002) citing Gibson's (1995) study of the rapid rise of women in the workforce on a global level, accompanied by a surge in ethnic diversity, and increased role of women in leadership positions. Although more women are working in top management positions, women are still largely absent from top leadership roles both nationally and internationally, a discrepancy observed in a pay gap so familiar it's almost cliché.

Women make only 75.5 cents for every dollar that men earn, according to a new release by the U.S. Census Bureau. Between 2002 and 2003, median annual earnings for full-time year-round women workers shrank by 0.6 percent, to

\$30,724, while men's earnings remained unchanged, at \$40,668. The 1.4 percent decrease in the gender wage ratio is the largest backslide in 12 years (since 1991). The 2003 Census data also show the first decline in women's real earnings since 1995 (Longley, 2004).

The women included in the proposed study are racially, economically, spiritually, educationally, and economically diverse, with a variety of views regarding career, family and sexual orientation. The study raises important questions about the socialization of girls, and differences centered on socially accepted notions of gender in bringing up children. The work of Ruderman (2004) raises questions about how schools today are preparing girls to be leaders, along with the role of mentors. Lastly, leadership literature, in general, is problematic within the "context of a Western industrialized culture . . . idealized individualism and rational thought over emotions," according to Stelter (2002) citing House & Aditya's (1997).

Limitations of Study

Some women leaders might not see the importance of female role models and mentors for women in leadership or society in general. Women leaders might not respond to requests for interviews because they are too busy, apathetic or fail to see the importance of such a study. Additionally, leadership literature about women of multicultural backgrounds—primarily Black or Hispanic women—is basically non-existent.

4. Organization of Study

From feminist community activists, academics, writers and rabbis to politicians, business owners, non-profit directors and nuns, women leaders featured in the proposed study exist in a multitude of careers and callings, as evidenced by the diverse cross-section of proposed study participants. The study is derived from a multilingual and multicultural perspective, rooted in female empowerment.

As the daughters of feminism's second wave—Generation X and Next—enter the workforce alongside men, these women create new models of leadership, making transformational and servant leadership two of the most popular leadership theories discussed by researchers today (Smith, et al, 2004). Women today might have grown up taking feminist advances for granted—even denigrating the term "feminist" as profane—yet women's advances can't be discounted in emergence of new models and literature.

Review of Literature

5. Traits Approach

Leadership literature's emergence at the onset of the 20th century still makes people balk with sexist, racist overtones of the trait approach, or the "the great man theory," the predominate mode of leadership study throughout the first half of the last century, emphasizing biological factors of sex, height, appearance, and intelligence (Rodriguez, Green, & James, 2003). Trait theory finds its apex in Stogdill's studies (1948) (1970), according to Rodriguez, Green and James (2003) citing Northouse's (2001) delineation of the traits Stogdill deemed

essential to leaders such as intelligence, attentiveness, intuition, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability. Sexist findings using sexist methodology, Stogdill's surveys didn't consider the role of women; it's no surprise, then, that with an absence of leadership literature speaking to women's unique experiences, women fashioned leadership in response to the dictates of men. So, too, have trait studies failed to focus on "generational preferences" of Generation X (born between 1965 and 1979); along with baby boomers (born between 1946-1964), Generation X comprises the majority of today's workforce, with the emergence during the past few years of Generation Y (Nexters or the Internet Generation). With the rapid retirement of the baby boomers, a workforce of Xers and newbie Nexters is potentially problematic to a workforce defined by leadership literature and theory predominately defined by, about, and for a certain class of Caucasian males. Proficient leaders of today and tomorrow face challenges of a global market and demographic fluctuations in the workforce; awareness of leadership traits and behaviors believed to be essential by Generation X—the most diverse workforce in terms of race and gender in American history-- is key to making the transition from an aging, staid workforce of boomers to the scarcely researched preferences of Generation X (Rodriguez, Green & Ree, 2003).

Such study is relevant to an analysis of women's role in leadership, along with the need for literature on the topic, as the leadership behaviors preferred by Generation X – fulfillment, flexibility, along with the primacy of the work environment—is transformational according to Rodriguez, Green, & James (2003) citing Bass & Avolio's 1994 definition and Loomis's (2000) study of Xer's need for strong relationships in the workplace. Generation X consists of a workforce more diverse in terms of education race, and gender than previous generations, and are adamant about sharing and partaking in the life of their organization (Rosener, 1999, p. 9). With preferred behaviors and leadership styles, Generation X's contribution to the workforce mirrors that of women in general, a group no longer underrepresented in the workforce, only in the literature.

With an absence of theory and mentors, women emerging as leaders during feminism's second wave often adopted – such as Shakespeare's infamous Lady Macbeth, or cross-dressing 19th century writers such as George Sand--a mask of masculinity in terms of leadership traits and behavior. This "if you can't beat 'em join 'em" attitude mirrors male values, making men's activities—primarily war and politics—primary to leadership ideals (Lerner, 1997, p. 53). Accordingly, findings from Mann (1959) and Lord et al. (1986) emphasize the importance of non-feminine traits to leadership, such as masculinity, seemingly negating the possibility of women leaders with the exception of old, desexualized, "manly" types. Perceptions of masculinity are seemingly integral to successful female leadership, according to the trait perspective, where leadership is an innate given, although Rodriguez et al (2003) claim contemporary leadership theory is less about gender than generation.

6. Skills Approach

One is not born, one becomes a woman, writes Simone deBeauvoir in *The Second Sex*, her controversial classic of second wave feminism. Just as the societal concept of woman is shaped by constraints of sex and gender, a skills approach to leadership theory emphasizes learned abilities. Katz' (1955) "Skills of an Effective Administrator" remains the benchmark for such study. Effective leadership is a distinctly American problem, according to Katz, as big as the nation, with viewpoints just as diverse. Not surprisingly, Katz claims, an absence of agreement exists detailing the "makeup" of an effective leader. This uncertainty is lost on Katz, however, who posits leadership as a skilled set of learned behaviors and conditioned responses predicated by three basic, interwoven leadership skills: technical, human, and conceptual, all which are useful for analysis. (Pp. 33-35). Leaders proficient in human skills are intuitively able to work well cooperatively, and ". . . everything which an executive says or does (or leaves unsaid or undone) has an effect on his associates, his true self will, in time, show through" (Katz, 1955, p.34). Of interest is Katz' emphasis on the male referent *his*, not so much for the sexism inherent of the time, but the necessary exclusion of females not just in the workforce, but in leadership studies in general. Just as Katz' examples focus on "two men" (p. 35), conceptual skill or "creative ability"; all three skill levels vary in importance related to responsibility. Ironically, the excluded female subject has long been revered for multitasking ability and adept interrelation of three skills, yet her value to Katz' leadership theory is not considered. The implication, Katz asserts, is that executives trained according to skills required by job description and title will create widespread management opportunities (p. 39). Innate leadership ability is overrated, Katz repeats, secondary to development of leaders through trial and error, or "practice and training" [where] "even those lacking the natural ability can improve their performance and effectiveness" (p. 40).

7. LMX Theory

Leader-Member Exchange Theory, also called LMX or Vertical Dyad Linkage Theory, is initially appealing to women: it's all about relationship building. Leaders establish connections with team-members through a series of tacit exchange agreements. Linked to organizational effectiveness, the theory has the potential to create a strong sense of community, as long as all members actively seek involvement and encouragement.

LMX leaders create inner and outer circle relationships that either aid or negatively effect personal and professional development and relationship building. Within a group's inner circle, a higher level of responsibility is given, which can negatively affect other co-workers. The out-group often feels discriminated against, which can result in self-helplessness, resentment, and a non-active role. Additional drawbacks include frustration and leader constraint on the part of a leader compelled to such interaction. In order for these role identities to be understood, the leader must nurture the inner circle, while balancing power on their own. According to Dansereau, Graen, & Haga (1975) three stages must be considered when joining a group: role taking, role making and routinization. In the first step, the member joins the team and is assessed

by the leader in terms of abilities and talents. Based on this, the leader may offer additional opportunities to demonstrate capabilities. Another key factor in this stage is the discovery by both parties of how the other likes to be respected. In the second phase of role making, the leader and member take part in an unstructured and informal negotiation whereby a role is created for the member--and the often-tacit promises of benefits and power-- in return for dedication and loyalty. Trust building is very important at this stage, and any felt betrayal, especially by the leader, can result in the member's relegation to the out-group. This negotiation includes relationship factors as well as pure work-related ones, and a member who is similar to the leader in various ways is more likely to succeed. This explains why mixed gender relationships are generally less successful in the workplace than same-gender ones; the same effect also applies to cultural and racial differences. In the third phase, routinization, a pattern of ongoing social exchange between the leader and the member becomes established (*Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 13, 46-78).

Much of the literature related to LMX takes a negative stance regarding power struggles vivid in inequality and discriminative roles, and does not explain how to create high quality exchanges (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993).

The difficulties are illustrated by Stogdill (1974), who concludes that: "There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (p. 7). While early research defined leadership in terms of innate individual traits, later research shifts emphasis on the behavioral functions of leaders. Subsequently, Fiedler's contingency theory is introduced, wherein leaders exercise different leadership "styles" depending on the group-task situation and the nature of interpersonal relations between leaders and followers (Summer, 2000).

The relationship between LMX and employee behavior is observed in a qualitative study by Wayne & Green (1993), which concludes that organizations faced with increasing domestic and global competition should emphasize the quality of exchange relationships affecting subordinates' commitment and good will. It is important for organizations to initiate sound development programs to ensure control and longevity. The recommendations are critical for the empowerment of female mentors and leaders, who generally emphasize "feminine principles" (Helgesen, 1997), along with building future corporate cultures highlighting communication at all levels. Team meetings create a team environment where all players work toward jointly developed common goals. Supervisors should provide equal training and career development plans to subordinates, recognizing each employee's potential and capabilities to encourage an organizational culture of growth and innovation. Subordinates should be afforded self-development training to increase their knowledge, skills, and self-confidence on the job. In addition, supervisors should encourage subordinates to provide feedback and vice-versa. Communication is key to establishing a sense of trust in the exchange relationship (Truckenbrodt, 2000, p. 5).

8. Situational Models

Situational leadership is commonly used among women leaders. This is due to the nature of the environment and the differences in employees' skills, backgrounds, and personalities. Northouse (2004) defines situational leadership as a "match" between the leadership styles of those in positions of power with subordinates' needs (p. 236). "The 'best' leadership style depends on the organizational context," posits Rosener (1989), characterized as "transformational" or "interactive" with an emphasis on communication, concern, and positive interaction. Transformational leaders, then, work within situations for the best outcome. Ironically, women's traditional gender roles emphasizing cooperation, support, gentleness, communication and service -- while bolstering children and spouses -- comes into play for successful women leaders who "support the work of others" in non-traditional leadership styles necessary for modern global economies and a diverse workforce. Women socialized to juggle domestic demands find it natural to blend situational leadership under a transformational, interactive umbrella.

9. Transformational Leadership

Female leaders use different leadership styles from men, although early advances of female corporate types emulated male models. Women leaders today realize a complex interconnection between their role in the workplace and those afforded them from traditional gender roles centered on domestic duties. According to Rosener (1989), women are successfully giving leadership a makeover through non-traditional leadership styles—i.e., those characteristics of women, which are key to success in burgeoning global economy. Northouse (2007) identifies transformational leadership as a general way of thinking about leadership that emphasizes ideals, inspiration, innovations, and individual concerns. Transformational leadership requires that leaders be aware of how their behavior relates to the needs of their subordinates and the changing dynamics within their organizations (p. 194).

Although both male and female leaders experience work-family conflict, contradicting Helgesen's (1997) claim that women—not men—are more focused on family, men, she believes, are inclined to view leadership as transactional exchanges of power and rewards. In contrast, the women leaders Rosener (1989) interviewed describe their leadership as "transformational: more focused on the collective interest of the group, which Rosener calls "interactive":

these women actively work to make their interactions with subordinates positive for everyone involved. More specifically the women encourage participation, share power and information, enhance other people's self-worth, and get others excited about their work (Rosener, 1989, p. 4).

Hallmarks of interactive leadership are inclusion, participation, and conversational approaches with subordinates, who, conversely, aren't viewed so much as hierarchically, lower, but just another member of the team. Additionally, Rosener (1989) reveals the women focus on employee strengths rather than weakness, along with an enthusiasm and excitement that "come naturally to them" before honing their "skills and styles over time" according to the situational style afforded by the organization. Organizations traditionally steeped in patriarchy and hierarchies are experiencing a rebirth.

. . . interactive leadership may emerge as the management style of choice for many organizations. For interactive leadership to take root, however, organizations must be willing to question the notion that the traditional command-and-control leadership style that has brought success in earlier decades is the only way to get results. This may be hard in some organizations, especially those with long histories of male-oriented, command-and-control leadership" (Rosener, 1999, p. 9).

It's erroneous, however, to posit interactive leadership as distinctly centered on the unique concerns of women, Rosener cautions. While some women may prefer the traditional, corporate vibe of yesterday, organizations must reevaluate notions of leadership, effectively smashing glass ceilings everywhere (p. 10).

10. Transactional Theory

Transactional Theory refers to the bulk of leadership models, which focuses on exchanges between leaders and followers. Contingent rewards influence behavior through incentives; passive managers use correction or punishment to control behavior; active managers *actively* monitor work performance by using corrective methods to ensure work completion and standards. Lastly, Laissez-Faire Leadership features an indifferent leader with a "hands-off" approach to workers and their performance. This leader ignores the needs of others, does not respond to problems, or does not monitor performance.

Transactional leadership behavior is used to one degree or another by most leaders. However, a leader should not exclusively or primarily practice transactional leadership behavior to influence others, and those who do experience common problems. Some use transactional behavior as a tool to manipulate others for selfish personal gain. In addition, transactional leadership can place too much emphasis on the "bottom line"; by its very nature this leadership is short-term with the goal of maximizing efficiency and profits. Finally, the transactional leader can pressure others to engage in unethical practices by offering strong rewards or punishments. While transactional leadership seeks to influence others by exchanging work for wages, it does not build on a worker's need for meaningful work, or tap into their creativity. If utilized as the primary leader behavior, transactional leadership can lead to an environment permeated by position, power, perks and politics. The most effective and beneficial leadership behavior to achieve long-term success and improved performance is *transformational* leadership. (Thomas, Greg, 2003).

B.M. Bass's (1985) model of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership have continued to be empirically tested, in both organizational and leadership studies. In a study developed by Spinelli (Hospital Topics, 2006) the author evaluated leadership orientation and outcome factors, through a detailed questionnaire that validated the need for a transformational guidance of leadership.

Is there a relationship between the leadership styles of hospital CEOs and subordinates managers' self-reported willingness to exert extra effort, perception of leader effectiveness and satisfaction with their leader? Findings revealed that the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership and the outcome factors were stronger and more positive than were the transactional and laissez-faire styles (Spinelli, Robert, Spring 2006, Vol. 84 Issue 2, p11-18, 8p).

11. Attachment Styles

Effective cross-cultural leadership is predicated by attachment style influences, according to Manning (2003). Relationships and open perspectives are integral to meeting the widespread challenges of global leadership and diversity; these competencies, however, are difficult to develop and instill in leaders: more innate than based on acquired skills, leadership traits based on attachment styles must be considered when selecting today's leaders. This form of extraordinary leadership derives from early experiences and perceptions of self and others (Manning, 2003, p. 1). Citing Gregersen, Morrison, and Black (1998), Manning (2003) reveals that 85 percent of Fortune 500 companies consider their organizations lacking in terms of global leaders; furthermore, a number of managers sent abroad from the United States returned due to difficulties adjusting to life abroad (p. 1). With the ongoing diversity of a global workforce, attachment style leadership skills cannot be underestimated. Making the most of new experiences, relationships with subordinates, and inspiring teamwork and emotional identification-- regardless of nation, culture, race, or socio-economic background-- predicate successful global leadership. In this way, Manning (2003) asserts, universal attachment theory, as posited by Bowlby (1969) and Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters & Wall (1978) is a necessary prerequisite for leadership competencies. Attachment style is not only rooted in transformational leadership and emotional intelligence, but also integral to the success of future global leaders. (Manning, 2003, p.2-4). Although early feminists argued against distinct gender differences between men and women, as do some organizational theorists, Boatwright and Forrest (2000; as cited in Stelter, 2000) use attachment theory as the basis for gender differences, making early caregiver relationships—presumably female—primary to an analysis of gender differences in leadership.

12. Transformational Tales

Leadership is necessitated worldwide by storytelling, symbols, parable, and epic, according to Boulais (2002), positing the primacy of stories—children's literature, in fact—in teaching leadership themes with a focus on inspiration of team and

vision (p. 2). The findings of Boulais (2002) reveal the majority of children's literature studied positively resonates with imagery presented by Kouzes and Posner (1995) as one of the five leadership frameworks: inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart (pp. 2-4). Although Boulais' framework of children's literature as starting point for leadership theory resembles tenets of transformative leadership, the study, like the rest of leadership lexicon, generally fails to focus on the female voice. The majority of books Boulais (2002) references feature male characters, a useful feature for creating a "great man" or inuring the copycat masculinity of early female forms of leadership, but surprisingly inept when it comes to equipping new generations of leaders, most notably Generation X, Next, and the vast numbers of women within.

Klenke's (2002) emphasis on the Cinderella story as a metaphor for the fairy tale ascendancy of three remarkable women—Mary Kay, Ruth Simmons, and Oprah Winfrey—references the transformative power of story and myth to "provide a moral compass for what is right and wrong and serve as a barometer for change" (p. 1). An ironic juxtaposition between stories generally perceived by feminists to fetter females with unrealistic expectations of prince charming and life "happily ever after," Klenke's focus on equating three extraordinarily successful American women with the pejorative "girl" who escapes ordinary—even evil—surroundings through extraordinary beauty and magic (ultimately resulting in a handsome, rich man and an archetypal life of happiness thereafter) reeks of conditioning abhorrent to feminist theory. Granted, Klenke's analysis of three women leaders leaves out the primacy of a prince—these women had no male love interest to transform their lives--arguably men hindered women's lives in Klenke's account, such as Oprah Winfrey's rape by a male cousin at the age of 13, instead focusing on leadership competencies of contemporary women. The genius of Klenke's analysis is not her focus on anti-feminist female stereotypes, but the role of storytelling in leadership literature as a tool for organizational transformation. Citing Bolman & Deal's (1991) belief of stories as central to organization's myths and practices, Klenke positions Ruth Simmons, an African American college president, as an icon of female leadership. Ultimately, Klenke's Cinderella metaphor is as loaded in as much patriarchal nonsense as the majority of leadership literature in general. Winfrey, like Simmons and Mary Kay, "overcame adversity, poverty, and illness in pursuit of their visions and goals" to become models of what Denning (2001) deems springboard stories of hope and inspiration. The importance of Klenke's study is an analysis of three indisputably remarkable women in the role of contemporary leadership literature, demonstrating leadership both transformational and transforming, along with the primacy of emotional intelligence and the power to build relationships of trust (Klenke, 2002, p. 7). Most importantly, Klenke's study furthers the oft-overlooked study of leadership as experienced by ethnically and racially diverse women.

13. Perspectives on Race & Gender in Leadership

Rendering the glass ceiling as obsolete as a fairy tale's glass slipper isn't easy, especially when leadership literature about women—primarily Black or Hispanic women—is basically non-existent. Stelter (2002) cites Boatwright and Forrest's

(2000) explanation for the existence of the glass ceiling merely as a byproduct of gender differences in leadership.

If traditional perspective of leadership center on masculine-oriented concepts of authoritarian and task-oriented behavior, then these same perspectives may contribute to a glass ceiling essentially prohibiting relationship-oriented (i.e. feminine) leadership behaviors from being recognized as viable leadership behavior (Stelter, 2002, p. 2).

The conception of leadership among African-American female college presidents focuses on the absence not just of women in leadership theory, but race, claims Waring (2003). Just as Ruderman (1999) claims leadership literature as extensive concerning women, her claim negates the role of women in leadership outside academia or corporations. Where are women in the arts, the media? And where is the literature on women of color?

"The research on women in management has ignored women of color" according to Waring (2003); instead, leadership literature pertaining to women focuses on a monolithic grouping -- not only highlighting the experiences of a select group of privileged, Ivy League white women, according to feminist theologian and Duke University professor Betsy Alden--but neglects to consider differences in race and ethnicity.

Where as white women frequently reference the "glass ceiling" as blocking their advancement up the career ladder, women of color often characterize the barriers they encounter as comprising a "concrete ceiling" – one that is more dense and less easily shattered. The underpinnings of these barriers include stereotypes, visibility, and scrutiny; questioning of authority and credibility; lack of "fit" in the workplace; double outsider status; and exclusion from informal networks.

Women of color (African - American, Latinas, and Asian women) are clearly not a monolithic group. The personal and professional profiles of the African American women research participants are quite different from those of Latinas and Asian women. African - American women also face issues growing out of their unique history in the United States...the unique historical experience of African-Americans in this country, which include slavery, influence the relationships with others in the workforce. (Catalyst, p. 3)

Gender differences in leadership is a timely exploration, affirms Stelter (2002) citing Gibson's (1995) study of the rapid rise of women in the workforce on a global level, accompanied by a surge in ethnic diversity, and increased role of women in leadership positions.

Eagly (2007) makes note of the ongoing disparity of gender and race concerning leadership literature. "This mix of apparent advantage and disadvantage" experienced by women leaders is indicative of the women's movements overall progress toward gender parity, along with the general lack of achievement of equality goal. Eagly cites journalists' and editorial writer's recent polemics against women in leadership, referencing a New York Times editorial (Herbert, 2006, p. A29) positing the crippling effect of a Hillary Clinton presidency "handicapped by gender" (Eagly, 2007, p. 2). Although there are women in power, with key qualifications, the lack of public support continues to lack.

Organizations discriminate against women, according to Ruderman, through traditionally arranged corporate scenarios and hierarchies, which, by design, omit women's different ways of experience. Top female executives are forced to "grow into senior leadership" without mentors, creating "dead ends" or glass ceilings. In addition, corporate culture is inherently sexist, "framed by the male majority" referenced by Helgesen's (1995) critique of Mintzberg's (1968) diary studies of the lives of four male executives. Women leaders seek more than masculine models, posit Ruderman (2004), Helgesen (1995) and Alden (interview). Along with the necessity of other women as mentors and role models, and an organizational climate conducive to women's unique ways of work, leadership culture needs an organizational facelift.

"Fully including women requires fostering growth and development on their own terms," according to Ruderman (2004). What this means is creating an "authentic" environment in alignment with women's personal values and belief systems as distinct from "macho" male leadership styles. Reframing organizational culture to value women's different leadership styles also means valuing female forms of identity, which women often define in relation to terms such as "attachment" and "intimacy" in connection with relationships. Creating mentoring programs assists in the creation of women's connections and identity. (p. 43). Women must feel empowered to act with authority, gain self-understanding, and be aligned with organizations that foster a female friendly vibe. (pp. 44-47). The failure to address distinctly female forms of leadership can be costly for organizations, reflected in high percentage of corporate women who leave organizational life (Ruderman, 2004, p. 42). Furthermore, in 1999, Gardiner and Tiggemann (as cited in Stelter, 2000) posit the necessity of understanding women's unique leadership roles and capabilities as distinct from male stereotypes. Not doing so might result in possible mental health issues associated with alienation and a lack of support for women. Gender equity—and racial parity-- argues Oakley (2000; as cited in Stelter, 2002) is an ethical issue. While all leaders contacted via telephone or email are close to researchers' professional lives and interests (from childhood friends to colleagues) their response -- or lack thereof -- raises crucial questions about the importance of female role models and mentors, not just for women in leadership but society in general. For those traditionally lacking leadership mentors – women and ethnic minorities -- an absence of response seems stereotypical and conditioned, albeit unexpected.

Similar to the amalgamation of horror and humor marking the Guerilla Girls' 1985 takeover of the Museum of Modern Art (MOMA), when a group of activists, in full guerilla drag, challenged an absence of women in an exhibition billed as the most inclusive showing of contemporary art at the time (of 169 artists represented, just thirteen were women; the rest were western, White, and male), women are challenging patriarchal perceptions of leadership, whether in art, media, organized religion, politics, or the home. Much has changed since Betty Freidan's groundbreaking study on women. A majority of women in the workforce are effectively "out of the house" and now the Speaker of the House, but organizations are still in the closet about the role of women in the workforce.

14. Nature of the Study

The intended socio-cultural qualitative study focuses on the leadership views of various women leaders---from Fortune 500 company directors to grandmothers — from across the globe. It is with this global perspective, that both theory and practice foreshadow future goals and objectives. The participants help to mold female leadership, helping to bridge local and worldly views and perspectives.

Objective

Although leadership is a primary issue of study, especially in ever-changing global economy, women's roles, contributions and unique definitions of leadership are oft overlooked. The hypothesis of this paper is that women in leadership positions --- no matter what their nationality --- see their leadership roles as a deeply personal—even spiritual--journey. Whether or not they embrace or shun the feminist label, women leaders echo Northouse's (2004) reference to Bass (1985): women reframe leadership styles more suited for them, and reject traditional notions of leadership altogether, with an emphasis on feelings and inclusion, participation, sharing, honesty and caring.

15. Analysis Unit, Population and Sample

A non-clinical sample consisting of women in leadership roles is intended, focusing on diverse, multicultural and ethnic backgrounds. Additionally, the participants hold a cross section of upper management positions in education, politics, business, and the fine arts. Their ages range from 35 – 70. The target population and sample were the same. Participants will be voluntary and pre-screened, obtained through referrals and recommendations. The questionnaire will be administered by the researchers, to make sure that there are no biases, and that the questions are ethnically appropriate. We also want to control the social desirability will be maintained by ensuring all candidates clearly understand the questions presented.

16. Characteristics studied

The characteristics studied examine leadership styles used in both the work and home environment. The study also aims to explore various definitions of leadership, and examine the future of women in leadership, along with individual perceptions related to the changing roles of women.

17. Data collection (including sampling method)

The proposed participants will be interviewed in person or via telephone or email. All responses will be dictated or taped. The taped interviews will be transcribed. A sample questionnaire will be administered prior to using it for actual research purposes. Data was collected through questionnaires, texts, in-depth interviews and participant observation and institutional ethnography. Questionnaires were used to obtain demographic information among participants studied, along with ascertaining identifiable characteristics of the population. The most successful

and significant means for research (response rate) relied primarily on the interview method. Field notes and participant observation and ethnography were also used. Due to participants' diverse locations, the researcher focused the study on accessible cities containing numerous professional and personal contacts; these people were crucial for establishing initial contact between participants and researcher via email and telephone; questionnaires and surveys were also initially sent via email. Once subjects were committed and interviews (and rapport) established, the researcher's role became that of ethnographer. We will also be using letters and memos from the women in high leadership positions, and observe them at the discipline.

18. Instrument (including sampling method)

Research will be done to ascertain if there is a preexisting questionnaire that can be used. We will use a volunteer sample of 20 women.

19. Analytical Techniques

As an open-ended qualitative case study was employed, with the intent of investigating women's unique views of leadership. Additionally, a non-experimental, descriptive design was used. An exploration of variables associated with successful leadership was investigated, such as socioeconomic background, education and cultural background, along with participants' relationship (or lack thereof) with a supportive female mentor. As interpretation of the open-ended questions could lack clear validity, multiple sources of information were used, along with checking interpretations with the individuals' interviewed. Clarifying research biases and assumptions also addressed the question of internal validity. While this study could lack reliability, the interviewing method is common, approachable and reliable when used with triangulation and cross-validation. Finally, data is augmented with ethnography. Transcripts of exploratory interviews with participants were examined for thematic analysis. Debriefing and informed consent were also used.

20. Summary

Echoing the timeworn feminist strain that the personal is the political, Leadership theory's traditional emphasis on masculine traits positions women as subordinate in status, either forcing the adoption of male-centered autocratic attitudes and values, or catapulting a woman to an invisible glass ceiling. In contrast, transformational and servant leadership's emphasis on traditionally woman-centered characteristics – stereotypically female traits traditionally denigrated as women's work-- demonstrates the changing role of leadership and valuation of female traits.

As the daughters of feminism's second wave—Generation X and Next—enter the workforce alongside men, these women create new models of leadership, making transformational and servant leadership two of the most popular leadership theories discussed by researchers today (Smith, et al, 2004). Women today

might have grown up taking feminist advances for granted—even denigrating the term “feminist” as profane—yet women’s advances can’t be discounted in emergence of new models and literature. However, many women seek redefinition of notion of leadership itself.

21. Conclusion

For those believing leadership literature—like all cultural theory—exists in a post-feminist success, Simone de Beauvoir’s (1949) assertion in the revolutionary the *Second Sex* that “there is an absolute human type, the masculine” (xxi) continues to hold relevance today. How could women ever have had genius when denied all chance to demonstrate genius, de Beauvoir (1949, 714) posits; likewise Alden wonders how women today—the generation x and next of which so and so writes—can fashion leadership without mentors? When prevailing notions of women in leadership continue to focus on what NY Times Op-Ed Columnist Maureen Dowd calls Hillary Clinton’s “masculine” side or –sad state—and gender differences in leadership continue to be discredited women, even causing psychological and physical harm, Successful organizations of the future must, as Stelter (2002) posits, “not only understand leadership in terms of gender, but also its contribution to workforce and organizational effectiveness” (p. 5).

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Identité raciale et ethnique, apprentissage de l'enseignement, et appropriation des TICE: Vers une pédagogie culturellement pertinente et critique

Francis Bangou

Université d'Ottawa – Canada

fbangou@uottawa.ca

Résumé

Cette communication traitera des rapports qui existent entre l'appropriation des TICE, les inégalités sociales et l'apprentissage de l'enseignement. Plus précisément, nous allons illustrer comment l'intégration des TICE au sein d'un programme de formation d'enseignants a permis à deux enseignantes stagiaires de couleur de lutter contre le racisme en leur donnant l'opportunité de s'approprier les outils technologiques mis à leur disposition (Jouët, 2000). Des données concernant l'expérience des deux futures enseignantes ont pu être recueillies sur une durée de 12 mois grâce à des observations, des prises de notes, des entretiens semi-dirigés, et des corpus de salons de discussion. Il apparaît que l'apprentissage des deux enseignantes stagiaires a été un succès en partie parce qu'elles ont pu s'approprier les TICE qui leur étaient disponibles, en les modelant à leur image et cela dans des buts d'épanouissement personnel et d'accomplissement professionnel.

Mots-clés: Pédagogie critique - compétence interculturelle - formation professionnelle

1. Introduction

Les technologies de l'information et de la communication pour l'enseignement (TICE) sont utilisées de manière accrue dans les lycées et écoles de France et il est désormais indispensable que les enseignants de langues étrangères soient capables d'intégrer les TICE dans leur enseignement (Mangenot, 2000).

Cependant, certains chercheurs soulignent que l'intégration des nouvelles technologies dans le cadre de la formation d'enseignants pourrait d'une part amplifier certaines inégalités liées à leur accès et d'autre part permettre de lutter contre ces inégalités si leur intégration était fondée sur une véritable réflexion pédagogique (Warschauer, 2000).

Cette communication portera sur les rapports qui existent entre l'appropriation des TICE, les inégalités sociales et l'apprentissage de l'enseignement. Plus précisément, nous allons illustrer comment l'intégration des TICE au sein d'un programme de formation d'enseignants a permis à deux enseignantes stagiaires de couleur de lutter contre le racisme en leur donnant l'opportunité de s'approprier les outils technologiques mis à leur disposition (Jouët, 2000).

Tout d'abord les concepts de racisme, d'identité, d'apprentissage, et d'appropriation seront définis. Ensuite, nous présenterons notre étude afin d'en

résumer les principaux résultats. Enfin, nous tenterons de présenter un cadre théorique de formation à l'enseignement qui permettrait de lutter contre les inégalités sociales tout en ayant un effet bénéfique sur l'apprentissage de l'enseignement des langues étrangères et l'appropriation des TICE.

2. Cadre Théorique

2.1. Racisme et identité

Pour beaucoup, (Weinberg, 1990, McIntosh, 1989) le racisme ne peut se définir uniquement en termes d'actes discriminatoires isolés. C'est aussi un phénomène institutionnel permettant de maintenir les privilèges des groupes sociaux dominants. Internet est souvent décrit comme un espace où les marqueurs physiques ne sont pas pertinents car ils y sont invisibles (Nakamura, 2000). Une telle conception est fondée sur une perspective biologique du concept de race qui renverrait principalement à des caractéristiques physiques telles que la pigmentation. Selon Foucault (1971) le langage et le discours ne nous permettent pas de décrire et d'analyser notre environnement de manière neutre. En fait, l'identité est façonnée de façon dynamique à travers des discours sociaux, culturels, et historiques. Nous interagissons quotidiennement avec de tels discours car ces derniers sont inscrits dans nos institutions et nos relations sociales. Si nous pensons que la race et l'ethnicité sont aussi des concepts culturels ancrés dans le discours, il devient alors important de les prendre en compte quand nous parlons des TICE. Les stéréotypes qui existent dans le monde réel sont aussi reproduits sur internet (Nakamura, 2000). De plus, il est vrai que l'identité raciale devient un facteur important quand nous sommes amenés à créer une présence et une identité virtuelle en choisissant par exemple un pseudonyme dans un salon de discussion, ou en créant un site internet personnel.

2.2. Apprentissage

Les diverses théories de l'activité nous permettront de définir l'apprentissage en tant qu' "activité humaine médiatisée par des artefacts techniques et/ou symboliques culturellement élaborés et des relations sociales" (Brodin, 2002, p. 156). Les connaissances sont tout d'abord co-construites entre l'apprenant et la communauté sociale à l'aide d'outils techniques et symboliques. Ces connaissances co-construites dans un premier temps à un niveau social seront dans un second temps appropriées/internalisées par l'apprenant. Selon cette perspective, tout apprentissage nécessite la participation à des activités pertinentes réalisées dans des contextes eux-mêmes pertinents qui permettent à l'apprenant de pratiquer et de négocier ses connaissances (Wertsch, 1981). De ce fait, tout apprentissage est modelé par des processus historiques et socioculturels. Si nous inscrivons le processus d'apprentissage de l'enseignement dans une telle perspective, il devient alors dynamique, et situé.

2.4. Appropriation

Selon Jouët (2000), l'appropriation des TIC est un processus de constitution d'un soi. L'appropriation se construit donc dans la relation avec l'objet de communication. *"Sa construction met en jeu des processus d'acquisition de savoirs (découverte de la logique des fonctionnalités de l'objet), de savoir-faire (apprentissage des codes et du mode opératoire de la machine) et d'habilités pratiques"* (p. 502). L'appropriation des TIC est aussi fondée sur une mise en jeu de l'identité personnelle et sociale. Souvent des individus vont s'approprier des TIC à des fins d'émancipation personnelle, d'accomplissement dans le travail, ou à des fins de sociabilité.

Selon Fouché (2000) il est nécessaire d'étudier la façon dont les personnes de couleur produisent et redéfinissent les nouvelles technologies en fonction de leurs besoins, leurs désirs, leurs priorités, et leur esthétique. Pour cela, il est important de comprendre comment des individus qui ont été historiquement marginalisés à cause de leur race peuvent sentir, concevoir, comprendre et interagir avec les nouvelles technologies dans le but de développer un mode de manipulation qui leur est propre. Selon Fouché la résistance a été un des moyens utilisés afin de regagner un certain contrôle et de créer une identité alternative.

3. Présentation de l'étude

3.1 Contexte

Cette étude a été conduite au sein du programme de formation d'enseignants d'une grande université américaine. Grâce à cette formation, les enseignants stagiaires pouvaient enseigner une langue étrangère ou seconde dans le primaire et dans le secondaire. Le département d'éducation était subventionné par l'état afin d'intégrer les TICE dans tous les programmes de formation. Le but principal étant que tous les enseignants stagiaires soient capables d'utiliser les TICE pour enseigner. Je fus désigné par mon programme pour mener à bien ce projet. Afin d'intégrer l'utilisation des TICE au sein du programme de formation, j'ai élaboré des ateliers technologiques dans le cadre des cours de didactique des langues étrangères. Ces ateliers avaient pour but de permettre aux enseignants stagiaires de créer un portfolio numérique. En tant que formateur et chercheur, il me semblait important d'analyser le processus d'apprentissage des enseignants stagiaires afin d'évaluer l'efficacité de telles innovations. C'est dans cette perspective que ce projet a été élaboré.

Lorsque cette étude a été menée, il y avait 26 enseignants stagiaires inscrits. Le programme durait 12 mois et était organisé en trimestres. Dans le cadre de leur stage, les futurs enseignants étaient placés tout au long de l'année dans un lycée où ils travaillaient en collaboration avec un enseignant qui les encadrait. Au cours du dernier trimestre, les enseignants stagiaires prenaient la relève et enseignaient tous les cours pendant 10 semaines. Ils avaient accès à toutes les ressources humaines matérielles, et technologiques disponibles dans les écoles, collèges et lycées où ils effectuaient leur stage.

3.2. Dispositif

Les résultats qui seront présentés au cours de cette communication proviennent d'une étude ethnographique qui a duré 12 mois. Notre objectif n'était pas de nous consacrer à l'identité raciale et ethnique mais plutôt de documenter et d'analyser le processus de développement des connaissances fondamentales liées à l'usage de l'ordinateur dans l'enseignement des langues étrangères en nous inspirant des travaux de Freeman et Johnson (1998). Dans le cadre de la formation d'enseignants, un des objectifs est de permettre à l'apprenant de se construire des connaissances fondamentales qui seront transformées au cours de sa carrière. Le terme de "connaissances fondamentales" renvoie aux connaissances sur lesquelles l'enseignement est fondé. Traditionnellement, cela incluait des connaissances concernant les théories d'apprentissages et d'enseignement, les méthodologies, et une connaissance poussée du sujet enseigné. Freeman et Johnson pensent que nous devons redéfinir les connaissances fondamentales des enseignants de langues étrangères. Ils proposent d'intégrer dans notre nouvelle définition les domaines suivants: (1) l'enseignant stagiaire (le rôle que jouent ses expériences passées dans son apprentissage, l'évolution de ses connaissances et convictions au cours du processus d'apprentissage); (2) l'école (le cadre social dans lequel l'enseignement a lieu); ainsi que la scolarisation (les processus historiques, sociaux et culturels qui définissent l'école); (3) finalement, l'activité de l'enseignement proprement dit (la pédagogie, le sujet enseigné, le contenu de l'enseignement, et le matériel utilisé).

Freeman et Johnson pensent que les connaissances fondamentales des enseignants sont socialement construites et sont influencées par leurs expériences en tant qu'apprenants. L'usage des connaissances fondamentales est fortement interprétatif, socialement négocié, et constamment transformé au sein des écoles où les enseignants travaillent.

Six enseignants stagiaires ont participé à cette étude. Ils étaient représentatifs du groupe par la diversité de leurs compétences technologiques, de leurs expériences, de leurs opinions et attitudes, et des langues qu'ils voulaient enseigner. Dans le cadre de cette communication nous allons particulièrement nous intéresser aux cas d'Andrea et de Michaela (pseudonymes) deux enseignantes stagiaires de couleur qui nous ont marqué par leur honnêteté. Andrea est une femme de race noire, née aux États-Unis, alors âgée de 29 ans. Michaela, née au Vénézuéla, était âgée de 22 ans.

Au cours de cette étude les enseignants stagiaires étaient tout d'abord chargés de créer un portfolio numérique incluant entre autre la création d'une unité pédagogique pouvant être utilisée à distance ou en présentiel. Afin de créer ce portfolio, les futurs enseignants devaient notamment se familiariser avec les logiciels FrontPage et PowerPoint. Ils devaient également apprendre à créer, à éditer des images numériques, et à acquérir des compétences liées à l'agencement de sites Internet (format de page, utilisation d'images, et typographie). Au cours de leur stage, les enseignants stagiaires devaient obligatoirement utiliser les TICE dans leur enseignement pour obtenir une bonne évaluation.

Lors de la réalisation de ces tâches, des données concernant leurs expériences ont pu être recueillies grâce à des observations, des prises de notes, des entretiens semi-dirigés, et des corpus de salons de discussion. Il nous semblait aussi important de prendre en compte les institutions et les acteurs qui entraient en jeu dans l'apprentissage. C'est pour cette raison que l'université, les écoles et les lycées impliqués dans cette étude, ont été décrits de façon détaillée (politique concernant l'usage des TICE, les salles de classes, la démographie, les laboratoires, le support technique, ainsi que les technologies disponibles). Compte tenu du caractère personnel de telles expériences, il était important de permettre aux participants de décrire avec leurs propres mots leurs expériences, leurs opinions et leurs émotions.

Les données ont été ensuite analysées et catégorisées afin d'identifier les attitudes, les opinions, les comportements, et les procédés les plus communs. Les changements d'opinions, et les modifications de comportements d'ordre pédagogique ont pu être aussi mis à jour.

4. L'expérience de Michaela et d'Andrea au sein du programme de formation

4.1. Être minoritaire

Contrairement, aux autres participants l'identité raciale et ethnique d'Andrea et de Michaela était une variable pertinente qui caractérisait leur expérience au sein du programme de formation. Elles se sont clairement identifiées en tant que femmes de couleur et elles savaient le rôle que jouait leur race et leur ethnicité dans leur vie quotidienne en tant qu'individus et en tant que futures enseignantes. De plus, leur expérience en tant que femmes de couleur au sein du programme de formation a influencé leur attitude envers l'apprentissage de l'enseignement.

Sur les 26 enseignants stagiaires inscrits il y avait un homme blanc, deux femmes noires et trois femmes provenant d'Amérique Latine. La majorité des futurs enseignants était des femmes de race blanche et de classe moyenne. Selon Andrea, avoir deux femmes noires dans le programme de formation était une nette amélioration par rapport à ce qu'elle avait vécu au sein du programme de licence. Elle a rigolé doucement et a ajouté "*We've come a long way* [Nous avons fait du chemin]."

Michaela et Andrea ont aussi très vite pris conscience du manque de diversité raciale et ethnique au sein des écoles où elles faisaient leur stage. Andrea a avoué qu'elle comptait le nombre d'élèves de races différentes qu'elle voyait dans son école: "*I find myself throughout the day counting how many kids of a different race there are. To this date, I have seen two black kids in the all school.* [Je me surprends en train de compter les élèves de races différentes. A ce jour, dans toute l'école, je n'ai vu que deux élèves de race noire]."

Un des objectifs du programme était de préparer les futurs enseignants à travailler au sein des écoles du centre ville où statistiquement il y avait

généralement une très forte population d'élèves de couleur. Andrea pensait que les enseignants stagiaires de race blanche n'étaient pas bien préparés à enseigner dans un tel milieu en partie parce que le programme de formation ne faisait que perpétuer des stéréotypes négatifs concernant les écoles du centre ville: *"There is a big stigma that this program has put on inner city schools...it's always inner city kids that have all the problems, but in Worthington and Upper Arlington they would be great.*[Le programme a créé une image très négative des écoles de centre ville. Ce sont toujours ces élèves qui ont tous les problèmes, mais à Worthington et Upper Arlington (banlieues chics) ils seraient merveilleux]."*"La diversité culturelle"* était le terme choisi pour faire référence aux apprenants de couleur. Au sein du programme de formation ce terme était aussi utilisé pour décrire les écoles du centre ville. De plus, la plupart des écoles du centre ville où les enseignants stagiaires étaient placés avaient un accès très limité aux TICE. Au sein de certaines écoles les enseignants avaient du mal à obtenir un magnétoscope. Contrairement à certaines écoles des banlieues qui avaient un accès très privilégié aux TICE. Par exemple, dans une des écoles les enseignants avaient accès à des ordinateurs portables dans leurs classes et pouvaient se connecter sans fil à internet. Il semblerait donc qu'au sein du programme de formation l'accès aux TICE contribuait au processus de stigmatisation des écoles du centre ville. La majorité des enseignants stagiaires utilisait cet argument pour justifier le fait qu'ils ne pouvaient pas accomplir les tâches requises par le programme. En tant que femme de couleur Andrea était consciente du rôle joué par un tel discours et comme nous allons le voir plus tard elle était convaincue que son rôle en tant qu'enseignante était en partie d'améliorer son expérience en tant que femme de couleur.

Michaela a déclaré au cours d'un entretien que les élèves de son école ne s'intéressaient pas au reste du monde: *"They [élèves] are just so far away from reality. So even like in France you do your own stuff but you're so aware of the rest of the world. Here, you're aware of Dayton and that's it.* [les élèves sont tellement éloignés de la réalité. En France vous visez à vos occupations mais au moins vous vous intéressez au reste du monde. Ici, vous connaissez Dayton (ville voisine) et c'est tout]."*" Au cours d'une conversation, Michaela a avoué qu'elle était très contente d'avoir créé une activité qui lui permettrait peut être de briser certains stéréotypes concernant l'Amérique latine. Elle voulait que ses élèves se rendent compte qu'en Amérique latine on ne se déplaçait pas seulement à dos d'âne.*

Compte tenu du peu de diversité et de conscience culturelle dans les écoles où elles se trouvaient, Andrea et Michaela étaient moins enthousiastes à enseigner: *"Maybe it's the assignment that I'm in now, that it's not where I wanted to be. I honestly wanted to be in an urban setting to have a diversity of kids and I don't have that and I just lost interest in it [enseigner].* [Peut-être que c'est l'école où je suis maintenant. Ce n'est pas là où je voulais être. Honnêtement, je voulais être dans un milieu urbain pour avoir des élèves très divers et je ce n'est pas le cas. J'ai perdu tout intérêt à enseigner]."

Il devint alors important pour Michaela et Andrea d'élargir l'horizon de leurs élèves et de leur faire découvrir le monde: *"I would like to as a teacher to open up the kids eyes to the world, to have them understand that there is more to the world than what they see in the Upper Arlington situation* [Je voudrais en tant qu'enseignante ouvrir les yeux des élèves sur le monde. Je voudrais leur

permettre de comprendre que dans le monde il existe plus de choses que ce qu'ils voient à Upper Arlington]." Michaela and Andrea voulaient aussi fournir à leurs élèves des principes de vie. Certains de ces principes était d'être tolérant et respectueux: *"I'm not just teaching a language, I'm teaching them life skills and that's what I have to do. I have to teach them or at least modeling for them to respect me as a person, to respect each other as people, to be considerate, to be responsible.* [Je ne fais pas que leur enseigner une langue. Je leur enseigne aussi des principes de vie et c'est ce que je dois faire. Je dois leur apprendre à me respecter, à se respecter les uns les autres en tant que personnes, à être prévenant, et à être responsable]." La plupart des participants de race blanche voulait aussi élargir l'horizon de leurs élèves. Cependant, c'était principalement dans le but d'aider les élèves à interagir dans la langue cible. Michaela et Andrea étaient les seules participantes qui ont explicitement fait référence aux concepts de "tolérance" et de "principes de vie." Elles étaient aussi les seules à s'être impliquées personnellement "**me** respecter en tant que personne."

4.2. Appropriation des TICE

Lorsque j'ai parlé pour la première fois du portfolio électronique, Michaela a eu du mal à retenir ses larmes. Au cours du premier entretien, elle a comparé l'apprentissage des TICE à l'apprentissage des mathématiques dans un cours de langue. Apparemment, au début du programme, pour Michaela, apprendre à utiliser les TICE n'était pas primordial. Au début du programme, Andrea a aussi avoué qu'elle ne comprenait pas pourquoi elle devait créer une séquence pédagogique entièrement sur Internet. Pour elle, ce n'était qu'une épreuve de plus: *"I don't understand the all purpose of this unit plan, other than one more thing that we have to do.* [Je ne comprends pas le but de cette séquence, ce n'est rien d'autre qu'une chose de plus que nous devons faire]." Il semblerait donc qu'au début du programme la motivation d'Andrea et de Michaela concernant l'apprentissage des TICE n'était pas très élevée.

Précédemment, nous avons précisé que l'appropriation des TIC était fondée sur une mise en jeu de l'identité personnelle et sociale en partie dans des buts d'émancipation personnelle et/ou d'accomplissement professionnel. Michaela et Andrea voulait améliorer leur condition de femmes de couleur à travers leur enseignement et c'est au cours du programme de formation qu'elles ont réalisé que les TICE pourraient leur permettre de diversifier le point de vue de leurs élèves: *"I think it's [TICE] a great way to broaden anyone horizon, you know, just giving you a different prospective in life* [Je pense que les TICE sont un excellent moyen d'élargir l'horizon de chacun, juste pour avoir une perspective différente sur la vie]." C'est ainsi que Michaela et Andrea ont commencé à utiliser les TICE afin de créer un contre discours qui à leurs yeux était plus valorisant. Pour ce faire elles ont utilisé des stratégies différentes. La stratégie mise en place par Andrea consistait à utiliser les TICE pour trouver du matériel culturellement varié: *"I try to find people of a different color, I do try to incorporate that somehow. I try to find cliparts for the different things. So instead of only have white I really have to search to find cliparts of people of a different race* [J'essaie de trouver des personnes de différentes couleurs, j'essaie vraiment d'incorporer cela d'une manière ou d'une autre. J'essaie de trouver des

cliparts^{iv} pour différentes choses. Donc, au lieu d'avoir seulement des personnes de race blanche, je dois vraiment chercher pour trouver des cliparts représentant des personnes de races différentes].” En créant son portfolio électronique, Andrea a été amenée à se construire une identité et à ce sujet elle a déclaré:

I think it gives the person that is looking at my web site a little bit of who I am. There's a part where I have my students' handbook and it's a little black teacher at the board and I love it because that is me. I don't think many people would expect to see that. [Je pense que ça donne à la personne qui regarde mon site internet un peu de moi-même. J'ai inséré quelque part mon carnet d'étudiante. C'est une petite enseignante noire au tableau, et j'adore ça parce que c'est moi. Je ne pense pas que beaucoup de personnes s'attendent à voir ça].

Il était donc important pour elle de représenter son identité raciale car elle savait qu'en faisant cela elle allait briser certains stéréotypes. Quand nous lui avons demandé si le fait d'avoir la possibilité de représenter son identité raciale a rendu le projet plus attirant, elle a répondu: “*Sure, I wish I had a scanner because I would have included some of the pictures that I have at home, but I don't have that so my next best thing is to download clip arts. That's what I do.* [bien sûr, j'aurais aimé avoir un scanner parce que j'aurais inclus les photos que j'ai à la maison, mais je n'en avais pas. Donc ce que je préfère c'est de télécharger des cliparts, c'est ce que je fais].”

La stratégie mise en place par Michaela consistait à créer des activités qui projetaient ses élèves dans des contextes culturels liés à la langue enseignée: “*I really wanted them to think of what real life would be in a Latin country [je voulais vraiment que les élèves aient une idée de ce qu'est la vie quotidienne dans un pays d'Amérique du sud].*” Par exemple, dans le cadre d'une de ces activités, les élèves devaient prétendre vivre dans le pays d'Amérique Latine de leur choix. Pour ce faire, ils ont choisi une identité (mère célibataire, enseignant, ingénieur, etc.). Puis, ils ont accompli des tâches variées (trouver un appartement, partir en vacances, etc.) et répondu à différentes questions, telles que: *Où est-ce que vous travaillez? Où est-ce que vous habitez? A combien s'élève le loyer? Quel est votre salaire?* Internet était utilisé afin d'accomplir les tâches requises. Finalement, les élèves devaient obligatoirement utiliser les TICE pour partager leurs expériences avec leurs camarades. Certains ont créé des films à l'aide de caméras numériques et de logiciels de montage et d'autres, ont utilisé PowerPoint.

À notre grande surprise, au cours de son stage, Michaela était une des enseignantes stagiaires qui a le plus utilisé les TICE. En fait, elle a commencé à intégrer les TICE dans son enseignement quand elle s'est rendu compte qu'elles lui permettaient d'élargir l'horizon de ses élèves: “*The main conclusion that I came to was that I can use it [computer] to do what I wanna do in the classroom, which is to make them [élèves] feel creative, and have a little bit of awareness of the world we live in* [La principale conclusion à laquelle je suis arrivée est que je peux utiliser l'ordinateur pour accomplir ce que je veux dans mon cours. C'est à dire permettre à mes élèves de se sentir créatifs, et d'être

^{iv} Les cliparts sont des images numériques prêtes à être insérées dans des documents multimédias.

plus conscients du monde dans lequel nous vivons]. " C'est en partie à l'aide des TICE que Michaela et Andrea ont créé un contre discours au sein du programme de formation qui leur a permis de briser certains stéréotypes et de revaloriser leur identité en tant que femmes et enseignantes de couleur. C'est donc dans des buts d'émancipation personnelle et d'accomplissement professionnel que Michaela et Andrea se sont appropriées les TICE et ont retrouvé un certain enthousiasme pour l'enseignement.

5. Vers une pédagogie culturellement pertinente et critique

En 2001, le conseil de l'Europe a souligné qu'il était nécessaire "d'impliquer et de former les personnes qui travaillent avec les jeunes afin de renforcer leur prise de conscience et leur compréhension des problèmes liés à l'intolérance et de faire en sorte qu'ils soient plus à même d'appliquer les valeurs démocratiques dans le cadre de leur travail avec les jeunes." (Déclaration du 28 juin 2001). De nombreux chercheurs (Ladson-Billing, 1994) démontrent que les enseignants qui réussissaient le mieux avec des apprenants de couleur étaient des enseignants qui adoptaient une pédagogie culturellement pertinente et critique. L'objectif principal d'une pédagogie culturellement pertinente est d'assister au développement d'une personnalité pertinente qui permettrait aux apprenants de couleur de mener à bien leur scolarité tout en préservant leur culture maternelle. Pour Ladson-Billing, une telle pédagogie permettrait de redonner aux apprenants minoritaires un pouvoir intellectuel, émotionnel, et politique en utilisant des référents culturels qui leur permettraient d'acquérir des connaissances, des habilités, et des attitudes nécessaires à leur succès dans un système éducatif qui souvent est perçu comme étant oppressif.

Selon Lasonen (2005) "l'approche pédagogique traditionnelle pourrait bien être un des facteurs d'exclusion des minorités de l'enseignement supérieur." La pédagogie critique a pour but de lutter contre la pauvreté, le racisme, l'oppression et de défendre les besoins humains fondamentaux. Une telle pédagogie est souvent associée aux travaux de Freire (1970), Giroux (1992), Luke (2005) et de McLaren (2000). Être critique c'est examiner de manière approfondie les règles d'échanges associées à un domaine social précis (Luke, 2005). Pour ce faire, il est important de se positionner épistémologiquement en tant qu'autre afin de se dissocier des textes et discours qui nous sont familiers et d'atteindre cette zone où le familier devient étrange. L'enseignant est donc amené à créer un espace de réflexion où les idéologies et les pratiques oppressives sont remises en question. Tout cela dans le but d'aider les apprenants à trouver leurs propres réponses.

Ma pratique en tant que formateur était fondée sur ces cadres théoriques. Il me semblait très important de traiter de sujets liés à l'équité, et au pouvoir. Par exemple, je leur ai montré comment analyser un site internet de manière critique en posant des questions comme: Qui est représenté? Qui ne l'est pas? À qui ce site internet est destiné? Les enseignants stagiaires devaient ensuite faire la même chose avec les sites internet qu'ils voulaient utiliser. Poser des questions comme: "À qui sert la connaissance?" ou "À qui est destiné la connaissance?" est primordial lorsque vos apprenants sont marginalisés à cause de leur race, leur genre ou d'autres constructions de l'altérité (Wong, 2006).

6. Conclusion

Le but de ce programme de formation d'enseignants en langues étrangères était d'intégrer les TICE afin que les enseignants stagiaires puissent les utiliser à leur tour dans leur enseignement. Les expériences de Michaela et d'Andrea ont illustré l'impact que peut avoir l'identité ethnique et raciale sur l'usage des TICE. En effet, l'apprentissage de Michaela et Andrea a été un succès en partie parce qu'elles ont pu s'approprier les TICE qui leur étaient disponibles, en les modelant à leur image et cela dans des buts d'épanouissement personnel et d'accomplissement professionnel. La construction de leur portfolio numérique constituait en fait un espace de réflexion où les idéologies et les pratiques oppressives ont été remises en question.

Comme bien d'autres chercheurs nous pensons qu'un enseignement culturellement pertinent et critique est crucial pour tout programme de formation d'enseignants. Particulièrement, si ces programmes s'intéressent aux TICE. Ceci est d'autant plus important en ces temps socialement difficiles où les enseignants sont montrés du doigt à cause de l'échec scolaire grandissant des apprenants de couleur.

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What Do We Know About Effects of Family Background On Computer Literacy – Based On Results From The PISA Survey ^v

Josef Basl

Institute of Sociology, Prague – Czech Republic

Josef.Basl@soc.cas.cz

Abstract

Computer literacy of 15-year-old pupils in the Czech Republic, Finland and Slovakia is analyzed within this paper and the issue is discussed using the OECD PISA 2003 and 2006 datasets. The research question of how socio-economic background (family background) affects computer literacy of 15-year-old pupils is elaborated. The main scope of the analysis is focused on structural modelling using the AMOS software. My analysis indicated stronger indirect effect (covers possession of ICT resources) of family background on computer literacy than direct effect.

Keywords: PISA – computer literacy – educational inequalities – structural modelling

1. Introduction

Individuals need a wide range of competencies in order to face the complex challenges of today's world and the number of people that can cope with their studies, jobs and other activities without at least some minimum level of computer skills and knowledge is in decrease. Not only upper-secondary and tertiary schools graduates are expected to dispose of skills and knowledge that are usually called 'computer literacy'.

Entering labour market after graduation is an aspect that is pointed out by many authors (e.g. Shavit and Müller 2000, Katrňák 2004). Although for the purpose of this paper I will not discuss this issue more in detailed, it needs to be mentioned that the importance of the relation between achieved education and work eligibility at the labour market is a much discussed point.

Socio-economic background

There are many authors who point out influence of family background on pupils' educational or occupational career. For instance, Katrňák (2004) addresses effect of parents' education on children's educational perspectives when he defines two concepts covering influence of family background (stance to education) on children's own stance. The so called 'tight relation' illustrates the supportive approach of parents with higher level of achieved education. 'Lax relation', in

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contrast, refers to low educated parents that rather give up responsibility for their children's education and expect it from the school.

Next, some relation between socio-economic background of the family and ICT^{vi} availability could be expected. In this context also the following finding is relevant. Results from the PISA 2003 show that some aspects of pupils' ICT availability are strongly connected with their performance, it is argued in the final report (OECD 2005a).

2. Research background

In this section, I deal with a brief explanation of computer literacy and also with present findings that relate to this issue. Theoretical background of my research is also presented within this part.

2.1. Computer literacy

Although there is no strict definition of computer literacy, it is possible to identify some core aspects that various approaches have in common. Computer literacy covers skills and knowledge to use a computer and its additional devices (e.g. printer) as a working tool for creating simple multi-media documents, for retrieving information and within a network setting (sending and receiving e-mails, finding out information on the internet). Thus, it involves using both hardware and software tools. Another valuable component of computer literacy is to know, how computers work and operate. In a broader sense, computer literacy is often taken as synonymous to information literacy that relates to all the information and communication technology (ICT) tools, it means not only computers. (McLeod 1994, Vymětal et al. 2005: 22)

It has been discussed for many years that an access to computers is not equal (Angus et al. 2004) and it is usually characterized as a gap between the so called 'computer rich' and 'computer poor' people. Named as 'digital divide', it expresses the gap between those with regular and effective access to digital technologies and those without. It also refers to those who can benefit from it on the one hand, and those who can't on the other hand. In other words, access and effective use of computers and other ICT tools both make difference. The digital divide concept has been discussed for many years also in connection with possible risks of social exclusion.

The conventional notion of 'access' in terms of whether technology is 'available' or not obscures more subtle disparities in the context of ICT access, according to Selwyn (2002). For example, accessing on-line information and resources from a home-based computer is not necessarily equitable to accessing the same materials via an open-access work station in a public library. Issues of time, cost, quality of the technology and the environment in which it is used, as well as

^{vi} Information and Communication Technology – it usually covers computer facilities and internet connection.

more 'qualitative' concerns of privacy and 'ease of use' are all crucial mediating factors in people's access to ICT, Servon (2002) mentions.

He points out youth as a group that stands most to lose from being disconnected and most to gain from obtaining access to ICT. Those not connected will be potentially cut off from other opportunities ICT can offer (e.g. education, jobs) and those connected will get greater access to information, higher education or well-paid jobs, Servon (2002) argues.

2.2. ICT skills and knowledge - present findings

On the basis of a survey carried out by EUROSTAT in 2006 it is possible to illustrate ICT skills and knowledge level in the Czech Republic in comparison with other countries. The terminology of the survey (Eurostat 2006) prefers to use 'digital literacy' and 'e-skills' terms, but it actually refers to the same aspects that computer literacy covers.

According to the survey (Eurostat 2006) that focused on a sample of 16+ year olds, higher level of ICT skills and knowledge were observed for younger people and for those with higher level of achieved education. Although these facts are not surprising, worth mentioning is that the proportion of people who 'never used a computer' in the Czech Republic is above average.

Then, when we move from the general public to the 15-year-old pupils now, the availability of computers at schools is being monitored by both the OECD (2005a, 2006d) and the EU (EC 2006). Thus, there is for instance evidence covering how many pupils correspond to one computer on average or how many computers are available per 100 pupils (ÚIV 2006).

Although data describing availability at school level are slightly under average for the Czech Republic, more significant difference relates to availability of computers at home. In a comparative perspective, availability of a computer at home is strongly related to the level of socio-economic background of the family. The extent of these differences is above-average in the Czech Republic (OECD 2005a).

Besides, the National Institute of Technical and Vocational Education (NUOV) deals with issues of employability and work eligibility of secondary school graduates in the Czech Republic and their findings (Festová 2004; Kalousková et al. 2004; Vojtěch et al. 2004; Trhlíková, Vojtěch 2004) help to indicate possible barriers that pupils could face when entering labour market. What is important from the perspective of this paper is that computer skills of graduates are more and more treated essential by the employers, no matter if they seek for a secondary or tertiary school graduate, according to NUOV's findings.

Furthermore, to deal with the computer literacy issue is relevant also from the perspective of the lifelong learning concept. The aim of the policy that concerns ICT skills and knowledge has to be focused on providing provisions not only for younger generation but for adults as well. This needs to be more emphasized in the Czech Republic, because we are lagging behind, according to experts' view (OECD 2006a, 2006b, 2006c).

2.3. Key competences

The concept of key competencies started to be discussed in the 1970s. This topic was firstly described by Mertens in 1974 in the context of labour market and employability, Hučínová (2006) mentions. It was not so early than in the late 1990s when key competencies became to be involved in educational issues. The main reason for it was connected with the focus on quality and effective education, she explains.

Defining such competencies can improve assessments of how well prepared young people and adults are for life's challenges, as well as identify overarching goals for education systems and lifelong learning, according to the OECD report (2005b).

In connection with the PISA (Programme for International Students Assessment) survey, the OECD carried out the DeSeCo Project within which it has collaborated with a wide range of scholars, experts and institutions to identify a small set of key competencies, rooted in a theoretical understanding of how such competencies are defined.

There are two examples of a list of key competencies in the Appendix (Part 1). It is necessary to point out that both, one that covers definition created at the EU level and the second that focuses on view not being implemented in the Czech Republic, include ICT skills and knowledge (computer literacy) as one of the core aspects.

3. Analytical strategy

3.1. Research question

For the purpose of my research I formulated the following research question: How socio-economic background affects computer literacy of 15-year-old pupils?

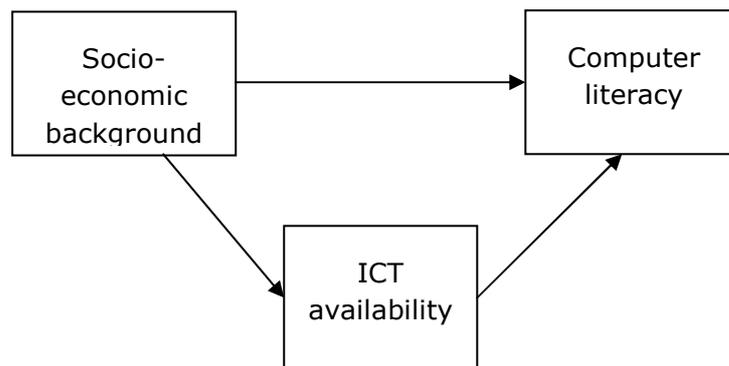
3.2. Hypothesis and tested model

The analysis was carried out within the context of the following hypotheses:

H1: Direct effect of socio-economic background on computer literacy is stronger than indirect effect through ICT availability.

H2: There is no difference between boys and girls - as far as greatness of direct and indirect effects is concerned.

The H1 hypothesis could be illustrated by the following diagram that expresses a simple model of a relation that I wanted to analyse. It represents the idea that influence of socio-economic background on pupil's computer literacy can be transmitted in two ways - either directly (without any intervening factor) or indirectly, through ICT availability at home.

Diagram 1: Tested model**3.3. Data**

To test my hypotheses I used the international data files from PISA 2003 and 2006. The OECD PISA survey covers three literacy domains (reading, mathematical and scientific literacy). It focuses on skills of 15-year-old pupils (the target population is defined as 15-year-olds enrolled in school, regardless of the grade or type of institution in which they are enrolled) and runs every three years.

Considering research instruments, test booklets covering three literacy domains are used within the PISA survey and also student questionnaire (used to collect mainly information about socio-economic background) is included. In addition, Separate ICT questionnaire is used and this particular part relates to my analysis of computer literacy. Although the ICT questionnaire was used in all three cycles, the number of questions and their content and wording has changed from one cycle to the next. Therefore only 2003 and 2006 data are comparable from the perspective of this paper.

3.4. Methodology

From the methodological point of view, my analyses were done using the following analytical approach: data analysis – in particular correlation analysis and structural equation modelling.

This fact paper that there is not just one clear definition of computer literacy probably supports various approaches of empirical measuring of computer literacy. There are two main ways of measuring the level of computer literacy, according to Sak (Sak and Sakova 2006). First possibility is based on testing really computer skills and knowledge when a respondent directly works on a computer. The second approach includes respondent's declaration of his/her computer skills and knowledge, either referring to a provided list of activities, or by open self-evaluation. Although it is clear that the second approach is less objective, most part of research evidence, not only in the Czech Republic (Sak and Sakova 2006) has been gained using it. Apart from other aspects, one clear reason for it is that it is cheaper to carry out such a type of survey.

Within the PISA survey, computer literacy is measured on the basis of pupils' self declaration. In 2003 and 2006, they answered the question 'How well can you do each of these tasks on a computer?' that included a list of items (activities) (see Appendix, Part 2).

Then, after the data collection, all the measured items were divided into groups –internet tasks and high-level tasks (for details see Appendix, Part 3). According to the groups, two standardized variables were then counted for each respondent – confidence in internet tasks and confidence in high-level tasks. These variables are used within my analysis to represent pupils' computer literacy.

Someone could argue that there is no sense in analyzing computer literacy that was only measured as declarative. The reason why I dared to analyze PISA data is connected with the STEM/MARK survey (STEM/MARK 2005) that was carried out on behalf of the Ministry of Informatics of the Czech Republic in 2005 in relation to the National Programme for Computer Literacy.

Aspects that were addressed by the survey (STEM/MARK 2005) correspond to tasks addressed within PISA 2003 survey. Although the main part of respondents (STEM/MARK 2005) was phone interviewed (15 000 of 18-60 year olds, 500 of 15-17 olds and 500 of 61+ olds) and they declared their computer skills and knowledge, there was also the control group of 500 people who were also asked for direct testing. Any significant differences between declared and tested computer skills and knowledge were found, according to published results (Peterka 2005, STEM/MARK 2005). Therefore, I have used their findings to legitimize my approach when working with PISA data.

4. Analysis and results

With reference to the hypotheses, the following variables were used to analyze both direct and indirect effects of socio-economic background on computer literacy.

List of variables:

| | |
|----------|--|
| HISCED | highest educational level of parents (ISCED scale) |
| HISEI | highest parental occupational status (scale from 16 to 90) |
| HEDRES | home educational resources ^{vii} |
| CompPoss | possessions of a computer at home (no=0,yes=1) |
| IntPoss | possessions of an internet access at home (no=0,yes=1) |
| INTCONF | confidence in internet tasks* |
| HIGHCONF | confidence in high-level tasks* |

^{vii} This index was derived from students' responses to the five items listed below. These variables are binary and factor analysis was used to construct the index. Positive values on this index indicate higher levels of home educational resources. The five items from the question Which of the following do you have in your home? are the following : Desk for study, A quiet place to study, Your own calculator, Books to help with your school work, A dictionary (OECD 2005c: 381).

* Note: The PISA index of confidence in internet tasks (INTCONF) is derived from students' responses to the items on self-confidence with appropriate ICT tasks. A four-point scale with the response categories recoded as „I can do this very well by myself" (=0), „I can do this with help from someone" (=1), „I know what this means but I cannot do it" (=2) and „I don't know what this means" (=3) is used. All items are inverted for IRT scaling and positive values on this index indicate high self-confidence in internet tasks. By analogy, the index of confidence in high-level tasks (HIGHCONF) was constructed. (OECD 2005c: 390)

For the purpose of structural modelling (using the AMOS software), correlation matrixes were prepared on the basis of original PISA data^{viii} (for correlation matrixes see Appendix – tables 1-4).

Within the structural model, all the above listed variables are treated as observed endogenous and apart from that, it includes also three additional unobserved endogenous variables as shown in table 1.

Table 1: Variables within the tested model

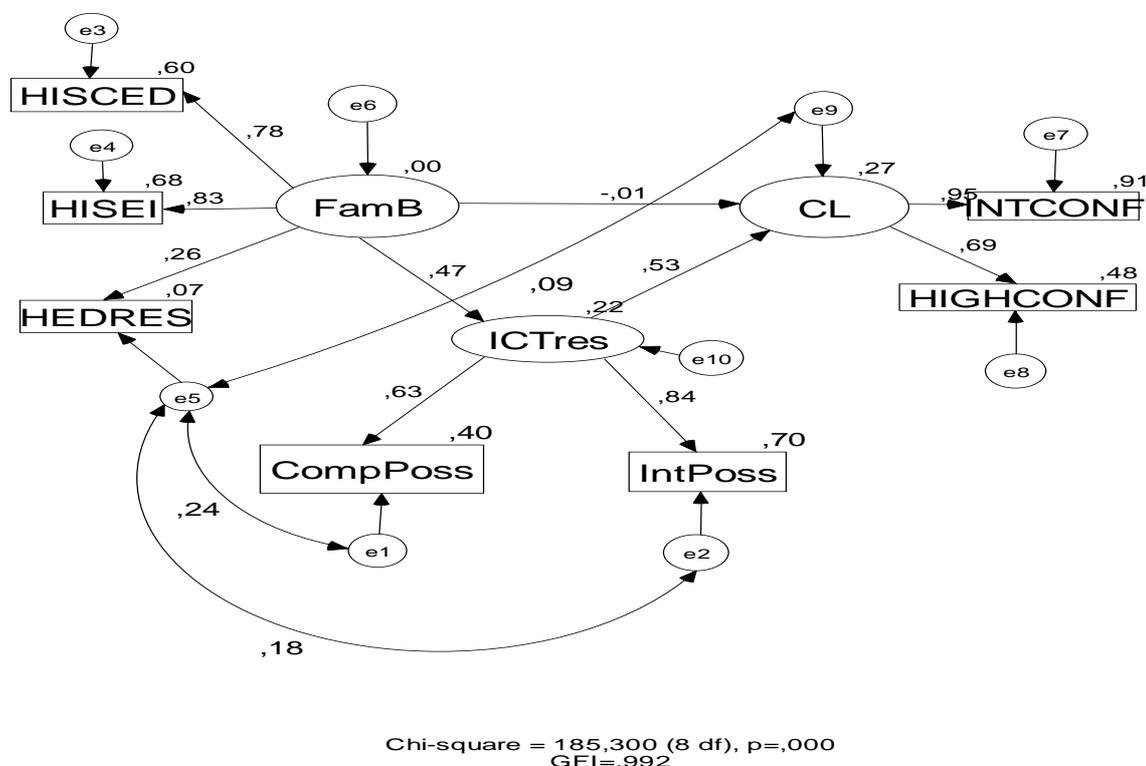
| Unobserved | Observed |
|---|----------|
| FamB (family/ socio-economic background) | HISCED |
| | HISEI |
| | HEDRES |
| ICTres (availability of ICT resources at home) | CompPoss |
| | IntPoss |
| CL (computer literacy) | INTCONF |
| | HIGHCONF |

Firstly, the structural model was used to analyze PISA 2003 data for the Czech Republic. The results expressed by standardised values are presented within the Diagram 2. Although values of some statistics are relatively higher ("N" needs to be taken into account), the model meets the general requirements and it is possible to interpret it.

The model includes three correlations between residual variances and measurement errors. On one hand, it would be possible to claim that the relations e5-e1, e5-e2 and e5-e9 only serve to adjust the model and get better values of relevant model parameters. On the other hand, content aspect needs to be taken into account. These relations point at an existence of relations that proceed out of causal linkage. In other words, correlation between home educational resources' measurement error and residual variance of computer literacy refers to the fact that HEDRES have some effect on computer literacy, no matter on ICT resources possession.

^{viii} The final student weight (variable „w_fstuwt") was used.

Diagram 2: Structural model – Czech Republic – 2003 - all



What is important in the context of the research question is the effect of family background (FamB) on computer literacy (CL). On the basis of squared multiple correlation estimates it is possible to claim that the variable computer literacy (CL) is determined by the structural model by 27 %. And by 22 % is determined the ICT availability at home (ICTres).

As may be seen also from table 2, direct effect of socio-economic background on computer literacy has the standardized value of -0,007. Furthermore, p-value is much higher than the 0,05 level, so the direct effect is not significant. The structural analysis shows that effect of socio-economic background on computer literacy was transmitted primarily indirectly.

Table 2: Effect of FamB on CL (standardized) and determination of latent variables – Czech Republic

| | Czech Republic 2003 | | | Czech Republic 2006 | | |
|----------------------|---------------------|-------|-------|---------------------|-------|--------|
| | Basic model | Girls | Boys | Basic model | Girls | Boys |
| Total effect | 0,243 | 0,209 | 0,306 | 0,242 | 0,240 | 0,255 |
| Direct effect | - 0,0065 | 0,001 | 0,027 | -0,041 | 0,011 | -0,077 |
| Indirect effect | 0,249 | 0,208 | 0,279 | 0,283 | 0,229 | 0,332 |
| Determination CL | 27 % | 20 % | 36 % | 36 % | 30 % | 44 % |
| Determination ICTres | 22 % | 22 % | 22 % | 21 % | 18 % | 23 % |

Next, analysis was carried out separately for girls and for boys. As it is summarised in table 2 (and also Appendix – table 6), for both boys and girls there was found the same as for the “all” model, that the indirect effect of family background on computer literacy prevails.

Table 3: Model effects and standardised coefficients – Czech Republic – 2006 – all

| Effect | Coefficient | s.e. | c.r. | p |
|-----------------------|---------------|-------|--------|--------------|
| ICTres <----- FamB | 0,457 | 0,007 | 22,610 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- ICTres | 0,621 | 0,079 | 28,517 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- FamB | -0,041 | 0,021 | -2,373 | 0,018 |
| HISEI <----- FamB | 0,907 | 0,832 | 22,219 | 0,000 |
| composs <----- ICTres | 0,659 | n | n | n |
| intposs <----- ICTres | 0,783 | 0,048 | 35,010 | 0,000 |
| HIGHCONF <----- CL | 0,683 | 0,026 | 33,655 | 0,000 |
| INTCONF <----- CL | 0,915 | n | n | n |
| HISCED <----- FamB | 0,582 | n | n | n |
| HEDRES <----- FamB | 0,259 | 0,015 | 17,602 | 0,000 |

N=5907 Chisq=76,101 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,996 AGFI=0,987 BIC=288,697

In 2006, although the “all” model shows significant direct effect (see table 3), result remains the same as in 2003. It means that direct effect is much weaker than the indirect one and represents only a small proportion of the total effect. For girls and boys also were not found any changes between 2003 and 2006 (Appendix – table 7).

The reason why situation in the Czech Republic is compared with Finland and Slovakia within this paper is the following. Finland represents countries with higher penetration of PC and internet access possession and Slovakia represents countries with lower penetration, as table 4 illustrates.

Table 4: Model effects and standardised coefficients – Czech Republic – 2006 – all

| | PC possession | | Internet access possession | |
|----------------|---------------|------|----------------------------|------|
| | 2003 | 2006 | 2003 | 2006 |
| Czech Republic | 77 | 87 | 49 | 66 |
| Finland | 88 | 95 | 77 | 93 |
| Slovakia | 57 | 77 | 17 | 40 |

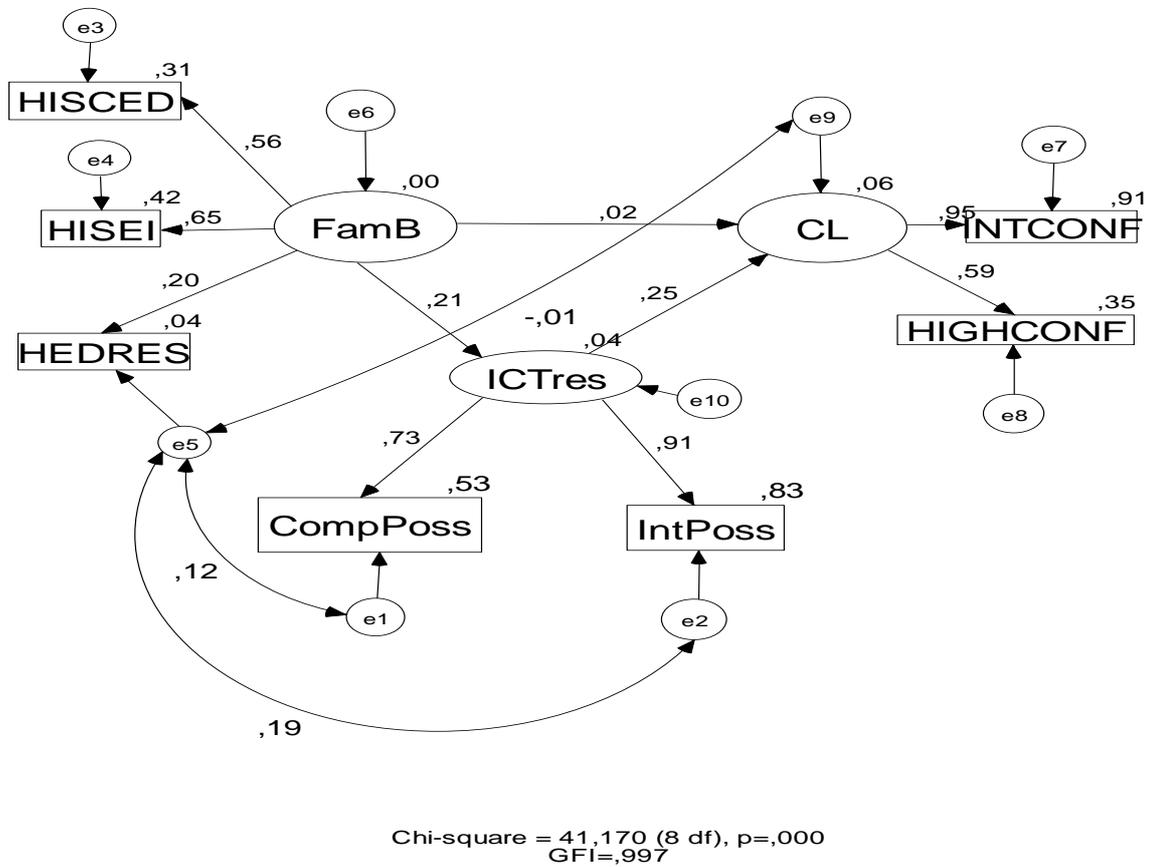
Although there was some development in PC and internet penetration between the years 2003 a 2006, it was mentioned above, that for pupils in the Czech Republic no shift was found in the sense of family background effect on computer literacy.

Table 5: Effect of FamB on CL (standardized) and determination of latent variables – Finland and Slovakia

| | Finland 2006 | | | Slovakia 2006 | | |
|----------------------|--------------|--------|--------|---------------|--------|--------|
| | Basic model | Girls | Boys | Basic model | Girls | Boys |
| Total effect | 0,067 | -0,013 | 0,182 | 0,354 | 0,384 | 0,352 |
| Direct effect | 0,015 | -0,049 | 0,111 | -0,225 | -0,214 | -0,228 |
| Indirect effect | 0,052 | 0,036 | 0,071 | 0,578 | 0,561 | 0,581 |
| | | | | | | |
| Determination CL | 6,5 % | 3,6 % | 12,7 % | 55 % | 48 % | 59 % |
| Determination ICTres | 4,2 % | 3,5 % | 5,1 % | 44 % | 47 % | 42 % |

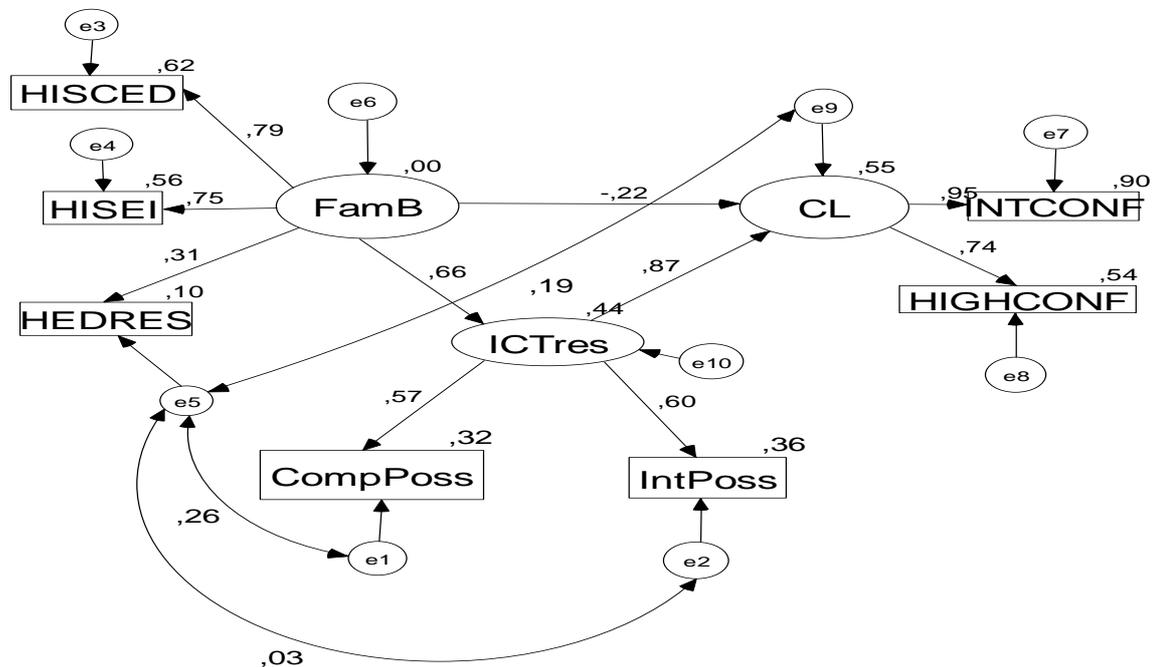
When we focus on comparison with Finland and Slovakia (see diagrams 3 and 4), it is possible to conclude that PC and internet access possession really matters as far as effect of family background (FamB) on computer literacy (CL) is concerned. Whereas in Finland the structural model determines much lower proportion of computer literacy and ICT resources possession, in Slovakia the model determines both variables to higher extent (table 5).

Diagram 3: Structural model – Finland – 2006 - all



Furthermore, for Finland, much lower value of the total effect was found compared to the Czech Republic and Slovakia (see table 5 and also appendix – tables 8, 9, 10). Then, the proportion of direct effect of socio-economic background on computer literacy is the highest for Finland. These findings support the fact that higher penetration with ICT resources makes the indirect effect weaker.

Diagram 4: Structural model – Slovakia – 2006 - all



Chi-square = 132,442 (8 df), p=,000
GFI=,992

5. Conclusion and discussion

The aim of presented analysis was to found out how (directly or indirectly) computer literacy of 15-year-olds is influenced by socio-economic background. The international comparison made it clear that possession of a computer and possession of an internet access play a crucial role in this context.

When focusing on the results of my analysis from the hypotheses' perspective, I did not confirm H1. On the contrary, in my analysis (using structural modelling) I showed that it is indirect effect that is stronger in the sense of the effect of family background (FamB) on computer literacy (CL). Next, on the basis of my analysis, it is possible to claim that in the Czech Republic and Slovakia there is no difference between boys and girls as far as importance of both direct and indirect effect is concerned. The indirect effect has much stronger role. On the contrary, in Finland, for boys, the direct effect was found stronger.

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7. Appendix

Table 1: Correlation matrix – Czech Republic – 2003 - all

| | Hisced | hisei | hedres | compposs | intposs | intconf | highconf |
|---------------|--------|--------|--------|----------|---------|---------|----------|
| <i>n</i> | 6320 | 6320 | 6320 | 6320 | 6320 | 6320 | 6320 |
| hisced | 1,000 | 0,641 | 0,200 | 0,261 | 0,295 | 0,176 | 0,132 |
| hisei | 0,641 | 1,000 | 0,216 | 0,265 | 0,318 | 0,189 | 0,127 |
| hedres | 0,204 | 0,219 | 1,000 | 0,250 | 0,198 | 0,127 | 0,091 |
| compposs | 0,261 | 0,265 | 0,258 | 1,000 | 0,512 | 0,276 | 0,286 |
| intposs | 0,295 | 0,318 | 0,197 | 0,512 | 1,000 | 0,429 | 0,280 |
| intconf | 0,176 | 0,189 | 0,129 | 0,276 | 0,429 | 1,000 | 0,645 |
| highconf | 0,132 | 0,127 | 0,097 | 0,286 | 0,280 | 0,645 | 1,000 |
| <i>stddev</i> | 1,144 | 14,360 | 0,631 | 0,423 | 0,500 | 0,889 | 0,969 |
| <i>mean</i> | 4,230 | 50,050 | 0,429 | 0,770 | 0,490 | 0,064 | 0,052 |

Source: PISA 2003 data

All correlation values are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 2: Correlation matrix – Czech Republic – 2006 - all

| | Hisced | hisei | hedres | compposs | intposs | intconf | highconf |
|---------------|--------|--------|--------|----------|---------|---------|----------|
| <i>n</i> | 5874 | 5773 | 5907 | 5885 | 5873 | 5729 | 5729 |
| hisced | 1,000 | 0,527 | 0,102 | 0,183 | 0,207 | 0,111 | 0,119 |
| hisei | 0,527 | 1,000 | 0,140 | 0,262 | 0,329 | 0,201 | 0,155 |
| hedres | 0,145 | 0,232 | 1,000 | 0,643 | 0,374 | 0,317 | 0,293 |
| compposs | 0,183 | 0,262 | 0,238 | 1,000 | 0,511 | 0,358 | 0,312 |
| intposs | 0,207 | 0,329 | 0,145 | 0,511 | 1,000 | 0,431 | 0,301 |
| intconf | 0,111 | 0,201 | 0,179 | 0,358 | 0,431 | 1,000 | 0,619 |
| highconf | 0,119 | 0,155 | 0,106 | 0,312 | 0,301 | 0,619 | 1,000 |
| <i>stddev</i> | 1,171 | 13,879 | 0,691 | 0,338 | 0,472 | 0,884 | 1,036 |
| <i>mean</i> | 4,350 | 48,240 | 0,299 | 0,870 | 0,660 | 0,197 | 0,171 |

Source: PISA 2006 data

All correlation values are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3: Correlation matrix – Finland – 2006 - all

| | Hisced | hisei | hedres | compposs | intposs | intconf | highconf |
|---------------|--------|--------|--------|----------|---------|---------|----------|
| <i>n</i> | 2768 | 2722 | 2777 | 2765 | 2761 | 2687 | 2688 |
| hisced | 1,000 | 0,575 | 0,092 | 0,200 | 0,206 | 0,119 | 0,109 |
| hisei | 0,575 | 1,000 | 0,144 | 0,272 | 0,325 | 0,209 | 0,143 |
| hedres | 0,132 | 0,220 | 1,000 | 0,683 | 0,396 | 0,308 | 0,291 |
| compposs | 0,200 | 0,272 | 0,269 | 1,000 | 0,531 | 0,305 | 0,257 |
| intposs | 0,206 | 0,325 | 0,129 | 0,531 | 1,000 | 0,417 | 0,272 |
| intconf | 0,119 | 0,209 | 0,171 | 0,305 | 0,417 | 1,000 | 0,569 |
| highconf | 0,109 | 0,143 | 0,099 | 0,257 | 0,272 | 0,569 | 1,000 |
| <i>stddev</i> | 1,181 | 14,279 | 0,623 | 0,353 | 0,475 | 0,826 | 0,874 |
| <i>mean</i> | 4,290 | 48,410 | 0,331 | 0,850 | 0,660 | 0,107 | -0,136 |

Source: PISA 2006 data

All correlation values are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4: Correlation matrix – Slovakia – 2006 - all

| | Hisced | hisei | hedres | compposs | intposs | intconf | highconf |
|---------------|--------|--------|--------|----------|---------|---------|----------|
| <i>n</i> | 3106 | 3051 | 3130 | 3120 | 3112 | 3042 | 3041 |
| hisced | 1,000 | 0,490 | 0,112 | 0,164 | 0,206 | 0,098 | 0,109 |
| hisei | 0,490 | 1,000 | 0,139 | 0,256 | 0,334 | 0,199 | 0,180 |
| hedres | 0,154 | 0,242 | 1,000 | 0,613 | 0,358 | 0,326 | 0,312 |
| compposs | 0,164 | 0,256 | 0,224 | 1,000 | 0,496 | 0,398 | 0,356 |
| intposs | 0,206 | 0,334 | 0,158 | 0,496 | 1,000 | 0,443 | 0,332 |
| intconf | 0,098 | 0,199 | 0,190 | 0,398 | 0,443 | 1,000 | 0,648 |
| highconf | 0,109 | 0,180 | 0,129 | 0,356 | 0,332 | 0,648 | 1,000 |
| <i>stddev</i> | 1,161 | 13,561 | 0,739 | 0,326 | 0,470 | 0,921 | 1,088 |
| <i>mean</i> | 4,410 | 48,110 | 0,275 | 0,880 | 0,670 | 0,266 | 0,406 |

Source: PISA 2006 data

All correlation values are significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5: Model effects and standardised coefficients – Czech Republic – 2003 - all

| Effect | Coefficient | s.e. | c.r. | p |
|------------------------|---------------|-------|--------|--------------|
| ICTres <----- FamB | 0,474 | 0,006 | 23,572 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- ICTres | 0,526 | 0,063 | 26,653 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- FamB | -0,007 | 0,012 | -0,380 | 0,704 |
| HISEI <----- FamB | 0,826 | 0,401 | 33,363 | 0,000 |
| compposs <----- ICTres | 0,633 | n | n | n |
| intposs <----- ICTres | 0,837 | 0,047 | 33,341 | 0,000 |
| HIGHCONF <----- CL | 0,692 | 0,024 | 32,528 | 0,000 |
| INTCONF <----- CL | 0,954 | n | n | n |
| HISCED <----- FamB | 0,775 | n | n | n |
| HEDRES <----- FamB | 0,259 | 0,010 | 18,029 | 0,000 |

N=6320 Chisq=185,3 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,992 AGFI=0,971 BIC=399,24

Table 6: Model effects and standardised coefficients – Czech Republic – 2003 – boys and girls

| Effect | Boys | | Girls | |
|------------------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | Coefficient | p | Coefficient | p |
| ICTres <----- FamB | 0,471 | 0,000 | 0,471 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- ICTres | 0,592 | 0,000 | 0,442 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- FamB | 0,027 | 0,273 | 0,001 | 0,982 |
| HISEI <----- FamB | 0,817 | 0,000 | 0,837 | 0,000 |
| compposs <----- ICTres | 0,654 | n | 0,613 | n |
| intposs <----- ICTres | 0,791 | 0,000 | 0,884 | 0,000 |
| HIGHCONF <----- CL | 0,698 | 0,000 | 0,623 | 0,000 |
| INTCONF <----- CL | 0,899 | n | 1,022 | n |
| HISCED <----- FamB | 0,750 | n | 0,793 | n |
| HEDRES <----- FamB | 0,281 | 0,000 | 0,241 | 0,000 |

Boys - N=3238 Chisq=44,065 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,996 AGFI=0,986 BIC=244,637

Girls - N=3082 Chisq=183,215 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,983 AGFI=0,941 BIC=382,881

Table 7: Model effects and standardised coefficients – Czech Republic – 2006 – boys and girls

| Effect | Boys | | Girls | |
|-----------------------|---------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | Coefficient | p | Coefficient | p |
| ICTres <----- FamB | 0,478 | 0,000 | 0,424 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- ICTres | 0,695 | 0,000 | 0,540 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- FamB | -0,077 | 0,003 | 0,011 | 0,630 |
| HISEI <----- FamB | 0,884 | 0,000 | 0,950 | 0,000 |
| composs <----- ICTres | 0,665 | n | 0,651 | n |
| intposs <----- ICTres | 0,756 | 0,000 | 0,823 | 0,000 |
| HIGHCONF <----- CL | 0,723 | 0,000 | 0,627 | 0,000 |
| INTCONF <----- CL | 0,902 | n | 0,917 | n |
| HISCED <----- FamB | 0,553 | n | 0,606 | n |
| HEDRES <----- FamB | 0,281 | 0,000 | 0,227 | 0,000 |

Boys - N=3130 Chisq=43,758 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,996 AGFI=0,986 BIC=224,734
 Girls - N=2777 Chisq=32,514 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,997 AGFI=0,988 BIC=230,015

Table 8: Model effects and standardised coefficients – Finland and Slovakia – 2006 – all

| Effect | Finland | | Slovakia | |
|-----------------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Coefficient | p | Coefficient | p |
| ICTres <----- FamB | 0,206 | 0,000 | 0,644 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- ICTres | 0,251 | 0,000 | 0,871 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- FamB | 0,015 | 0,465 | -0,225 | 0,000 |
| HISEI <----- FamB | 0,649 | 0,000 | 0,751 | 0,000 |
| composs <----- ICTres | 0,729 | n | 0,565 | n |
| intposs <----- ICTres | 0,914 | 0,000 | 0,598 | 0,000 |
| HIGHCONF <----- CL | 0,592 | 0,000 | 0,737 | 0,000 |
| INTCONF <----- CL | 0,952 | n | 0,949 | n |
| HISCED <----- FamB | 0,558 | n | 0,787 | n |
| HEDRES <----- FamB | 0,199 | 0,000 | 0,315 | 0,000 |

Finland - N=4701 Chisq=41,170 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,997 AGFI=0,991 BIC=249,198
 Slovakia - N=4717 Chisq=132,442 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,992 AGFI=0,972 BIC=340,538

Table 9: Model effects and standardised coefficients – Finland – 2006 – boys and girls

| Effect | Boys | | Girls | |
|-----------------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Coefficient | p | Coefficient | p |
| ICTres <----- FamB | 0,225 | 0,000 | 0,187 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- ICTres | 0,315 | 0,000 | 0,194 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- FamB | 0,111 | 0,001 | -0,049 | 0,059 |
| HISEI <----- FamB | 0,644 | 0,000 | 0,659 | 0,000 |
| composs <----- ICTres | 0,704 | n | 0,748 | n |
| intposs <----- ICTres | 0,853 | 0,000 | 0,959 | 0,000 |
| HIGHCONF <----- CL | 0,617 | 0,000 | 0,483 | 0,000 |
| INTCONF <----- CL | 0,876 | n | 1,077 | n |
| HISCED <----- FamB | 0,537 | n | 0,573 | n |
| HEDRES <----- FamB | 0,220 | 0,000 | 0,183 | 0,000 |

Boys - N=2318 Chisq=26,614 df=8 p=0,001 GFI=0,997 AGFI=0,989 BIC=220,501

Girls - N=2383 Chisq=22,688 df=8 p=0,004 GFI=0,997 AGFI=0,990 BIC=217,128

Table 10: Model effects and standardised coefficients – Slovakia – 2006 – boys and girls

| Effect | Boys | | Girls | |
|-----------------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|--------------|
| | Coefficient | p | Coefficient | p |
| ICTres <----- FamB | 0,650 | 0,000 | 0,683 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- ICTres | 0,893 | 0,000 | 0,822 | 0,000 |
| CL <----- FamB | -0,228 | 0,000 | -0,214 | 0,000 |
| HISEI <----- FamB | 0,726 | 0,000 | 0,782 | 0,000 |
| composs <----- ICTres | 0,598 | n | 0,533 | n |
| intposs <----- ICTres | 0,600 | 0,000 | 0,592 | 0,000 |
| HIGHCONF <----- CL | 0,772 | 0,000 | 0,695 | 0,000 |
| INTCONF <----- CL | 0,928 | n | 0,984 | n |
| HISCED <----- FamB | 0,807 | n | 0,761 | n |
| HEDRES <----- FamB | 0,339 | 0,000 | 0,295 | 0,000 |

Boys - N=2381 Chisq=75,269 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,991 AGFI=0,968 BIC=269,692

Girls - N=2336 Chisq=72,755 df=8 p=0,000 GFI=0,991 AGFI=0,969 BIC=266,797

Part 1

List of the key competencies (EU approach):

- Communication in mother tongue
- Communication in foreign language
- Mathematical, science and technology literacy
- Information and communication technology literacy
- Learning to learn
- Interpersonal social and civic competences
- Entrepreneurship
- Cultural awareness

Source: Hučínová 2006

List of the key competencies (Czech Republic, prepared as a background for developing the so called Framework Educational Programmes):

- Competence to communicate
- Personal competences
- Social competences
- Civic competences
- Problem solving
- Effective work with information resources and ICT tools
- Application of basic mathematical procedures to practical tasks solving
- Work eligibility competences

Source: VUP 2006

Part 2

Information and communication technology questionnaire, PISA 2006

Q5 How well can you do each of these tasks on a computer?

(Please tick one box in each row)

- a) Chat online +
- b) Use software to find and get rid of computer viruses
- c) Edit digital photographs or other graphic images
- d) Create a database (e.g. using <Microsoft Access ®>)
- e) Copy data to a CD (e.g. make a music CD)
- f) Move files from one place to another on a computer
- g) Search the internet for information
- h) Download files or programs from the Internet.
- i) Attach a file to an E-mail message
- j) Use a word processor (e.g. to write an essay for school)
- k) Use a spreadsheet to plot a graph
- l) Create a presentation (e.g. using <Microsoft PowerPoint ®>)
- m) Download music from the Internet
- n) Create a multi-media presentation (with sound, pictures, video)
- o) Write and send E-mails
- p) Construct a web page

Source: PISA 2006, ICT questionnaire

Part 3

Tasks (see above) division:

Internet tasks – a, g, h, i, m, o, p

High-level tasks – b, c, d, e, f, j, k, l, n

State Principal Standards: Development, Alignment, and Implementation

Robert Beebe¹, Anne Bauer², Julie Edmister³, Carol Engler⁴, Karen Herrington⁵, Ann Shelly⁶, Michael Smith⁷, Anita Varrati⁸, Ted Zigler⁹

¹Youngstown State University – USA, ²University of Cincinnati – USA, ³Bowling Green State University – USA, ⁴Ashland University – USA, ⁵University of Akron – USA, ⁶Ashland University – USA, ⁷Lourdes College – USA, ⁸Kent State University – USA, ⁹Ohio Dominican University – USA

rjbeebe@ysu.edu, baueram@ucmail.uc.edu, ejulie@bgsu.edu, drcengler@aol.com, kherrington@uakron.edu, ashelly@ashland.edu, msmith@lourdes.edu, avarrati@kent.edu, ziglert@ohiodominican.edu

Abstract

In 2004 the Ohio state legislature (U.S.) created an Educator Standards Board to develop clear performance standards for teachers, principals, and professional development programs. The Ohio Department of Education has undertaken initiatives to write the required standards, to demonstrate the alignment of the standards with national standards, and to implement the standards. The authors of the proposed paper session have been involved in these initiatives as they address principals.

One section of the proposed paper will discuss the composition of the principal standards writing team, the research that was consulted, the stakeholder input that was received, the role of consultants, the writing and review process, and the final product. The second section will describe the development, validation, and use of a matrix/crosswalk aligning the standards with the national standards of ISLLC, ELCC, TEAC, Praxis II, TEAC, and Ohio's Value-Added measures.

The third section will discuss the initiatives taken to implement the principal standards in university licensure programs, school district performance evaluation systems, professional association training programs, and state entry-year programs.

Keywords: principal – standards – state – development - alignment

1. Introduction

Joining a national trend in the U.S. for reform and accountability in public schools, and based on an assessment of Ohio's specific educational needs, Governor Bob Taft in November 2001 established the Governor's Commission on Teaching Success. The task of this commission was to develop recommendations that would help Ohio (a) recruit and retain teachers, (b) build teachers' capacity to perform at consistently high levels, and (c) create school environments with effective leadership where teachers can teach and students can succeed.

The recommendations of this Commission prompted the Ohio Legislature in March 2004 to enact Senate Bill 2, which required the creation of the Ohio

Educator Standards Board (ESB). This body was charged to initiate standards-based reforms throughout the state by adopting clear and appropriate standards for (a) teacher and school principal job performance, (b) educator professional development programs and (c) professional license renewal. The Educator Standards Board was also to (d) align educator preparation programs in colleges and universities with the educator standards, (e) monitor compliance with the adopted standards, and (f) develop a proposal for career ladders for educators. The Educator Standards Board was required to report directly to the Ohio Legislature.

Although Ohio has a larger story to tell about standards-based reform, this paper focuses on the Ohio Principal Standards. The paper discusses the development of the standards, the alignment of the standards with national standards, and state implementation of the standards.

2. Development of the Ohio Principal Standards

At the direction of the Educator Standards Board, the Ohio Department of Education in October 2004 appointed a diverse team of 19 professional educators from across the state to develop a set of performance standards for school principals. The chief criteria for the selection of team members were professional experience, commitment to the task, relevant knowledge, and the ability to articulate their views. Three members of the writing team were drawn from central office positions, seven were experienced principals, four were teachers, and five were college professors in educational leadership.

Expert facilitation was provided by staff from the Ohio Department of Education (ODE) and the Mid-Continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL). McREL was incorporated in 1966 as the Mid-continent Regional Educational Laboratory, a nonprofit organization created to help educators in the nation's heartland bridge the gap between research and practice. The Educator Standards Board also provided guidance.

The writing team was given relevant reference materials and information. Each team member received nine books, including works by Barth and Fullan; 11 research reports, including studies by Cotton, Leithwood, and McREL; three sets of national standards for principals, including those of the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC), and McREL; and seven sets of principal standards from other states, including California, Florida, and North Carolina. Stakeholder input was provided by advocates in the areas of achievement gaps, economics education, cultural competency, mental health, drug education, developmental disabilities, gifted education, and technology.

The writing team met nearly every three weeks from October 2004 to July 2005. Honoraria and expenses for team members were paid by the Ohio Department of Education. The team was instructed to develop general statements of principal job expectations, a narrative explanation of these expectations, a breakdown of the general statements into component elements, and a further breakdown of the elements into precise behavioral indicators. In addition, for each standard,

levels of performance were defined for principals whose work would be considered Proficient, Accomplished, or Distinguished. These levels were established chiefly to assist in the identification of individuals' professional development needs, as well as tending to the mandated career ladder proposal.

An iterative writing process was followed, in which language drafted by the writing team was closely critiqued by the ODE, McREL, and the ESB facilitators, followed by team consideration of recommended changes, and additional cycles of review and revision. As the process moved forward, both the teacher standards writing team and the principal standards writing team worked together to create a common language for both sets of standards. Discussions were often lively. The following five Ohio Principal Standards were approved by the Educator Standards Board in October 2005.

Standard #1: Continuous Improvement — Principals help create a shared vision and clear goals for their schools and ensure continuous progress toward achieving the school's goals.

Standard #2: Instruction – Principals support the implementation of high-quality, standards-based instruction that results in higher levels of achievement for all students.

Standard #3: School Operations, Resources, and Learning Environment – Principals allocate resources and manage school operations in order to ensure a safe and productive learning environment.

Standard #4: Collaboration – Principals establish and sustain collaborative learning and shared leadership to promote student learning and the achievement of all students.

Standard #5: Parents and Community Engagement – Principals engage parents and community members in the educational process and create an environment where community resources support student learning, achievement and well-being.

3. Alignment of the Standards

The new Ohio Principal Standards were disseminated statewide by the Ohio Department of Education in the fall of 2004 to school district superintendents, elementary and secondary school administrator associations, and deans of college and university educator preparation programs. While higher education administrators and faculty acknowledged the importance and value of the new Ohio Principal Standards, they were immediately faced with the practical challenge of determining how and to what extent the new Ohio principal standards aligned with national principal standards, specifically the ISLLC and ELCC standards. This reconciliation was critical for institutions to address Specialized Professional Association (SPA) and National Association for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) accreditation requirements.

To avoid the costly duplication of institutions trying to align the new principal standards independently, the Ohio Department of Education allocated funding to establish a coalition of higher education stakeholders focused on collaboratively developing a standards-aligned system. The chief purpose of the initiative was to align the new Ohio Standards for Principals with the numerous national and professional standards. A secondary purpose was to develop an interactive matrix that institutions could use and customize in order to show how their own performance outcomes aligned with the prescribed standards in the matrix.

3.1. The Process

The alignment process was led by two university faculty members who served as co-chairs, one from a public institution the other from a private institution. These were Karen Herrington (University of Akron) and Ann Shelly (Ashland University). Eighteen faculty members from public and private colleges and universities and two-year institutions engaged in educator preparation were selected through a formal application process to serve on the Principal Standards Alignment Development Team. Selection was based on faculty members' experience, expertise, and commitment to the project goals and timeline. The Team members were as follows: Co-Chairs Julie Edmister (Bowling Green State University) and Carol Engler (Ashland University); Robert Beebe (Youngstown State University); Susan Clark (University of Akron); Rahman Dyer (University of Findlay); Tsila Evers (College of Mount Saint Joseph); Catherine Glascock (Ohio University); Frederick Hampton (Cleveland State University); Sylvia Imler (Youngstown State University); Douglas Kammerer (Ashland University); Carol Ramsay (Lake Erie College); Carolyn Ridenour (University of Dayton); Kent Seidel (University of Cincinnati); Anita Varrati (Kent State University); Paul Williams (Cleveland State University); Ray Witte (Miami University); Arlie Woodrum (Ohio University); and Ted Zigler (Ohio Dominican University).

The overall goal of the project was to support the implementation of the new standards by facilitating their integration into higher education. The charge to the team was to develop tools for institutions to use and customize to facilitate their work in incorporating the Ohio Standards into their own standards alignments and assessment systems. The project was not designed to produce a new set of standards, a synthesis of standards, or a prescriptive model that institutions must follow. Institutions in the state would be free to modify and use the alignment matrix tools, check alignments they had previously developed against the matrix, or not use the tools at all. In just seven weeks, the team members came together to share drafts of their work and create the alignment matrix.

Based on the success of the initial alignment project, the Ohio Department of Education provided additional funding to extend the project. A Project Coordinating Council was established to provide oversight and coordination for this extended phase of the project. The new activities included the completion of a gap analysis report, the creation of an alignment website, and the dissemination and implementation of the alignment tools. Fifteen months after the project began, the work was shared at a statewide conference.

3.2. Alignment of Ohio Principal Standards with National Standards

Being standard-based is a key feature of the movement toward performance based educator preparation, and the standards movement generally (Ferrini-Mundy, 2003). However, standards do not exist in a vacuum. "Alignment" describes the degree to which expectations and assessments agree and work together to guide what students are expected to know and do (Webb, 2001). Schmidt and Wang (2005) describe alignment as an "accord" among various standards and assessments and practice. An alignment of standards provides coherence among efforts (Newmann, Smith, Allensworth, & Ryke, 2001). Viewed broadly, alignments demonstrate the degree to which components of the educational system work together toward a desired goal (Case & Zucker, 2005).

The initial task of the alignment project was to align the new Ohio Standards for Principals with the following national, state and professional standards: (1) National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), which accredits colleges, schools, and departments of education, (2) Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC), which accredits undergraduate and graduate professional education programs, (3) Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) Standards, used for advanced programs in educational leadership, (4) Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), (5) Praxis II Educational Administration Licensure Test, and (6) Ohio Value-Added Assessment legislation.

A first challenge to the members of the teams was the development of a working definition for the concept of alignment. The team members needed to establish how, and how strongly, a given standard must correspond with another standard in order to constitute an alignment. Must there be a word for word match, a partial word match, or some more abstract conceptual match to the standards? Should the language of the elements illustrating the standards be used to determine alignment? And should the team members drill down to the level of the behavioral indicators to determine alignment?

The initial draft of the matrix was compiled from the work of individuals or small groups who compared one set of the several national standards with each of the Ohio Principal standards. These persons had been instructed to use their professional judgment and experience in interpreting and comparing the various standards. However, the team members quickly felt the need for collaborative discussion of the alignments they had individually found.

Such discussions led to the use of multiple working definitions of alignment, depending on the clarity of the standards. What the matrix would lack in theoretical purity was judged to be offset by team consensus and the practical capacity of the matrix to support subsequent program analysis. As the alignment process proceeded, the alignment teams became more and more aware of the relationships among the sets of standards, and this informed their work.

It is important to note that a syllogism was not intended when aligning the standards. The following logical syllogism is well known: If $A = B$ and $B = C$, then $A = C$. If, however, A only approximates B , and B only approximates C , it cannot be concluded logically that A approximates C . The imperfect linkage between the elements of this false syllogism prevents syllogistic reasoning. Although a given

national standard in the matrix may align with an Ohio standard, it cannot be inferred that this standard aligns with another standard that aligns with the same Ohio standard. Each statement may relate to narrower or broader features of the standard with which it is being compared. Also, equivalency among all of the various standards cannot be established by reading across the columns of the matrix. In other words, simply because Ohio Principal Standard 1.1 relates to the ELCC Standard 1.1a and to Praxis II Element 2.12, it does not mean that Praxis II Element 2.12 is equivalent to ELCC Standard 1.1a.

In order to address suspected issues of coherence and validity, a second review of the alignment was initiated as a form of a validation. In this review, the Project Coordinating Council studied each set of standards. The first alignment effort had been conducted by proceeding “down” the matrix, and the second was completed by working “across” the matrix. Disagreements were addressed by discussion. Changes occurred only when there was consensus. It is worth noting that the cells of the matrix each contain a flag that refers the reader to the explicit language of each aligned standard. The flags provide a level of transparency for the alignment and validation determinations that were made.

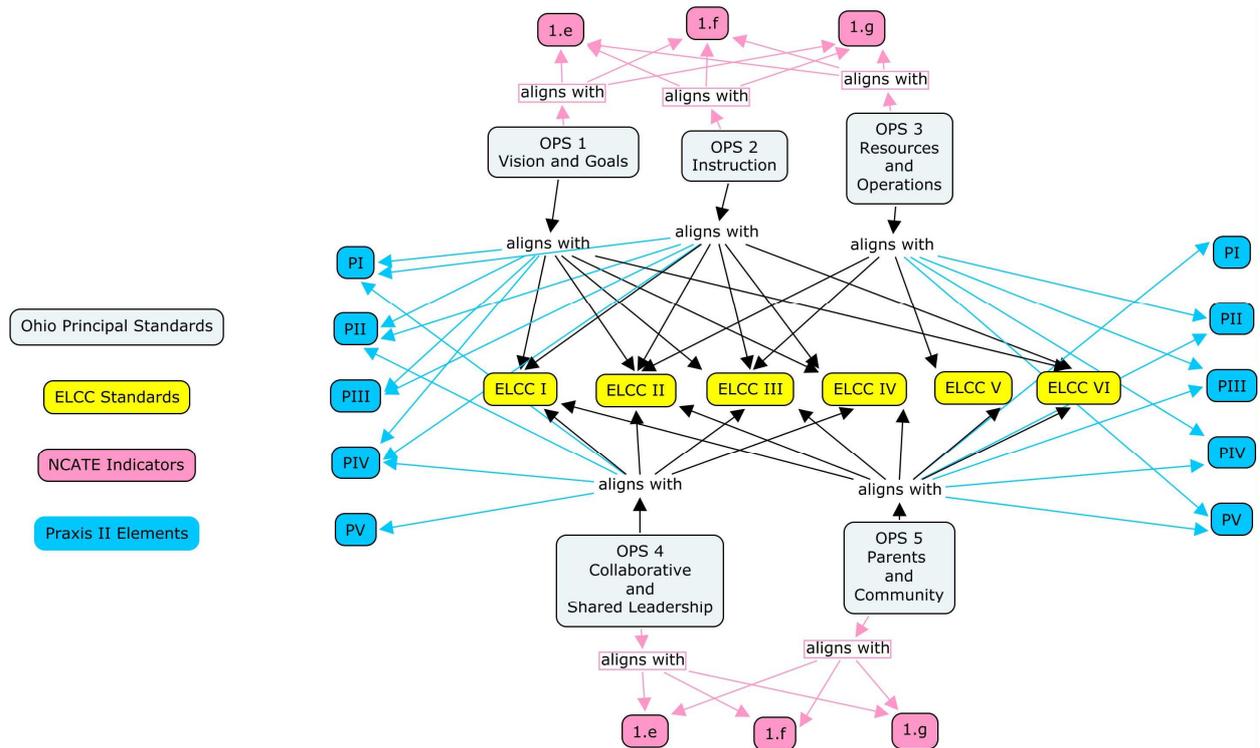
Certain limitations of the matrix are inherent in the process under which it was developed. The original alignment was developed by a small number of well qualified individuals. A smaller group of the same individuals was also asked to perform the validation of the matrix, although a one-month time period elapsed between the alignment and the validation sessions. The division of labor that was necessary to organize the alignment task introduced the possibility of inconsistencies in the work product. However, this was offset somewhat by the close collaboration among the team members during the alignment work session.

To strengthen the validity of the alignment further, a third review process was initiated to provide a triangulation for the validation process. Representatives from National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC), and Educational Testing Service (ETS), were asked to review and provide feedback on the alignment from their professional perspective. A consultant from ELCC had previously reviewed the work while it was in process. In the end, the work of the Principal Standards Alignment Team, the Project Coordinating Council, and the Professional Organizations resulted in the alignment of the standards as presented in the Ohio Standards for Principals Alignment Matrix.

3.3. Analyzing Gaps

Once the alignment process was completed, the working teams conducted a gap analysis to determine if there were points in the matrix where there appeared to be no apparent alignment with a particular Ohio standard. Based on the analysis of gaps in the Ohio Principal Standards matrix, a few gaps appeared to exist in relationship to the national standards. The specific language did not always appear to match at first comparison. However, when the Ohio standard was further explored at the Element level, and then at the Indicator level, the alignment became comprehensive, and very few gaps were found. The gap analysis provided another means of validation and illustrated the strong alignment among the standards within the matrix. A Concept Web was developed

to provide a visual representation of the degree of alignment among the standards.



Concept Webs have a special value in a project of this magnitude. They provide a graphic way of reviewing the information and the relationships that more linear approaches cannot demonstrate. One of the most flexible software programs for developing concept webs, especially ones that are this complex, is Cmap (<http://cmap.ihmc.us>). This program was used to create the Concept Web above.

4. Implementation of the Alignment

A range of initiatives has been undertaken to implement the Ohio Principal Standards in university licensure programs, school district performance evaluation systems, professional association training programs, and state entry-year programs.

4.1. Higher Education

The Ohio alignment matrix for principals can be used by university faculty and administrators for curriculum planning, internal and external program reviews, and to aid in accreditation by either the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) or the Teacher Education Accreditation Council (TEAC). The matrix also allows institutions to stay current with changes in the field, and in the case of Ohio, to move quickly to align with, and make use of, the new and formally adopted Ohio Standards for Principals.

Alignment is a key aspect of both the preconditions and institutional reports of accreditation agencies. In the preconditions report for NCATE accreditation, the checklist for the submission of a conceptual framework includes an alignment chart linking the unit's learning proficiencies for candidates with institutional and state standards. Specific references appear in the following elements of the institutional report for NCATE: (1) the Conceptual Framework requires a section that describes how candidate proficiencies are aligned with professional and state standards, and (2) Standard 2, Element 1, requires that the rubric for the assessment system reflects the conceptual framework and professional and state standards.

TEAC also requires an alignment with approved standards in the required Inquiry Brief. In presenting the case for meeting Quality Principle I, Evidence of Student Learning, the report must include national and state standards to demonstrate that the program's graduates possess subject matter, pedagogy, and caring teaching skills, along with the TEAC themes of learning to learn, multicultural perspectives, and technology. Once the matrix is aligned with an institution's conceptual framework and unit performance objectives, the matrix can be a useful artifact in meeting the alignment requirements of either NCATE or TEAC.

Programs for educator preparation are reviewed by Specialized Professional Associations (SPAs) using nationally recognized standards for the various program areas. For example, in administrator preparation programs, the recognized SPA is the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC). This SPA is an organization of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) and has produced its own set of standards based upon the Interstate School Leadership Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) Standards. An estimated 500 universities and colleges offer programs in educational leadership in the U.S. These programs are required to be aligned with the ELCC standards for approval by their respective state departments of education (ELCC, 2007). In states like Ohio, which have developed their own principal standards, administrator preparation programs are required to demonstrate how the state principal standards are aligned with the SPA standards. In the Context section of the SPA report for the ELCC, a description of the relationship between the unit's conceptual framework and assessment system is required. The matrix provides a graphic example of this alignment.

On October 18, 2007, a statewide conference was held to present the work of the standards-development and alignment projects and to share strategies for implementing the alignment tool. Approximately 150 representatives from institutions of higher education from around the state attended. Four goals had been established for the conference. It was intended that participants would (1) understand that the new Ohio Standards for Principals establish state expectations for educational leadership preparation programs, (2) understand how the Ohio Standards align with national and professional standards, (3) understand how to access and use the ODE Standards Alignment Crosswalk, and (4) conceptualize standards alignments as tools for accreditation and program approval.

Evaluation results for the conference indicated that all of the goals were achieved, thus providing the basis for implementation of the Ohio Principal Standards in leadership licensure programs offered by colleges and universities.

Preliminary information indicates that institutions are moving to employ the Principal Standards alignment matrix in this process.

4.2. School Districts

Ohio is in the process of developing a system for principal evaluation and development that would be optional for use by the state's school districts. This evaluation system is based on the Ohio Principal Standards. While the matrix is not used as a part of this system, the matrix demonstrates that the Ohio Principal Standards align with the ELCC, NCATE, and ISLLC standards.

In the fall of 2007, the Ohio Department of Education funded a task force to develop a standard tool for principal evaluation. The task force was composed of representatives of higher education, the Ohio Department of Education, superintendents, principals, assistant principals, and the state principal and superintendent organizations. The facilitator for this effort was Dr. Joseph Murphy, of Vanderbilt University. Dr. Murphy was instrumental in the original writing and adoption of the ISLLC standards in the U.S. and is currently leading a review and re-write of those standards.

The evaluation system consists of three broad components or dimensions, each of which is weighed equally: (1) a goal setting process in which standard-based goals are crafted, targets of performance are established, and sources of evidence are identified, (2) a 360 degree survey process in which assessments of effectiveness based on the Ohio Principal Standards are made by educators who work with and for the principal, and (3) measures of organizational effectiveness, both in terms of student learning outcomes and measures of client satisfaction.

The Ohio Department of Education is working to make 360 degree assessments available in electronic form to serve as samples for school districts, experimenting with models developed by Vanderbilt University and McREL. It is intended that by making high quality models available to school districts, the state will make it convenient for districts to meet and maintain high standards for principal evaluation. The state will conduct pilot studies of implementation in several districts for the 2008-2009 school year. These pilot studies will be evaluated by researchers from the University of Cincinnati.

4.3. Professional Organizations

The state of Ohio is fortunate to have a newly chartered professional organization to serve the state's 22 university programs that offer master's degrees in educational administration and state licensure for principals. In 2005, the Ohio Department of Education funded the newly chartered Ohio Council of Professors of Educational Administration (OCPEA). The OCPEA has become the first state affiliate of the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration (NCPEA).

Sponsoring two statewide conferences per year, OCPEA provides a forum for networking among educational leadership preparation faculty across the state (Varrati, 2008). By partnering with Ohio's statewide principal and superintendent

organizations, high quality professional development that links theory with practice is being established to bridge the traditional gap and enhance communication between academics and district level practitioners. The Ohio Alignment Matrix was unveiled publicly at OCPEA's initial state conference in the fall of 2006.

4.4. Entry Year Principal Program

During 2006-2007, the Ohio Principal Standards were used to benchmark the existing Ohio Entry Year Program for Principals and to identify improvement strategies. As a result of this work, the program was redesigned. While the alignment matrix is not included as a part of this program, the matrix demonstrates that the Ohio Principal Standards align with the ELCC, NCATE, and ISLLC standards and thereby provides support for the program.

The redesigned program contains two unique, but supporting, elements for principals and assistant principals: (1) an entry year induction program, and (2) a mentoring component. The entry year program provides direct assistance to Ohio's beginning principals and offers support to help the entry year principals meet the real world challenges of instructional leadership.

The Ohio Department of Education, the Ohio Association of Secondary School Administrators (OASSA), and the Ohio Association of Elementary School Administrators (OAESA) have worked collaboratively to provide a unified program for educational leaders. The redesigned entry year program intensifies the pre-service professional development of entry year principals by aligning the entry year program content with the Standards for Ohio's Principals.

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Study of Literacy And Numeracy Teaching And Evaluation Practices In Relation To Diversity

Marie Josée Berger, Ph.D.¹, Renée Forgette-Giroux, Ph.D.²

Faculty of Education - University of Ottawa
deduc@uottawa.ca

Abstract

Canada's ethnocultural profile has become increasingly multiethnic and multilingual. Ontario's Educational institutions are now faced with the challenging task of educating an increasingly diversified student body. Students' performance at school is affected by their background experiences and socio-cultural identity. The research examines what are the successful teaching and evaluation practices that favour literacy learning amongst students of an ethnocultural minority. The study uses a mixed model method (Johnson & Christensen, 2004) by combining survey and case study approaches to data collection and analysis. This paper examines the results of the case study. The participants are the Kindergarten to grade six teachers from 60 English language district school boards and 12 French language district school boards. Based on the information provided by the participants, we need to learn about the possibilities of achieving competencies in literacy through alternate visions of schooling.

Keywords: Literacy – Teaching – Evaluation – Diversity

1. Introduction

In order to reach the objectives of excellence for all in education in Ontario, the Ministry of Education published several documents: *Literacy for Learning* (2004), *Education for All* (2005), *Early Reading Strategy* (2003), *Teaching and Learning Mathematics* (2004). These reports offer teaching and learning strategies that will enable teachers to better meet students' needs in terms of numeracy and literacy in Ontario's Anglophone and Francophone schools. They fully focus on the specific issues that surround students of an ethnocultural minority. However, these issues are significant and require an in-depth examination in light of the factors linked to literacy, such as: personal factors, family-related and academic factors. Several studies have centered on a few of these issues (Lareau, A. & Hovat, E.M., 1999; Jeynes, W., 2003). In order to corroborate John Ogbu's theory, Samuel Kulgy, Smolska & Warren (2001) studied the academic results of adolescents belonging to voluntary, as opposed to involuntary, minority/ethnocultural groups. The findings in the article indicate that the majority of the students who belong to voluntary, as opposed to involuntary, minority and ethnocultural groups excel in academic performance despite language barriers and racial discrimination.

Therefore, in order to properly implement the principles of pedagogical culture and the research on literacy and constructivist ideology, teachers play a crucial

role in implementing desired changes related to the education system (Berger, 2003). Teaching and evaluation practices link and connect many pedagogical strategies and techniques in order to create a coherent amount. With this in mind, this study had the following objective: Identify successful teaching practices and evaluation tools.

2. Review of the Literature

Educational research illustrates that students who do not speak the official national languages at home tend to struggle more with meeting the provincial literacy standards expected at school (Li, 2006). Even if a student should speak English or French as his or her first language, the ways in which that student is taught literacy at home often conflicts culturally with the learning environment, curricular content, and teaching and learning practices at school (Gee, 19; Russell, 2006). For example, research illustrates that teachers who are culturally responsive to the ethnocultural needs of their students are better able to play a key role in increasing the educational success of such students (Gay 1993, 2000).

In classroom interactions, sociocultural norms, values, and beliefs can become impenetrable obstacles to effective teaching and learning. Such obstacles occur especially when the various sociocultural practices at a student's home differ dramatically from the expected practices at school. Teachers often draw on examples, illustrations, vignettes, and scenarios that reflect the teaching and learning environment they were raised in. However, for many ethnocultural different students who have yet to be exposed to Canada's mainstream culture, such abstractions remain irrelevant. "The experiences, values, orientations, and perspectives of middle-class, highly educated, middle-aged Anglo teachers who live in small to mid-size suburban communities," Gay (1993) stresses, "are very different from those of students who are poor, under-educated, racial and ethnic minorities, living in urban areas" (p. 288). Acknowledging, as well as addressing, such how such differences within curriculum and teaching practices affects the potential successes ethnoculturally diverse students is part of becoming a sociocultural conscious teacher.

According to research the following characteristics define a culturally responsive teacher:

- a. The teacher is socioculturally conscious, that is, recognizes that there are multiple ways of perceiving reality and that these ways are influenced by one's location in the social order.
- b. The teacher affirms the views of students from diverse backgrounds, seeing resources for learning in all students rather than viewing differences as problems to be overcome.
- c. The teacher sees himself or herself as both responsible for and capable of bringing about educational change that will make schools more responsive to all students.

- d. The teacher understands how learners construct knowledge and is capable of promoting learners' knowledge construction.
- e. The teacher knows about the lives of his or her students.
- f. The teacher uses knowledge about students' lives to design instruction that builds on what they already know while stretching them beyond the familiar.
- g. The teacher knows which ethnic groups give priority to communal living and cooperative problem solving and how these preferences affect educational motivation, aspiration, and task performance.
- h. The teacher (a) acknowledges how different ethnic groups' protocols for regulating the ways children interact with adults are exhibited in instructional settings and (b) understands the implications of gender role socialization in different ethnic groups for implementing equity initiatives in classroom instructions (Gay, 2000, p. 107).

3. Framework

Literacy and culture go hand in hand. Students who see themselves reflected and affirmed in classroom texts and in instruction come to appreciate that reading and writing are genuinely for them and about them (p. 5, Literacy for Learning – The Report of the Expert Panel on Literacy in Grades 4 to 6 in Ontario, 2004).

Such an approach with regards to students of an ethnocultural minority calls upon educators to play a more focal role in the classroom.

There exist four fundamental principles that act as a guide for individual and collective activity:

1. Individual and collective activity is necessary in the construction of knowledge.
2. Knowledge and know-how are transposable.
3. The purposiveness of cognitive activity is the growth of possibilities as opposed to reaching a correct and predetermined answer.
4. Every action, operation, conceptual structure or theory is considered viable when it thrives to accomplish a task or reach a fixed goal.

Depending on whether or not the knowledge constructing activity is of an individual or collective nature, these fundamental principles will be applied in different ways (Bruner, 1985; De Vries et Kohlberg, 1990; Tudge & Rogoff, 1989). These writings advocate the value of individual and internal reality (cognitive constructivism) while emphasizing the importance of knowledge and understanding stemming from social encounters (social constructivism).

Even though there is dissociation between individual and social perspective, it must be noted that the individual perspective may be integrated into the social perspective. Students of an ethnocultural minority who build their own knowledge database can do so individually or socially. The principles that apply

to these individuals are in fact an integral part of the collective constructivist experience. This first categorization suggested by research describes the global objective of constructivism as the development of a rational model of individual and collective cognitive activity. Phillips' model of constructivism is applied on three levels in continuum: the first level could be entitled: *A Theoretical Vision of the Knowledge Construction Process*, and would focus on the opposition between empirical and rational perspective. The second would be entitled: *Theoretical Perspective of Knowledge* and its polarities would be the psychological aspects of individual and social psychology. The third level, which would be entitled: *The Importance of Sociocultural Context in the Construction of Knowledge*, would focus on both the individual process (autonomic) and the sociocultural one (cognition in context)..

3.1 Factors Influencing Literacy

Like all learning, learning to read is, to a great extent, a social process. The process begins years before children enter school, when they are read to at home. Attitudes about reading are nurtured through this one-to-one reading relationship. Children come to see reading as enjoyable, social, and important. This initial phase in the development of the reader is grounded in the social interaction between the child and the adult model. A positive model is one of the keys to becoming a successful reader. School can serve as an extension to the parent-child reading relationship. Teachers, peers, and older students can now provide the guidance, support, encouragement, opportunity, and positive environment required by the emergent reader.

If learning to read is a social process, then it follows that it is also a cultural process. There are differences among cultures in the ways in which parents teach children at home. When they enter school, children from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds often have to adjust to the new school culture, including its expectations and values.

3.2 Nature of the Literacy Learning Process

A teacher can create a rich and diverse writing environment through the use of books to be sure, but also through comic books, magazines, catalogues, special oeuvres, dictionaries, newspapers, websites, billboards, etc. Whether a student flips through an illustrated book, or a catalogue, this can constitute a first step towards writing if the teacher in turn knows how to encourage their students during this process. We know that it is usually the same pieces of writing on specific subjects that interest students. Thus the teacher should ensure that the students have access to many writing samples that teach them about the subjects they are interested in. Students will then be able to enjoy rereading different materials on the same subject area.

During learning situations, reading and writing activities share a dialectic relationship. That is, the learning of one influences the learning of the other. It is, in effect, easier and more interesting to engage in the act of comprehension through reading, especially when a student has difficulties with writing. Often students are more at ease with writing after they have read a lot. It is therefore

difficult to disassociate the two. Nonetheless, teachers must try to create a healthy balance between privileging reading of texts and writing them. It is impossible to affirm that one method will always give the best results. Certain methods have not been rigorously evaluated. In general scientific research only considers one or two methods. No single method assures, nor produces, equally good results for all students in one class. A number of factors influence the results of any given method; for example: the intelligence of students, family environment, the teaching materials used, the ability and personality of the teacher.

3.3 Assessing and Evaluating Literacy Practices

Assessing and evaluating student achievement has always been and will remain one of the most important aspects of the total educational process.

Among the most lasting results of effective teaching and learning is an adult who can base life decisions on a solid understanding of the process of authentic assessment and evaluation by: establishing goals, setting high personal standards, objectively observing performances, and self-judging according to measurable criteria.

There is a broad consensus in the educational community about the basic principles that underpin effective assessment and evaluation in classroom settings.

3.3.1 The Process of Assessment

- Must be realistic, continuous, purposeful, and systematic
- Is an integral part of the teaching and learning process
- Must be appropriate to the individual learner
- Identifies areas of both strength and weaknesses and recommends appropriate next steps
- Requires a great variety of techniques, devices, and resources
- Requires effective communication
- Begins with clearly stated program expectations at both general and specific levels over short and long-term learning intervals
- Involves ongoing and documented observation supported by a great variety of task-appropriate tools (questionnaires, contracts, rating-scales, audio and video recordings, interviews, quizzes, conferences, charts, checklists, inventories, portfolios, etc.)
- Provides feedback regarding both the process and the product of learning
- Requires collaboration among teachers, students, parents/guardians, and community
- Makes appropriate use of observable, authentic, and relevant enactments of learning
- Fosters learning

3.3.2 The Functions of Evaluation

The evaluations students receive should reflect what students are expected to learn in the classroom. The evaluation process itself is based on certain provincial curricular standards of excellence (in which learning content is one aspect of the curriculum). Nonetheless, the expectations associated with the curriculum arise from a variety of social, cultural, and psychological processes that reflect the specific makeup and mandate of each school.

Consequently, judgments of excellence fulfill a variety of social functions in the school and the surrounding community. As one of its key functions, evaluation is an important means of communicating to the stakeholders outside of the classroom (e.g., administration, parents) information about students' achievements. Furthermore, evaluations aim to ensure that the mission statement of the school is realized.

Evaluation helps teachers to realize their daily pedagogical functions. The criteria teachers use to evaluate students must not only assess their level of understanding, but also stimulate their inherent desire to learn. Evaluation should examine much more than just the elements of the students' performances of various pedagogical activities. Teachers face the dangers of adversely affecting students' self-concept when they restrict evaluation solely to student-based performances. Instead, the processes of evaluation should also include an examination of the curriculum, teaching strategies, and educational resources.

In the context of promoting scholastic success amongst students, teachers need to:

- Revise expectations and the curricular content as appropriate;
- Inform students about their results in order to encourage them to meet expectations;
- Verify the pertinence of testing and evaluation methods;
- Make the necessary changes and corrections to teaching strategies;
- Take note of the achievement gaps among students;
- Improve their evaluation tools (testing);
- Modify evaluation as appropriate to better respond to the needs of all students.

Therefore, this study aims to answer the following questions:

1. How do teachers perceive their role in literacy development amongst students of an ethnocultural minority?
2. What are the teaching and evaluation practices that favour literacy learning amongst students of an ethnocultural minority?

In order to answer these questions, the teachers of Ontario teaching and evaluation strategies were examined through a survey and case studies to answer the research question. The methodology elements are presented in the following section.

4. Methodology

The study is descriptive as it looks at the teaching and assessing practices of teachers in the context of diversity in settings that differ throughout French, English, public and catholic schools in all regions of Ontario. By combining survey and case study approaches to data collection, this study uses a mixed model method (Johnson & Christensen, 2004) that will yield both broad-based patterns and in-depth details regarding practices in the context of diversity in Ontario. This paper will report the results of the case study.

4.1 Participants

The population of interest for this research is the Kindergarten to grade 6 teachers working in French and English schools in Ontario. This population is divided into 60 English language district school boards and 12 French language district school boards. The district school boards are spread in five general regions: north (8 Eng, 4 Fr), south (16 Eng, 2 Fr), east (9 Eng, 3 Fr), centre (19 En, 1 Fr), and west (8 En, 2 Fr). District school boards vary from very large (more than 100 schools) to very small (less than 25) and cover large and small geographic areas. Boards situated mostly in urban areas typically have a more diverse student population than rural ones although northern communities include an important native student population. A stratified sample of 8 English boards and 3 French boards representing different regions and board size was randomly selected.

4.1.1 Case Studies

Fifteen case studies in English boards and 5 case studies in French boards of four different areas have been done. For these case studies, teachers were interviewed about their experience of evaluating and teaching literacy and numeracy in the context of diversity. The interviews were tape recorded and transcriptions followed. The teachers are working in either English-language or French-language school boards. Interviews, consent forms, instructions, etc. were in the language of the school board.

Interviews provided information that complements the questionnaire data gathered for this research project. Teacher gave details of how the strategies are experienced within the school setting as well as indicated possible adaptations in relation to the context of diversity.

4.2 Research Results

Teachers interviewed for the project revealed myriad strategies and approaches for working with literacy and diversity. This section outlines these findings in two parts. The first, *Specifics: Approaches for Literacy, Diversity and Student Success*, outlines twenty-five practical approaches and considerations for constructing an inclusive pedagogy as far as literacy and diversity. These approaches are based upon an analysis of teacher responses regarding student

success as far as literacy and diversity, and will serve as a meta-cognitive resource for teachers conceptualizing their approach to literacy and diversity. The second part, *Specifics: Exercises and Techniques for Literacy, Diversity and Student Success*, provides twenty specific exercises and techniques for implementing inclusive literacy practice.

4.2.1 *Specifics: Approaches for Literacy, Diversity and Student Success*

Teacher interviews for the *Multiple Literacies Project* reveal that the following approaches have led to high degrees of student and teacher success with regard to literacy and diversity:

1) Low Stakes Assessment: allowing students risk free tasks for literacy development enhances student confidence and allows for progress at a pace tailored to the student.

2) Modeling: modeling is a powerful teaching tool, particularly as far as literacy. Beyond reading and writing, teachers can model self identification and self location, teaching students to personalize and value meaning gathered from the texts with which they are presented.

3) Multiple Entry Points to Learning and Knowing: whenever possible, teachers may find it helpful to create different access points for students to the knowledge in question. For example, through different teaching approaches (teacher, peer and self teaching).

4) Multiple Opportunities for Success: students benefit from multiple and varied opportunities to communicate their understanding of material. This involves different evaluation strategies as well as a flexible conception of what the finished product is supposed to look like.

5) Identity Awareness: teachers often engage in activities such as gendering without meaning to do so. Dividing a class into groups by gender for example, or assigning certain qualities to texts such as pointing out (or allowing students to claim) that a given resource is a 'boy's book' or that a certain colour is for girls, reproduces gender stereotypes and patterns of epistemic domination.

6) Making Professional Development Meaningful: as time is scarce for most teachers, implementing all of the recommendations from a given PD session on equity seems impossible. A more realistic approach may be to choose two to three small and specific things which can be implemented within a week of the session, as well as two to three more general approaches which can be at least partially implemented within a month of the session.

7) Meaning and Engagement for All: teachers may benefit from reflecting on their practice and the degree to which they are engaging each and every student in their class. A guiding question in this exercise is: "How am I making my program meaningful in a long term sense, for all of my students?"

8) Parent Involvement: including parents in the schooling process can enrich the experience of everyone involved and help students to locate themselves in their education.

9) Making Use of What is Out There: a great deal of resources exists to support inclusive literacy practices. Investigating existing resources, even those of one's school and/or other teachers, may reveal a host of excellent ideas.

10) Why Learn?: students and teachers will benefit from an explicit discussion addressing the relevance of what is being taught and how it relates to the lives of both the teacher and the students. This assists in meta-cognitive processes of meaning formation.

11) After School Literacy: when planning a literacy program, teachers may find it helpful to make themselves aware of the texts their students are already taking in (media, video games etc), as these are literacy activities.

12) Standard vs. Individual Progress: teachers and students will benefit from assessing and noting a student's progress by standards established for that student in particular, in addition to those set by standardized tests such as the EQAO.

13) Thinking Across a Program: as far as inclusion, teachers can think across their various programs, whereby they look at all relevant expectations and consider where inclusive teaching might take place.

14) Critical Thinking: students will benefit from a pedagogical approach which values critical thinking, and which uses at least some resources which encourage critical thought and open mindedness. Teachers will benefit from opening themselves up to their students for critiques of their program.

15) Imported Discourses: it is helpful for teachers to consider what, as individuals, they bring to the classroom as far as race, class, gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, ability and religion – both as far as who they are, and their own assumptions and biases.

16) Teacher Know Thy Texts: teachers and students will benefit from the teacher's thorough knowledge of available texts as far as level, content and equity. If students can find nothing of interest or nothing at their reading level, they are not going to read.

17) Don't Presume: teachers may wish to be careful in their assumptions about what a given student will find interesting. One teacher tells of working hard to locate a text on an Afghani girl for one of her Afghani students. The female student was more interested in the life story of Michael Jordan.

18) Don't Throw the Baby Out: when implementing an equity lens, wherever possible teachers may wish to attempt to enhance existing strategies rather than casting them aside. This may help keep the activities at teachers' mental fingertips and will allow them to reflect on past experiences for enrichment of future applications.

19) Consistency: teachers and students benefit from consistent programming, promises kept and commitments fulfilled. Students must be able to rely on the commitments of their teachers to inclusion in order to benefit from that equity and become active themselves in inclusive processes.

20) Community as a Resource: although teachers in Ontario are a fairly homogenous group as far as class, race, ethnicity and religion - this is not true of school communities across the province. Diverse communities are a resource for any inclusive literacy program. Community elders embody knowledge and cultural competencies.

21) Diversity in the Classroom: teachers may wish to look to the ethnic, religious, and racial background of their students as a starting point for inclusive teaching. Students bring a great deal of knowledge with them to school that is too often overlooked.

22) Reflexive Practice: teachers and students will benefit from a reflexive and responsive pedagogy, which adapts and responds to class interest, need and ability. Students, to whatever degree is feasible, must be directive of their own education. In this context practice and experience become the contextual bases of knowledge.

23) Mix it Up: as different students bring different strengths and challenges to the classroom, one step toward classroom inclusion is the use of

activities and assessments which engage different learning styles whenever possible.

24) Centring and Celebrating the Learner: students benefit from multiple and varied opportunities to present who they are and to explicate their understanding of the world in formal and informal contexts which validate the student and her understanding.

25) School vs. Home Culture: schools, teachers and students can benefit from teacher considerations of the difference between home culture and school culture. The school-community interface is a source and embodiment of knowledge. Where distinctions exist due to culture, religion, economic status, immigration status or history – between a student's home culture and that of the school, teachers can assist in bridging the gap through recognition and tolerance.

4.2.2 *Specifics: Exercises and techniques for Literacy, Diversity and Student Success*

Teacher interviews for the *Multiple Literacies Project* reveal that the following exercises have led to high degrees of student and teacher success with regard to literacy and diversity:

1) Persuasive Writing: persuasive writing provides students with an opportunity to engage in a diversity of individual ideas, opinions and arguments reflective of their identities and their out-of-class learning.

2) Non-Fiction: if equity resources are scarce, non-fiction can be used as equity-minded selection of these materials can allow for meaningful student engagement with the production of meaning.

3) Current Events: one way to use current events in the classroom is to have students choose a current event of interest to them from a text source at their independent reading level. Students then present their current event text to the class on an assigned day including a summary of the event, what issues are raised by this event, how the issue relates to them personally, and their opinion of the issue. They should also present questions to the class for discussion. In older grades, the students can facilitate that discussion.

4) All About Me Book: this can be designed and delivered in many ways and in conjunction with many another parts of a program. The goal is that students present themselves to their classmates through the creation of a book about themselves.

5) Reading Response Journal: this can be structured as a double entry journal in which students write or draw about what they are reading. Students may summarize what they are reading and then respond to it on the other half of a divided page. They may also pick out passages from what they are reading and respond to each passage, etc.

6) Summary Writing and Reading: summary writing and reading is a good opportunity to introduce diverse texts and interesting questions (for example, many teachers are working with speeches by Malcolm X, Mahatma Gandhi and others for summary reading and then asking students to apply the meanings to the contemporary Canadian context)

7) Critical Literacy: literacy programming can be based on analyzing different inequities in society and empowering students to confer meaning on their own, as well as bring personal experiences to their understandings of texts.

8) Peers Around the World: students respond well to texts created by (or featuring the writing and ideas of) children of the same age from around the world, and from diverse situations. This exercise also serves to incorporate diverse perspectives and legitimize student voices. This may also create experts among the students.

9) Understanding Class Inequity: students benefit from understanding processes of enrichment and impoverishment, including roads to riches and roads to homelessness. This serves to dispel many negative associations and teaches empathy.

10) Reading Follow-Up: in order to cement reading comprehension and encourage confidence in communication, discussions about individual student readings with students as a group or individually, (which ever is most appropriate) are helpful and serve to legitimize student understandings.

11) Deconstruction: within the media curricula, processes of text deconstruction can also parallel deconstruction of stereotypes. For example, deconstructing advertisements is a good opportunity to challenge stereotypes about sexuality, racism, homophobia, sexism and other forms of oppression. Although the imported biases of the students may create uncomfortable conversations and might challenge for example, certain religious teachings, the classroom can become a safe space for taking up these discussions from a critical perspective.

12) Self Assessment: students benefit from opportunities to assess their own work and progress. One teacher had her senior kindergarten students proofread their printed letters. She then had the students proof read her (the teacher's) printed letters. This same idea can be applied all the way up.

13) Keeping Up With the Jones': teacher programs may be enhanced by taking the time to visit other classrooms in schools demographically distinct from one's home class or school.

14) Modeling Social Location: teachers may find it useful to use their own background to discuss notions of inclusion and exclusion, as they apply to their history, culture, gender, ethnicity, ability, religion and race.

15) Credit Where Credit is Due: teachers should recognize existent successes in their program and work to expand and/or extend these approaches to other students and other needs. (For example, many teachers who may not conceive of themselves as equity educators are doing excellent programming with disability in their classrooms).

16) Empowering Through Choice: students benefit from guided choice in terms of what they read and write. Readers' workshops and writers' workshops provide frameworks for how this can be accomplished in the classroom. Readers may be directed to a variety of texts that are at their reading level and of interest to them.

17) Multi Media Poetry Slam: students write a poem about a current event that they identify as impacting their daily life. Students then find an image on the internet and alter that image to reflect their poem and their current event. The modifications to the image will vary in complexity by grade.

18) Peer Modeling: peer modeling is an informal but powerful tool for engaging and responding to students and their difficulties, requests, strengths and concerns. This can take place in a number of ways including: seating, group work and partnering.

19) Conceiving Success: all teachers have successful students. It is important for teachers to construct the conditions for student success for every child.

20) 'The Problem Student': the following approaches may be helpful for addressing the needs of students who have 'discipline' problems, are disengaged in the classroom or whom teachers are having a troubling time teaching.

- Meet with the student individually for informal diagnostic assessment.
- Look into the student's history.
- Get a sense of where s/he is at, and of what frustrations s/he is having with the material being covered in class.
- Set up an informal independent learning plan focused on alternative approaches and materials leading to realistic learning outcomes for the student.
- Find an opportunity for the student to play a leadership role in the class (for example, make the student the facilitator of a small group activity).
- Arrange for subsequent seating arrangements to reflect the new approach.

The preceding twenty approaches, techniques and exercises should be understood as a starting point for educators, a foundation upon which to begin building a holistic pedagogy of inclusivity.

5 Conclusion

Literacy is about excellence, knowledge, skills and competencies. Critical literacy is more than a theoretical abstraction. A social theory accounting for multiple literacies in the contexts of social diversity cannot be detached nor merely considered an abstraction from the experiences of students from diverse racial, class, gender and other minority backgrounds in our school systems.

In working to promote 'educational success' through multiple literacies, the concern should not be just about generating knowledge on a group of learners and educators, or seeing these individual and groups as objects of knowledge. We also need to learn about the possibilities of achieving competencies in multiple literacies through alternative visions of schooling. This has implications for transforming the current school system. We see educational success then as 'evolving' rather than "moving from one predetermined step to another" (Fine and Vanderslice, 2005: 208).

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Meeting School Diversity With Leadership of Difference

Dr Jennie Billot

Unitec New Zealand- New Zealand
jbillot@unitec.ac.nz

Abstract

Global movements of people are changing community identities (Dimmock, Shah & Stevenson, 2004), making them less homogeneous and culturally stable. Within this dynamic social environment, New Zealand provides an example of a distinct and highly devolved educational sector where the role of school principals becomes pivotal to the management of multi-ethnic schools. Responsive leadership operates through individualised practices that address the needs of students and community (Ministry of Education, 2005). My qualitative New Zealand research study adds to current research on leadership within multicultural populations (see Dimmock & Walker, 2005; Palmer, 2005) by addressing the question of how principals lead ethnically diverse schools. Interviews were held with the principals and the findings highlight strategies employed by principals to legitimate student difference and develop school communities with an ethos of inclusivity. To date, research studies have searched for meaning within the concepts of educational leadership in diverse circumstances by focusing on trends and commonalities, but it is now timely to examine specificity of context for theorising individualised and reflective school leadership.

Keywords: Diversity – Multiethnic – Inclusion – Contextual – Leadership

1. Introduction

In this paper I present the New Zealand data from a collaborative research study that straddled three nations. This exploratory study provides insights into the challenges facing school principals in times of increasing global migrations and adds to the limited empirical evidence on how principals respond to the changing ethnicity of populations. Snook (2005) recently articulated the centrality of school principals to the success of a school. He pointed to the increasing emphasis on the values and ethical behaviour of school leaders and their responsibility to create the “ethos” (p. 93) in which the school community exists. This has strong resonance with the assertions of Starratt (2004), who maintains that the principal is “responsible for cultivating a caring and productive environment” (p. 55).

In light of the call for increased research into cross-cultural school leadership (Dimmock, 2005), the purpose of this paper is to examine the increasing role complexity for principals in communities of ethnic diversity. In the escalating call for educational researchers to acknowledge the impact of globalisation, tension has developed between finding global solutions and developing locally

appropriate practices. In response to this tension I focus on school leadership within a changing global, national and local context.

Firstly, I overview the devolved educational sector in New Zealand, in which the principal plays a crucial and pivotal role. The data from the project interviews and the initiatives implemented by the principals in their individual schools are then discussed and compared. Finally, I suggest the validity of contingent leadership as a form of best practice in such dynamic and diverse contexts.

In this paper, by focusing on school leadership in contexts of ethnic diversity, I aim to contribute to the discourse on individualised leadership. As continued migration across national boundaries results in changing social communities, so schools at the micro-level have a role in alleviating possible fracturing across social groups. In effect, school leaders play a significant role in providing environments of cohesion and inclusivity, by developing mechanisms and practices that work to include all students. Shields (2006) believes that by working through an agenda of inclusion, in combination with participation and respect, one can address the diversity of the school community. In light of this assertion, I aim to illustrate how New Zealand principals work in multi-ethnic schools to develop and enhance inclusive school communities.

While the concept of inclusion is a highly contested term (Leo & Barton, 2006), its use in this paper is based on the premise that the moral value of inclusion is integral to ensuring equity at all levels. Having studied effective school leadership in multi-ethnic schools in the UK, Blair (2002) offers that “all leaders have to think about promoting cultural awareness and respect for individuals as well as for group differences” (p. 188). By linking inclusivity and individualised leadership to the aim for enhanced student engagement in schools, I encourage further debate around the use of normalised leadership practices in contexts which are highly differentiated by specific ethnic profiles.

2. The New Zealand social and education context

As with many other nations across the globe, New Zealand society is transforming to become increasingly diverse. The latest census indicates a total population of over 4 million and a profile that identifies a declining European proportion (currently 68%) and an increasing number of Maori and Pacific Peoples (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). Over 10% of the population currently identify with more than one ethnic group (as compared to 9% in 2001) and a further category (MELAA) was introduced in the 2006 census to accommodate those who identified as being Middle Eastern, Latin American or African. People of Asian ethnicity have more than doubled since the 2001 census (Statistics New Zealand, 2006). These trends are more noticeable in urban areas, particularly in the Auckland metropolis which is the arrival and settlement point for many refugee and immigrant groups.

Although New Zealand is a small nation in comparison with many of its international counterparts, it was one of the earlier countries to develop a highly devolved education sector. The more recent changes in education emerged from *Tomorrow's Schools* (Minister of Education, 1988) which was initiated in 1989.

This policy introduced a radical change for the country (Wylie, 1994), aiming to increase diversity of opportunity, equity of education provision, increase partnership quality between parents, schools and state and make changes to funding systems. The Ministry of Education, believe that their influence on education in New Zealand is more indirect and have maintained their role as facilitative rather than directive (Ministry of Education, 2002), so “decision-making (was placed) close to the point of implementation” (Education Review Office 1994, p. 5) making the role of principal pivotal for school leadership.

The effect of such devolved processes impact significantly upon the school leader. While the principal’s responsibility is maintained to be crucial to school success (Portin, Shen & Williams, 1998), Hallinger and Hausman have noted that principals of schools shaped by restructuring initiatives are:

Sandwiched between local pressures exerted by school-based management and centralizing forces ... principals are under constant pressure to remain responsive to parents and staff, while simultaneously meeting the expectations of centrally imposed guidelines. (1994, p. 163)

However, sector restructuring does provide the opportunity for principals to develop their own and individualised ways of educational leadership. Hausman, Crow and Sperry (2000) prefer to view ideal principals as negotiators of the environment and less as managers of a school system, but for many principals, a leadership challenge under *Tomorrow’s Schools* is to balance conflicting roles.

Subsequent to this educational reform, New Zealand has experienced significant social and cultural change and in a global context where social systems are struggling to keep pace with social, political and economic demands (Hallinger, 2001), school communities are encountering their own challenges as they become increasingly diverse. Walker and Shuang (2007) have recently noted that many areas of the world are being forced to “meet the needs of multiple cultural groups and increasingly diverse societies” (p. 190). This is no less the case in New Zealand which has experienced significant changes to its population profile through increased immigration of people from different countries. More recently, Robertson and Miller (2007) have commented on how changing demographics have affected schools and societies, and their study of primary schools in New Zealand indicates the increasing multi-ethnicity of school communities.

The multi-ethnic nature of both society at the macro level and school communities at the more micro level, urged three educational researchers to embark upon a collaborative project to identify the challenges facing principals who lead schools with diverse student populations. Whilst the three nations within the project had differences of context and policy, the majority of schools were transforming rapidly as a result of changing communities. Although I present only the New Zealand component of this study in this paper; the full research study is detailed and can be found elsewhere (see Billot, Goddard & Cranston, 2007).

3. The research study

The full exploratory study was undertaken in three urban centres in New Zealand, Canada and Australia recognising that the changing demographics of the three countries have led to the emergence of many urban multi-ethnic and multicultural communities. Building on the researchers' previous related research with school principals in New Zealand, Australia, Canada, Kosovo, Slovenia, Tonga, and Jersey (UK), the project sought to identify how secondary school principals manage schools of ethnic diversity (Billot, et al., 2007). School websites and a review of school documents, such as planning and reporting materials, and student population profile data evidenced the multi-ethnic character of the schools in the sample.

The study component to which I now refer, focused upon the leadership of 5 secondary schools in Auckland (the largest city in New Zealand). Each of these schools have over 2000 pupils and present principals with contradictory demands that stem from disparate value sets (Notman, 2006). The diverse character of the student, parent and local community create a demanding and unique situation for the school principal, who faces an "unsteady terrain created by conflicting internal and external values, structures and expectations" (Walker & Shuangye, 2007, p. 167). My qualitative case study surfaced principals' perceptions of the nature of these challenges and how they drew on their own values and beliefs to support their individualised form of leadership.

As this research study was undertaken in New Zealand, it is important to acknowledge the country's history and the impact of its bicultural partnership on policy developments (Sibley & Liu, 2004). The Treaty of Waitangi (signed in 1840 between Maori representatives and the British Crown) is the founding document of New Zealand and underpins the nation's constitution (Sibley & Liu, 2004). Policies enacted are developed within a commitment to biculturalism. This political context frames a challenge for acknowledging other ethnicities, for they may require imperatives that do not always sit well with the bicultural emphasis.

The study was designed with school principals providing the data. In order to keep the interviewing consistent yet flexible across all project locations, the focus for the interviews was determined and a convergent interviewing process was used (Dick, 1990). The purpose of these semi-structured interviews was to collect in-depth data on principals' interpretations and processes of contextual decision-making in a way that provided scope for the expression of their individual perspectives that were "richly descriptive" (Merriam, 1998, p. 8). The interviews were transcribed and then analysed using qualitative thematic analysis.

The study findings provided scope for cross-national comparisons on issues related to:

- the impact that student ethnic diversity has had on developing school strategies to address this school characteristic;
- the domains that school principals see as problematic; and
- the way in which principals deal with issues arising from ethnic diversity in their own school.

Whilst the researcher acknowledges the small scale of the study sample and the reliance on only the principals to provide the data, the findings were illuminating, with frequent examples of resonance within the identified themes across the other two project contexts. Such comparisons are outside the focus of this paper, but can be accessed through the separate paper (Billot, et al., 2007).

4. The New Zealand interview data

Five school principals willingly, and enthusiastically, agreed to be interviewed. Their initial reaction to be part of such a study suggested an interest in accessing the opportunity to have their voices heard. The individualised perspectives provided here as quotes (I use pseudonyms to preserve their anonymity), also illustrate the principals' confidence in expressing their individual style of leadership and how they value their community of difference (Shields, 2004). Whilst there was some similarity in how the principals sought to develop inclusive school environments, their practices varied according to how they viewed their specific student and community profile.

Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinback (2003) have pointed to the wide variation in contexts for leadership and the need for different responses to them. They also stress that "what is important is how leaders respond to the unique organisational circumstances or problems that they face" (p. 15). The interview excerpts that I present below can be viewed as exemplifying the approach which Leithwood et al. categorise as "*contingent leadership*" (p.15), which is context-specific. The themes that emerged from the project data illustrate the commitment that the principals have to the students and the wider community and how they develop varied practices to enhance an inclusive environment.

Firstly, the principals provided insight into how they framed their school leadership to address issues arising from ethnic diversity. From the interview data it was possible to identify differing philosophies that underpinned their school leadership. One principal felt that within the school community "*there has to be coherence and there has to be a strong ethos that binds it together and it can happen, different kinds of glue that do that*" (Murray). Another mentioned that his school contains "*a very collective collaborative leadership and so much of my leadership around the place is very symbolic. People sense that that I am sort of part of what they do*" (George). There are varied ways of managing ethnic diversity in schools, but one principal vehemently voiced her concern that 'inclusion' was to be favoured over tolerance for others. "*I was at a meeting the other day at the City Council and they were talking about tolerance. The word 'tolerance' really irritates me because there's something not equal about tolerance. I like to use the word 'celebrate'*" (Diana).

A sense of commitment to the wider community can underpin how principals view their role in their school leadership and can provide a platform for decision-making.

My role is to empower people who have the right values and sense of direction. Parents send their most precious possessions inside the school everyday and they leave them there and trust that these group

of relative strangers, these teaching professionals, are going to go look after their physical and emotional safety, and they're going to advance their life chances to the very best of their ability and turn them out to be citizens of integrity who can engage out there and be successful and happy and safe in the world, empowered if you like. (Murray)

Principals need to meet and deal with varied issues related to concerns from different parts of the community. These issues are often pastoral, but may also be academic, or related to prejudice and racism (Blair, 2002). However meeting community needs can be challenging.

I think you'd probably find this with most principals we're thinking about, what is the public perception? That's the environment that we are in. What is the public perception of the decision I am going to make and how can I square that with being fair to these people, being reasonably honourable myself, and you know, satisfying the customers. (Michael)

Michael explained it in another way, "you want to make sure that the community of your school is reasonably tight but with relationships (that) are good because you can't afford for them not to be."

Being aware of the different needs of all stakeholders means that developing a school culture is a complex challenge in that the culture itself needs to be able to provide an inclusive environment that enables all students. Michael noted that

it's about making sure these students feel that their inner beings if you like, their culture is their lifestyle and whatever it is you define it as, is acknowledged. Now what's interesting is that it may be we are only acknowledging the surface stuff but that's probably enough. I mean for a lot of these kids that's ok.

As the school culture in a multi-ethnic school develops within a "deliberate consciousness of diversity and on practices that reflect this diversity" (Blair, 2002) the active encouragement to recognise and respect diverse cultural groups becomes an integral practice for inclusion. Murray believes that "we try to make sure every single group in the school is enmeshed in the culture and made to feel part of things." He also said that his school philosophy includes how "we're going to stay together and we're going to look after each other and we're going to affirm one another and we're going to be proud of one another."

If we celebrate difference, which I believe we must, and honour and respect all of those things, there's lots of symbolic and sort of institutional ways you can do that. It is critical that you have an overarching ethos and modus operandi and thing that pulls all the people to celebrate one another's wonderfulness you know and that's the piece that I think sometimes lacking because we figure if we celebrate them all separately that the rest is implicit and I don't believe it is. (Murray)

In some cases a new principal has to decipher the reasons for past leadership structures and then make subsequent adjustments. George explained the

development of his school. *"I think the foundations that were laid here were to have a school that didn't reflect what the community was, but gave the community what they believed the community wanted."* George now feels confident that his school has a *"very powerful culture. 'Cause it's a culture that the community believes in and supports and the kids want to be here and they know that they will be made accountable for what they do."*

Principals' philosophies may have had impact on how they worked, but a strong thread that was noticeable throughout the discussions was the aim to achieve social justice.

I mean I hope that I am fairly convinced that there are some things that I would not do and some things that I feel are important and I think need to be done and it's about justice, it's about listening, being democratic. (Michael)

We have restorative justice as a feature of this school as well. We have a lot of restorative conferences and all of our deans and senior managers have all been trained in restorative processes significantly and we're trying to get that embedded in the classroom, in the way teachers speak to students and there is often a cultural perspective there in the way that you speak to students. (Tony)

Contextual factors may play a significant role in determining how leadership is enacted but in this study it appeared that the principals individualise their leadership style.

So a lot of my style is different and a lot of it is me. To me, in terms of ethics, it is about being accessible, being fair, being consistent and not having an agenda and being a good listener. Those are the things, and (also) being a peoples' person. A lot of what I do is about trying to relate to people and trying to understand where they're coming from and trying to also be proactive. (George)

Leadership style may create a particular identity for the principal within the school and, as one principal noted, this may also define his behaviour.

I think what I do is watched very carefully by every student and every staff member and what I say is listened to very carefully by every student here. So I am really conscious of my behaviour. Both in the school, in my relationships with staff, in my relationships with students I'm really conscious of the role I am playing, that I've got to act in an ethical honest way and that if I don't, then how can I expect others to. And I am really aware of the power, the symbolic power that I have. So when I go out onto the grounds and I'm talking to the students and I'm picking up the litter off the ground, it's a powerful symbol about ethics in a way. I'm going to walk the talk. (Michael)

However, it was obvious that the principals had their individualised ways of working. *"I don't have meetings for meetings sake. I mean, if there's an issue the door's always open and people will come and talk it through and if need be*

I'll bring in other people and we'll facilitate the strategy and then we'll deliver it."
(George)

Although collaborative decision-making is complex (Blair, 2002), each of these principals worked with their staff to facilitate effective social and learning environments. Concerns that confront them are managed through varied strategies. George explained that *"all of the initiatives, all of the strategic planning and everything is all around removing barriers"* while Murray's strategies

*are creating all these multiple avenues for success and affirmation. **We** (my emphasis) also have a strategy and what it does is, it says we have an academic priority and we say that quite unequivocally and unashamedly but that we create opportunities for success and affirmation right across the whole gamut of things around the school and we celebrate success constantly.*

Practical strategies to deal with contentious issues are also needed (Blair, 2002) as indicated by Murray.

There's a lot of proactive things we do but I often think of them in terms of opportunities and activity rather than in terms of problems and response. What we do is we say that once you're inside the front gate you're part of the family. We're one community and you can argue quite happily that that's an archaic view, but that's what we run. So we celebrate difference but work as a family and as a common group.

The behavioural standards in terms of discipline, respect, uniform are pretty unrelenting. We sing and dance around why we do it 'cause the school must be safe. Every child must come here and be relaxed about what's happening in the corridors. We talk about that everyone's responsible, that if you're a victim you have a responsibility to inform so no one else becomes a victim. If you're a bully you're responsible and you'll be receiving the consequence, if you're a bystander you're responsible because by your apathy you're allowing it to happen. We are brothers and sisters here. (Murray)

By meeting the diverse needs of all students, the principals in this preliminary study illustrated their willingness to adjust their modus operandi to suit the identity of the school community. Problems and dilemmas were not viewed as insurmountable challenges. Rather than emulate the strategies of others, these principals have been prepared to develop practices that are appropriate to their specific school and also resonate with their own values and philosophies. Murray saw one way of meeting challenges is by having *"the warmth."* In effect, as Diana explained, full acknowledgement of ethnic difference is not only about celebrating but also about enabling *"the students to feel really proud about who they are (through) the acceptance and appreciation of other peoples' values."*

5. Implications for school leadership in New Zealand

Much has been debated about how in the current environment of rapidly changing communities, multicultural diversity is causing further challenges for school leaders (see for example, Haidt, Rosenberg & Hom, 2003; Madsen & Mabokela, 2002). In the context of increasing global movements of people which are causing societal transformations that influence schools as communities, Dimmock (2005) has lamented the lack of research on school culture that is firmly situated in the context of the wider social culture. This study provides some useful input to a more holistic approach (Shields, 2006) to examining current challenges for educational leadership and offers insight into how principals identify and manage school contexts that are in a constant "state of flux" (Walker & Shuangye, 2007, p. 186).

Blair (2002) believes that leadership is the pivotal and crucial element within schools of ethnic diversity, the principal needing to consult widely, manage dilemmas, as well as using varied but appropriate approaches to resolving controversial issues. The school principals in this study have developed different forms of inclusive philosophies, which Robertson and Miller suggest can contribute to "a more culturally inclusive society" (2007, p. 101). The principals all worked with energy to facilitate school communities that held strong internal identities and indicated that the staff and students worked collectively to provide strong bonds with the local community. Bishop (2003) believes that this collaboration and the recognition of cultural difference enhance power sharing between school members and parents, thus extending networks of support for full engagement by all.

The principals' strong commitment to assist all students to feel part of a school community as against be accepted into it, provides messages for those working within multi-ethnic schools. Walker and Shuangye (2007) have noted that principals located in large multi-ethnic schools need to develop a greater understanding of cultural issues than their counterparts in more homogeneous situations. The facility to engender a philosophy of inclusion is challenging as it requires reflective leadership whereby issues are managed ethically and resolved in a contextually appropriate way (Cranston, Ehrich & Kimber, 2003). Reflection involves not only constructing a view of the needs of the school population through their differing cultural values but also "confronting their own ingrained ways of working" (Walker & Shuangye, 2007, p. 202) and an awareness that "confusion and ambiguity are an inevitable aspect of cross cultural conversation" (Jones, Pringle & Shepherd, 2000, p. 365).

Blair (2002) noted in her study of effective multi-ethnic schools in the UK, that leadership of such schools needed to be open to change. Principals could not

rest on their laurels, as improvement was an ongoing process that needed constant re-evaluation and the induction/inclusion of all new members of the school community, whether staff or students and their parents'. (The principals) led from the front in the sense that equality of opportunity was not an option to be realised only on paperbut underpinned and informed by policy (p. 184).

This study provides insight into the issues that underpin the call for understanding contingent leadership. This form of leadership allows agency that meets the needs of multi-ethnic schools by emphasising the student community as one entity. If the different ethnicities are seen as separate yet together in the same community, there lacks the cohesion and inclusivity that develops when everyone is viewed as an integral part of the whole. By matching leadership to the needs of the school members (Leithwood et al., 2003), contingent leadership can use contextualised practices to encourage cohesive communities.

6. Conclusion

In the current context of changing demographics in New Zealand, schools, particularly those in urban areas, will reflect the patterns of the society at large. The growing awareness of the needs of heterogeneous school communities offers opportunities for further research into context-specific initiatives to support multi-ethnic diversity. Dei (2005) has commented on how the "reality of our world is about difference and the fact that educational issues cut differently for the diverse members of the school population" (p. 8). He also raised the concern, as do Walker and Shuangye (2007), that leadership in multi-ethnic schools cannot rely upon "lists of best leadership practice currently in vogue" (Walker & Shuangye, 2007, p. 192) but must evolve through reflective communication and interaction with all cultural values and beliefs. Glatter & Kydd (2003) identify this leadership mode as emerging from four features, namely, context, the multi-level nature of practice, its individual character and complexity and ambiguity. O'Brien, Murphy and Draper (2003) reached a similar conclusion from their series of studies in schools in Scotland. They found that dilemmas and problems are often resolved through all parties involved reaching a mutual understanding of context and issue. This requires the principal in particular to see the issue "within a wider context of competing interests, irrational policy paradoxes, community priorities and values" (p. 52).

Jones et al. (2000) contend that "off-the-shelf 'diversity' programmes or initiatives are likely to achieve only limited success" (p. 378). As New Zealand principals work within a devolved educational policy, they have space and opportunity to develop individualised practices that address the needs of all students. When faced with leading schools within multi-ethnic settings, a focus on the particularities of school context and characteristics permits *contingent* practice (Turner, 2003), where context effectively mediates the application of best practice. This paper has identified some of the strategies employed by several New Zealand principals to legitimate student difference by developing school communities with an ethos of inclusivity. As such leadership appears to be reliant (contingent) upon the specific school context in which it is positioned, further study is needed on how principals can be supported in these challenging environments.

7. References

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Changing academic identity as a result of policy actions

Jennie Billot¹, Richard Smith²

¹*Unitec New Zealand-New Zealand*
jbillot@unitec.ac.nz

²*Auckland University of Technology-New Zealand*
richard.smith@aut.ac.nz

Abstract

In the context of a dynamic New Zealand tertiary environment, this paper examines the policy that has restructured the research funding regime and the impact of this change on academic identity. As institutions strategise to meet increased competition and changed expectations for funding (Ashcroft, 2005), academic staff have had to modify their role (Middleton, 2005). We refer to our research project which aims to map the research environments in two emerging applied institutions and answer the question of how the Performance-Based Research Fund (PBRF) has affected staff roles and responsibilities. The qualitative study involves case studies of both institutions, focusing on Education, Design and Nursing. We outline the data collection methods and present the preliminary findings, which illustrate the complexity of aligning institutional strategy and staff performance. While academics need to work within a supportive research culture, it is essential for institutional health (Hazelkorn, 2005) that it is effectively embedded into the institutional environment. We believe that our study provides the opportunity for identifying initiatives that could enhance collective and individualised objectives.

Keywords: Academic – Identity – Research – Culture.

1. Introduction

In the last two decades New Zealand has experienced a changing funding regime for institutions in the tertiary sector. The policy directives that have led this change have caused re-evaluation of what constitutes research and an internal re-structuring of the organisations to meet the expected performance criteria. This significant external pressure on the funding of higher education has impacted upon the role of the academic individual who faces challenges to adapt and refocus. This paper identifies the tertiary policy that has recently altered the funding regime for research in higher education institutions (HEIs) across New Zealand and links the resultant institutional reactions to the changing academic identity of staff. We begin by outlining the more recent changes to the tertiary environment and in particular the policy that has re-shaped the research context. Secondly, we identify how institutions have moved to perform their expected functions, while competing within the sector.

We refer to the findings of a research project undertaken in two applied institutions within New Zealand, to describe and give space for staff members to explain the conflicts they may face and the support that they receive during institutional change. Within this changing academic environment, academic

identity remains a dynamic and slippery construct, so our final intention is to encourage further discourse on the alignment between institutional and academic staff expectations in the context of policy directives.

We offer our research findings at a time when the academic's sense of self is under-researched even though it is acknowledged that identity affects one's "sense of purpose, self-efficacy, motivation, commitment, job satisfaction and effectiveness" (Day, Kington, Stobart & Sammons, 2006, p. 601). Academic identities are disparate and lack homogeneity and compromises in the tertiary workplace are becoming more commonplace and inevitable (Churchman, 2006). Academic work has developed a revised meaning and staff co-operation between and within departments affects the nature of interaction between hierarchical levels within the institution. In order to produce a positive environment for effective teaching and research, acknowledgement of multiple and disparate academic identities is needed. Based on our preliminary findings, we believe that an organisational culture needs to be developed that procures sustained educational outcomes whilst providing supportive and enabling working conditions for academic staff.

2. New Zealand's tertiary research context

The evolving tertiary environment has been subject to numerous changes including changes in government funding (Marginson, 2000), and pressures on institutional funding are emerging from revised government priorities and expectations (Gordon, 2005). Over the last two decades, New Zealand has experienced many such changes within its tertiary sector, with some of the issues arising from sector restructuring showing international similarity. Whilst aiming to provide tertiary education for increasing numbers in financially viable and capable units (Sjolund, 2002), state policies in the UK and Europe have had a major impact on institutional focus, affecting not only the way in which institutions now function, but also the role and responsibilities of those who work within them. On a smaller scale, this is also apparent in New Zealand, where there are currently only eight universities, 20 polytechnics or institutes of technology (ITPs), three wānanga (Māori tertiary institutions)^{ix}, and a host of private higher education (HE) institutions called PTEs (private training establishments).

The market driven education sector, which was propelled by the economic policies of the Labour government in the 1980s and supported by the actions of the National Government of the 1990s, has allowed New Zealand tertiary institutions to compete and diversify (see Strathdee, 2006). Non-universities are now able to deliver degree courses due to increased institutional autonomy (Codling & Meek, 2003), and this has encouraged polytechnics and newer

^{ix} Māori are the indigenous peoples of Aotearoa/New Zealand. The literal Pākeha (New Zealand, mostly English people of European origin) translation of Te Whare Wānanga is the house of higher learning – or Māori Universities. However, the term 'university' is a contested notion which has been enshrined in legislation and the Vice Chancellor's Committee amongst other groups has challenged the right of the wānanga to use the term 'university' in their name or for advertising purposes (see Jesson & Smith, 2007).

universities to emerge as stronger tertiary providers (Pratt, 1999). However, they do so within an environment where older, established universities move to assert their sector dominance.

The New Zealand government has separated higher education funding between teaching and research activities, with the latter being contested among institutions that conduct research. Research funding from Government sources is based on the Performance-Based Research Fund (PBRF), whereby institutions receive income reflecting the PBRF graded status of their individual members. This is in contrast to the UK where departments within an institution are allocated a grade for funding (Blackmore & Wright, 2006; Lucas, 2006; Yates, 2006). The PBRF is effectively an outcomes-based model, where achievements rather than research inputs and related activities are recognised. Research funding via the PBRF mechanism is being progressively introduced from 2004 to 2008.

Following Australia's example, New Zealand has adopted the Germanic model of 'integrating research into universities rather than separate institutes' (Grant & Edgar, 2003, p. 319). This integration aimed at increased coordination of academic research, provides the primary influence for the research agenda. There has been a natural impact on how tertiary institutions manage their teaching and research environments to meet the expectations of these changing policy domains, with resultant consequences for the roles of academic staff.

More recently, the governmental support arrangements that have been implemented, differentiate between older established universities and newer polytechnics and institutes of technology. In particular, the PBRF, by assessing research outcomes, has altered institutional expectations and accountabilities (Ashcroft, 2005). This policy has influenced the way institutions are funded, creating tensions between supporting research and the demands of teaching and learning. For some universities the focus has remained on being a research-led university but for others, particularly those newly created as universities or those in the process of applying for university status, prioritising institutional functions has been more problematic. This has led to a more obvious inequality across the sector, as the various types of tertiary providers will have differing capacities to reframe their structural responses to policy directives and consequences.

3. The research study

In light of the issues affecting academics in the tertiary sector, we initiated a research project within two Auckland tertiary institutions, one a polytechnic (Institute of Technology) aiming for university of technology status, and the other, a more recently designated university. We work as academic staff members within these institutions which are examples of tertiary providers aspiring to increased status. The project's aim was to examine the impact of the newly implemented funding regime, the PBRF, on the professional identity of academic staff. The primary intention was to focus on perceptions of the staff themselves and identify how they experience a working research culture. Three case studies were selected for the project's sample, namely the Schools of

Education, Design and Nursing; these permit a comparison across differing disciplines and between the two higher education institutions.

As the source of the data was the academic staff, a qualitative approach was adopted, with the research design including convergent interviewing (Dick, 1990). The two institutional heads of research were interviewed, followed by a survey of all staff in the sample (about 240), using an online questionnaire through SurveyMonkey. (A similar survey coincidentally occurred at the University of Auckland, see Waayer & Hattie, 2007). Semi-structured interviews with about 30 staff across both institutions provided further in-depth data for the findings. Preliminary analysis suggests that for *some* staff in *both* institutions and across all three disciplines (Design, Education and Nursing), the imposition of the PBRF and internal drivers to undertake research and to publish are resulting in a significant shift in academic roles and responsibilities. The following comment indicates some of the staff views on how they re-prioritised their work. *"I think the PBRF has made me more aware that there needs to be some outputs and I need to play the game to a certain extent, but I am careful not to let it override my other commitments."* (RC10).

Further comments illustrate how there has been an increased awareness of staff accountability. *"Before I really understood PBRF, I would just be following research paths that really interested me ... and now I have a, now there's a second kind of decision making process that goes on that says well is this useful to, you know, to my PBRF rating."* (RC11). *"I am mindful that that whole structure has enormous authority within our existence now and because of that you can't ignore it, you can't say well it doesn't matter. It's the driving force behind our funding and all that."* (NA01). The following response indicated a negative reaction to the PBRF:

I don't see that the PBRF ends up with a solution that measures the quality of research. I don't think it measures research culture. I think it's a mechanism for the distribution of funds rather than the enhancement of educational research and so I'm disappointed and so I won't play the game. (E04).

These participant comments and associated project findings provide further insight into other areas of academic identity and some of these are related to the way in which their employing institution has reacted to policy directives.

4. Institutional reactions to policy directives

Internationally, where countries such as the UK have implemented newer funding regimes, institutions have had to strategise to meet the revised expectations. This is no less the case in New Zealand where, since the implementation of the PBRF, tertiary providers have re-evaluated their contribution to the sector and realigned their priorities. Hazelkorn (2005) has observed that alongside the governmental restructuring of the tertiary sector through policy revision and institutional funding, it is both the quality and quantity of HE research that determines the status and prestige of individual institutions. New Zealand institutions are recognising the need to reinforce their position in the changing

sector and, as we have observed in our own institutions, to do this involves strengthening their research capacity and capability. This institutional focus has been seen as crucial for the survival of some tertiary providers in the restructured environment (Hazelkorn, 2005).

Our research study identified certain institutional strategies for improving research outcomes and in some cases these were effectively facilitated through departments. However this was not always the case and academic staff offered diverse perceptions on their degree of success. In some cases staff were not even aware of research requirements, whilst in other departments there was an obvious co-operation amongst staff members to support the extension of research outputs. Excerpts from interviews with project participants illustrate some of these differences. One participant identified their school as having limited support mechanisms for newer researchers. *"I guess our school isn't very good at seeing the potential in people and encouraging them to become engaged in research that they're not already engaged in."* (RC11). Another noted the institutional support that is available. *"We also have a Research Office which is well staffed to assist researchers of all stages with things like proposals and project costs and all of those things, so we also get that expert advice which is available to people."* (RC05)

Another staff member felt that there was a lack of clarity about support for research. *"Research support...it's very unclear how (the School funds are) determined and spent. It's kind of like an exercise in perseverance in order to get the funding"* (RC10). One academic did point out that they had a responsibility to request support: *"I think the support from our school really varies depending on how much you ask for. I don't think my particular school is particularly forthcoming in offering support, but if you seek it, you will get it"* (RC11). Another staff member linked leadership to the support of research:

People in formal roles of leadership need to ensure that people who have a responsibility for doing any type of research, they need to remove the obstacles that prevent those people from doing research. Now I think one of the biggest obstacles is time, but then you need to turn that around the other way and say how can we also help those people manage their time really effectively. It's a two way thing.
(RC09)

In certain departments, cohesive strategies included the development of research committees, research fora and mentoring research relationships. In one school there were both structural and informal mechanisms for support: *"We've had a writing group here that we meet every couple of months and it's sort of supported in trying to think what can we write or who's going to be submitting to a journal."* (RC07). In another school, staff supported each other. *"We're now beginning to publish in pairs or threes as well. So that's an interesting change and it is in direct response to trying to reduce the load a little and yet still get the publications."* (NA04).

The Research Committee does things ... we try and do things that will encourage kind of a research culture, like we try and have breakfast events or lunchtime events where people talk about their PhD's or their

current research projects that they're involved in and I really try and encourage people to come along to those. (RC11)

Where academic staff worked alongside each other, there was an enhanced positive perception of shared responsibilities.

I've had a lot of mentoring around ... because I was being mentored by people who have already travelled that journey and what they learnt or what maybe they didn't experience, they're actually making sure that I've experienced it and now I'm passing it on to other new staff who have come in, you know, into our area as well. (RC09)

In other cases, top-down efforts to ensure increased staff performance only created a psychological wedge between levels in the hierarchy. Staff were vocal on this issue as illustrated below:

I get really frustrated that there is a one size fits all approach when it comes to research and let me explain that. I've sat in enough academic, senior academic meetings and management meetings where people say every staff member has to have a 'C' rating, every staff member has to have at least two published refereed outputs per year, there is no excuse, but these are the same people who only have 10 or 12 contact hours a week and they don't have the pressures of practice on top of that...(RC07)

Frustration is evidenced by these two comments: "At the end of the day research is part of the way in which they judge your promotion, it's true, but it seems to be pretty hard." (RC06).

What I value in a humane and critical education is not counting of numbers. I don't see that the PBRF ends up with a solution that measures the quality of research. I don't think it measures research culture. I think it's a mechanism for the distribution of funds rather than the enhancement of educational research and so I'm disappointed and so I won't play the game. (E04)

A further comment identifies the conflict between expectations:

Well I actually think the expectations of both the school and the institution are entirely unrealistic...My understanding is that the programme, the undergraduate programme I teach in, is one of the few highly viable programmes in the whole outfit and the only reason it's highly viable is because we have large classes and a very heavy workload and yet the expectation of us in terms of producing research outputs doesn't change at all and there's no extra support in terms of teaching for us, which would then enable our research outputs to increase. So I am an entirely frustrated active researcher to the point where I'm practically inactive. (RC14)

This latter example serves to illustrate that management "intrudes into academic identities' particularly when selective research funding determines which research focus and outputs are worthwhile" (Deem & Lucas, 2007, p. 119).

5. Academic identity

People's lives are multifaceted causing challenging conflicts between professional and personal identities (Day et al., 2006). Identity itself is an unstable concept as changing contexts, including those of work-based policy changes, impact on the individual's notion of their relationship with the social and economic environment. Change poses both "threats and opportunities" to academic staff whose "academic identities, including identities as researchers, are forged, rehearsed and remade in local sites of practice" (Lee & Boyd, 2003, p. 188). The course which an academic's identity takes, is influenced by the institutional context, although the individual has the ability to negotiate their roles and responsibilities through the process of prioritising.

Identity is a social construction that develops over time and Churchman (2006) believes that identity is a vehicle for the way one wants "to interact with the rest of the world" (p. 6). Stronach, Corbin, McNamara, Stark and Warne refer to this dynamic as the academic of today "mobilising a complex of occasional identities in response to shifting contexts" (2002, p. 117). Such shifting roles cause academic staff to "struggle to define their identity and those of their colleagues" (Churchman, 2006, p. 5). This fluid sense of self indicates how challenging it is to define identity.

In the context of changed governmental policy regarding what constitutes research and how research activities are publicly funded, Gordon (2003) points to managerial reactions which have tended to emphasise tasks and productivity rather than academic roles and career paths. This has caused employer-employee relationships to become stretched and not always aligned. Academics in turn also face reconciling their career development in a more corporatised environment (Churchman, 2006). Consequently, linking institutional objectives to those of individuals remains an issue for those leading organisational change.

Changes to the current tertiary environment have led research to become the 'normal' work of an academic (Lee & Boyd, 2003, p. 189). Our project indicates that there has been little preparation for role changes, with the result that there is tension as individuals re-assess their responsibilities and develop new ways of working. Lee and Boyd also point to the challenges that staff face in the increasingly competitive environment, especially with the introduction of performance-based funding. Individuals may encounter greater self-questioning and experience more fear and anxiety. Thus the identity of an academic emerges from the "nuances and complexities of the concept of the career life cycle" of being a researcher (Gordon, 2005, p. 40). The "fluidity and fragmentation of many research fields" (Gordon, 2005) causes individual academics to constantly re-assess their position within their own discipline (see also Lee, 2007).

Churchman (2006) alludes to the way in which academic staff can have multiple and different interpretations of who they are. The changing tertiary environment and character of the institution in which they work, cause "contradictions" and "compromises" as their roles and responsibilities transform (2006, p. 13). Our project findings have suggested that further research is needed on the

interactions between employer (institution) and employee (academic staff member) if institutional objectives are to be achieved. It also becomes essential that academics develop their identities in alignment with the institutional direction (Harris, 2005).

6. Implications

The early analysis of our research project has resonance with the view of Stronach et al. that the academic's "professional self and its disparate allegiances (is) a series of contradictions and dilemmas that frame the identity of the professional as an implementer of policy" (2002, p. 109). The New Zealand example of a newly introduced funding regime indicates the far-reaching results of economic policy. As well as achieving a fiscally monitored and evaluated tertiary sector, the procedure will also impact on human agency and identity. Thus, policy imperatives will have a series of intended and unintended consequences, the latter being those emerging from reactions to the overt directives in play. So, as professionals, academics develop ways of addressing or redressing the dilemmas and challenges that affect their role. In so doing, they "re-story themselves in and against the audit culture" (Stronach et al., 2002, p. 130). There is a current concern that policy is now leading and structuring research, with the result that an academic's research identity is constructed to achieve governmental and managerial aims rather than educational objectives.

Brunetto and Wharton (2005) when studying the response of Australian academics to the implementation of new policy, have referred to a crucial aspect of managing a changed policy regime; that is to align workplace practices with official organisational policy and the values embedded within the institutional culture. Employees' reactions to a changed policy affect the degree to which new policy implementation is successful, so senior management need a heightened awareness of factors that influence such reactions. Brunetto and Wharton (2005) discovered that leadership, organisational culture, resourcing and reward practices were the main issues that affected academic response. In addition, as educational institutions conventionally use a "process approach to manage systems and structures and implement incremental changes" (Brunetto & Wharton 2005, p. 174), it remains essential that employees feel valued as part of those processes.

Since the academic role is multi-functional we need to re-examine the relationship between those functions. Teaching, research and administration are entwined and impact on the prioritising of each. Robertson and Bond in their study of the teaching-research relationship at the University of Canterbury (New Zealand), ascertained that the relationship is "enacted through the transmission of research findings, through the modelling of a research approach to learning and by engaging students as active participants in the inquiry process" (2005, p. 530). The core element here is the modelling of the research/teaching relation and for that to occur, academic staff benefit from being actively involved in both.

Since institutional staff will be those who enact changed institutional objectives, Lee and Boyd (2003) suggest that they need to feel supported in a time of change, through an environment which enhances and enables effective

performance. As lesser attention has been given to how the *research* potential of academic staff can be developed, these authors believe that alongside the need to increase such capacity, comes a focus on the renewal and change to academic identities. Attention to these issues is necessary in the current “normative and performative environment” (Lee & Boyd, 2003, p. 188) in which individuals and departments are positioned. Ball’s research into academic research leadership indicates that institutional “overt and clear strategies” are paramount for effective research outcomes (2007, p. 475).

Research cultures have become recognised as significant components of an academic environment in which staff can effectively contribute to institutional objectives, particularly in policy directed funding regimes such as the Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) in the UK (Deem & Lucas, 2007). Sikes (2006) outlined a study of the differential ‘effects’ of the RAE of academics working in ‘new’ universities. Her findings are congruent with our own in the New Zealand context as both institutional sites were applied institutions and in one case a relatively ‘new’ university having gained this status in January 2000.

“Seminars, bulletins, research groups, internal sabbaticals and other research funding, research mentors, teaching buy-outs” (Deem & Lucas, 2007, p. 126) are all significant in the formation of effective research cultures and the increase of staff capacity. Professional development is just one element of building research capability and capacity, and, in conjunction with research training and a supportive research environment, institutions can develop research cultures that are flexible enough to adjust to changing policy expectations. These can be designed for the specific institutional context, for as Lee and Boyd assert, workplaces are “atypical” (2003, p. 199) and need contextualised practice.

Educational leadership plays a significant role in enhancing academic participation in institutional change. Whilst staff will turn to informal research leaders in the absence of formal leadership (Ball, 2007), Harris (2005) points to the professoriate’s leadership role to “safeguard and promote spaces for academics and intellectual debate, creativity and risk taking, both individually and collectively” (p. 430). Another level of institutional leadership is both the ‘faculty’ as well as the ‘departmental’ culture and each has an influence (see Lee, 2007).

From our small study’s findings, it appears that as current policy factors are restructuring academic research in New Zealand, academic identity is also being challenged. Academic identity is “affected by external (policy) and internal (organisational) and personal experiences past and present, and so is not always stable” (Day et al., 2006, p. 610) and can be viewed as “occasional identities in response to shifting contexts” (Stronach et al., 2002, p. 117). How an individual makes sense of their own practice and gains a sense of being a professional, is often through evaluating “disciplinary and professional orientations” (Clegg & Bradley, 2006, p. 72). However our study illustrated that this is not always a simple aim to achieve, as the PBRF rewards specific outputs. One participant summed it up thus:

I am not convinced that the PBRF process accurately reflects what is needed for the profession even though we need that for the institution,

we need the income. I'm not convinced that that's the best way. I think there may be another way. (RC07)

An institution that shows strategic foresight will move to harness the motivation and capacity of academic staff to achieve funding objectives. Ball recently noted that "research and teaching are usually considered complementary in a university's raison d'être but they may be in conflict as time spent may be at the expense of the other" (2007, p. 451). One academic in our study stated her frustration at this conflict: "*I want Heads of Schools and people within institutions to recognise teaching, but at the same time that sounds ridiculous when, you know, we now get our funding based on research outputs.*" (RC10)

Another participant put it this way:

(I will) probably get a less PBRF rating or I wouldn't have as many outputs because I also value and have to spend some of my time doing the other things that I believe are important. I won't let the focus of individual quality-assured outputs dominate my decisions to be involved with people. (RC10)

This role 'tension' is but one example of the dilemmas facing academic staff within a funding regime based on research outputs. Quality outcomes for both institution and the individual are more likely to occur when all parties feel that they have a voice, are supported and work in concert. This is not easily achievable from staff perspectives as indicated by this comments. "*Well theoretically we're offered time but our workloads don't allow that to happen so it's there in paper but it can't be there in practice because the students needs must come first.*" (RC08)

7. Conclusion

We have presented here a selected 'slice' of some of the respondents' stories about their academic identity and the ways in which they are transforming in order to meet the increasing demands upon their workloads.

We believe that our study identifies some of the differences between institutional and academic staff expectations and performance, and offers avenues for future research into strategies that could address any inconsistencies and enhance quality outcomes. It seems axiomatic that government policies, particularly those that assess research outputs for institutional funding, will engender institutional competition and an environment that uses performance measures for driving academic staff. We affirm our belief that rather than using research as a mechanism to provide required outputs and meet certain assessment criteria for funding, we need to safeguard the role of research for informing teaching and acting to substantiate the identity of those academics who work in higher education institutions.

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Indigenous Knowledge Systems For Promoting Community Conservation Education In A Nigerian Protected Area

Francis Bisong, Elizabeth Andrew-Essien

Department of Geography & Regional Planning, University of Calabar, Nigeria
febisong@yahoo.com

Abstract

Study explored the adoption of indigenous knowledge systems of local populations living at the margins of protected areas as vehicle to promote grass root conservation education. It assessed the ethno-ecology and ethno-biology knowledge of valuable wild and cultivated plant species by local people inhabiting the 'support zone' of the Cross River National Park, South-Eastern Nigeria. It explored paradigms for the successful convergence of 'insiders' local knowledge with the 'outsiders' professional/ scientific knowledge as tools for promoting community based conservation education and achieving nature conservation objectives. Adopting Participatory Research Methodologies, the study result demonstrates an immense knowledge base of ecology and biology of the most valuable indigenous species that is far in excess of what is usually accorded to local populations. The implications of the convergence of this knowledge with scientific information, to further community based nature conservation education are explored.

Keywords: Indigenous Knowledge – Ethno ecology/ biology – Conservation Education – Protected Area – Nigeria.

1. Introduction

Till date, many academics and development professionals are yet to appreciate the value of native wisdom otherwise known as indigenous knowledge as a valid mode of learning, research and application for sustainable development and socio-economic transformation of the rural community and society at large. This is not surprising because until lately, this mode of learning was yet to be given recognition in the academic curriculum of universities, research institutions and private firms relying heavily on formal scientific methods.

The non-inclusion of indigenous knowledge in the educational system is reflected in the top-down approach of development experts, agencies conservation and institutions when issues of rural community development are in question. This top down approach is clearly reflected in the conservation education packages and extension programmes channelled towards rural people. Such adopted conservation sensitisation and awareness programmes include radio/television jingles, billboards and posters, and even organised presentations. The massive failure and poor success rate of development programmes that have bedevilled the field of development in the last three decades is provoking a reversal and rethink in conventional top-down approach to development practice that now seeks to integrate local knowledge and perspective as a valid basis for development.

Indigenous knowledge has been defined as "local community-based systems of knowledge, which are unique to a given culture or society and have developed as that culture has evolved over many generations of inhabiting particular ecosystem... refers broadly to the collective knowledge of an indigenous people about relationships between people, habitat, and nature" IUCN (1997) quoted in Shelagh et al (2003).

Many scholars and development practitioners are in the vanguard of promoting this emerging philosophy of development rooted in recognising and integrating indigenous knowledge in the development process and practice, and include such works as Chambers, 1983; Chambers, Pacey & Thrup (eds) 1989; Richards, 1985; Scones, et al, 1994; and Compass, 2002, among others.

The fit of this knowledge in promoting local level conservation decisions by policy makers and development practitioners is contentious. While doubts and cynicism are still expressed in many quarters about the technical feasibility and scientific validity of rural knowledge system to promoting grass root development and natural resources conservation, there is a growing body of evidence that attest to the success(despite some limitations) of community based forest and natural resource management decisions.(Bisong, 1998; Alden-wily *et al*,2001; Nolan, 2001; Bisong et al, 2007)

This paper in furtherance of this evidence seeks to document what local people know about the functional relationships existing within the biotic community of a rain forest eco-system that may be drawn upon to promote its conservation as well as educate local cultures toward imbibing nature conservation ethics.

The establishment of protected areas have often created conflicts with indigenous populations living at the margins due to somewhat divergent objectives between local resource use patterns on one hand and protecting the integrity of protected areas ecosystems on the other. Reconciling these objectives by conservationists have often been fraught with difficulties particularly when little is thought of the knowledge base and resource management capabilities of indigenous peoples as regards the functional workings of the ecosystems. Local people are nevertheless a repository of knowledge as to the workings of the ecosystem they are dependent upon for livelihood and sustenance. They are best suited to ensure the harmonious working of these systems in their resource use interactions if their knowledge base is solicited and integrated in the ecosystem management plans of protected areas.

This study adopting an ethno-ecology and ethno-biology perspective elicits such knowledge from communities living at the margins (Support zone Villages) of the Okwangwo Division of the Cross River National Park, South-Eastern Nigeria. It focuses such on analyzing their understanding of the growth and phonological properties of important agro forestry species that may be used as a basis for stabilizing land use in protected areas and promoting an overall respect for nature's harmony and balance through cooperating with park objectives.

1.1. Integrating Indigenous Knowledge in Conservation Education and Development

Theoretically, communicating environmental education has been conceptualised via a number of approaches namely simulation, exploratory and conscientisation approaches. The relevance of simulation to conservation education involves the adoption of role-playing such as theoretical displays, which capture succinct environmental issues as deforestation and land degradation. The use of exploratory approach is concerned with discussion sessions involving the local people, who are in the position to contribute effectively to indigenous conservation options. The renewed emphasis for conscientisation, an approach developed by Paulo Freire (1971) is largely to encourage literacy training by enabling an interactive forum for dialogue between conservation specialists and the local people.

In this context, the teacher or expert gives up his/her viewpoints order to analyse or understand the reality of local peoples' situations. A two-way dialogical process is thus developed which enables articulation and eventual integration of the knowledge of local people in the development process. This approach is apt as a basis for promoting conservation at the grassroots where the local understanding of the functional relationships in the ecosystem is utilised to develop conservation ethics and behaviours rooted in local culture and knowledge systems.

Ethno biological studies offer great opportunities for promoting conservation education and managing biodiversity. Studies in Africa and South Asia anchored on this methodology have yielded tremendous information on a wide array of ethno botanically useful plants for socio-economic purposes, a few of which include uses as medicine, pesticides, insect repellent and agro forestry development. (African Biodiversity Support,1992; ICIMOD,1994) Linkages however between ethno biological information generated by local people and conservation policies and practices by Protected Area Authorities and Community Development Agencies are virtually non-existent

Thupp, *et al* (1994) exploring the possibility of linkages between grass root action and policy making for sustainable development in Latin America, observed that the process of integrating community into development commences from the 'bottom up' via variants of Participatory Rural Appraisal based community level analysis and planning for identifying key natural resource management based problems and priorities. This, when carried out in a constellation of communities within a socio-ethnic or ecological region will generate concrete products such as a document of local resources problems, options and planned priorities that can be utilized by communities for resolving regional problems through the process of negotiating effectively with governments or other competing interest groups.

Waters-Bayer and Veldhuizen (2005) acknowledged the fact that innovation through informal experimentation (and observation) has long been in place, but only recently been seriously identified and documented. While acknowledging the importance of documenting local innovation, the thrust of rural development challenge they posit, must move beyond existing innovations developed through indigenous knowledge and creativity to further developing these ideas in joint

experimentation such that they are integrated with relevant ideas from elsewhere.

Local innovations they maintain constitute the basic points for linking indigenous knowledge and scientific knowledge into a community – driven Participatory Innovation Development (PID). The PID process they suggest starts with what the local people are already trying out in their attempts to solve problems, comprehend or grasp opportunities they have already identified. The joint situations analysis by community members and outsiders (researchers or developers) follow this concrete evidence and proceeds through examining opportunities, jointly planning experiments to explore ideas and evaluate outcomes together. Local innovations may therefore, through this process become the focal points for community groups to work in partnership with development agencies.

Integrating indigenous knowledge in conservation and development efforts have been conceptualized by Ortiz (1999) as a process that involves information flow, which takes place when individuals with certain knowledge are made aware of new information. When the new information is interpreted, an interaction takes place between the pre-existing knowledge and new information.

Although the cognitive processes are highly complex (Malim, 1994 in Ortiz, 1999) four main types of interaction are considered to take place when local peoples knowledge meet with scientific information, namely Formative interaction, Modifying interaction, Reinforcing interaction and Confusing interaction (Ortiz, 1999).

Formative interaction occurs where new knowledge in some situations replaces the previous knowledge held by individuals and groups. Modifying interaction takes place when local knowledge is slightly adjusted by scientific information, such that local people are able to comprehend the ecosystem principles behind the phenomenon they observe. The process of adjustment and modification helps them to attain a better understanding of the workings of nature. Reinforcing interaction occurs when local peoples knowledge are confirmed by scientific information. This allows them to feel confident of their own observations and practices. While, Confusing interaction occurs when there is conflict between local peoples knowledge and scientific information. This usually occurs when scientific knowledge is inappropriately presented to local people.

The above models of interaction between local and exogenous knowledge highlights the cooperation and conflicts that may exist in Protected Areas where indigenous and scientific viewpoints may fraternize or collide. When indigenous knowledge is appropriately integrated with scientific knowledge for protected area management, all but the last model of interaction may be assured. This is the desired framework for assessing the ethno biology and ethno ecology knowledge of communities living at the margins of Protected Areas that has utility for agro forestry development and nature conservation.

It is difficult to tell what mode of interaction has taken place between scientist and local people in the forest margins of Cross River State. Development policy and practice have over the years been driven with utter disregard for local knowledge particularly in the field of agriculture and conservation. The

underlying logic of engagement between outsiders' knowledge and local peoples' knowledge has been that of a superimposition of outsiders view of conservation and agricultural practices on local cultures and setting rather than that of co-operative interaction hinged on mutual respect as equals. A situation that affords the two-knowledge systems to learn, adjust and benefit from each other.

The forms of interaction between scientific and local knowledge in the region may therefore be cast in the mould of Formative interaction in some cases and Confusing interaction in others. Through the imposition of exogenous systems of cultivation over the years, certain time tested traditional systems of agriculture were jettisoned and completely replaced by western models. We do contend that Ortiz's Formative interaction framework may not always be positive as originally proposed. In Bendeghe Ekiem Community in Cross River State for instance, the assessment of changes in agricultural practices documented by Bisong (1993) show the loss of certain pest control systems for staples such as yam and its subsequent replacement with unsustainable systems of control. Presently, specified pesticides are recommended by agricultural extension personnel to deal with the destruction of yam stems by beetles locally referred to as Ngbede, responsible for extensive crop damage and loss. In the past however, tying pumpkin leaves to the yam stakes, which attracts the insects, which come to take shelter within the pumpkin leaves when the sun is overhead, controlled this pest. The farmer simply collects and liquidates these insects to save the crops from pest damage. (Bisong, 1993).

This knowledge is no longer practised, as the young farmers are ignorant of them due to the introduction of modern control methods involving various forms of pesticide application. The replacement of some useful time tested knowledge by new ones introduced by modern science may be cast within the framework of Formative interaction. This replacement may not necessarily be beneficial as in the above highlighted pest control case study. There are however many instances reported by Ortiz (1999) where this replacement has been positive and beneficial. The meaningful convergence of traditional and scientific knowledge may give rise to Ortiz's Modifying and reinforcing interaction. In this situation indigenous knowledge is slightly adjusted and/or confirmed by scientific information in ways that promotes conservation and development.

Although no formal attempt has been made at integrating for mutual benefit both scientific and local knowledge systems, for the promotion of agro forestry development and biodiversity conservation in Protected Areas of Cross River State, this study attempts to fulfil the initial condition for this integration. This, it attempts, by exploring local peoples understanding of the ecological and phenological attributes of the most important species of socio-economic importance in the 'Support Zone' villages of the Cross River National Park. It assesses how local understanding relates to scientific information and what modes of interaction best explain the convergence of local understanding with scientific information. In addition, the study will provide the platform for the meaningful engagement of scientific knowledge with local understanding in order to promote conservation education and the conservation of Protected Areas.

2. The Study Region

Cross River State, South-Eastern Nigeria is a region of greatest biodiversity concentration in the country. Its natural forest of 924,951 ha represents a sizeable 31% of the total remaining Tropical Moist Forest in Nigeria. The region is home to the Cross-River National Park and 14 other Forest Reserves plus vast tracts of community-controlled forests. 205 species are endemic to the region including the only remaining lowland mountain Gorilla species in Africa, making the region one of Africa's foremost Biodiversity 'hot spots'.

Abomkpong and Butatong communities are selected for the study being part of the support zone settlements of the Okwango Division of the Cross River National Park (CRNP). Okwango Division of CRNP covers about 920sqm and a project area occupying about 2.250sqkm in South-eastern Nigeria, lying north and east of the Cross River, and extending to the Cameroon boarder (Figure 1) ODA/WWF (1990). While Abomkpong is accorded the highest priority rating (Score 6) relative to her share in the support Zone Development Programme (SZDP) resource allocation, Butatong is accorded a medium rating (Score 3) of the SZDP resource allocation. The two settlements are highly strategic with respect to the level of cooperation expected from the park. Butatong being the Headquarters of the

Okwangwo Division of the CRNP and Abomkpong, a highest priority settlement on the basis of proximity considerations.

The communities in this region are and thickly forested and highly dependent on natural resources revolving around activities such as hunting, subsistence/commercial agriculture, and Non-Timber Forested Product (NTFP) collection. The 1998 estimated population of Abomkpong and Butatong are 696 and 1,217 persons respectively.

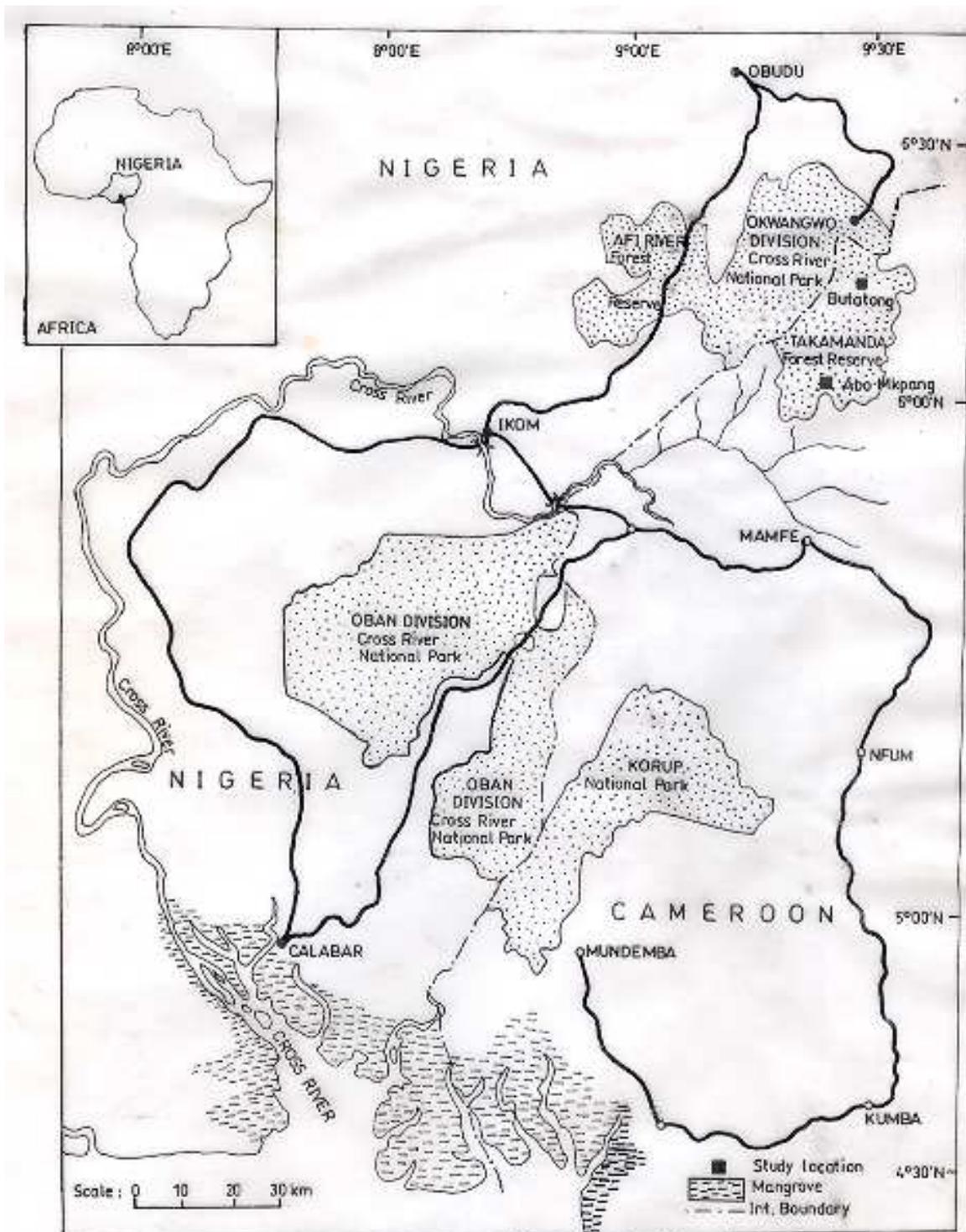


FIG.1: Location of the Cross River National Park, Nigeria

3. Method

The study adopted participatory research methodologies in investigating the ethno ecology and ethno biology knowledge of growth and phenological properties of the most important plant species valued by natives for their socio-

economic importance. Specifically, it focused on what native wisdom had to say about the ecological niche of the species, their population density and spatial distribution, pollination agents, germination properties, general phenological properties such as leaf fall, flowering, seeding, fruiting, growth span and method of propagation. Also examined were the attributes of seed dispersal and mortality, seed predators and the growth potentials of each of the species. The unit of analysis were key informants and focus groups of elderly hunters and farmers.

In each settlement studied, a combined group of all available hunters and interested farmers and local resource gatherers were interviewed. While the hunters were all males, the farmers and local resource gatherers were of both sexes. Semi Structured Interviewed (SSI) was utilized to generate information on the ethno biology of flowering plants.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Ethno ecology and Ethno biology of Wild & Cultivated Species and their Implication for Conservation Education

Tables 1 and 2 report local peoples understanding of the ecology and biology of wild and cultivated plant species. The results presented in Tables 1 and 2 demonstrate immense knowledge base of the biology and ecology of valued and cultivated species far in excess of what is usually accorded to local/ indigenous populations.

Table 1: Ethno Ecology of Some Wild and Cultivated Species

| Ethno Ecology Parameters | Irvingia spp. (Bush mango) | Cola acuminata (Native kola) | Garcinia kola (Bitter kola) | Gnetum Africana (Salad) | Dacrydis edulis (Native pear) | Milcia excelsa (Iroko) | Elaeis guineensis (oil palm tree) |
|----------------------------------|--|---|--|---|---|---|---|
| Ecology | | | | | | | |
| • Habitat | Any where in high forest on mostly level land | Anywhere in high forest and sec forest; but common on ridges. | Any where in high forest; not common in valleys. | Common near rivers/streams in thick forest Anywhere in forest, fallows farms. | Any where in forest/ fallows/ farms. | Anywhere in forest but more common on ridges and hilly areas. | Usually near river or stream bank in high forest |
| Population Structure | | | | | | | |
| Density per hectare | 4 – 7 stands per hectare | Occurs 20 to 30m apart, 100m in some cases | 1 per 5 hectares | About 100m between clusters | | 2 – 3 stands per ha approx 30m apart | Very scarce usually 1 stand ha in closed canopy forest. Common in fallows of sec forest |
| Spatial Distribution | Scattered; But clustered in few places | Scattered; common on ridges | Scattered | Usually clustered; A few are scattered | | Clustered in occurrence | Clustered |
| Pollination Agents | | | | | | | |
| Pollinators | Bees spp. (Apidae & Apis mellifera); Butterfly spp. | Variety of Bee spp Apidae; <u>Apis mellifera</u> | Not known | Birds | Bees (Apidea & <u>Apis mellifera</u>) | Suspected Bees & flies They can be heard humming around trees in flowering period | Bees |
| Seed Dispersal/ mortality | | | | | | | |
| Seed Dispersal | Big squirrel; elephant; variety of Monkey spp; man | Rabbits & Bush rats | Squirrel | Porcupine & Rabbit | Birds; seed also drops when ripe | Birds; parrots, Horn birds; Squirrel | Unknown |
| Seed predators | Bush pig (<u>Potamochoerus porcus</u>) | Rabbits & Bush rats | Squirrel | Birds prey on seed | Water beef, Hyenna porcupine | - | Bush pig, Bush dog spp |
| Yield Vol. Potential | | | | | | | |
| NOVOL per stand | 50kg of dried seed per stand = 10,000 seeds. | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Climate Effects | Early rain favourable for good yield wet harmattan required for good yielding harmattan causes poor yield. | Same as Bush mango. Early rains & Wet harmattan for growth. | - | - | Favourable growth in wet hamattans Early rain; un favourable harmattans & late rains. | - | - |

Source: Author's Field Survey, 1998

Table 2: Ethno Biology & Phenology of Some Wild and Cultivated Species

| Ethno Ecology Parameters | <i>Irvingia</i> spp. (Bush mango) | <i>Cola acuminata</i> (Native kola) | <i>Garcinia kola</i> (Bitter kola) | <i>Gnetum Africana</i> (Salad) | <i>Dacryodis edulis</i> (Native pear) | <i>Milcia excelsa</i> (Iroko) | <i>Elaeis guineensis</i> (oil palm tree) |
|---------------------------------------|---|--|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|--|---|
| <i>Germination properties</i> | | | | | | | |
| Propagation Methods | Seeds Planted | | | Largely by Wildlings | Seed Planted | Wildlings where found Seed Planting | |
| Germination conditions/ farm trials | Seed germinates under closed canopy; | Germinates anywhere on forest floor | 6 months | Any where | 2 weeks under forest floor | - | 2 months in open ground; but very long period under closed canopy |
| Germination duration | 4 – 6 weeks under forest floor. | 2 month under forest covers. 1 month for normal germination on farms | | 3 weeks germination period. | Stunted/hindered growth under closed canopy; matures quickly under gaps or open canopy | | |
| Growth XTICS in closed & open canopy | Accelerated under open canopy, stunted in close canopy | | | | | | |
| <i>Phenological properties</i> | | | | | | | |
| Leaf fall | Jan/Feb; Feb/March (Sweet Variety) Sept/Oct. (Bitter Variety) | Twice per year. Oct/Nov (Dry sea son yield) March/April wet season yield. | Dec/Feb | - | Jan – March | Dec – Jan | |
| New Leaves | 2 weeks after leaf fall (Feb/March for sweet variety) Sep/Oct. (Bitter variety) | New leaves appear with flowers. | Dec/Feb | - | Jan –March | March – May | |
| Flowering | March/April about 3 weeks after new leaves (sweet) Early Oct/Nov. (Bitter). | Oct/Nov (dry); March/April (wet) i.e. as soon as leaf falls. | - | August/Sept | Jan – March: Feb – March for late flowering | March - May | Jan – Feb (Dry season) June Aug (wet season) |

| Ethno Ecology Parameters | <i>Irvingia</i> spp. (Bush mango) | <i>Cola acuminata</i> (Native kola) | <i>Garcinia kola</i> (Bitter kola) | <i>Gnetum Africana</i> (Salad) | <i>Dacryodis edulis</i> (Native pear) | <i>Milcia excelsa</i> (Iroko) | <i>Elaeis guineensis</i> (oil palm tree) |
|--------------------------|--|--|---|---|--|-------------------------------|---|
| Seeding/Fruiting | | | | | | | |
| Commencement | April/May (Sweet) Dec/Jan. (Bitter) | Dec (Dry) May (Wet) | May-June | Seeds Oct/Nov; fruits March; drops and germinates after rains | April – May | - | Feb- April (Dry Season) |
| Maturing period | June/July i.e. 3months after fruiting commences (Sweet); Feb/March 3 months after fruiting commences (Bitter). | Feb/ March (Dry) June/July (wet) season yield. | June/July 1 month after fruiting commences. | 6 months from seeding | May – June/July to August if it flowers late | - | August to Sep (wet season) matures 3 months after flowering |
| Growth Duration | 10 yrs | Seeds planted | 30 yrs | 1 month | 5 yrs in farms/ open ground; 7 yrs under closed canopy | About 50 years | 3-4 years in open ground; 6 years under closed canopy |

Source: Author's Field Survey, 1998

Local people, can for instance, tell where within the forest ecosystem, particular tree species occur, give fairly accurate description of tree density and spatial distribution, identify pollinators of specific species such as birds, butterflies, etc, give account of germination properties, including germination duration and growth characteristics under closed or opened forest canopy. In addition, they are conversant with the phenological properties of wild and cultivated species as leaf fall, emergence of new leaves, their flowering, seeding, fruiting, growth duration and methods of propagation with specific indication of the timing and duration of these activities.

They have excellent knowledge of the seed dispersal agents as well as the seed predators of specific plant species. While seed dispersal agents were identified to be largely Big Squirrels, Elephants, variety of Monkeys and Man for species such as the Bush Mango (*Irvingia gabonensis*); Birds, Parrots, Horn birds, and Squirrels were responsible for dispersing seeds of *Dacryodis edulis* (the Native Pear) and *Millicia excelsa* (Iroko); while bees, birds, and butterflies are involved in pollinating flowering plants like *irvingia spp*, *kola accuminata*, *Dacryodis edulis* and *Millicia excelsa* (Table 1).

The participatory appraisal and learning exercise during the field survey in the course of the study provided a platform for the meaningful convergence of local knowledge with scientific knowledge. It was therefore possible to explore the mode of interaction in question in the convergence of the two knowledge systems in order for rural people to have a self-reflection on their knowledge of ecosystem attributes and functioning vis-a vis their resource harvesting practices, and their corresponding effects on livelihood security and ecosystem integrity.

The local knowledge of the ecology, habitat and distribution of the wild and cultivated species (Table 1) is evidently confirmed by scientific information. For instance, *Garcinia kola* (Bitter Kola) is understood by the natives to be a low density product (an average of one stem occurs in five hectares of forest land). *Elaeis guineensis* (Oil palm tree) is also understood to be scarcely distributed with an average of one tree per hectare in the closed canopy forest. Scientific information exhibited by the Forestry inventory results in the Cross River State (Dunn et al, 1994) confirms this understanding as the products indicated above, have low density occurrence. This is a typical example of reinforcing interaction where local understanding is confirmed by scientific information.

The implication of this for promoting conservation education is clearly evident as local people can be easily mobilized in making conservation plans for low density species. In the case of very rare species occurring at extremely low densities like the *Garcinia kola* (Bitter Kola), local laws already exist for protecting the species. For instance, it must be fire-traced and heavily protected in the process of bush burning. This is to guard against its becoming extinct as the species apart from being rare, are highly susceptible to fire. Very stiff penalties are known to be imposed by natives in some communities for failing to protect the Bitter Kola against bush fires.

A question was posed to the natives on what they considered will be the possible effects on plant species of socio-economic value if animal species such as Big Squirrels, Elephants and Monkeys were hunted to extinction? In addition, they were required to consider the effects on the valuable plant species if the agents of pollination such as bees, birds and butterflies were hunted to extinction. The natives were firm in their response that the ability of these species to be propagated within the ecosystem will be greatly impaired. In addition to their expressed views, the functional relationship between members of an ecological community and the effect this has on the viability of ecosystem became forcefully apparent to the local community. It became much easier to convince the local people on the need to imbibe ecosystem conservation ethics based on the concept of the interrelationship existing within an ecological community.

The response of the natives as to the possible effects on the ecosystem when certain members are eliminated clearly confirms scientific notions with respect to the concept of the community. It is an ecological truism that the easiest way to impair or impact negatively an organism within the ecosystem is to modify the community rather than a direct attack on the organism. This mode of interaction clearly fits into the concept of modifying interaction, as the conservation attitudes of the local people have been somewhat adjusted by scientific information based on an enhanced appreciation of the functional relationship existing between organisms in the ecosystem.

The natives indicated their willingness to change hunting behaviours towards some keystone species indicated earlier, in order to maintain the health and stability of the ecosystem. This idea seems to have a great effect on local people with respect to promoting conservation education. The prevailing atmosphere of this reflective process was that of a greater awareness and appreciation of the inter-connectedness of nature made evident from their very knowledge of the growth and phenological properties of valuable plant species of the wild. Incorporating the knowledge system into the curriculum of community education for promoting conservation will find easy grassroots' acceptance as it is already rooted in their knowledge categories about the real world.

5. Conclusion

Local people are a reservoir of knowledge of the workings of the ecosystems of their surroundings that they are dependent upon for livelihood and sustenance. Conservationists may utilize local knowledge of pollination process and agents of flowering plants as well as their knowledge of seed dispersal and seed mortality processes to demonstrate the relationship between species diversity and ecosystem stability and continuity. Rather than policing the forest against locals, the principles of modifying interaction and reinforcing interaction engendered by the convergence of local knowledge of ecosystem functioning and scientific information, on the stability of natural systems hinged on such knowledge may open a new form of cooperation as local perspectives are altered and reinforced. The ecological integrity and survival of Protected Areas are better served if this knowledge is solicited and integrated into the rural development component and ecosystem management plans for Protected Areas. Given the vast knowledge of local conservation potential, it is imperative that the educational curriculum be

amended to create room for local conservation knowledge if the natural resources of the environment are to be sustainably utilized.

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Cheating Tendency In Examinations Among Secondary School Students In Nigeria: A Case Study of Schools In Odukpani Local Government, Cross River State

Nonso Bisong, Felicia Akpama, Pauline Edet

Department of Educational Foundations, Guidance and Counselling

University of Calabar, Nigeria

nonnyb3000@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study is designed to examine cheating tendency among secondary school students in Nigeria, with evidence from schools in Odukpani local government area of Cross River State. A total number of 331 respondents in the Senior Secondary Three (SS3) classes were randomly selected from ten post primary schools in the area. A survey questionnaire was used to elicit information on cheating tendency, the level of supervision, forms of cheating behaviour, and gender influence on cheating tendency. The data were analyzed using percentages & chi-square statistics to highlight mean differences with respect to the above identified variables. The result revealed some levels of statistically significant differences in respect of cheating tendencies on the identified variables. Based on these findings, it was recommended that an ethical reorientation programme combined with implementing the stiff penalty will reduce cheating tendency in all levels of our educational system.

Keywords: Cheating Tendency – Examination cheating behaviour – Sex group differences – Levels of supervision – Nigeria

1. Introduction

The rate of cheating in public examinations among secondary school students in Nigeria is alarming. This problem is endemic and has caused cancellation of results in many schools and closure of many secondary schools. It has also drastically reduced the standard of education to the lowest ebb. More painfully is the fact that some innocent students often fall victims and have ended up being frustrated. From the late eighties till present, most schools in the country were involved in one form of malpractice or the other. In the 1975 school certificate examination/general certificate of education, 6,000 regular students and 500 private students cheated. In 1980, out of 190,000 candidates who sat for the West African Examination Certificate in May/June, 46,000 candidates from Nigeria had their results cancelled (Ukwuije, 1987). Nigerians and indeed the world over are appalled by the incessant examination malpractice that has become so deeply entrenched in our educational institutions. Successive governments had attempted to tackle this deep seated "hydra-headed monster" called examination malpractice. About four decades ago in 1962, the government did set up the Alexander commission to identify the sources of exam leakages and make recommendations to curb future occurrence. This led to the promulgation of the decree illegalizing any unethical behaviour during any public

examination. However, this did not minimize cheating in exams, rather it continued to be on the rise. Another step was taken by the government to stamp out malpractice in our educational system by promulgating decree No 27, sections 19-21 in 1973, stating penalties for examination offences. Followed by this in 1984, the federal military government promulgated the miscellaneous offences No 20, section (1) which has to do with exam malpractice, Section 6 (3) (1) of it specifies a penalty of 21 years imprisonment.

Some studies have been carried out on cheating tendencies among secondary school students in Nigeria. Lering (1978), carried out a study on the level of supervision on cheating behaviour among one hundred and fifty-two (152) students using Hartshone and may circles test. Two levels of supervision were created, high-threat-high and low-threat-low supervision, he concluded from his study that both supervision strategies did not deter cheating. Eze (1982), rightly observed that cheating which has assumed several names in Nigeria, such as "juju", "brain support", "dubbing", "missiles", "bullet", "ekpo" or "sit-up" has been perpetuated in the Nigerian school system because of the encouragement students get from the level of supervision. Nenty (1975), in a study conducted on senior secondary students in Cross River State to determine the socio-economic background of students and cheating tendency through the use of questionnaire data collection, a total of 379 randomly selected respondents were used. Responses were analysed through the use of Pearson product moment correlation technique and results showed that no significant relationship exist between socio-economic status of students and their cheating tendencies.

On levels of sex differences in examination malpractices, Ugwegbu (1975), in his studies on attitude of Igbo high school students toward cheating in examination concluded that Igbo female students cheated in exams more than their male counterparts. Similarly, although with contradictory results Schab (1999), and Denga (1983) in respective researchers found out that more males engage in cheating behaviour at any given point in time than females. An earlier study conducted in the region by Nenty (1975) had sought to establish if socio economic status of parents predict cheating behaviour of students and found no such effect; this study attempts to fill this gap in providing an explanation that may delineate factors that may predict cheating behaviour.

With the above background, the study is set to achieve the following objectives

1. Determine cheating tendency of secondary school students in Odukpani Local Government Area
2. Examine effects of sex group differences on forms of examination cheating behaviour
3. Examine the influence of levels of supervision on forms of cheating behaviour

2. Methodology

Five schools were randomly selected from the twelve schools in Odukpani Local Government Area of Cross River State. Out of an estimated population of one thousand students (1000), four hundred students were selected through stratified random sampling technique. The stratification was along the male and

female population of students. The study sample was restricted to students in the senior secondary three level (SS3), because it is assumed that they have witnessed cheating in examinations long enough. Being in their final classes, they are considered sufficiently matured to assess cheating in examination and probably re-appraise the situation. A total number of four hundred copies of questionnaire were distributed but three hundred and thirty one were successfully retrieved, comprising one hundred and forty-six females (146) and one hundred and eighty five males (185).

The instrument for the study consists of a survey questionnaire titled "Students Examination Taking Behaviour". Its adaptive scale was divided into two major sections, A and B. Section A captured information on the personal data of respondents such as sex and age. Section B was further divided into three sub-sections, which elicited responses from the respondents on the level of supervision and cheating, the forms of cheating and cheating tendency respectively. Data collected was subjected to statistical analysis using the chi-square statistics and simple percentages respectively.

3. Results and Discussion

Data collected were analyzed and presented in tables 1 – 4 below.

Table 1 reveals a general cheating tendency among secondary school students. Actual numbers are in parenthesis and percentages for each response item are also shown on the table. The result shows that an appreciable proportion of students are prone to cheating based on their expressed opinions. The most common tendencies can be observed from the table. 74.3% see nothing wrong in permitting cheating during exams (Item 2), 49.9% enjoy copying no matter the situation (Item 5), 52.8% don't mind any form of cheating (Item 14), and 35.7% feel it is necessary to copy from friends during difficult examinations (Item 4).

Table 1: Cheating Tendency among Students

| S/n | Item Description | A/SA | D/SD |
|-----|--|------------|------------|
| 1 | I do not see anything wrong to looking into my neighbour's answer sheet during examination | 25.7 (85) | 74.3 (246) |
| 2 | A little cheating in a while during examination is not bad | 74.3 (246) | 25.7 (85) |
| 3 | There is no use having invigilators during examination | 16.9 (56) | 83.1 (275) |
| 4 | It is sometimes necessary to copy from friends during difficult examinations | 35.7 (118) | 64.3 (213) |
| 5 | I enjoy copying during examinations, no matter the situation | 49.9 (165) | 50.1 (166) |
| 6 | If I have my way, I will like to smuggle pieces of papers into examination hall | 19.1 (63) | 80.9 (268) |
| 7 | Any student caught cheating should be penalized | 65 (215) | 35 (116) |
| 8 | Sharing my views with friends during examination is not bad | 33.2 (110) | 66.7 (221) |
| 9 | It is disturbing to have more than four invigilators during examinations | 42 (139) | 58 (192) |
| 10 | Talking generally during examination should not be encouraged | 53.8 (178) | 46.2 (153) |
| 11 | Taking major points and formula with the use of mobile phones into the examination hall is not a bad thing | 22.4 (74) | 77.6 (257) |
| 12 | I seem to like teachers who are not strict invigilators during examinations | 29.6 (98) | 70.4 (233) |
| 13 | Students should be given some breathing space to compare notes during examination | 24.2 (80) | 75.8 (251) |
| 14 | I hate any form of cheating during examination, with a passion | 47.1 (156) | 52.8 (175) |
| 15 | Invigilators should be very vigilant and dedicated during examination | 64 (212) | 36 (119) |

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2008

Table 2 reveals sex group differences in forms of exam cheating behaviours.

Table 2: Sex Group Differences in Forms of Examination Cheating Behaviour levels

| Sex Grouping | Forms of Cheat Behaviour | Always/ Sometimes | Never | Total | X ² | P-level |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|-------------------|----------------|---------|
| Male Female Total | A | 13.0 (43) 10.6 (35) 23.6 (78) | 42.9 (142) 33.5 (111) 76.4 (253) | 185 146 331 | 0.375 | .829 |
| Male Female Total | B | 6.0 (20) 6.0 (20) 12.0 (40) | 49.8 (165) 38.1 (126) 87.9 (291) | 185 146 331 | 0.641 | .424 |
| Male Female Total | C | 13.0 (43) 12.1 (40) 25.1 (83) | 42.9 (142) 32.0 (106) 74.9 (248) | 185 146 331 | 1.467 | .480 |
| Male Female Total | D | 12.1 (40) 6.3 (21) 18.4 (61) | 43.8 (145) 37.8 (125) 81.6 (270) | 185 146 331 | 8.992 | .011* |
| Male Female Total | E | 10.0 (33) 9.1 (30) 19.1 (63) | 45.9 (152) 35.0 (116) 81.0 (268) | 185 146 331 | 4.067 | .131 |
| Male Female Total | F | 11.8 (30) 9.7 (32) 21.4 (71) | 44.1 (146) 34.1 (113) 78.2 (259) | 185 146 331 | 4.285 | .232 |

| Sex Grouping | Forms of Cheat Behaviour | Always/ Sometimes | Never | Total | X ² | P-level |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|-------------------|----------------|---------|
| Male Female Total | G | 23.8 (79) 21.7 (72) 45.7 (151) | 32.0 (106) 22.4 (74) 54.4 (180) | 185 146 331 | 3.28 | .194 |
| Male Female Total | H | 12.7 (42) 12.7 (42) 25.4 (84) | 43.2 (143) 31.4 (104) 74.6 (247) | 185 146 331 | 2.720 | .257 |
| Male Female Total | I | 18.4 (61) 13.0 (43) 31.4 (104) | 37.5 (124) 31.1 (103) 68.6 (227) | 185 146 331 | 1.523 | .467 |
| Male Female Total | J | 8.1 (27) 11.1 (37) 19.2 (64) | 47.7 (158) 32.9 (109) 80.7 (267) | 185 146 331 | 13.88 | .001* |

Significant at $p < .05$

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2008

**Key to table 2
above**

A - Copy from students
B - Bring textbooks
C - Copy from scribbled pieces
D - Exchange scripts
E - Students writing on palms
F - Getting answers through windows
G - Asking friends
H - Asking teachers/supervisors
I - Giraffing
J - Submitting script written outside

From table data, the sex group differences in forms of cheating behaviour are generally not significant, evidenced by P-value $> .05$ (see table 2). With respect to items 4 and 10 however, a significant difference in forms of cheating behaviour can be observed between the sexes evidenced by their respective p-values $< .05$ (see table 2). In item D, a large proportion of male students (12.1%) tend to exchange scripts with their fellow students more than their female counterparts (6.3%). Item J, a higher proportion of female students (11.1%) are prone to submitting scripts written outside the examination, more than their male counterparts (8.1%) that do the same.

Table 3 highlights the level of supervision and differences, in forms of exam cheating behaviour. Levels of supervision were grouped as high or low. A causal overview of table, show on the general, that forms of cheating behaviour do not differ significantly with respect to levels of supervision as indicated by the P-value $> .05$ (see table above). A closer observation, however indicates a significant difference in certain forms of cheating behaviour (see B, E & 1) relative to levels of supervision as evidenced by the P-value $< .05$. These forms include bringing in textbooks into exam halls, writing on palms and giraffing.

Table 3: Level of Supervision and differences in forms of exam cheating behaviour

| Level of Supervision | Forms of Cheating Behaviour | Always/ Sometimes | Never | Total | X ² | P-level |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------|---------|
| High Low Total | A | 19.9 (66) 3.6 (12) 23.6 (78) | 86.4 (220) 10.0 (33) 76.4 (253) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) 100 (331) | 2.061 | .357 |
| High Low Total | B | 8.8 (29) 3.3 (11) | 77.6 (259) 10.3 (34) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) | 7.489 | .006* |
| High Low Total | C | 20.5 (68) 4.5 (15) 25.0 (83) | 65.9 (218) 9.1 (30) 74.9 (248) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) 100 (331) | 5.082 | .079 |
| High Low Total | D | 15.4 (51) 2.0 (10) 20.0 (61) | 71.0 (235) 10.0 (30) 81.6 (270) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) 100 (331) | 2.605 | .272 |
| High Low Total | E | 14.5 (48) 4.5 (15) 19.0 (63) | 71.9 (238) 9.1 (30) 81.0 (268) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) 100 (331) | 13.85 2 | .001* |
| High Low Total | F | 17.5 (58) 3.9 (13) 21.4 (71) | 68.6 (227) 9.7 (32) 78.2 (259) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) 100 (331) | 2.524 | .471 |
| High Low Total | G | 39.3 (130) 6.3 (21) 45.7 (151) | 47.1 (156) 7.3 (24) 54.4 (180) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) 100 (331) | 1.206 | .547 |
| High Low Total | H | 21.4 (71) 3.9 (13) 25.4 (84) | 65.0 (215) 9.7 (32) 74.6 (247) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) 100 (331) | .503 | .778 |
| High Low Total | I | 25.6 (85) 5.7 (19) 31.5 (104) | 60.7 (201) 7.9 (26) 68.6 (227) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) 100 (331) | 7.431 | .024* |
| High Low Total | J | 16.3 (54) 3.0 (10) 19.3 (64) | 70.1 (232) 10.6 (35) 80.7 (267) | 86.4 (286) 13.6 (45) 100 (331) | 1.497 | .473 |

Significant at p < .05

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2008

**Key to table 3
above**

A - Copy from students
B - Bring textbooks

C - Copy from scribbled pieces

D - Exchange scripts
E - Students writing on palms

F - Getting answers through windows

G - Asking friends
H - Asking teachers/supervisors

I - Giraffing

J - Submitting script written outside

Table 4 clearly delineates the patterns of examination cheating behaviour.

Table 4: Pattern or Forms of Exam Cheating Behaviour

| S/n | Forms of Cheating Behaviour | Always/ Sometimes | Never |
|-----|--|-------------------|------------|
| 1 | Copying from other students | 23.6 (78) | 76.4 (253) |
| 2 | Bringing textbooks into the hall | 12.1 (40) | 87.9 (291) |
| 3 | Copying from scribbled pieces of paper smuggled into the exam hall | 25.0 (83) | 74.9 (248) |
| 4 | Exchanging scripts with other students | 18.4 (61) | 81.6 (270) |
| 5 | Students writing on their palms | 19.0 (63) | 81.0 (208) |
| 6 | Getting answers from other students through the window | 21.7 (72) | 78.2 (259) |
| 7 | Asking answers from friends in the exam hall | 45.7 (151) | 54.4 (180) |
| 8 | Asking answers from teachers or supervisors | 25.4 (84) | 74.6 (247) |
| 9 | Giraffing or stretching your neck to steal from somebody sitting next to you | 31.5 (104) | 68.6 (227) |
| 10 | Quickly submitting script written outside just as the exam is about to end | 19.3 (64) | 80.7 (267) |

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2008

The responses to each item are grouped under always/ sometimes and never. The table shows that students engage in all forms of exam cheating behaviour. The commonest patterns of cheating behaviour students indulge in, include asking answers from friends in the exam hall involving 45.7% of respondents (Item 7), giraffing or stretching the neck to steal from somebody nearby (31.5%) Item 9, copying from scribbled pieces of paper smuggled into the exam hall (25%) Item 3 and asking answers from teachers or supervisors (25.4%) Item 8.

The implication of this study is that cheating tendency is becoming endemic in the Nigerian society. A situation where every one out of four students tends to cheat in every exam, calls for a big moral question in our society. Even with a high level of supervision as the result shows students are still prone to indulge in cheating in exams. This finding agrees with Lerner's study (1978) in which he concludes that students still cheat despite high and low level supervision strategies. The result of the various forms of cheating behaviour students indulge in, suggests that attention should be focused at eradicating this problem from the primary level. It also calls for an ethical reorientation at all levels of the educational system.

4. Conclusion

The study confirms the following that: 1) Cheating tendency is clearly on the rise despite increased levels of supervision although certain forms of cheating behaviour are known to significantly decline with increased supervision levels. 2) On the general, forms of cheating behaviour do not significantly differ between male and female students although some aspects of it are common with either the male or female students.

The study therefore concludes that the combined influence of an ethical reorientation channelled to combat cheating at all levels of the educational system and the imposition of stiff penalties to all forms of cheating will be critical to reduce or possibly eliminate the phenomenon of cheating.

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Educational, Economic and Social influences on Cultural Heritage in Trinidad

Beatrice Boufoyo-Bastick

University of the West Indies, Trinidad & Tobago

bboufoybastick@gmail.com

Abstract

This research presents traditional Cultural Heritage (CH) as a dynamic social process – a positive feedback loop enhancing cultural identity and institutional authority, through a contested authoritative inclusion of the 'objects' it comprises.

It then focuses on one part of that process, the individuals' construction of their cultural heritage and defines cultural heritage as 'The trans-generational component of identity'. Research is cited to support a postmodernist and radical constructivist perspective of CH and show how this definition evolves from such a perspective.

This study qualitatively tests this perspective using a representative household survey of Trinidadian respondents (N=348) and showing Economic, Educational and Social (EES) differences in how EES groups construct their CH. Also, interviews illustrate different personal constructions of CH. Four contributions of this research are its illuminating and applicable dynamic of traditional CH, its post-modern perspective and radical constructive definition of CH formally aligning it with current scientific discourse and operationalising measurement of CH through authoritative inclusion of the 'objects' it comprises.

Keywords: Cultural identity – Postmodern – Radical constructivist – Definition of Cultural heritage – Measurement of cultural heritage

1. Proposing a post-modern radical constructivist definition of Cultural Heritage

1.1 Emergence of the traditional meaning of Cultural Heritage

Evolution of traditional modernist cultural heritage to a post-modernist construct, and its current definition given in this paper, might best be appreciated through its fundamental property of being a positive feedback loop enhancing cultural identity and institutional authority, through a contested authoritative inclusion of the 'objects' it comprises.

Cultural Heritage is traditionally epitomised by the 'museum exhibit', a rare, valued, protected and, presumably cherished, artefact representing valued characteristics of a cultural group. The 'object', its choice, the laws, rules, policies and circumstances enforcing its protection, give authority to the valuing of the cultural characteristics it represents. This traditional meaning of Cultural Heritage both affirms the positive value of those who identify with the cultural group and further empowers the authority that defines it through their allegiance. And so this positive empowerment loop encourages the accretion of more objects into the monolith of Cultural Heritage, spreading protection to

those objects and benefiting those people and institutions that control access to the cultural heritage. These monoliths typically comprise 'objects' such as those defining Cultural Heritage in UNESCO's Article 1 of the 2005 and 2008 *'Operational Guidelines for the Implementation of the World Heritage Convention'*.

For the purposes of this Convention, the following shall be considered as "cultural heritage";

monuments: architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements or structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings ...

groups of buildings: groups of separate or connected buildings which, because of their architecture, their homogeneity or their place in the landscape, are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science; .. (WHC, 2005, Paragraph 45, Article 1, p.13; WHC, 2008, Paragraph 45, Article 1, p.13)

A Google Scholar search of book titles containing the phrase "Cultural Heritage of ..." evidence this monolithic modernist conception of Cultural Heritage by returning over 1000 books with titles such as 'The Cultural Heritage of India' by Haridas Bhattacharyya 'The Cultural Heritage of Pakistan' by S. M. Ikram and P. Spear, 'The Cultural Heritage of Africa' by Pascal James Imperato, Martin and Osa Johnson, 'The Cultural Heritage of Malaya' by N J Ryan , 'The Cultural Heritage of the Himalayas' by Kishori Lal Vaidya , 'The Cultural Heritage of Malaysia' by Yahaya Ismail, etc.

1.2 Social constructions of CH

However, competing interests may contest the inclusion of some of these objects, creating cracks in the CH monolith (Smith, 2004; Thomson, 1978) and suggest a wider social construction (Dann, & Seaton, 2002; Graham, 1996; Kreamer, 2006; Hou, 2004; Olwig, 2005; Sculthorpe, 2005; Worden, 1996). For example, a glossary of traditional knowledge gives a more recent definition of Cultural Heritage as:

"Having at one time referred exclusively to the monumental remains of cultures, heritage as a concept has gradually come to include new categories such as the intangible, ethnographic or industrial heritage. A noteworthy effort was subsequently made to extend the conceptualization and description of the intangible heritage. This is due to the fact that closer attention is now being paid to humankind, the dramatic arts, languages and traditional music, as well as to the informational, spiritual and philosophical systems upon which creations are based. (UNESCO).

Article 2 of UNESCO's 2003 *'Convention for the Safeguarding of the Intangible Cultural Heritage'* includes these social intangible 'objects' as part of its definition of cultural heritage.

“For the purposes of this Convention,

1. The “intangible cultural heritage” means the practices, representations, expressions, knowledge, skills – as well as the instruments, objects, artefacts and cultural spaces associated therewith – that communities, groups and, in some cases, individuals recognize as part of their cultural heritage. This intangible cultural heritage, transmitted from generation to generation, **is constantly recreated by communities and groups** (*my emphasis*) in response to their environment...
2. The “intangible cultural heritage”, as defined in paragraph 1 above, is manifested inter alia in the following domains:
 - (a) oral traditions and expressions, including language as a vehicle of the intangible cultural heritage;
 - (b) performing arts;
 - (c) social practices, rituals and festive events;
 - (d) knowledge and practices concerning nature and the universe;
 - (e) traditional craftsmanship.” (p. 2)

Further *Tongyun Yin (2006)*, instructively identifies two social sub-categories of Intangible Cultural Heritage, the second of which refers to individuals personal lived culture.

“I prefer to divide the Intangible Cultural Heritage into two groups: one is the Intangible Cultural Heritage that used to live and be practiced within original natural and social context. ... The other one is the Intangible Cultural Heritage that is still living and being practiced within its natural and social context. This type of Intangible Cultural Heritage is viewed as both traditional and contemporary in the sense that the traditional culture and folklore form a living culture that is still a vibrant and self-identified part of cultural communities’ lives.” (p. 2)

However, CH has been much more narrowly defined for specific social purposes as in “The idea of cultural heritage means not only separate objects or places, but also their place – the environment related to the history of the civilization. A cultural monument cannot be separated from its history – a witness of which it is and where it is located” (Dambis, 2001, p. 218), which bears on the rival Greek and British claims to the Elgin Marbles as cultural heritage (Merryman, 2000, p. 165). One of the narrowest definitions of Cultural Heritage is constructed by Title 18, United States Code, Section 668 – Theft of Major Art-work: “An ‘object of cultural heritage’ means an object that is: a. Over 100 years old and worth in excess of \$5,000 or b. Worth at least \$100,000” (Chaffinch,, 2002, pp. 96-97). With these various social extensions, cultural heritage may be considered as a postmodern social construction that varies markedly between societies and their sub-groups. Cultural Heritage as a post-modern construct is supported by Uffe Juul Jensen (2000), who writes “Yet the analogy between cultural heritage and heritage in the primary sense of inheritance has its limitations. Heritage is not always something already present in a culture. It is, on the contrary, selected, negotiated, and perhaps even **constructed by the heirs.**”(my emphasis) (p .38).

1.3 CH component of Identity

As well as cultural heritage being a contested social construction in terms of what 'objects' it authoritatively comprises, the same UNESCO convention, Article 2 above, also emphasizes its role in identity construction: "This intangible cultural heritage, transmitted from generation to generation, is constantly recreated by communities and groups in response to their environment, their interaction with nature and their history, and **provides them with a sense of identity**" (my emphasis) (2003, p. 2).

Yves Rogister and Christine Ruelle reported interviews as part of an EU cultural heritage project in which inhabitants considered that demolishing an ancient house, which was part of their cultural heritage, as akin to losing their identity. "When the municipalities merged, a small municipality was included in a bigger one. Following this, the authorities decided to demolish the ancient town house that both they and the cultural heritage experts considered as being without any interest or value. But they had great problems with the inhabitants. They were very angry because for them it was like losing a second time their identity! This house was a symbolic part of the local history" (2002, pp.7-8).

Cultural Heritage and Identity are synonymous in the literature (Aiello, Mango, & Massarotti, 2005; Bruce, & Creighton, 2006; Crownshaw, 1999; Osborne, 1996; Roussin, 2003; Shozimov, 2004). The destruction of cultural heritage as an act of war is intended to destroy the identity of a people. Books are burnt. Libraries are destroyed and the recognised objects of their cultural heritage are obliterated. "The killing of a person destroys an individual memory. The destruction of cultural heritage erases the memory of a people. It is as if they were never there" (de Condappa, 2006, p. 1). From Shannon Supple (2005) we have: "The cultural heritage found in libraries, archives, and museums provides a sense of identity to oppressed and minority groups. If the past is comprised of surviving physical artefacts, the destruction of the artefacts of others is then able to ostensibly erase their identities and to control historical memory in general (Brothman, 2001)." (p. 6). As someone who treasures their books, it is hard to comprehend the full significance of these acts of identity destruction:

"War does not imply just the seizure of goods, people and territory: it also needs to delete the memory of the adversary, the reasons supporting their identity and pushing them to resist, to fight, to love... In this sense, the destruction of libraries, museums and archives is not just a war objective: it is a destruction strategy." (Civallero, 2007, p. 1).

1.4 Personal constructions of CH

Heirlooms, old family photographs, stories, or an ancestor's birth certificate can be the objects that help an individual to construct that part of their own identity that represents their personal cultural heritage. As Susan Pearce writes in *'The Making of Cultural Heritage'* "Cultural heritage is cognitively constructed, as an external expression of identity, operating in a range of ways and levels. It is a social fact, .." (2000, p. 59). Digital archiving of personal cultural heritages now allows personal objects of identity to be recorded and arrogated as a record of valued subgroup cultural heritage and identity. In addition, this process enables

the achieving institute to claim a democratic authority in defining cultural heritages.

Thus, Cultural Heritage is defined here as 'the transgenerational component of identity'.

This study brings quantitative support for this postmodern perspective of CH by demonstrating that Educational, Economic and Social influences are associated with different social constructions of CH for Trinidadians. It also brings qualitative evidence to support the radical constructive definition given of CH by evidencing different personal constructions for components of CH that have the same name.

2. Methodology

2.1 Sample

A random selection of 348 Trinidadian households completed a Cultural Heritage telephone survey in November 2007. The households formed a random sample stratified by population density and ethnicity from 10 major Trinidadian constituencies across the island. The interviews were conducted by 33 trained interviewers who read the questions, instructions and explanations to respondents. The mean interview duration was 34 minutes. The sample comprised 152 Males and 196 Females, with an average age of 46 years of whom 56% (195) were heads of household. Respondents were asked to rate the importance of five components of their Cultural Heritage and report the following Educational, Economic and Societal (EES) demographic information: their highest educational level, the income of the highest wage earner in the household, property value, age and sex. Respondents were asked if they could be contacted again if further information was required. Their names and telephone numbers were also recorded so that they could be more easily contacted if selected for the interviews.

The first part of this paper compares the importance of Cultural Heritage for these demographic sections of Trinidadian society. The second part of the paper reports interviews illustrating different meanings respondents give to their Cultural Heritage.

2.2 Independent EES and dependent CH variables

The independent variables were classified as Educational, Economic or Social. Education was assessed by the highest of 10 formal educational levels attained. Economic variables were value of property and monthly income of the household's highest wage-earner. To avoid respondent bias for Property value, respondents were asked to estimate the sale price of two similar neighbouring houses and the average was taken to represent the respondent's property value. Currency values were given in local T&T dollars and are reported in TT\$, US\$ and Euros. Social variables were age sex and ethnicity. Continuous and ordinal

independent variables were split at their medians into two groups for comparison of the dependent variables.

2.3 Self-rating classification of ethnicity

The self-rating of ethnicity used responses to the following question concerning Genetic/Ethnic Mix and Ancestral geographic origins:

Q4 In Trinidad we are not 'either or' completely one thing or another. Most Trinidadians are a mix of many things. In terms of Genetic/Ethnic mix, on a scale from 0 to 10, how much of each of the following have you got in you? (0 means none at all and 10 means completely)

(4a) Indo

(4b) Afro

(4c) Other (state _____)

Ethnic categorization was very stringent, excluding 61.8% of the sample. For responses $4b > 7$ AND $4a < 4$, respondents were classified as Afro-Trinidadians. For, responses $4a > 7$ AND $4b < 4$, respondents were classified as Afro-Trinidadians. Respondents with any other responses to 4a and $4b > 0$ were classified as mixed.

2.4 Selecting respondents for further interviews

Respondents were sorted by their ethnicity and by gender and education. Five respondents in each group were targeted for further interviewing to elucidate the meanings of their CH in terms of 'objects' and the authority for their inclusion. This allowed for 40 interviewees comprising eight groups of five respondents.

2.5 Dependent variables

'Importance' was chosen as a simple intuitively rateable indicator of CH difference. Although respondents who rate their CH with equal importance might have different Cultural Heritages, it might be argued that different ratings of importance do not necessarily imply differences in CH, in that CH could be the same set of authorised 'objects' for each respondent and each respondent gives varying importance to this same set. However, 'importance' is part of an individual's construction of his or her CH and so qualitatively alters it. This would be true even if CH were a one-dimensional construct like height or wealth. The personal construction of 'tall' is qualitatively different from the personal construction of 'short', even though tall and short may be represented as only different ratings of the same one-dimensional construct or as different numbers of centimetres on the same distance scale. Similarly, the personal construction of 'wealthy' is qualitatively different from the personal construction of 'poor', even though wealthy and poor may be represented as only different ratings of the same one-dimensional construct, or as different numbers of dollars on the same currency scale. Further, respondents who gave different ratings of importance to their CH were interviewed to verify that their individual Cultural Heritages were

differently constructed in terms of the 'objects' included and the authorisation of those objects that their CH comprised.

Five components of CH in Trinidad were identified. The dependent variables were self-ratings of the importance of these five components of Cultural Heritage given in answer to the following four questions:

Your Cultural Heritage (Legacy of values/artefacts/traditions):

h1. How important to you is your Cultural Heritage (0 to 10)?

h2 How important to you is your Trinidadian Cultural Heritage (0 to 10)?

All Trinidadians have a mixed Cultural Heritage

h3. How important to you is your Indo-Trinidadian Cultural Heritage (0 to 10)?

h4. How important to you is your Afro-Trinidadian Cultural Heritage (0 to 10)?

h5. How important to you is your American-Trinidadian Cultural Heritage (0 to 10)?

Only 'discriminating' interval scale responses were required. In order to exclude all possible nominal 'principled' responses, a 10% edge-padding (trimmed ratings) was applied so that ratings of 0 and 10 were excluded from the analysis by coding them as missing values.

For each independent variable, respondents were placed in two groups, e.g. Sex (male/female), Education (high/low levels), Income (high/low \$), Property value (high/low 4), Ethnicity (Afro/Indo), Age (younger/older). To show that CH is socially constructed and to explore the effects of the EES variables on groups' constructions of CH, these groups were compared on their mean responses to each component CH question. We also identified respondents of both ethnicities and interviewed them to evidence how differently they individually constructed their CH.

2.6 Qualitative methodology

To demonstrate the radical constructionist nature of CH, a list was made of Afro-Trinidadian and Indo-Trinidadian respondents to represent the 'high' and 'low' groups of each independent variable.

The qualitative interviews comprised six questions like the following:

Q1 What do you mean by your CH

Q2 What do you mean by your Trinidadian CH

Q3 What do you mean by your Afro-Trinidadian CH. In what ways is your parents Afro-Trinidadian CH different from your own (what do they value that you don't and why).

This questionnaire was administered to these respondents and their answers were compared in order to demonstrate that individuals construct different CHs. This was done by (i) transcribing each interview, (ii) selecting key sections and developing Key-Word (KW) codes to identify the objects and authority that respondents used to construct their CHs, (iii) tabulating these objects and

authorities by respondent category, and (iv) contrasting the tabulation to evidence different personal constructions of CH.

3. Results

3.1 Description of variables

Sex was coded into male and female. All other independent variables were split at their medians into two groups as follows.

Table 1 shows the number of respondents at each educational level.

Table 1: Highest educational qualification

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|---|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| 1 Did not complete primary school | 9 | 2.6 | 2.7 | 2.7 |
| 2 Primary school completion | 47 | 13.5 | 13.9 | 16.6 |
| 3 Secondary school completion | 59 | 17.0 | 17.5 | 34.0 |
| 4 CSEC/ CXC/ GCE 'O' Level | 64 | 18.4 | 18.9 | 53.0 |
| 5 CAPE/ GCE 'A' Level | 20 | 5.7 | 5.9 | 58.9 |
| 6 Undergraduate training Certificate/ Diploma | 58 | 16.7 | 17.2 | 76.0 |
| 7 Bachelor Degree | 59 | 17.0 | 17.5 | 93.5 |
| 8 Post Graduate Diploma | 8 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 95.9 |
| 9 Masters Degree | 12 | 3.4 | 3.6 | 99.4 |
| 10 Doctorate | 2 | .6 | .6 | 100.0 |
| Total | 338 | 97.1 | 100.0 | |
| Missing 99 | 10 | 2.9 | | |
| Total | 348 | 100.0 | | |

The 179(53%) respondents up to the median level of 4, having CSEC/ CXC/ GCE 'O' Level or below were categorised as Low Ed and those at level 5 and above (n=159, 47%), having CAPE/ GCE 'A' Level or higher, were categorised as High Ed.

Sex comprised 152(43.7%) males and 196(56.3%) females. Ethnicity based on self-rating of genetic mix had 98(28.2%) Afro-Trinidadian, 71(20.4%) Mixed and 117(33.6%) Indo-Trinidadian, with 62(17.8%) missing values.

Table 2 summarises the distributions of the continuous independent variables of Monthly income, Property value and Age. Monthly income, Property value are in TT\$ where the current conversion values for the means were Monthly income =TT\$19059=US\$3,049 = Euros, and Property value = TT\$694567=US\$ 111122 = 71,841Euros. Current exchange rates were 1 TTD = 0.159987 USD 1 USD = 6.25050 TTD and 1 TTD = 0.103433 EUR , 1 EUR = 9.66810 TTD

Table 2: Monthly income, Property value and Age

| | Income Monthly | Property Value | Age in years |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|
| N Valid | 154 | 302 | 288 |
| Missing | 194 | 46 | 60 |
| Mean | 19058 | 694566 | 46.15 |
| Median | 12000 | 450000 | 46.38 |
| Std. Deviation | 40821 | 807878 | 18.018 |
| Skewness | 7.606 | 2.917 | .230 |

Respondents above the medians were categorised as High \$ income, High \$ house and Older respectively. Those below the medians were categorised as Low \$ income, Low \$ house and Younger respectively.

Table 3 summarises the distributions of the five dependent variables after 10% edge padding removing principled responses.

Table 3: Distributions of dependent variables – The five components of CH

| Q. How important to you is your .. | h1 Cultural Heritage? | h2 Trinidadian Cultural Heritage? | h3 Indo-Trinidadian Cultural Heritage? | h4 Afro-Trinidadian Cultural Heritage? | h5 American-Trinidadian Cultural Heritage? |
|------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|--|--|--|
| N Valid | 182 | 190 | 231 | 260 | 209 |
| Missing | 166 | 158 | 117 | 88 | 139 |
| Mean | 7.31 | 7.39 | 5.81 | 5.64 | 3.83 |
| Std. Deviation | 1.657 | 1.531 | 2.177 | 2.138 | 2.078 |
| Skewness | -1.018 | -.821 | -.283 | -.307 | .502 |
| Std. Error of Skewness | .180 | .176 | .160 | .151 | .168 |
| Minimum | 2 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Maximum | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 | 9 |

3.2 Influence of EES variables on Cultural Heritage

The independent variables were set-up as dichotomous variables and t-tests used to compare the means for all respondents on each dependent variable. The results are summarised in Table 4.

Table 4: Significant Educational, Economic and Social influences on Cultural Heritage

| Cultural Heritage Component | Education | Economy | | Society | | |
|---|-----------|---------|----------|---------|---------|------------|
| | Education | Income | Property | Age | Sex | Ethnicity |
| Independent variables | Education | Income | Property | Age | Sex | Ethnicity |
| Two groups compared | Low Ed | Low \$ | Low \$ | Younger | Male | Afro-Trini |
| | High Ed | High \$ | High \$ | Older | Female | Indo-Trini |
| h1 how important to you is your Cultural Heritage? | 7.195 | 7.324 | 7.179 | 7.125 | 7.158 | 6.942 |
| h2 how important to you is your Trinidadian Cultural Heritage? | 7.398 | 7.717 | 7.486 | 7.319 | 7.425 | *7.615 |
| h3 how important to you is your Indo-Trinidadian Cultural Heritage? | 7.413 | 7.417 | 7.510 | 7.315 | 7.025 | 6.843 |
| h4 how important to you is your Afro-Trinidadian Cultural Heritage? | 7.312 | 7.628 | 7.324 | 7.616 | **7.661 | **7.678 |
| h5 how important to you is your American-Trinidadian Cultural Heritage? | 5.850 | 6.471 | 6.037 | 6.158 | 5.515 | 4.733 |
| | 5.728 | 6.057 | 5.772 | 5.784 | 6.023 | **6.963 |
| | 5.481 | 5.250 | 5.858 | 5.712 | 5.278 | **6.231 |
| | 5.808 | **6.386 | 5.464 | 5.760 | *5.895 | 4.876 |
| | 3.670 | 3.344 | 3.792 | *4.159 | 3.460 | 3.407 |
| | 3.981 | 3.844 | 3.926 | 3.500 | *4.090 | 3.472 |

* Difference is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

NB The higher CH group is starred if difference is significant

Table 4 shows mainly ethnic and sex influences were significant, with the lower income population significantly valuing their Afro-Trinidadian CH. There were significant Ethnic differences on components h3 and h4 because each group valued their own cultural heritage significantly more than they value the other group's cultural heritage. It was interesting that high income and being female significantly increases Afro-Trinidadian CH. Similarly, Trinidadian Cultural Heritage was significantly more important to Females and to Indo-Trinidadians. Females valued their American-Trinidadian CH significantly more than did males. Generally Indo-Trinidadians valued their personal (not ethnic) CH more than Afro-Trinidadians valued their own personal (not ethnic) CH. Respondents with lower levels of education were significantly more inconsistent in applying Afro-Trinidadian values. This was not so for applying Indo-Trinidadian values. These results demonstrate significant differences in the way EES groups construct their CHs.

3.3 Qualitative results

The following is an example of responses to Q2. This response is from a young, female low-income Indo-Trinidadian.

Q2 What do you mean by your Indian CH?

For me more a race. Indian when we have Hindu festivals like diwali. If they have prayer I go, it's my only link with my Hindu CH. They are my Hindu religious ... Hindu rites.

Right now diwali not very important when my mother was alive. Died 10 years ago. So now we kind of lost that link and don't carry on with the fasting. But the celebration carried on.

Prayer sessions it is more like a bonding experience with my cousins but now not very important. For the Hindu CH.

For indo Christians, because difference is education. Education creates a hierarchy. Like people in Caroni lots of them don't have much education.

It's the only difference but although I am spiritual. There's some duality between the 2 sides. What is good did not have to choose I am always completely welcome in both.

I have no idea how to describe myself. Being part of both worlds. I am East Indian descent because of race. More and more young are open-minded and westernise.

Transcripts were coded for 'objects' and authority, and to objectively clarify for comparison as in the following continuing example:

KW: ancestry; CH Indo; festivals; religion; rituals;

Q2 What do you mean by your Indian CH?

For me more a race. Indian when we have Hindu festivals like diwali. If they have prayer I go my only my link with my Indian heritage is Hindu. They are my Hindu religious ... Hindu rites.

KW: ancestry; CH Indo; festivals; religion; rituals; parents; rating low; cultural loss;

Right now diwali not very important when my mother was alive. Died 10 years ago. So now we kind of lost that link and don't carry on with the fasting. But the celebration carried on.

KW: CH Indo; rating low; rituals; religions; rituals; cultural evolution;

Prayer sessions is more like a bonding experience with my cousins but now, not very important. For the Hindu CH.

NB: religious meaning lost but used as a family tie.

The following is an example of partial Key-Word listing developed for coding:

| | | | | |
|--------------|----------------|--------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Africa | carnival | colonial | definition CH | modernist |
| Afro TT | Catholic | corruption | demographics | Multicultural |
| Afro to Afro | CH Afro | creole | dressing | Multiethnic |
| Afro to Indo | CH alien | Cultural blending | drumming | music |
| age | CH Indo | Cultural identity | economics | Muslim |
| ancestry | CH tangible | Cultural evolution | education | oral traditions |
| Baptist | CH TT | Cultural loss | Language | parents |
| Caribbean | Civic identity | dance | male | postmodern |

Summaries, similar to the following, were then made ready to extract 'objects' for tabulation:

CH Indo:

- most important: race; hindu festivals (e.g. Diwali), hindu prayers and rites

- kept use of Indian Bojphuri terms (she refers as Indian creole) in the home which are not known by Africans (e.g. nani, nana; dabra used for making rotis, belna for rolling pin)

- education and family values (parents spend time with children)

- saving and working hard

cultural loss: fasting before Diwali;

loss of meaning: prayers not for religion but for family bonding

The following tabulations of supply responses illustrate different personal constructions of the same components of CH:

| | |
|--|---|
| CH Afro | Music, calypso, steelpan, drums, mouth organ, tambour bamboo; food; Spiritual Baptist religion; limbo; best village tradition; stories of African slaves, stories of resistance of slaves |
| CH Indo | Music, chutney, tassa drums; food; rituals (marriage), religion; clothes |
| CH Afro tangible valued | Food |
| CH Indo tangible valued | Food |
| CH Afro intangible not valued | Religious values, eg Shango, Yoruba (elements of worship) |
| CH Indo intangible not valued | Religious, eg Hinduism (elements of worship) |
| TCH intangible valued | National anthem, calypso, steelband, chutney |
| Comments: The national anthem and the saying/singing of the words are very important to him (100%). Sees it as the element that everyone in the country has in common. | |
| He was born in a time of transition. | |

| | |
|---|---|
| CH Afro | Religious beliefs, values, practices, behaviour |
| CH Indo | Religious beliefs, values, practices |
| CH Afro tangible valued | |
| CH Indo tangible valued | |
| CH Afro tangible not valued | Food |
| CH Indo tangible not valued | Food |
| TCH intangible valued | Music, socialising |
| Comments: Religion/religious beliefs plays an important role in his notion of CH. | |

4. Summary: The social and personal construction of Cultural Heritage

The literature and the quantitative results of this research have supported a post-modernist interpretation of CH by showing that different groups construct different cultural heritages. The qualitative results supported a radical constructivist interpretation of CH within this post-modern perspective by showing that individuals construct personal Cultural Heritages which are different in terms of the tangible and intangible objects they comprise and in the authority accepted for the inclusion of those objects.

In particular, comparisons of unaided responses to the meaning of CH components showed very different constructions of personal CH in terms of the objects and authority for including objects in ones CH. It was interesting to note that, other than 'carnival', few Trinidadian respondents reported traditional

'museum' objects or Government designated 'objects' such as national bird, flower, ecological sites, etc. Rather, respondents gave examples of ecological 'devastation' explaining diasporic peoples expect to 'use up' their environment and move on. Respondents' authority for CH objects was mainly their community and parents.

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Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy, Career Maturity and Socioeconomic Status with Turkish Youth

Hasan Bozgeyikli¹, Susran Erkan Erođlu², Habib Hamurcu³

¹*Selcuk University- Turkey*

hbozgeyikli@selcuk.edu.tr

²*Selcuk University - Turkey*

seroglu@selcuk.edu.tr

³*Arif Molu ATL, EML- Turkey*

habibhamurcu@hotmail.com

Abstract

The socioeconomic status of the young people is one of the important factors which have effect on either their career decision making self-efficacy or their career maturity. This research was carried on by Survey method and it was tried to determine the effect of socio economic status on related variables by describing career decision making self efficacy and career maturity of young people who are at different socioeconomic status. The research was conducted with 346 Turkish young people who were determined by random sampling method. The research findings showed that there was a significant relationship between career decision making self-efficacy and career maturity with socioeconomic status. On the other hand it was observed that career decision making self-efficacy and career maturity of young people whose socioeconomic status were different differed in a significant level.

Keywords: Career Maturity - Self-Efficacy - Socioeconomic Status

1. Introduction

Career development is a life long process which includes physical, cognitive and emotional development (Seligman, 1980). There are lots of factors which influence lifelong career development process. These are generally classified as psychological and social factors. The mentioned factors develop by affecting each other mutually. The most important feature which affects vocational development is skill that individual has. However development of these skills can only be possible with environment support. If one were permitted only a single variable with which to predict an individual's occupational status, it surely would be the socioeconomic status (SES) of that individual's family of orientation. As a measurement construct, SES usually incorporates one or more of the following: parents' educational attainment and occupational status, family income. All of these factors, as well as such corresponding variables as values, opportunities, and parental encouragement, serve to enhance or limit an individual's potential occupational status (Schulenberg, Vondracek & Crouter, 1984).

SES affects multiple dimensions of an individual's life (Liu, 2002; Maher & Kroska, 2002), including the educational and occupational opportunities available to that individual and the attainments she or he achieves (Brown, 2000; Fouad & Brown, 2000; Turner & Lapan, 2003). It was reported that background SES was positively associated with individual's occupational status aspirations and expectations (Armstrong & Crombie, 2000; Bigler, Averhart & Liben, 2003;) educational aspirations and expectations (Buchmann & Dalton, 2002; Trusty, 1998), occupational status attainment (Korupp, Ganzeboom & Lippe, 2002) and career decision making self efficacy (Ali, McWhirter & Chronister, 2005). Career maturity also has been found to be positively correlated with background SES (Creed & Patton, 2003). These studies have demonstrated that SES affects the way individuals perceive their opportunities and influences their access to educational and vocational development.

There are some theories about career development. One of them is career development theory. Career development theory building, despite its relatively short history, has established a number of well-defined constructs that are substantiated by a growing body of evidence. Two such constructs are "Career Maturity" (CM) and "Career Decision Making Self Efficacy" (CDMSE).

1.1. Career Maturity

Initially called "vocational maturity", the construct now known as "career maturity" was proposed by Super 53 years ago (Super, 1955). CM is one of the most widely researched features of career development. CM refers to the individual's readiness to make informed, age-appropriate career decisions and deal with career development tasks (Savickas, 1999). The first practical measure of CM was published not by Super but by one of his students (who later became a colleague), John Crites. Crites's (1971) model of CM, which includes both cognitive and affective components, has received considerable attention in the career development literature. The cognitive field of CM is represented by career choice competencies, such as specific career decision-making (CDM) problem-solving skills and abilities. The affective field of CM is represented by attitudes toward the CDM process. Patton and Lokan (2001) presented a comprehensive report on research into the correlates of CM in other words character qualities including age, gender, SES, culture, role salience, self-directedness, career indecision and work experience.

Research findings exploring the impact of gender on CM are also equivocal. The great majority of studies, conducted over two decades, has found that females of a number of age groups and in several countries have higher scores on CM measures than males (Alvi & Khan, 1983; Lokan, 1984; Luzzo, 1995; Rojewski, Wicklein & Schell, 1995). In other studies (Fouad, 1988), females were higher on some subscales only. Some studies have however reported males scoring higher than females, including Achebe (1982) in Nigeria, and Gupta (1987) in India. Other studies have failed to find any significant gender difference in CM (Kelly & Colangelo, 1990; Thompson & Lindeman, 1984; Watson, Stead & De Jager, 1995).

While SES has been theorized as likely to be an important determinant of career behaviour, even if acting largely through moderator variables (Super, 1990),

most studies have found only a minor or no correlation between CM and SES in school age adolescents (Super & Nevill, 1984) . Where a significant relationship has been found, it has usually been between SES and the cognitive CM scales (Super & Forrest, 1972). However, some studies have concluded that economic background and differences in the schools attended played a greater role in CM than did racial background (Ansell & Hansen, 1971; Neely & Johnson, 1981).

1.2. Career Decision Making Self Efficacy

Hackett and Betz (1981) first tried to apply Bandura's (1977) propositions about self-efficacy to career behaviour in a seminal study of women's career development. They demonstrated that career decisions, attainments and adjustment behaviours were subject to the influence of self-efficacy beliefs in both men and women.

Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994; 2000) was introduced to explain the career development of adolescents and young adults from a socio-cognitive behavioural framework. Lent et al. (1994) developed SCCT based on Bandura's (1982, 1986, 1989) social-cognitive theory and Hackett and Betz's (1981) career self-efficacy theory. SCCT hypothesizes that personal, contextual, and social cognitive factors affect the development of career interests, selection of career goals, and career behaviours.

Self-efficacy beliefs are defined as an individual's "judgments about his or her capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated performances" (Bandura, 1986). Researchers have created strong support for the effect of self-efficacy on the career decision-making process of individuals since the distinctive study by Betz and Hackett (1981), which tried to explain the notion of career-related self-efficacy (Brown, Darden, Shelton & Dipoto 1999; Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991).

A critique of this subject is that the researches carried out have included correlational designs with students enrolled in introductory university courses. The correlates of CDMSE that have been examined include mathematics self-efficacy, generalized self efficacy and global self-esteem (Betz & Klein, 1996), women's attitudes toward non-traditional occupations (Mathieu, Sowa & Niles, 1993), under prepared college students' institutional integration (Peterson, 1993), college major indecision (Bergeron & Romano, 1994), patterns of career choice development (Gianakos, 1999), occupational barriers (Luzzo, 1996), and career maturity (Luzzo, 1994). Typically, these studies demonstrate significant relationships between CDMSE and the respective variables, and where group differences are investigated ethnic minorities and undecided participants report lower levels of CDMSE.

According to SCCT, SES is considered to be one of the personal variables, which are a set of individual factors including sex, race, and SES. SCCT outlines the ways in which personal factors such as SES interact with contextual factors (e.g., social support) to affect the development of career interests, the selection of career goals, and career behaviours. Personal and contextual variables do not determine an individual's career interests and goal activities but set the stage for the experiences that influence the career development process. For example, an

adolescent from a lower SES background is more likely to have poorer quality schooling, fewer career role models, and less financial support for postsecondary options than higher SES adolescents (Brown, et al, 1999), and these influences may result in lower self efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations for certain careers. While this body of evidence related to young adults is impressive, there have been few studies conducted using adolescents.

In a time of global change in the world of work and in understandings and constructions of career, related changes are occurring in the youth labour market and in adolescent educational and career pathways. Given the key role of the CM construct and CDMSE in career development, research needs to clarify the place of context within career behaviour. Although, there are several researches (Kuzgun, 1982; Bacanlı, 1995; Akbaba, 1999) about factors which affect individuals CM levels, there has been no unique research which determines especially relationship between gender, SES and CM in Turkey. On the other hand there are no any researches about factors which influence CDMSE levels of Turkish adolescents too. The present research's main aim is to investigate the CDMSE and CM levels of Turkish adolescents according to SES and gender.

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

Participants for this study were 346 ninth-grade students (153 male, 193 female) in central Konya. The mean age for participants was 14.5 years. Despite there is few consortium on measuring SES the small numbers of researches used the strategy of clustering the participants' occupations, income and educational levels into lower, middle and upper socioeconomic groups. In this research SES of the participants were stratified by considering the variables such as educational levels of parents, occupational situations of parents and income which were gathered by questions in the participant information form. According to this 33.8% (117 persons) of the participants were considered as in lower SES while 39.3% (136 persons) of participants were considered as in middle SES and 26.9% (96 persons) of the participants were considered as in upper SES.

2.2. Procedure

The data gathering instruments of the research were conducted to the participants whose ages were between 13 and 15. After conducting forms belong to 4 participants were eliminated because of information absence. Statistical analyses were made on data gathered from remaining 346 participants.

2.3. Instruments

Participant information form, Career Decision Making Self-Efficacy Scale (CDMSES) and Career Maturity Scale (CMS) were the instruments used in this study.

2.3.1. Participant information Form:

Respondents indicated their age, sex, parents' educational level, parents' occupation, family's total income and persons living in the household (mother, father, grandparents, and brothers). Parent educational level was assessed by asking students to check the highest level of education each parent had completed.

2.3.2. Career Decision Making Self- Efficacy Scale (CDMSES):

The CDMSE scale (Bozgeyikli, 2004) is an 27-item scale designed to assess three dimensions of students' career decision making self efficacy beliefs (Assessing Personal and occupational features "CDMSE-APOF" (11 items), Gathering occupational information "CDMSE-GOI" (8 items) and realistic planning "CDMSE-RP" (8 items)). Respondents rated their degree of confidence along a 5-point likert scale ranging from 1 (No confidence at all) to 5 (complete confidence), with higher scores indicating a higher degree of career decision making self efficacy. Sample items are "Choosing a career according to your interests and abilities", "Determining your strong and weaknesses features, Making four year plans according to your interests and abilities", "Defining how the subjects which are taught in school are used in several occupations" Reliability and validity evidence for this measure were discussed by Bozgeyikli (2004). Test-retest reliability over a 4-week period with a group of eight grade students yielded a coefficient of $r = .78$. And Cronbach's alpha was .92 for the total scale, .89 for the assessing personal and occupational features subscale, for the .87, Gathering occupational information subscale and, for the .81, realistic planning subscales (Bozgeyikli, 2004). For the current sample, a Cronbach's alpha of .91 for the CDMSE total scale .85 for the assessing personal and occupational features subscale, for the .89, Gathering occupational information subscale and, for the .76, realistic planning subscale were obtained.

2.3.3. Career Maturity Scale (CMS):

Career Maturity Scale (CMS) which was developed by Kuzgun & Bacanlı (1996) in order to determine the CM of adolescents. There are 40 items in the scale which was developed as five likert type scale. Scale was constituted of options which are from "never suits me" (1) to "totally suits me" (5). Individual CM levels increase when the scores which are gained from CMS increase. The scores gathered from CMS increase the individuals CM levels also increase. In order to determine the distinguishable power of the CMS items factor analysis was applied and the differences between average scores of the lower and upper groups of students were determined by using t-test. The scale has one factor. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient is .89 whereas correlation coefficient

which was estimated by pre-test post-test method is .82. This result shows that the scale is consistent in measuring the variable which is wanted to be measured. CMS's validity was determined according to relationship between scores from CMS and academic skills of the students, whether class level and their ages affect the scores from CMS or not and by checking the degree of effect of social appraisal to CMS scores. The scale has sufficient validity level after the analysis made. For the current sample, a Cronbach's alpha of .85 for the CMS was obtained.

3. Findings

This section presents the results of the collected data derived from the test that adolescents took on CDMSES and CMS. A total of two analyses conducted in order to investigate the previously mentioned aim.

3.1. Analysis 1: Independent Sample t test using gender on the career decision making self efficacy and career maturity

In order to examine whether or not there were significant differences between genders on the CDMSES and CMS, independent sample t test were conducted. In Table 1, average scores of t-test results of adolescents CDMSE and CM scales according to gender are given. Examining the Table 1, it is evident that the male adolescents average scores of Assessing personal and occupational features (43,73), Gathering occupational information (30,48) , and realistic planning (30,54) are higher than that of females adolescents average scores (Assessing personal and occupational features (43,73), Gathering occupational information (30,48) , realistic planning (30,54) In accordance with this results, Assessing personal and occupational features ($t=4,66$, $p<.05$), gathering occupational information ($t=4,85$, $p<.05$), and realistic planning ($t=4,74$, $p<.05$) for the gender variable presents a significant difference in favor of the male adolescents. Examining the Table 1, it is evident that the male adolescents average scores of CM (124,57) is higher than that of females adolescents average scores (124,15) In accordance with this results, career maturity ($t=,337$, $p>.05$) for the gender variable presents not a significant difference.

Table 1: Independent t Test Results of Adolescents' Career Decision Making Self Efficacy and Career Maturity According To Gender

| Variables | Gender | n | \bar{X} | S.s. | t | Sig. |
|-------------|--------|-----|-----------|-------|-------|------|
| CDMSE- APOF | Female | 193 | 39,87 | 8,86 | 4,66* | ,001 |
| | Male | 153 | 43,73 | 5,75 | | |
| CDMSE- GOI | Female | 193 | 27,50 | 6,51 | 4,85* | ,001 |
| | Male | 153 | 30,48 | 4,36 | | |
| CDMSE- RP | Female | 193 | 27,63 | 6,26 | 4,74* | ,001 |
| | Male | 153 | 30,54 | 4,83 | | |
| CM | Female | 193 | 124,15 | 10,44 | ,337* | ,736 |
| | Male | 153 | 124,57 | 12,70 | | |

* $p<.05$

3.2. Analysis 2: ANOVA using socioeconomic status on the career decision making self efficacy and career maturity

In order to examine whether or not there were significant differences between lower, middle and upper groups on the CDMSES (Bozgeyikli, 2004) and CMS (Kuzgun & Bacanlı, 1996) a univariate analyses of variance were conducted.

In ANOVA, significant differences were found between low, middle and high socioeconomic groups (Assessing Personal and occupational features, ($F=54,691$, $p<.001$), Gathering occupational information, ($F=42,069$, $p<.001$) Realistic Planning, ($F=11,349$, $p<.001$)). And likewise there were significant differences in CM according to SES. ($F=28,555$, $p<.001$)

Table 2 displays the means standard deviations for low, middle and high socioeconomic status on the CDMSES and CMS and ANOVA test results.

Table 2: Frequencies, Means, standard deviations and ANOVA test results of adolescents' Career decision making self efficacy and career maturity according to socioeconomic status.

| Variable | SES | n | \bar{X} | S.d. | f | p |
|-------------|--------|-----|-----------|-------|----------|------|
| CDMSE- APOF | Low | 117 | 33,44 | 8,31 | 54,691** | ,001 |
| | Middle | 136 | 41,03 | 8,83 | | |
| | High | 93 | 44,49 | 5,88 | | |
| CDMSE- GOI | Low | 117 | 26,17 | 5,91 | 42,069** | ,001 |
| | Middle | 136 | 29,13 | 6,61 | | |
| | High | 93 | 33,62 | 4,40 | | |
| CDMSE- RP | Low | 117 | 26,86 | 5,52 | 11,349** | ,001 |
| | Middle | 136 | 29,19 | 6,32 | | |
| | High | 93 | 30,53 | 4,93 | | |
| CM | Low | 117 | 117,73 | 7,81 | 28,555** | ,001 |
| | Middle | 136 | 126,03 | 13,78 | | |
| | High | 93 | 128,58 | 10,37 | | |

** $p<.001$

Follow-up tukey test were conducted to identify specific group differences. Table 3 displays the tukey test results of adolescents' CDMSE according to SES. When Table 3 is examined the average means of adolescents who are in upper SES are than adolescents who are in middle and lower SES in Assessing Personal and Occupational features and gathering occupational information sub dimensions. According to this result the upper SES adolescents are more efficient than the middle and lower SES adolescents are in Assessing Personal and Occupational features and gathering occupational information sub dimensions. On the other hand there is no significant difference between scores of middle and upper level adolescents in realistic planning sub dimension whereas it found that both of the mentioned level adolescents distinguish from lower level adolescents in efficiency perceptions in a significant way. In another words middle and upper

level adolescents are more efficient than lower level adolescents in gathering occupational information and realistic planning sub dimensions.

Table 3: Tukey test results of adolescents' Career decision making self efficacy and career maturity according to socioeconomic status.

| Dependent Variable | (I) Group | (J) group | Mean Difference (I-J) | Std. Error | Sig. |
|--------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------------------|------------|------|
| CDMSE- APOF | Lower | Middle | -7,592* | 1,003 | ,001 |
| | | Upper | -11,050* | 1,105 | ,000 |
| | Middle | Upper | -3,457* | 1,070 | ,004 |
| CDMSE- GOI | Lower | Middle | -2,960* | ,737 | ,000 |
| | | Upper | -7,444* | ,812 | ,000 |
| | Middle | Upper | -4,483* | ,787 | ,000 |
| CDMSE- RP | Lower | Middle | -2,327* | ,720 | ,004 |
| | | Upper | -3,674* | ,793 | ,000 |
| | Middle | Upper | -1,346 | ,768 | ,187 |
| CM | Lower | Middle | -8,294* | 1,406 | ,000 |
| | | Upper | -10,845* | 1,549 | ,000 |
| | Middle | Upper | -2,551 | 1,500 | ,207 |

*p<.05

In Table 3 there is no significant difference between middle and upper level adolescents in CM factor. However either the average scores of middle level adolescents or the average scores of upper level adolescents in CM are higher in a significant way than the average scores of lower level adolescents' are. According to this result the CM levels of the middle and upper level adolescents are higher than lower level adolescents.

4. Discussion

The results determine that there is a significant difference between SES and CDMSE and CM when findings are assessed generally in this research which observed SES, CM levels and CDMSE levels of Turkish adolescents. According to SCCT, SES is considered to be one of the personal variables, which are a set of individual factors including sex, race, and SES. SCCT outlines the ways in which personal factors such as SES interact with contextual factors (e.g., social support) to influence the development of career interests, the selection of career goals, and career behaviours. Personal and contextual variables do not

determine an individual's career interests and goal activities but set the stage for the experiences that influence the career development process.

First of all in the research it was observed that whether CDMSE and CM distinguished according to gender or not. It was found that male adolescents assessed themselves more efficient than female adolescents in all sub dimensions of CDMSE. This finding determined a different result from other researches (Betz et al., 1996; Betz & Voyten, 1997; Luzzo, 1993; Taylor & Betz, 1983; Taylor & Popma, 1990) which reported that there was no significant difference between CDMSE and gender. On the other hand there is no significant difference between genders at CM levels of adolescents. This result is supported by the researches namely Kelly & Colangelo, (1990), and Watson, Stead & De Jager, (1995). The surprising part of this situation is that there is no significant difference between genders in CM factor while they perceive themselves as efficient. In fact this finding is seen consistent according to theoretical fundamentals of self efficacy. According to Bandura (1977) individual's assessing himself or herself as efficient is constituted of four ways which interact with themselves. First of them is the information which is gained by individuals after successful or unsuccessful activities. The second one is the information which is gained by individuals by observing others. The third one is encouragements, recommendations and pieces of advice from others. And the last one is emotional responses during the performance. When the different attitudes in nurturing boys and girls are considered it can easily be seen that boys can access to environments where their efficacy perception is influenced and where they are nurtured liberally than girls can. On the other hand the oral encouragement for boys can be counted as a reason in having higher efficiency perception.

Secondly in the research the differentiation of the CDMSE and CM levels of the adolescents from different SES's and a significant difference was found between lower SES adolescents and upper SES adolescents according to both variables. And the difference is in upper SES adolescents' favour. This finding is supported by several researches' findings (Ansell & Hansen, 1971; Brown et al 1999; Cosby & Picou, 1973; Neely & Johnson, 1981). According to this result SES is an important factor either for CDMSE or for CM. For example, an adolescent from a lower SES background is more likely to have poorer quality schooling, fewer career role models, and less financial support for postsecondary options than higher SES adolescents, and these influences may result in lower self efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations for certain careers. Thus far, there has been a paucity of research examining the role that contextual variables have on the development of domain- and task-specific self-efficacy beliefs and career maturity.

Future research should focus on investigating the subjective experiences of social class and its role in the development of career-related self-efficacy beliefs and career maturity.

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Student Perceptions of Generic Skills for Effective Cooperative Learning

Gordon Brooks¹, Elizabeth More¹, Julian Leslie¹

¹Macquarie University – Australia

gbrooks@efs.mq.edu.au

Abstract

Cooperative learning in small groups is generally considered an effective learning approach with benefits including learning gains and personal enhancement. Successful group activities, however, assume competence in a number of skills. Identification of the particular skills which students need to successfully negotiate cooperative learning is imperative in preparing students for these activities. However, the contemporary student body in many developed countries is becoming increasingly diverse. This empirical paper seeks to identify whether undergraduate students from different countries and language backgrounds have different perceptions of the relative importance of Ehrman and Dornyei's (1998) generic sub-skills. A cohort of students who completed a first year undergraduate management subject were surveyed*. Analysis of 266 responses identified the skills that students consider most important and demonstrated that the different student groups held the same perceptions of the importance of the 25 skills considered. The implications and benefits for preparing students for groupwork are considered.

Keywords: Cooperative Learning – Higher Education – L2 – NESB.

1. Introduction

Language is both “a basic instrument in students’ cognitive, affective and social development” and a “basic object of teaching, in the sense that becoming academically trained implies learning to use the language of a specific science appropriately in professional contexts, as well as learning to use language for general purposes” (Webb, 2002 p 52).

While the majority of university students receive tuition in their first or native language (L1), there is a substantial cohort of students in many western universities studying in their second or third language (L2 and L3 respectively) (Lietz, 1996; Gray and Vernez, 1996; Reid, 1997; Brooks and Adams, 2002). There is mounting evidence that L2 students (and L3 and higher) are at a disadvantage compared to L1 students, as language background in the language of instruction is shown to impact on academic outcomes (Jenkins and Holley, 1990; Farrell and Ventura, 1998; Logan and Hazell, 1999; Strauss, 2001; Brooks and Adams, 2002; Webb, 2002; Downs, 2006). A further problem is that international students are not the only students susceptible to language proficiency issues. Immigrant students and students from non-English speaking households may also experience language proficiency issues (Gray and Vernez, 1996; Reid, 1997).

A common distinction where English is the language of instruction, is to identify students as either English Speaking Background (ESB) or Non-English Speaking Background (NESB). The ESB/NESB distinction will be used in this study.

A second factor that can affect student outcomes is the method(s) of assessment. While this aspect has attracted relatively few studies three studies in particular have examined the impact on student outcomes of both language background and assessment method. Jenkins and Holley (1990) considered NESB and ESB Accounting students against four types of assessment questions (quantitative and qualitative versus multiple choice (MCQ) and open ended questions). In this study, conducted in the US, they found that NESB students scored higher in MCQs and lower in open-ended questions compared to ESB students.

Logan and Hazel's (1999) Australian study examined the role of language and gender in the assessment of first year Physics students. Gender was found to interact with language background, their general finding being that the performance of male and female ESB students and male NESB students was roughly equivalent, but the performance of female NESB students was lower. More specifically, ESB students performed better than NESB students on qualitative assessment. ESB males performed better than ESB females on MCQs, while ESB females performed better than ESB males on short flexible questions.

A South African study of first year bioscience students, conducted by Downs (2006), considered four language background groups, i.e. ESB ("white"), NESB ("black" and Indian) and an NESB group entering via an alternate non-award pathway. Students' performance in coursework, a practical exam and the components of a theory exam (MCQs, short answer and essay questions) were compared. Consistent with Bridges et. al. (2002) all groups performed better in coursework than exams. Similarly, all groups performed better in MCQs than in open-ended questions. While the inclusion of "black" and Indian NESB groups was noted, significantly different results were not found between these two groups.

In short, studies across three different continents and three different disciplines have reported ESB students to perform better than NESB students generally, with different types of assessment producing some variations to this general rule.

Groupwork-based assessments are becoming increasingly common in tertiary business-related subjects, engaging students in collaborative learning. With these assessments, we also find that different student groups achieve different student outcomes. Strauss has suggested that L2 students are at a disadvantage when required to undertake group work. Brooks and Yusuf (2006), examined six student groups: local ESB; local NESB; Canadian and USA; China, Hong Kong and Taiwan; Germany, Italy, Sweden and Norway; and other. Differences in academic achievement were found across the various groups for group presentation, open-ended exam and multiple choice assessments, but not for a group project assessment, supporting the existence of L2 disadvantage for both local and international NESB students, but suggesting that it might vary with the type of groupwork assessment.

As skill in the language of instruction is clearly a factor in academic performance (e.g. Brooks and Adams 2002), there would seem to be two directions for academic intervention to ameliorate any disadvantage L2 students may experience in groupwork. One is to address the L2 student's level of competence in the language of instruction, but this is beyond the purview of most academics teaching in business-related degrees. The second is to address the L2 student's level of competence in working in groups. It is this latter option that is explored in this paper.

Cooperative learning has been commended for its beneficial outcomes (e.g. Slavin 1996). It has three key characteristics: learners work together to learn in small groups; group members are responsible for each other's learning and their own learning; the groups achievement is considered at least as important as the individual achievement (Erhman and Dornyei 1988). The success of cooperative learning groups can be impacted by a range of issues, however the value of social skills or behaviours has been highlighted by Cohen (1994) and Johnson and Johnson (1995), reflecting the centrality of social interaction in cooperative learning. Drawing on the work of these authors, Erhman and Dornyei (1998) have assembled a comprehensive set of skills for cooperative groupwork. Proficiency in these skills will benefit the interactions within the group whether they are L1 or L2 students. However, given the different outcomes of L1 and L2 students, it should not be assumed that these student groups will bring the same skills or skill levels to their groups.

This study seeks to extend the literature by examining student's perceptions of what they consider to be the most important skills. This study will facilitate the equipping of students for successful groupwork by identifying those skills that students consider to be important in their experience, and by identifying whether students from different language backgrounds, L1, L2 etc., have different perceptions, and therefore different needs, with regard to being equipped for successful groupwork.

2. Methodology

2.1. Sample

A self-report survey was distributed to a class of 427 first year undergraduate students providing 266 useable responses. The students were from a range of degree programs including Business, Marketing, Finance and Accounting. The sample included students from Australia, Canada, China, Germany, Hong Kong, Italy, Norway, Sweden, Taiwan, USA and small numbers from several other countries. Data was collected in the last week of a semester during which students had completed two group investigations (Erhman and Dornyei 1998 p. 250), one resulting in an oral presentation and written report, the other resulting in a written report only.

Table 1 Collaborative Learning Skills and Their Themes

| | | |
|---|---|------------------------------|
| a | setting out clearly and revisiting the purposes of the activity | productivity |
| b | setting goals; working out strategies for reaching goals | productivity |
| c | negotiating ideas and coming to joint decisions | communication, relationships |
| d | working out compromises; developing a consensus | relationships |
| e | organizing and coordinating other people | productivity |
| f | setting time limits; drawing attention to these | productivity |
| g | showing others how to do things | productivity |
| h | supporting others in learning new tasks | productivity, relationships |
| i | giving constructive feedback | relationships, productivity |
| j | critiquing ideas without criticising people | relationships |
| k | managing conflict by discussing differences | relationships |
| l | expressing disappointment/frustration/anger/ using "I feel..." statements rather than "You..." statements | relationships |
| m | encouraging others to contribute | productivity |
| n | making suggestions | communication, productivity |
| o | asking for other people's opinions | communication, productivity |
| p | asking for help, or clarification | communication |
| q | listening to one another | communication |
| r | reflecting on what has been said | communication |
| s | giving reasons | communication |
| t | giving explanations: saying how and why | communication |
| u | paraphrasing and clarifying other people's contributions | communication |
| v | summarizing the ideas of the group | communication |
| w | tolerance – of differences in team members' personal styles | relationships |
| x | empathy (ability to identify with others' viewpoints) | relationships |
| y | persuasive power | communication |

2.2. Demographics and Language Background

The language of instruction was English. It is noted that students can have English as their first language yet come from a range of nations, and that local students may not have English as their first language. Students were asked to identify their country of origin, from which students were designated either local or overseas, and their first language, from which students were designated either ESB or NESB. Three groups were collated, local ESB students, local NESB students, overseas students (N = 154, 72 and 40 respectively).

2.3. Collaborative Learning Skills Preferences

Students were asked to nominate the ten group skills from those listed in Table 1 that they considered to be most important. The first 22 are behavioural skills commended by Erhman and Dornyei (1998) while the last three are additional individual skills. Subsequent to the survey, each skill was categorised by the authors as representing one or more of three themes, communication, productivity and relationships. The communication theme embraced skills that were fundamentally about communication processes. The productivity theme embraced those skills that addressed achieving goals and making efficient use of resources. The relationships theme embraced the skills that addressed the development or maintenance of group relationships or the appropriate treatment of people. It should be noted that some skills had substantial aspects of two themes and were designated as both.

2.4. Analysis

The frequency of nomination of each group skill was identified for each of the student groups. The similarity of each group to the other groups was evaluated using Chi-squared statistic. A second test of similarity was performed by identifying, for each group, the rank order of the group skills from most frequently nominated to least frequent and comparing them using Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho. Finally, multi-dimensional scaling was performed, using the number of nominations each pair had in common as the basis for comparing pairs of responses

3. Results

The number of nominations for each skill by local ESB students, local NESB students and overseas students are shown in Figures 1, 2 and 3 respectively. Casual observation of the three figures will reveal that a number of features appear to be common across the three student groups. For example, each group shows a prevalence of nominations for skills b, c, f and i, suggesting that there is a degree of similarity between these groups attitudes.

Figure 1 Group Skill Nominations by Local ESB Students

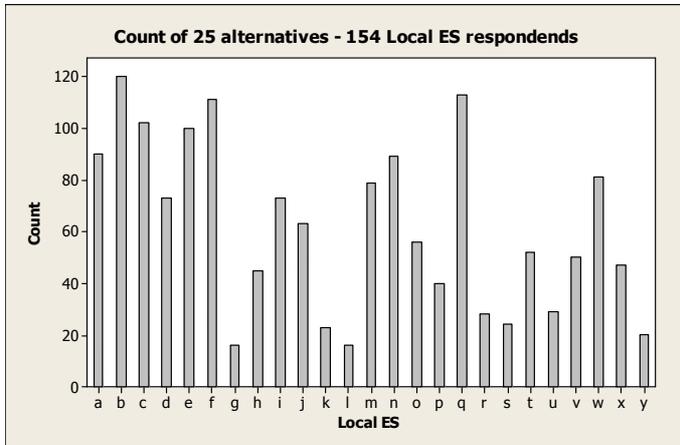


Figure 2 Group Skill Nominations by Local NESB Students

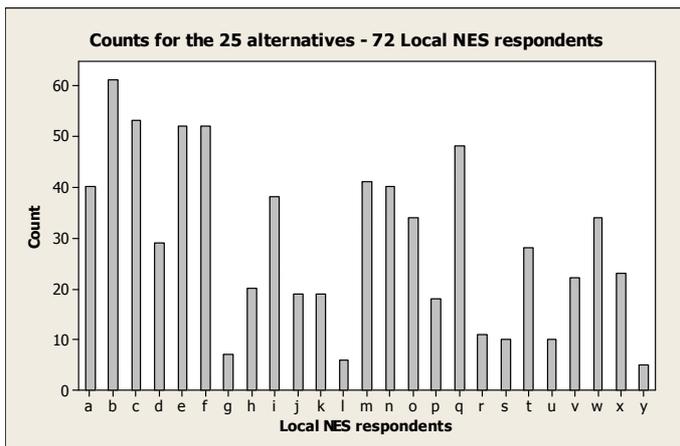
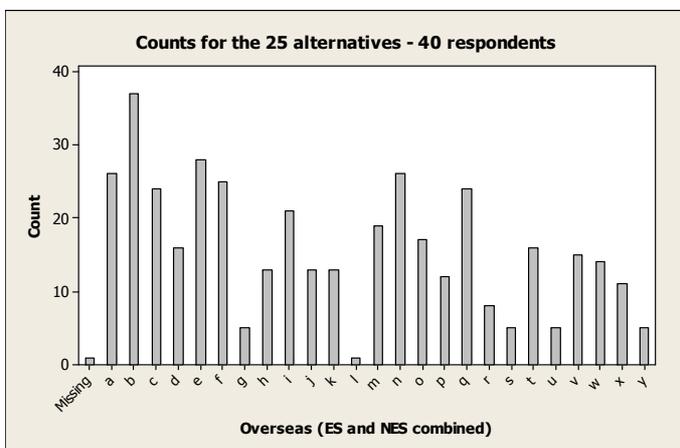


Figure 3 Group Skill Nominations by Overseas Students



Examination of the differences in the proportion of the nominations given to each skill by each of the groups was carried out by Chi-squared test. The resulting p-value of 0.995 indicates that there are virtually no differences between the three student groups in terms of their attitudes toward the 25 group skills, each skill attracting a similar proportion of nominations from each group.

Table 2 Ranking of Group Skill by Student Group

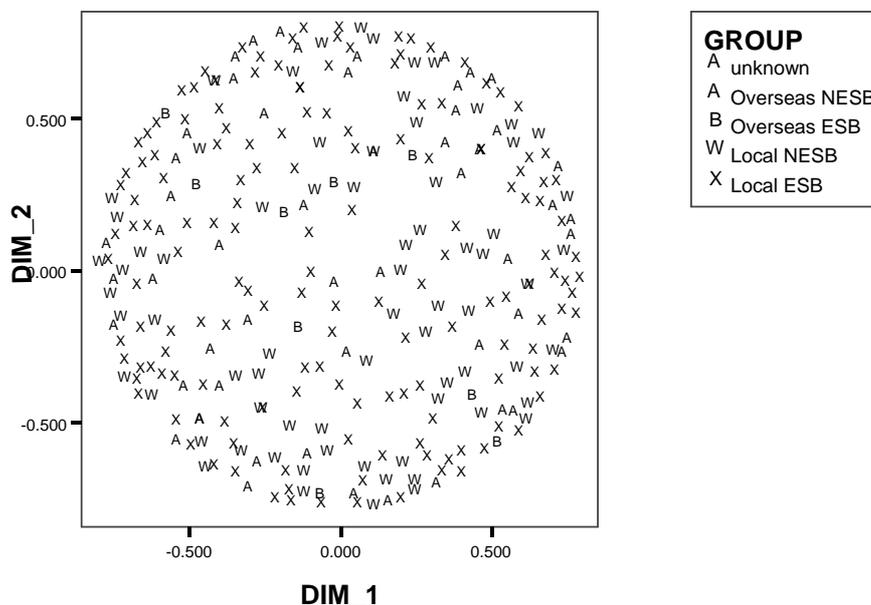
| Skill | Student Group | | |
|-------|---------------|------------|----------|
| | Local ESB | Local NESB | Overseas |
| a | 20 | 19 | 23 |
| b | 25 | 25 | 25 |
| c | 22 | 24 | 19 |
| d | 15 | 14 | 15 |
| e | 21 | 22 | 24 |
| f | 23 | 23 | 21 |
| g | 2 | 3 | 2 |
| h | 9 | 10 | 10 |
| i | 16 | 17 | 18 |
| j | 14 | 9 | 11 |
| k | 4 | 8 | 9 |
| l | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| m | 17 | 20 | 17 |
| n | 19 | 18 | 22 |
| o | 13 | 15 | 16 |
| p | 8 | 7 | 8 |
| q | 24 | 21 | 20 |
| r | 6 | 6 | 6 |
| s | 5 | 4 | 4 |
| t | 12 | 13 | 14 |
| u | 7 | 5 | 5 |
| v | 11 | 11 | 13 |
| w | 18 | 16 | 12 |
| x | 10 | 12 | 7 |
| y | 3 | 1 | 3 |

The order in which each student group ranked each skill is given in Table 2. The lowest number (1) indicates the least nominated skill, while the highest number (25) indicates the most nominated skill. Examination of the extent to which the rank numbers are correlated using Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho indicate that there is substantial agreement between each group's ranking of the skills. The multi-dimensional scaling map is shown in Figure 4. Examination of this figure shows no evidence of clustering of student groups.

In summary, the student perceptions of group skills demonstrate a distinct pattern regarding what students consider to be the most important skills. There is no evidence that what would seem to be disparate groups of students in terms of language background and country of origin are in any way different in terms of

their perception of what are the most important skills for social interaction in group work.

Figure 4 Multi-dimensional Scaling Map



4. Discussion

It is perhaps remarkable that students' perceptions of what are the important group skills are essentially the same. Yet this is the case, for this cohort at least, despite their range of nationalities and L1s, and by implication the range of different cultures from which they draw beliefs and values. While this finding is of academic interest, it is also of substantial practical value. The purpose of the study was to examine student's perceptions of what they consider to be the most important group skills, and to identify whether students from different language backgrounds have different perceptions, and therefore different needs, with regard to being equipped for successful groupwork. Having identified that their perceptions are the same, the task of equipping the students is greatly simplified. A single curriculum or intervention program need be developed rather than group specific curricula. Delivery, too, is greatly simplified. Rather than organise classes specifically for each student group, interventions can address the whole, integrated student body in the normal class schedule.

The nomination of only ten skills of the total of 25 is an arbitrary distinction, however consideration of those "top ten" skills reveals some useful insights. Given that the potential for disadvantage for overseas students in group-based assessments was a motivation for this study, the ten most nominated by overseas students will be the focus of this discussion, i.e. collaborative learning skills b, e, a, n, f, c, q, i, m and o (see Table 1 for descriptions of these skills and their themes). It should be noted that these ten are identical to the ten most

nominated by local ESB and local NESB students in all but two respects, firstly, the rank order differs to some degree, and secondly, skill w is included in the ten most nominated by the local student groups while skill o is not.

Consideration of the themes listed in Table 1 for the "top ten" collaborative learning skills reveals that the predominant concern is productivity. Eight of the ten have a productivity theme, either solely or in part. Four of the ten have a communication theme, while two have a relationships theme. It would seem reasonable to suggest that overseas students in Australia are concerned primarily about productivity in collaborative learning situations, with communication a secondary theme, and communication a lesser concern. On the other hand, consideration of the ten least nominated collaborative learning skills (l, g, y, s, u, r, x, p, k, and h) shows that five have a communication theme, four have a relationships theme and two have a productivity theme. While this does not quite mirror the "top ten", one could say with some confidence that there are few aspects of productivity that students do not consider important. Considering local students only, by replacing skill o (which has themes of communication and productivity) in the "top ten" with skill w (which has a relationship theme), produces a "top ten" with seven skills having a productivity theme and the communication and relationships themes being represented by three skills each. The ten least nominated are the same for both overseas and local ESB students, although the ordering is different. Local NESB students replace skill x with skill j, both of which have a relationships theme. In essence there is little difference between the least nominated ten skills of the three groups, each having identical numbers of each theme.

5. Conclusion

The results of this study give clear indications of student's views of what collaborative learning skills are considered important by them. At a general level, skills relating to the productivity of the group would be the most prevalent concern, followed by skills related to communication between group members and then skills concerned with relationships within the group. Specifically, the highest concern was for skills relating to setting goals and working out strategies for reaching goals.

Differences between degree or language background or academic performance groups' perceptions of the relative importance of various skills would suggest that, to facilitate their cooperative learning, differing groups warrant separate treatment in terms of learning group selection and skills training. However, this study finds that although there are substantial differences between the people, their attitudes to what group skills are important are, in fact, in harmony.

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Identifying Best Practices for Increasing Education Informatics Intelligence in Pre-Service Teachers

Antoinette Bruciati, Ph.D.

Sacred Heart University – USA

bruciatia@sacredheart.edu

Abstract

Teachers routinely integrate technologically-mediated learning activities into the curriculum. However, research reveals that the current use of technology for teaching and learning remains largely sporadic. This ethnographic study measured the human-information interaction of pre-service teachers transitioning from a cognitivist-oriented learning environment to one where they employed education informatics to enhance their professional development. Participant interactions during a graduate level online course provided insight to the research question regarding the identification of best practices for facilitating their education informatics intelligence. Data from surveys, observations, and course usage statistics were examined. Response frequency, types, and archived electronic text were compared to a literature review and best practices identified. Research revealed that all 15 pre-service teachers increased their education informatics intelligence after using ICT tools. These individuals exhibited less anxiety and increased their ICT usage.

Keywords: Curriculum development - teacher education - ICT

1. Introduction

The emergence of information technology (IT) has revolutionized society by creating industries that are vital to the world's security and economy. In a global economy, intellectual capital in the form of ideas and innovation enable industries to remain competitive in response to societal need, consumer preferences, and technological change. Informatics has recently become a top priority for business, government, and military sectors with employment in the information super-sector expected to increase 18.5 percent by 2012 [17]. Informatics is defined as research on, development of, and use of technological, sociological, and organizational tools and/or approaches for knowledge discovery, analysis, and dissemination [18].

2. Education Informatics in Teacher Education

Teachers routinely integrate technologically-mediated learning activities into the curriculum [1]. However, research reveals that the integration of technology into teaching and learning remains largely sporadic [10]. The structure of the Information Age relies on the ability of the educational system to prepare the

future workforce for employment in a variety of IT and IT-related occupations [15]. Educational mandates require teacher education programs to include courses that assist pre-service teachers in acquiring the technological skills, knowledge, and dispositions [6] needed to prepare their students for life in the Information Age. Learning objectives that foster problem-solving, collaboration, and the development of information and communication technology (ICT) skills must be integrated into teacher education courses that increase the Education Informatics intelligence of pre-service teachers. Education Informatics is defined by this researcher as the multidimensional use of technology to support knowledge discovery and dissemination in the disciplinary-specific context of education as it relates to teaching, learning, and school administration. It is concerned with the creation, organization, and manipulation of educational systems information along with processes designed in varying user contexts such as teachers who are evaluating the special needs of students.

3. Taxonomy of Online Learning Behaviours

In a traditional teacher preparation program, instructors employ face-to-face teaching methodologies such as lectures for the dissemination of content knowledge. Assessment tools including the use of written exams and term papers gather standards-based performance data that measure a pre-service teacher’s ability to assimilate content knowledge and develop intellectual skills. Typically, instructors scaffold the development of a pre-service teacher’s skills, knowledge, and understandings according to educational theories such as Bloom’s Taxonomy [3] and Gardner’s Theory of Multiple Intelligences [11].

Figure 1 presents a Taxonomy of Online Learning Behaviors developed by this researcher as the result of prior research [5]. The taxonomy is based on a socio-constructivist [2] approach to instruction. Course embedded assessments are linked to taxonomy levels and measure the learner’s mastery of standards-based educational outcomes within the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains. The mastery of educational outcomes fosters the development of teacher preparation [6] and Information Age [12] competencies. These competencies rely on the development of a learner’s technological abilities including the use of ICT tools for knowledge discovery, assimilation, and dissemination.

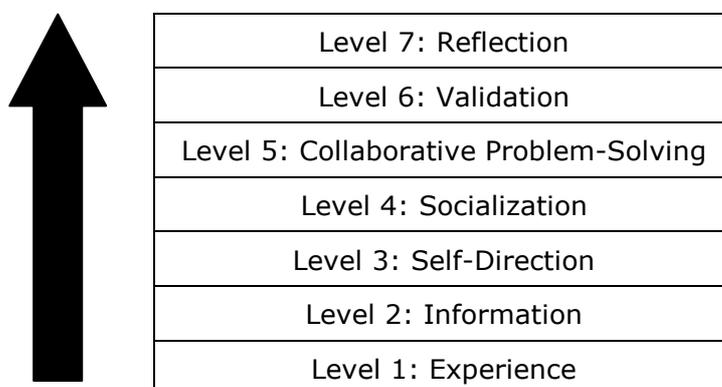


Figure 1. Taxonomy of Online Learning Behaviors

The taxonomy incorporates a hierarchy consisting of seven levels categorized according to the ways that individuals collect, organize, analyze, represent, and disseminate knowledge within an online learning environment. At *Level 1: Experience*, repetition is used as an instructional strategy that enables individuals to practice developing new skills. The identification of prior knowledge and experience determines an individual's strengths and establishes a baseline for the introduction of new content knowledge, technological skills, and/or workplace competencies. In *Level 2: Information*, the scaffolding of collaborative activities facilitates knowledge construction and skill development. Individuals who reach *Level 3: Self-Direction* are able to diagnose their learning needs, identify information resources, select and implement learning strategies, and evaluate educational outcomes. Individual, small group, and large group activities foster the ability of these individuals to become self-directed learners. Groups of self-directed individuals form autonomously during *Level 4: Socialization*. Groups become self-directed entities as members divide the workload and establish timelines for the sharing of knowledge that leads to the completion of collaborative tasks. In *Level 5: Collaborative Problem Solving*, group activities are used to reduce learner anxiety, increase motivation, and establish a community connection among members. As individuals reach *Level 6: Validation*, instructional strategies for increasing knowledge construction and/or skill development through social- and self-validation are supported through a combination of instructor-to-student and peer-to-peer feedback. *Level 7: Reflection* represents the uppermost level of higher order thinking skills and requires individuals to evaluate their experiences and learning processes. Effective educational practice is linked to inquiry, reflection, and professional growth.

4. Methodology

4.1. Background

This ethnographic study measured the human-information interaction of 15 pre-service teachers transitioning from a cognitivist- to socio-constructivist orientated learning environment where education informatics was employed to enhance their professional development. Merter and Charles [14] define ethnography as a method of observing human interactions in social settings. This qualitative approach enabled participants in the sample group to be studied in a natural context where group communication and the construction of knowledge were facilitated through the use of the Blackboard™ 6 Instructional Management System (Blackboard) [4].

Demographic data was gathered via the use of a survey developed by this researcher and previously pilot tested by 417 graduate-level educational technology students. Prior to its distribution, the survey was reviewed by a panel of experts with prior experience as online instructors at the university level.

One section of the graduate level online course titled *ED 578: Introduction to Computers in Education* was randomly selected by this researcher who served as course instructor and participant observer. Course objectives were based on the Connecticut Teacher Technology Competencies (CTTC) [7]. The CTTC consist of technology standards that have leveraged the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education [16] guidelines and enhanced the prior work of the International Society for Technology Education (ISTE) [13]. The CTTC define the technological skills and competencies that enable Connecticut teachers to integrate technology into classroom instruction.

The 12 week course provided participants with an introduction to methods for the integration of technology that supports the grade K-12 content areas. Through a modular format, course content was grouped according to CTTC standards-based [7] technology integration themes that included: *Educational Technology Concepts and Operations*; *Creating Learning Environments*; *Professional Productivity*; and *Legal, Ethical, and Social Issues*. At the beginning of the semester, participants were instructed to form 5 collaborative groups, each containing 2-4 pre-service teachers. Course assignments required these groups of individuals to develop grade K-12 lesson plans containing educational objectives aligned with state curricular content standards [9] and student technology skills [8]. Lesson plans also incorporated methods for using adaptive technologies to assist children with special needs. Instructional support materials such as digital presentations and student assessment tools were developed and consisted of activity worksheets, grading rubrics, and test documents. The ability of pre-service teachers to construct knowledge through the use of an online discussion board, chat room, online quiz, email, and library research database was also assessed by this researcher. These ICT tools generated sources of data that revealed the Education Informatics intelligence of the pre-service teachers involved in this study.

4.2. Participants

This sample of the population was composed of 10 female and 5 male participants who indicated that English was his/her primary language (see Table 1). The majority of these individuals were between 23-29 years old ($n=10$) while the remainder ranged from 18-22 ($n=3$), 40-49 ($n=1$), and 50+ ($n=1$) years of age. Educational levels for these individuals ranged from those possessing a Bachelor of Science degree ($n=12$) to those with Master of Arts in Teaching ($n=1$), and Master of Science ($n=2$) degrees. All participants ($N=15$) were accepted into the Teacher Education Program at Sacred Heart University in Fairfield, Connecticut, USA and seeking a Master's concentration in elementary education ($n=6$) or secondary education ($n=9$). Among the 15 participants, 10 indicated that they were not currently teaching. The group included students ($n=6$) and those currently serving as school interns ($n=4$), substitute teachers ($n=1$), or paraprofessionals ($n=1$). Participants with previous teaching experience were certified to teach in grades K-6 ($n=2$) and grades 7-12 ($n=2$). One participant had been teaching in a private school and was not certified. Prior teaching experience ranged from 1-3 years ($n=4$) and 4-9 years ($n=1$). Two individuals used computer technology in the classroom between 3-5 hours per

week. The remainder of those having classroom access used technology for teaching and learning between 1-2 hours ($n=3$), and greater than 10 hours ($n=1$) per week.

Table 1: Participant Profiles

| Participant | Age | Gender | Orientation | Education | MAT Area | Years Teaching | If not Teaching |
|-------------|-------|--------|-------------|-----------|------------|----------------|-----------------|
| 1 | 18-22 | F | RH | BS | Elementary | None | Intern |
| 2 | 18-22 | M | RH | MAT | Secondary | None | Intern |
| 3 | 18-22 | F | LH | BS | Elementary | None | Intern |
| 4 | 23-29 | M | RH | BS | Secondary | 1-3 | Student |
| 5 | 23-29 | M | RH | BS | Secondary | None | Student |
| 6 | 23-29 | F | RH | BS | Elementary | None | Student |
| 7 | 23-29 | F | RH | BS | Secondary | None | Student |
| 8 | 23-29 | F | RH | BS | Secondary | None | Student |
| 9 | 23-29 | F | RH | BS | Secondary | None | Intern |
| 10 | 23-29 | F | RH | BS | Elementary | 1-3 | --- |
| 11 | 23-29 | F | RH | BS | Secondary | None | ParaPro |
| 12 | 23-29 | M | RH | BS | Secondary | 4-9 | --- |
| 13 | 23-29 | F | RH | BS | Elementary | None | Student |
| 14 | 40-49 | F | RH | MS | Elementary | 1-3 | Substitute |
| 15 | 50+ | M | RH | MS | Secondary | 1-3 | --- |

4.3. Data Collection and Analysis

Data were gathered from a range of sources, including surveys, direct observation, chat transcripts, and Blackboard [4] course usage statistics. Content from ICT sources along with observed instances of participant interactions were classified by frequency and categorized in accordance with the levels of learning behavior outlined in the *Taxonomy of Online Learning Behaviors* [5]. Quotes were used to illustrate the categories identified. It must be noted that the generalizability of these research findings is limited since the participants comprise a small sample of the population.

5. Results

5.1. Blackboard Use

Participant Blackboard [4] usage data was gathered and reported in terms of logon and access information. Although each participant utilized most areas of Blackboard, statistical data related to the use ICT tools areas were emphasized in this study. Statistical data were automatically generated through the Blackboard

software application. This process supported the reliability of the qualitative data analysis.

During the semester, course participants used the Discussion Board to communicate and/or collaborate with others 58% of the total available time (see Figure 1). It is important to note that the use of the Discussion Board ($n=58%$) considerably outweighed the use of the Content Area ($n=25%$) where lessons, assigned readings, and assignments were located. Communication in the form of synchronous group chat sessions occurred at a rate of 1% during the semester. Announcements from the course instructor were available and accessed by participants 10% of the time. The Tools Area was used 6% of the time and contained links to a Digital Dropbox, email software, student grade sheet, and Blackboard User Manual [4].

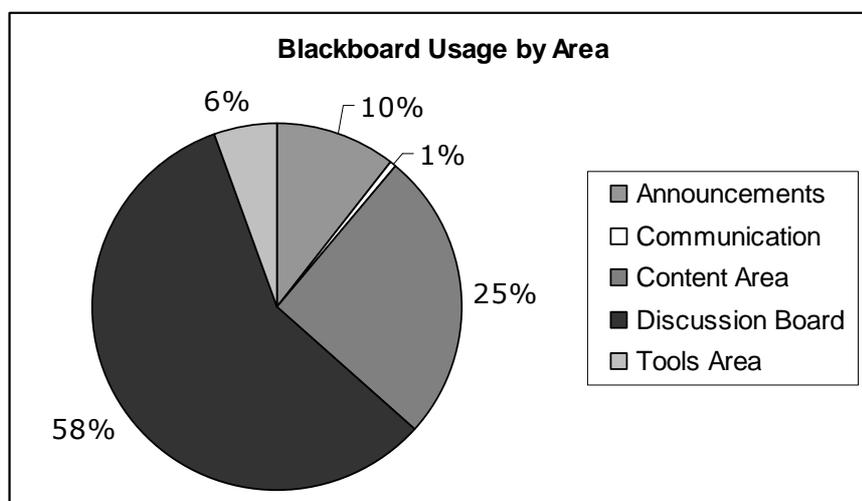


Figure 1: Blackboard Usage by Area

Figure 2 reports statistical data related to the days of the week that participants accessed the course. Since this section of *Introduction to Computers* was delivered through an online learning format, instructional delivery and the construction of knowledge were primarily facilitated through the use of Blackboard [4]. Participants accessed the course primarily on Tuesdays ($n=17%$), followed by Saturdays ($n=17%$), Sundays ($n=17%$), and Thursdays ($n=16%$). Percentage of use dropped slightly on Monday ($n=12%$), Friday ($n=11%$), and Wednesday ($n=11%$).

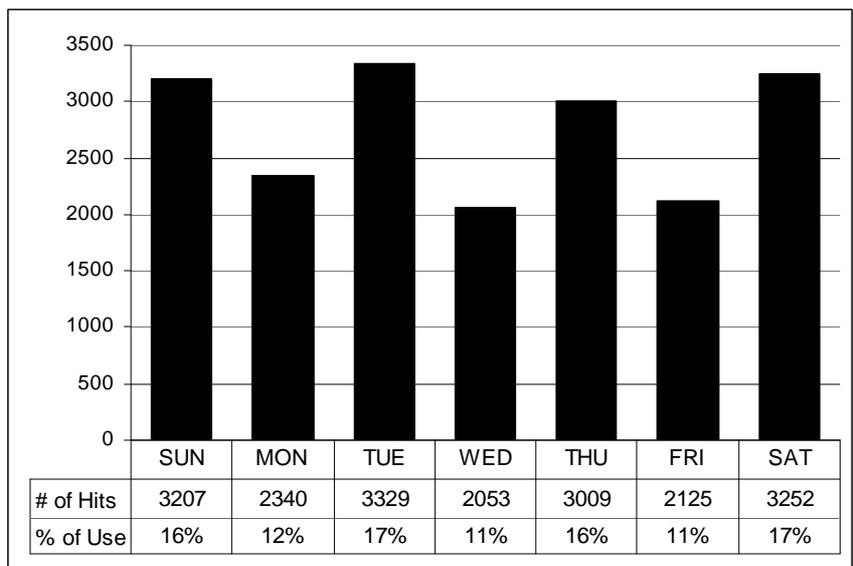


Figure 2: Course Access by Day

Throughout the semester, participants accessed the course on a 24 hour basis (see Figure 3). The largest number of hits were reported during the hours of 1:00 p.m. to 2:00 p.m. ($n=1447$). Participant interaction was most frequent between the hours of 10:00 a.m. ($n=1004$) to 10:00 p.m. ($n=1378$) while the number of hits dropped significantly between the hours of midnight ($n=160$) to 6:00 a.m. ($n=120$).

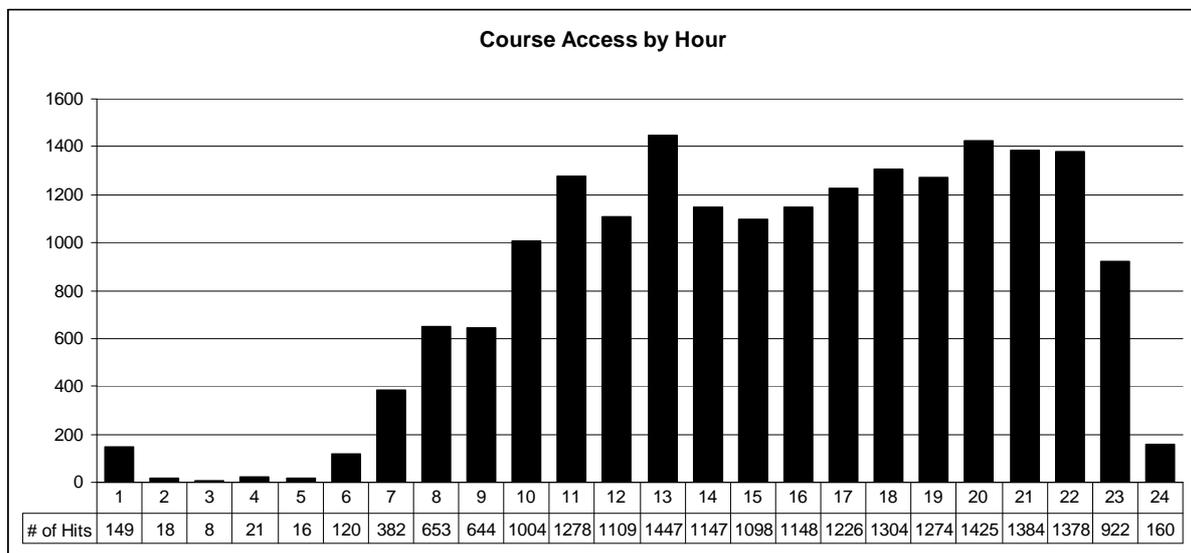


Figure 3: Course Access by Hour

5.2. Construction of Knowledge

The Discussion Board, chat utility, and email interaction facilitated the social construction of knowledge. The following section reports the results of this study in terms of the development of Education Informatics Intelligence among this participant group. Where applicable, each participant’s name has been changed

to protect his/her identity.

5.2.1. Experience

The majority of course participants ($n=14$) relied on instructor guidance as they became acclimated to the online learning environment. The Blackboard [4] Discussion Board served as a virtual classroom enabling participants to initiate the construction of knowledge through observation, modeling, and social interaction. An assignment enabled participants to practice using the Discussion Board and increased their levels of self-efficacy. Individuals introduced themselves by posting background information in a Discussion Board forum titled *Meet the Class*. Another assignment required participants to divide themselves into 5 collaborative groups, each containing 2-4 pre-service teachers. Individuals within two groups were motivated to independently create Group Discussion Forum threads titled *Greet the Team*. The format and content of these threads were modeled on the Meet the Class Forum.

Participants posted course-related questions on the Discussion Board in a forum titled *Help Me!*. At the start of the course, three participants exhibited computer-related anxiety due to the lack of prior experience in the use of Blackboard [4]. One participant became pre-occupied with mastering Blackboard navigation and did not complete his/her assignment on the first day of course access. During the first week of the semester, five participants posted questions related to Blackboard navigation and the location of assignments (see Figure 4). Participants possessing greater amounts of prior knowledge, life experiences, and online learning skills assumed leadership roles in their collaborative group forums by responding to peer questions. Two participants were not comfortable with the process of posting questions in a public Discussion Board Forum and emailed the instructor privately.

| | |
|------------------|--|
| 1/31/08 2:11 PM | Group Question |
| 1/30/08 11:19 AM | Technology Grant |
| 1/29/08 1:24 PM | Link Down |
| 1/28/08 10:08 PM | Peer Collaboration Log |
| 1/27/08 10:00 PM | Missing assignment |
| 1/27/08 3:41 PM | Logging in for classes.. |
| 1/26/08 1:08 PM | First Assignments |
| 1/24/08 9:28 PM | 2 questions |
| 1/24/08 12:21 PM | Nervous |

Figure 4: *Help Me!* Discussion Board Topics

5.2.2. Information

As noted, course content was grouped according to CTTC standards-based [7] technology integration themes. As participants became familiar with the online course format, their focus changed from obtaining Blackboard [4] navigation skills to the course content contained within each modular lesson. Assignments were posted on the Discussion Board that required participants to work individually and in collaborative groups. Additional assignments were listed in each module and linked to the Discussion Board. In addition to posting questions related to course content on the Discussion Board, several participants also continued to email questions privately to the course instructor ($n=5$). As participants began to apply their knowledge, some became confused by course content or peer Discussion Board statements. The ability to clarify these issues with peers facilitated learning. Examples of a forum discussion demonstrating the construction of knowledge included:

Discussion Board Post by Jane - "Attached is the updated lesson plan. I have to add to it, but wanted to go over it with you all first. I came up with the objective: The students will work collaboratively with peers as they use Microsoft Word to type three sentences containing vivid verbs. Please let me know if I should make any changes. This is the first time I have created a lesson plan. Also, do I have to add this objective under the Technology Skills section?"

Tom's Reply to Jane - "Thanks for doing this! I think your objective is great! We have to pick a specific technology standard to use in the technology section."

Sue's Reply to Jane and Tom - "How about Standard One, Basic Operations and Concepts? This standard states that students in grades K-4 must use input devices as well as output devices (monitor, printer) in order to successfully operate computers. They will be using keyboards to type their sentences and can use the printer to print them out. I am sure we can tie these objectives into some of the other standards too. Let me know if you think there is a better one."

5.2.3. Self-Direction

Participants seeking control over their own learning voluntarily explored areas of Blackboard [4] on their first day of course access. These areas included Staff Information ($n=3$), the Roster ($n=5$), Announcements ($n=28$), and My Grades ($n=3$). The majority of participants ($n=13$) began establishing assignment-related goals and planning ways to achieve those goals as their confidence increased at end of the third week in the semester. At this time, an increase in the total number of Discussion Board postings ($n=357$) and a decrease in the amount of email questions received by the instructor ($n=1$) were observed.

It is important to note that two participants withdrew from the course before mid-semester. Both participants reported that they had been "overwhelmed and confused" when attempting to navigate the online learning environment. One participant remarked that she "needed the instructor to show her what to do".

Use of the Discussion Board for constructing new knowledge and obtaining assignment clarification from peers increased significantly during the semester (see Figure 5). Most participants (n=12) possessed prior organizational and time management skills enabling them to complete assignments before the posted due dates. Organizational strategies used by participants included printing instructional materials.

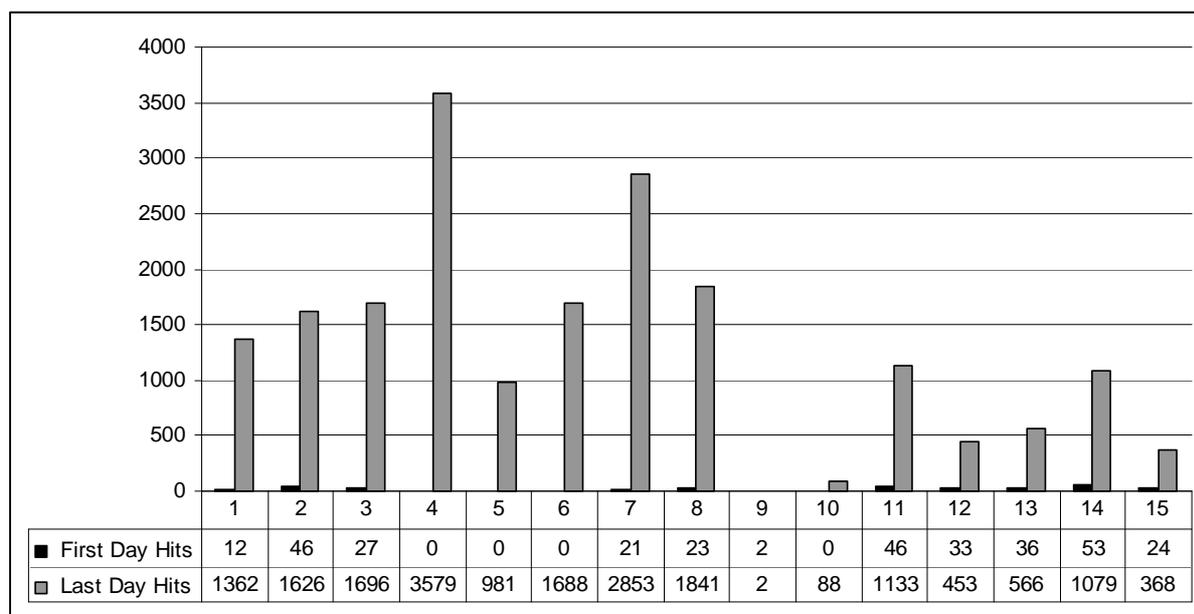


Figure 5: Comparison of Discussion Board Usage Totals

5.2.4. Socialization

Participants acquired knowledge through observation, modeling, and social interaction. Although supportive comments and personal anecdotes were shared through the Discussion Board “Meet the Class” Forum, they were also evident in the Group Forums. Participant background information facilitated social interaction and formed a foundation for the establishment of mutual respect and trust. As the semester progressed, email addresses and phone numbers were exchanged between group members (n=8). Plans for face-to-face meetings were arranged as depicted in the following conversation:

Discussion Board Post by John - “Just wondering if you would be interested in meeting in person--it might make brainstorming a little easier. I'm not sure what your schedules are, but if some of you have breaks coming up, we could meet in the afternoon. Technology is great, but I think I need some face-to-face time to understand these assignments. Is anyone interested?”

Mike’s Reply to John - “I have February break from the 18th-22nd. If you want to meet earlier than that, I can’t make it. I am the high school track coach.”

Steven's Reply to the Group - "That sounds good to me. I have the same February break on the 18th. I can also meet on weekends if I have at least a week's notice."

5.2.5. Collaborative Problem-Solving

Class participants were motivated to learn by internal factors. In order to complete his/her teacher certification requirements, a pre-service teacher must receive a cumulative grade point average grade of B or higher. Peer pressure in the form of group expectations also motivated participants to contribute to the collaborative process as indicated by the following post:

Discussion Board Post by Sara - "I know we went back and forth on the worksheet/activity assignment the other day, and we weren't the only ones. There's a thread about it in the HELP ME section. We are responsible for handing in one worksheet. So Mary is done, Terri, you were going to modify one from the website, Jill has a crossword puzzle, and I'll create one too. Let's post them and then figure out where to incorporate them into the lesson plan."

5.2.6. Validation

Survey results revealed that this participant group consisted of individuals who preferred a combination of written and oral feedback within 1 or 2 days ($n=8$), immediately ($n=3$), or within a week ($n=4$). Use of the Discussion Board *Help Me!* Forum enabled participants to process information effectively and to become self-confident, believing that they possessed the abilities to succeed. Validation in the form of continual Discussion Board feedback from the instructor and peers fostered a participant's awareness about his/her own thinking and learning processes. These processes related to the effectiveness of strategies used in furthering the group's goals. A sample discussion follows:

Discussion Board Post by Jane - "We are having trouble understanding the Modeling and Guided Practice sections of the lesson plan. We created an activity for the students to work on in pairs. This is where their research and independent work happens and it seems that this is where the assessment would come in. Did your group do anything similar? Our groups are isolated so we don't know what everyone else is working on."

Mike's Reply to Jane - "Our group was confused with this too. We agreed that the assessment is a final project or test. We need a rubric for our final assessment and we review it with students in the Modeling Section of the lesson. You can use past assessments as examples of what is expected."

Instructor's Reply to the Group - "That's right! Demonstrate what students are going to do for a grade in the Modeling section. Let them complete an activity worksheet in the Guided Practice section. Practice can continue through homework. In the Check for Understanding section, test them on their content knowledge or use a grading rubric to assess a project."

5.2.7. Reflection

The reflective process represents the uppermost level of higher order thinking and requires individuals to evaluate their experiences and learning processes. A Field Experience assignment provided an experiential context in which individuals considered their knowledge, skills, and understandings by examining how technology had been integrated into an instructional setting. Following the Field Experience, individuals composed a reflection paper that synthesized the relationship between what was learned and course-related information. Competencies were linked to the Field Experience Paper and evaluated through a grading rubric. Serving in the role of instructor, this researcher rated each pre-service teacher according to a Likert-style scale where: 3=Target, 2=Acceptable, or 1=Unacceptable. Research findings revealed that 73% ($n=11$) of the participants met or were approaching the *Target* level of competency. One participant received a rating of 2, achieving an *Acceptable* level of competency. One participant did not complete the Field Experience assignment and received a rating of *Unacceptable*. Two additional participants were not rated since they had previously withdrawn from the course.

6. Discussion

The use of ICT technologies facilitated four modes of participant interaction resulting in knowledge discovery, analysis, and dissemination. These modes included one-alone, one-to-one, one-to-many, and many-to-many. They were based on learning activities that promoted inquiry, reflection, critical analysis, and the synthesis of central concepts. In the context of their online learning course, participants used prior experience as a resource and were required to demonstrate the immediate application of skills. As they progressed through the semester, these individuals developed an independent self-concept and became self-directed learners. Additionally, they assumed social roles linked to individual and group learning needs and were motivated by internal factors. During the study, issues became evident that resulted in the following recommended best practices for increasing Education Informatics intelligence in pre-service teachers. These issues are linked to the Taxonomy of Online Learning Behaviors developed by this researcher as the result of prior research [5].

6.1. Best Practices

6.1.1. Level 1: Experience

Teaching online requires that instructors possess a different skill set than their on-campus counterparts. Transforming assignments and other course materials for online delivery can be difficult and time consuming due to an instructor's lack of experience. Learning to communicate effectively in an online environment can also be challenging. Instructors transitioning to an online environment must reflect on their technological proficiency and consider their comfort levels. By transitioning through a blended learning environment, new online lessons can be

piloted each semester that are supported through structured on-campus teaching methodologies.

6.1.2. Level 2: Information

Participants in this study lacked technological skills and became preoccupied with online navigation at the beginning of the semester. This process prevented them from engaging with course content in a timely manner. Through the use of surveys, course instructors can establish baseline proficiencies required for the successful completion of course requirements. An online classroom area must be created through the use of Discussion Board forums, blogs, or other emerging ICT tools that facilitate experimentation and peer collaboration.

Students who participate in instructor-led, on-campus courses view the instructor as the sole source of information and are comfortable in a one-to-one relationship. To ease the transition to the online learning environment, instructors must establish a system that enables students to provide and/or receive course-related help. Announcements posted on the Discussion Board can direct students to technical support resources and address content-related questions. On-campus tutorials in the use of ICT tools are also recommended.

6.1.3. Level 3: Self-Direction

Students become self-directed when they diagnose their learning needs, formulate educational goals, identify resources, implement learning strategies, and evaluate educational outcomes. Course expectancies must be outlined through a detailed syllabus, grading rubrics, and assignment due dates posted on the Discussion Board. The scaffolding of lessons enables students to build on prior knowledge and facilitates the development of time management and/or organizational skills.

6.1.4. Level 4: Socialization

Socialization occurs within a social context through observation, imitation, and modeling. In an online environment, social structures must be initiated and sustained by the course instructor. A safe and supporting environment built on trust and mutual respect will foster the community of learners. Groups of self-directed students can form autonomously or the instructor can create groups of students based on their commonalities. The establishment of "meet and greet" activities serve as a means of introducing students to each other. At the start of the course, instructors must welcome and address students by name in public interaction areas such as the Discussion Board.

6.1.5. Level 5: Collaborative Problem-Solving

Learning environments that incorporate collaborative problem-solving activities become less competitive and promote positive interdependence between learners. The value of group work must be emphasized to reduce student competition leading to increased isolation. Recognizing that student anxiety may result from low self-esteem, instructors must maintain a constant presence without interfering with group interaction.

6.1.6. Level 6: Validation

Feedback provides validation and enables individuals to assess their performance in relation to instructor expectations and peer performance. Synchronous and/or asynchronous feedback must be routinely provided to individuals, peer groups, and the class group via ICT tools such as email, discussion forums, and chat utilities.

6.1.7. Level 7: Reflection

A reflective practitioner recognizes that experiential knowledge plays an important role in furthering his/her professional practice. Instructors must realize that the lack of reflective assignments can negatively impact an individual's transfer of knowledge. The use of surveys enable individuals to reflect on their learning experiences. Peer collaboration rubrics also enable individuals to receive feedback on their interpersonal skills.

7. Conclusion

Education and training are driving forces behind global economic growth and prepare individuals to compete successfully in the world economy. Instructors must acquire new instructional strategies in order to increase the Education Informatics intelligence of pre-service teachers. The discovery, analysis, and dissemination of knowledge can be supported through a combination of new instructional strategies and the use of ICT technologies.

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Study of Attitudes of Mothers of Children Attending Preschool Institutions Towards Toys

Figen Gürsoy¹, Müdriye Yıldız Bıçakçı¹, Münevver Can Yaşar²

¹ *Ankara University College of Home Economics, Department of Child Development and Education-Turkey*

fgngursoy@yahoo.com, mudriyebicakci@yahoo.com

² *Kocatepe University, Faculty of Education Department of Primary Education-Turkey*

munevver2002@yahoo.com

Abstract

This study aims at determining the attitude of mothers, based on education level of the mothers. The study was realized on a total of 164 mothers with children in the three-six age group, attending private kindergartens at the Ankara provincial center. The "The Questionnaire Form", was used in the study in order to obtain information on the child and the family and to examine the attitudes of mothers towards toys. The data in the study was evaluated with "Chi-Square Test". While it has been determined in the study that the education level of the mothers were effective in terms of issues such as whose opinions were given importance when buying toys and the age in which the children were introduced to toys ($p < .01$) while the education level of the mothers was not effective in terms of making toys at home with various materials and what was taken into consideration in toy selection ($p < .05$).

Keywords: Preschool education - children toys - consumption of children toys

1. Introduction

Playing is a tool for understanding and learning the world and people around them for children. Children think and gain experience by playing. Play is a happier world, which is adopted more than the actual world, and every children spend more time in said world. Playing is a natural and most active learning environment (Baykoç Dönmez, 1992; Tezel Şahin, 2001; Pehlivan, 2005; Tezcan, 2005).

Children learn to develop various ideas and express these in an appropriate manner by playing. Children find the opportunity to comprehend and test the limits of their abilities. Through the interaction experience during playing, children learn the relations between people, sharing, accepting the requests of their friends or having their requests accepted easily, and acquire the social roles of the future (Baykoç Dönmez, 1992; Tezel Şahin, 2001; Tezcan, 2005).

Play and toys are not considered as spare time activities but a serious occupation which covers most of the time of the child. In fact, children always want to play and playing holds an important position in children's life. As an example of the importance of plays in the mind of a child, the most frequently issued statements

of the author's son (now aged five) since early in his verbal life have been variations of "Let's play", "Play with me", and "I want to play". (Sheridan, Foley and Radlinski, 1995; Malone, 1999).

Toys have a vital importance in realization of play, which is the most important occupation of the child. Distinction between playing and toys cannot be possible. While the adults learn what is happening around them by speaking and reading, children start to learn the external world with the aid of toys. Toys are considered as the most valuable tools-devices of the early childhood, which stimulate the intellect, emotions and feelings, develops the imagination and creativity of the child, supports improvement of the intellectual-language, psychomotor, social and emotional development and which creates the habit of multidimensional thinking at the same time as being entertaining (Tezel Şahin, 2001; Tezcan, 2005). The studies conducted have determined that play and toys hold an important place in the child's development. Kallam and Rettig (1991) have reported in their study that social content toys like dolls, blocks etc. supported the social development of children in the three-five age group. Ivory and McCollum (1999) have determined that the social content toys improved the social skills. Gürsoy and Yıldız Bıçakçı (2007) have reported that the play activities of children supported all development fields of children in their study examining the attitudes of preschool teachers towards playing activity.

So this study aims at determining mothers' attitudes towards toys, whose opinions were given importance when buying toys, the age in which the children were introduced to toys, in terms of making toys at home with various materials and what was taken into consideration in toy selection of three-six age group children, attending kindergarten, based on education level of the mothers.

2. Methods

The study aims at determining the attitudes of mothers of children in the 3-6 age group, attending preschool institution towards children's toys.

2.1. Population and sample

Mothers with children attending preschool institutions at the provincial center of Ankara have been included into the study. The study was realized on a total of 164 mothers with a child in the 3-6 age group (age 3 = 18, age 4 = 20, age 5 = 21, age 6 = 23) who volunteered to participate in the study.

2.2. The questionnaire form

A questionnaire, elaborated by the researchers, was used in the study. Questionnaire consisted of questions related with age of the child, education level of the mothers, toy selection, whose opinions were given importance when buying toys, the age in which the children were introduced to toys and in terms of making toys at home with various materials.

2.3. Application

Mothers have been requested to provide sincere answers to the questions during answering of the questionnaire and were informed that this would provide important clues in terms of orientation of children and the families.

2.4. Data analysis

Data obtained in the study has been evaluated in the SPSS 10.0 program (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Data has been analyzed with the "Chi-Square Test" in order to determine whether variables of toy selection, whose opinions were given importance when buying toys, the age in which the children were introduced to toys, in terms of making toys at home with various materials and what was taken into consideration in toy selection by education level of mothers (Büyüköztürk, 2002).

3. Results

It has been determined that children included into the study were 52% girls and 48 % boys, 27 %; were middle child or one of the middle children and 49% were the last child; while the mothers in the 25-35 age group constituted 27% and fathers constituted 19%; and 78 % of mothers and 81% of fathers were in the age group of 45 and over.

Table 1 Outputs of the Chi-Square Test on Attitudes of Mothers on Toy Selection by Education Level of Mothers of Children Attending Preschool Institutions

| Toy Selection | MOTHER'S EDUCATION LEVEL | | | | | | | |
|---------------|----------------------------|-----|---------------------------|------|---------------------------|-----|-------|------|
| | Elementary School Graduate | | Secondary School Graduate | | Higher Education Graduate | | Total | |
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| Child | 18 | 74 | 28 | 38.3 | 12 | 20 | 58 | 35.4 |
| Family | 5 | 8 | 7 | 9.7 | 8 | 12 | 20 | 12.2 |
| Both | 5 | 18 | 37 | 52 | 44 | 68 | 86 | 52.4 |
| Total | 28 | 100 | 72 | 100 | 64 | 100 | 164 | 100 |

$$X^2 = 26.907 \quad df = 4 \quad p = .000$$

Table 1 shows that while most of elementary school graduate mothers (74%) stated that they left the decision of toy selection to their children, majority of the secondary education (52%) and higher education graduate mothers (68%) stated that toy selection was decided together as the child and the family. In general, it is seen that the children and the family reach decision together in toy selection. Based on the outputs of the Chi-Square Test, it has been determined

that the education level of mothers was effective in toy selection [$X^2_{(4)} = 26.907$, $p < .001$].

Table 2 Outputs of the Chi-Square Test on Attitudes of Mothers on the Age in Which the children were Introduced to Toys by Education Level of Mothers of Children Attending Preschool Institutions

| Age in Which the children were Introduced to Toys | MOTHER'S EDUCATION LEVEL | | | | | | | |
|---|----------------------------|------|---------------------------|-----|---------------------------|------|-------|------|
| | Elementary School Graduate | | Secondary School Graduate | | Higher Education Graduate | | Total | |
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| Three months after birth | 6 | 21.4 | 43 | 60 | 37 | 57.8 | 86 | 52.4 |
| Six months after birth | 10 | 35.7 | 7 | 10 | 6 | 9.4 | 23 | 14 |
| One year after birth | 12 | 42.9 | 22 | 30 | 21 | 32.8 | 55 | 33.5 |
| Total | 28 | 100 | 72 | 100 | 64 | 100 | 164 | 100 |

$X^2 = 30.038$ $df=4$ $p = .001$

Table 2 shows that while most of elementary school graduate mothers (42.9%) introduced toys to their children after one year, majority of the secondary school graduate (60%) and the higher education graduate mothers (57.8%) introduced toys to their children after three months. It is noted that in general, mothers introduce toys to their children after three months. Based on the outputs of the Chi-Square Test, it has been determined that the education level of mothers was effective in the timing of introduction of toys to children [$X^2_{(4)} = 30.038$, $p < .005$].

Table 3 Outputs of the Chi-Square Test on Attitudes of Mothers on In Terms of Making Toys at Home with Various Materials by Education Level of Mothers of Children Attending Preschool Institutions

| In Terms of Making Toys at Home with Various Materials | MOTHER'S EDUCATION LEVEL | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------------|------|---------------------------|-----|---------------------------|------|-------|------|
| | Elementary School Graduate | | Secondary School Graduate | | Higher Education Graduate | | Total | |
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| Yes | 10 | 35.7 | 36 | 50 | 35 | 54.7 | 81 | 49.4 |
| No | 18 | 64.3 | 36 | 50 | 29 | 45.3 | 83 | 50.6 |
| Total | 28 | 100 | 72 | 100 | 64 | 100 | 164 | 100 |

$X^2 = 2.824$ $df=2$ $p = .244$

Table 3 shows that while most of elementary school graduate mothers (64.3%) did not make toys at home, majority of the higher education graduate mothers (54.7%) made toys at home for their children. In general, it is seen that approximately half of the mothers made toys at home while half didn't. Based on the outputs of the Chi-Square Test, it has been determined that the education level of mothers was not effective on making toys at home [$X^2_{(2)} = 2.824$, $p > .005$].

Table 4 Outputs of the Chi-Square Test on Attitudes of Mothers on What Was Taken into Consideration in Toy Selection by Education Level of Mothers of Children Attending Preschool Institutions

| What Was Taken into Consideration in Toy Selection | MOTHER'S EDUCATION LEVEL | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------------|------|---------------------------|------|---------------------------|------|-------|------|
| | Elementary School Graduate | | Secondary School Graduate | | Higher Education Graduate | | Total | |
| | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| Price | 8 | 28.6 | 9 | 12.5 | 8 | 12.5 | 25 | 15.2 |
| Physical safety feature | 5 | 17.9 | 6 | 8.3 | 14 | 21.9 | 25 | 15.2 |
| Development supporting feature | 9 | 32.1 | 35 | 48.6 | 26 | 40.6 | 70 | 42.8 |
| Entertaining feature | 6 | 21.4 | 22 | 30.6 | 16 | 25 | 44 | 26.8 |
| Total | 28 | 100 | 72 | 100 | 64 | 100 | 164 | 100 |

$$X^2 = 10.303 \quad df = 6 \quad p = .112$$

As it can be seen in Table 4, mothers of all education levels (elementary school= 32.1, secondary school= 48.6 and higher education= 40.6) and the majority of the mothers in total (% 42.8) took the issue of supporting development of the child into consideration in selection of the toys. Based on the outputs of the Chi-Square Test, it has been determined that the education level of mothers was not effective in terms of toy selection [$X^2_{(6)} = 10.303$, $p > .005$]. However, it is observed that the second issue that majority of mothers in total considered was the entertaining feature of the toys.

4. Discussion

Toys have been around for thousands of years (Anderson, Martin and ,2007). Toys are very important materials for play. Play, is seen by professionals as a crucial context for the transmission of skills, such as problem solving, language, and communication (Goldbart and Mukherjee, 2000). So mothers' attitudes towards toys are important for child development.

Table 1 shows that the higher the education level of the mother the higher the percentage of toy selection together. Toy selection is made by the parents for the children in the zero-three age group. A small child cannot be expected to select the most appropriate toy for herself/himself. However, in said period the children may be interested in a toy which is for a more advanced level just because it has more attractive colors. For this reason parents should not leave the toy selection only to the children and need to orientate and select the toys together, knowing their children's development and interests. Tezel Şahin (1993) have emphasized in their study that parents paid attention to selection of toys.

As seen in Table 2, the higher the mother's education level gets, the earlier the toys are introduced to their children. Most valuable toy for a newborn is his/her body. Babies amuse themselves by opening and closing their hands or moving their head. In the first months, objects that move and make noise, like the mobiles hung over their bed, attract the attention of the babies. Along with learning to sit in the sixth-seventh month, the babies start liking plastic cubes, colorful rings and soft animal toys. Babies, starting to stand up as of the tenth-twelfth month, are attracted to colorful balls, boxes and cubes fitting into one another, and when babies start to walk as of the thirteenth month they like to play with moving toys with wheels that can be pulled with a rope (Aral, Gürsoy and Köksal, 2000). Said toys which are used in all periods play an important role in the child's development. Thus, the children are required to be introduced to supporting toys which are suitable for their development, shortly after their birth.

It has been determined in Table 3 that the education level of mothers did not have an impact on making toys at home. Everything is a toy for children. Thus, one does not necessarily need to buy a toy. There can be numerous perfect toys that mothers can make with their creativity. Toilet paper rolls, empty boxes, reels, plastic kitchenware and small spoons can be wonderful toys for children. Because children love playing with said kinds of toys. For this reason, making toys at home is important (Aral, Gürsoy and Köksal, 2000). However, despite its importance, it has been determined in the study that the education level of mothers did not play a role in toy making. Gürsoy and Yıldız Bıçakçı (2007) have determined in their study, aiming at examining opinions of preschool teachers towards play activities, that most of the teachers prepared their play materials themselves.

Although it is determined in Table 4 that the education level of mothers did not affect the points considered when selecting a toy, it is seen that the second issue taken into consideration by mothers in toy selection is the entertaining feature of the toys. Selection of the toy is as important for the child as playing and toys. Toys are educating tools that reveal the natural talents of children, thus providing for education of the child and organizing the relations of the child with the society and the environment. Children learn the concepts of color, size and shape with toys and develop their numeric and verbal skills. Every child has the need for toys and playing during their development (Aral, Gürsoy and Köksal, 2000). In summary, toys are of great importance for healthy completion of the child's development. Thus, the important point to be taken into consideration in toy selection should be its feature of facilitating learning and bring out the creative aspects of the child, i.e. supporting child development during playing. Doğanay (1998) has emphasized in his study that parents should consider contribution to the child's development in selection of toys.

5. Recommendations

It has been determined in the study that the education level of the mothers were effective in terms of issues such as whose opinions were given importance when buying toys and the age in which the children were introduced to toys, while the education level of the mothers was not effective in terms of making toys at home with various materials and what was taken into consideration in toy selection.

The following recommendations can be made in accordance with the research results that aimed to determine whether some variables were influential on attitude of mothers, based on education level of the mothers.

- Children should be orientated by their families in toy selection in the preschool period.
- The toys selected should support the development of children.
- Families should make toys with their children with spare materials.
- Children should be introduced to toys in the early childhood.
- Briefly, families should be informed on the positive contributions of toys in children's development and toy making.

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Ethnicité et éducation

Maria do Carmo Vieira da Silva

Faculté de Sciences Sociales et Humaines - Université Nouvelle de Lisbonne

carmo.vs@fcs.unl.pt

Résumé

Les analyses faites aux adjectifs exprimés par des professeurs de trois classes multiculturelles portugaises de l'enseignement primaire, concernant leurs élèves, a accentué l'existence d'une différence entre les élèves d'origines ethniques diversifiées. Les élèves portugais blancs et même les métisses sont valorisés positivement par leurs professeurs en opposition aux élèves appartenant à d'autres groupes ethniques, avec une incidence de valeur négative chez les élèves d'origine capverdienne et les gitans. Face à ces résultats, il devient urgent savoir si cette différence entre élèves d'origines ethniques différentes est réelle ou si, au contraire, elle est le résultat d'une induction faite par leurs professeurs comme résultat d'un stéréotype social fort. Pour cela, il a été décidé d'ausculter des membres de la société majoritaire blanche, professeurs et futurs professionnels de l'Éducation, pour vérifier s'ils sont eux aussi porteurs d'un stéréotype social qui pénalise les élèves noirs, d'une façon générale, et ceux d'ethnie gitane en particulier.

Mots clés : ethnicité – stéréotype - discrimination

1. Introduction

La littérature importante analysée explique comment la catégorisation sociale est le résultat de la généralisation qui est faite à partir des caractéristiques et des comportements d'un membre typique d'un groupe à tout son groupe, auquel on associe toujours un contenu émotif de caractère positif ou négatif (Tajfel, 1982), celui-ci prédominant quand il s'agit de groupes différents de celui auquel on appartient. Dans des époques d'agitation sociale, de crise, des sentiments d'hostilité prennent pour cible – boucs émissaires – des groupes ethniques et défavorisés à qui est attribuée la faute de l'instabilité sentie et vécue, ce qui accentue, par conséquent, les différences entre groupes ainsi que les attentes négatives par rapport aux mêmes. En effet, l'attribution de certains traits aux membres d'un groupe – stéréotype social – les rend pareils, en minimisant de cette façon, les différences entre membres d'un même groupe ethnique (Tajfel, 1982).

En vérité, quand ils sont obligés à vivre avec l'inconnu ou avec ce qu'ils n'aiment pas, ils finissent par montrer leurs stéréotypes et leurs préjugés même sans en avoir conscience ou, en ayant conscience, ils les contrôlent, volontairement, tant qu'ils peuvent pour ne pas être considérés socialement comme ayant des préjugés (Brewer et Crano, 1994). Enseignants et apprenants, dans des contextes multiculturels, projettent dans leurs interactions des stéréotypes qui ont été construits très tôt et qui finissent par être le reflet de ce que les membres du groupe auquel ils appartiennent pensent. Cependant, l'organisation scolaire en classes, place côte à côte, presque dans l'intimité, des membres de groupes raciaux et ethniques différents qui, dans d'autres contextes, gardent des

niveaux élevés de distance social. Comme fait référence Postic (1984), le groupe-classe est un groupe d'interaction directe, puisque ses membres ont une influence les uns sur les autres, mais il s'agit également d'un groupe formel car ses membres ont été désignés pour construire un groupe et ils ne se sont pas choisis, vu que la structure a été imposée par l'institution.

La recherche réalisée ces dernières années, dans des contextes scolaires multiculturels internationaux, a démontré l'existence de discrimination parmi les différents intervenants, c'est pourquoi il est devenu pertinent de confirmer si le même s'appliquait en contexte portugais. De cette façon, le travail ci-présent a recherché savoir *s'il existe de la discrimination ethnique dans des classes multiculturelles de l'enseignement portugais par rapport à des élèves d'origine africaine et d'ethnie gitane*. Sept études ont été faites, desquelles nous présentons, maintenant l'Étude 2 dont le but a été : Connaître l'opinion de trois enseignantes sur leurs élèves appartenant à des groupes ethniques différents. L'étude a eu lieu dans deux écoles multiculturelles du district de Setúbal, deux classes ont été sélectionnées dans l'école où les élèves « minoritaires » constituaient la majorité (Classes A et B) et une troisième (Classe C) où ils se trouvaient en minorité. Le choix de deux classes d'une même école se doit au fait que ces classes étaient constituées par, respectivement, 14 et 15 élèves en comparaison avec la classe de la seconde école avec 23 élèves. Leur constitution est la suivante : Classe A, 12 élèves : 2 Blancs, 6 Capverdiens, 2 Métisses et 2 Gitans. Classe B, 15 élèves : 3 Blancs, 8 Capverdiens, 1 Angolais, 2 Métisses et 1 Gitan. Classe C, 23 élèves : 20 Blancs, 1 Capverdien et 2 Angolais. On a ainsi obtenu une population cible équilibrée, de 50 élèves, 25 Blancs et 25 non Blancs, ces derniers étant ainsi distribués : 15 d'ascendance capverdienne, 3 d'origine angolaise, 4 métisses et 3 d'ethnie gitane.

Le recueil d'opinion des enseignantes s'est fait à trois moments différents : au début de la deuxième année de scolarité des trois classes, à la fin la même année scolaire, étant une année terminale de la 1^{ère} phase ; à la fin de la 4^{ème} année de scolarité des mêmes, c'est ainsi que ces élèves et leurs professeurs ont été accompagnés au long de trois années consécutives. Dans un premier moment (qui correspond au début de la 2^{ème} année de scolarité), une Fiche a été distribuée aux enseignantes, sur lesquelles elles devaient enregistrer leur opinion globale soit sur la classe respective soit sur chaque élève de la classe. Les données concernant la rétention des élèves, à la fin de la 2^{ème} année de scolarité, ont été obtenues dans un entretien informel avec chacune des enseignantes et enregistrées par écrit, en situation, par l'investigatrice. À la fin de la 4^{ème} année de scolarité, les enseignantes des trois classes en observation ont été interviewées. A cet effet, un guide pour l'entretien a été élaboré, les entretiens ont été enregistrés en audio et la transcription des entretiens a été fait. Les enseignantes qui ont reçu les élèves retenus ont été également interviewées en 2^{ème} année de scolarité, issus des Classes A et B, les protocoles respectifs ont été effectués.

Le recueil des opinions des enseignantes sur leurs élèves a parcouru deux phases : 1- Description de chaque élève, au début de la 2^{ème} année de scolarité, avec un minimum de cinq adjectifs définissants chacun et un maximum de dix. 2 – Indication des causes de la non transition des élèves retenus à la fin de la 2^{ème} année de scolarité. 3 – Description de chaque élève à la fin de la 4^{ème} année de scolarité.

Ensuite, on a effectué le traitement des adjectifs, les étapes suivantes ont été suivies : 1 – Relevé des tous les adjectifs énoncés par les enseignantes, dans les trois moments du recueil d'opinion, par classe et par groupe ethnique. 2- Caractérisation des adjectifs en positifs et négatifs, avec la collaboration de deux juges externes afin d'assurer la fiabilité de cette catégorisation. 3 – Quantification des données obtenues en valeurs brutes et en pourcentage. 4 – Catégorisation des adjectifs en situation enseignement/apprentissage, personnalité, rapport socio-affectif et insertion socio-économique et familiale, par classe et par groupe ethnique, pour les différentes phases de recueil des données. 5 – Quantification des données obtenues en valeurs brutes et en pourcentage. 6 – Quantification en valeurs brutes et en pourcentage des deux situations antérieures, dans l'ensemble des trois classes. 7 – Classement des adjectifs positifs et négatifs en groupes sémantiques, par classe, dans l'ensemble des trois classes et par groupe ethnique. 8 – Analyse statistique, test de K2 et analyse des probabilités, de tous les adjectifs énoncés par les enseignantes sur leurs élèves dans les 2^{ème} et 4^{ème} années de scolarité, par groupes ethniques et dans la dichotomie Blancs/non Blancs.

2. Analyse des résultats

Si l'on analyse l'opinion des enseignantes, recueillis au début de la 2^{ème} année, quand on leur a demandé de caractériser leurs élèves avec des adjectifs, on vérifie que : Dans la Classe A, les quatre élèves qui n'ont pas passé d'année (deux Capverdiens et deux Gitans) dès le premier moment où ils sont caractérisés par leurs enseignantes, avec des adjectifs, ils n'ont aucune référence positive dans la situation enseignement/apprentissage. En vérité, dès ce moment ils sont décrits comme étant désorganisés, lents, pas sûrs, pas assidus, bavards, dépendants. Curieusement, et en ce qui concerne la personnalité, un élève capverdien et un élève gitan n'ont aucune référence positive, et le premier de ces élèves n'en a aucune négative ayant été référé comme irresponsable, un élève capverdien, qui est également décrit comme sensible, et une élève gitane comme étant douce, sensible et sympathique. Dans la relation socio-affective aussi, ces élèves sont uniquement indiqués comme sociables et respectueux, ce qui n'empêche pas qu'il soit aussi dit qu'ils sont provocateurs. Pour eux tous, l'enseignante a été unanime en reconnaissant qu'il s'agissait d'élèves sans aucun appui familial.

Dans la Classe B la situation semble être quelque peu semblable à la situation de la Classe A, vu que, à l'exception d'une élève capverdienne (décrite comme étant appliquée et travailleuse), aucun des autres cinq élèves ne reçoit une référence positive dans la description de sa situation d'enseignement/apprentissage. L'enseignante n'évite pas, cependant, de faire des commentaires aux mêmes élèves dans cette catégorie, mais le fait en privilégiant des marques de caractère négatives : pas attentifs, peu travailleurs, difficultés de concentration, peu participatifs, peu persistants, non intéressés, difficultés à s'exprimer, peu assidus, perturbateurs et bavard. Une situation analogue se vérifie quand l'enseignante fait référence à la personnalité de ces élèves (bien qu'elle réfère trois parmi les six comme étant doux) et elle s'aggrave quand, dans la relation

socio-affective, elle en décrit quatre comme étant agressifs, conflictuels, mal-élevés et peu sociable.

Une fois établit le parallélisme entre l'opinion des deux enseignantes sur les élèves qu'elles retiennent (recueillie à deux moments temporels différents et éloignés entre eux) il semble qu'il est possible de deviner dès la première opinion de ces enseignantes une fin malheureuse pour la situation scolaire de ces dix élèves, à la fin de la 2^{ème} année de scolarité. En vérité, elles ont accentué des caractéristiques de personnalité, relationnelles et familiales, en oubliant des références à leurs capacités intellectuelles et valorisant peu le travail manifesté par quatre d'entre eux.

En faisant, maintenant, une analyse statistique de tous les adjectifs positifs et négatifs employés par les enseignantes pour caractériser leurs élèves, au long de la 2^{ème} année de scolarité et dans la dichotomie Blancs/non Blancs, on vérifie que le degré de probabilité est de $p < .15$ et le $K^2 = 13.6$, il n'arrive donc pas à y avoir une signifiante, mais seulement une tendance pour la signifiante. Cependant, les élèves blancs se présentent avec une tendance à ce que plus d'adjectifs positifs leur soit attribués qu'aux autres, bien qu'aucun groupe n'obtienne plus d'adjectifs négatifs qu'il n'était prévu. La différence entre les divers groupes ethniques se trouve dans le nombre d'adjectifs positifs attendus qui est plus élevé qu'il ne devrait être. Ainsi, et parce que les élèves sont en petit nombre, on observe une légère tendance pour la signifiante où les élèves blancs sont plus positifs et les élèves capverdiens moins positifs qu'on aurait prévu, tandis que les élèves d'ethnie gitane sont plus négatifs que ce qu'on aurait espéré. Une analyse plus fine des données désigne $p < .07$, ce qui permet de retirer des conclusions plus nettes que les antérieures. Ainsi, on vérifie une tendance à ce que les élèves soient plus positifs que ce qu'ils devraient être, une fois que le K^2 est toujours plus élevé pour les adjectifs positifs par rapport aux négatifs, se situant très près de la signifiante. Par groupe ethnique : 1 – Les élèves blancs recueillent plus d'adjectifs positifs que ce qu'on aurait prévu ; 2 – Les élèves capverdiens reçoivent moins d'adjectifs positifs et plus de négatifs de ce qui était prévu ; 3 – Les élèves d'ethnie gitane obtiennent moins d'adjectifs positifs et beaucoup plus d'adjectifs négatifs ; les capverdiens plus de négatifs de ce qu'ils devraient ; les blancs plus de positifs de ce qu'ils devraient être.

À la fin de la 4^{ème} année de scolarité, les Classes A et B étant réduites respectivement à 9 et 7 élèves et la Classe C gardant sa structure initiale (excepté le transfert d'un élève pour une autre école), le parcours réalisé par ces élèves de la 3^{ème} à la fin de la 4^{ème} année a été accompagné. On a ainsi vérifié que : dans la Classe A et B tous les élèves sont passés au cycle d'étude suivant ; dans la Classe C, tous les élèves ont passé d'année sauf l'élève capverdien. L'enseignante de chacune des trois classes a été sollicitée pour exprimer son opinion sur la situation enseignement/apprentissage, personnalité, rapport socio-affectif et insertion socio-économique et familiale de chaque élève (à la fin de la 4^{ème} année de scolarité). Ensuite, on a obtenu un ensemble de données qui permettent, d'une certaine façon, de délinéer un profil de la classe et de chacun de ces élèves au moment où ils bouclent leur premier cycle d'études de quatre ans.

Les trois enseignantes ont énoncé 144 adjectifs, dont 96 positifs (66,7%) et 48 négatifs (33,3). Parmi les positifs, 67 (46,5%) sont attribués à des élèves blancs

et 29 à des élèves non blancs (20.1%), tandis que les négatifs se distribuent équitablement entre Blancs et non-Blancs - 24, 16.7%, pour chaque groupe. Les élèves capverdiens et les Angolais regroupent plus d'adjectifs positifs que négatifs - 18 (12.5%) et 16 (11.1%) les Capverdiens, 5 (3.5%) et 0 les Angolais - tandis que les Métisses et les Gitans ne voient que par une unité leur négativité être valorisée - 1 (0.7%) et 2 (1.4%) les Métisses, 5 (3.5%) et 6 (4.2%) les Gitans.

L'enseignante de la Classe A émet 26 adjectifs, 15 positifs et 11 négatifs. Les élèves capverdiens sont les plus valorisés (7 adjectifs positifs pour 1 négatif), les Blancs recueillent peu de références et avec un penchant négatif (3 positifs et 4 négatifs), les Métisses une seule attribution négative et les Gitans le plus grand nombre d'observations (10) distribuées équitablement (5 positives et 5 négatives). L'enseignante de la Classe B émet 37 adjectifs, 16 positifs et 21 négatifs. Les élèves capverdiens sont ceux qui reçoivent un plus grand nombre d'attributs (24) - 11 positifs et 13 négatifs -, suivis des Blancs avec 10 (4 positifs et 6 négatifs), des Métisses avec 1 positif et 1 négatif et l'élève gitan avec une seule référence négative. L'enseignante de la Classe C émet 81 adjectifs, 65 positifs et 16 négatifs, en référant toujours positivement soit les élèves blancs (60 positifs et 14 négatifs) soit les élèves angolais (5 positifs et 0 négatifs). L'élève capverdien n'est jamais référencé positivement mais négativement - agressif et n'aime pas perdre.

Une analyse d'opinion de chaque enseignante sur sa classe a révélé les éléments suivants : Classe A - En ce qui concerne la situation d'enseignement/apprentissage, l'enseignante privilégie les références à l'expression écrite, en mettant en évidence le fait que quatre élèves (les trois capverdiens et un des élèves métisses) ne font pas de fautes, un des élèves blancs fait de fautes et une élève capverdienne non seulement a une orthographe peu correcte mais présente aussi des difficultés non spécifiées. Au niveau du calcul, deux élèves capverdiens présentent également des difficultés tandis que l'élève métisse de bons résultats dans ce domaine. En ce qui concerne le rythme de l'apprentissage, un élève blanc est signalé comme ayant des difficultés diverses tandis que l'élève capverdienne et un métisse ne présentent aucune difficulté. Cependant et en ce qui concerne les capacités des élèves, un seul des élèves métisses est référé comme étant intelligent et ayant des capacités les deux. Bien que chez deux élèves capverdiennes on parle créole, ceci ne semble pas être facteur déterminant des difficultés importantes dans l'apprentissage de ces deux élèves. Les références à la personnalité des élèves retombent sur les élèves blancs, aux élèves capverdienne et métisse est attribué l'appréciation peu concentrée et pas sûre, respectivement. Un élève blanc est caractérisé comme équilibré, avec esprit critique et préoccupé avec ce qui l'entoure, tandis que son pair regroupe les appréciations de manque de sécurité, peu communicatif, peu créatif et enfantin. La relation socio-affective des élèves semble être bonne, puisque l'enseignante ne signale qu'une élève capverdienne comme ayant des rapports difficiles. Par rapport à l'insertion socio-économique et familiale des élèves il faut signaler le fait que l'enseignante fait référence aux mères d'une élève capverdienne et d'une blanche comme étant intéressées et fait référence également aux mères de deux autres élèves blanches comme ayant des attentes pour l'avenir de leurs filles. Si l'on compare la caractérisation de la classe faite par l'enseignante en 2^{ème} année de scolarisation avec l'opinion émise par cette même enseignante à la fin de la 4^{ème} année, on vérifie que

l'enseignante pense toujours qu'une élève capverdienne est désorganisée, une autre capverdienne provocatrice avec ses camarades, un élève blanc comme ayant un manque de sécurité. Par rapport aux autres élèves l'enseignante signale des aspects non référencés à ce moment.

Dans la Classe B – À l'image de ce qui est arrivé en 2^{ème} année, l'enseignante de cette classe privilégie les références à la situation enseignement/apprentissage de ses élèves affleurant la personnalité d'une élève capverdienne comme étant gaie et souriante et d'un élève blanc comme enfantin pour, ensuite, mettre en évidence la bonne relation de deux élèves capverdiennes, de deux élèves blancs et faire référence, en dernier, à la famille stable, organisée et collaboratrice d'une élève capverdienne et également stable d'une métisse, et les problèmes familiaux de l'élève métisse et à la séparation des parents de celui-ci et d'une élève capverdienne. Par rapport à la situation d'enseignement/apprentissage il ne semble pas y avoir de grosses difficultés, de la part des élèves, en ce qui concerne l'interprétation, la lecture et le vocabulaire. Cependant, au niveau du calcul, deux élèves capverdiens sont référencés comme présentant des difficultés, en opposition à leurs camarades angolais et métisse, qui sont classés comme très bon et bon. Ce sont aussi les deux élèves capverdiens référencés, les seuls à recevoir une appréciation de difficultés au niveau de leurs résultats. Un élève capverdien est, aussi, le seul élève de la classe à obtenir une opinion moins positive de l'enseignante, en ce qui concerne ses capacités. Il est ainsi décrit comme étant intéressé mais avec des limitations, maladroit, peu travailleur, peu sérieux dans son travail et peu soigné dans la présentation de ses travaux. On n'apprend rien concernant sa personnalité, la relation socio-affective et insertion socio-économique et familiale, ni même sur la nature de ses difficultés au niveau du calcul et ses difficultés générales. En comparant maintenant l'opinion émise par l'enseignante sur ces élèves en 2^{ème} et 4^{ème} année de scolarité, on vérifie que cette même enseignante continue à trouver qu'une élève capverdienne et une élève blanche sont travailleuses, appliquées et sociables, une autre capverdienne efforcée et sociable, un élève blanc aussi sociable et un des angolais est travailleur. Cependant, déjà en 2^{ème} année elle avait, par rapport à l'élève capverdien l'opinion qu'il était peu travailleur, peu appliqué, peu soigné et peu parfait, opinions qui n'ont pas changé jusqu'en fin de 4^{ème} année de scolarité. On doit signaler également le fait que l'élève métisse était déjà en 2^{ème} année référencé comme étant peu assidu, ce qui est renforcé en 4^{ème} année avec l'abandon scolaire de cet élève.

Dans la Classe C – L'enseignante cherche à détailler la description qu'elle fait sur ses élèves en accentuant, d'une façon générale, les aspects positifs évidencés par ces élèves. Ce qui est significatif par rapport à ce qui vient d'être affirmé, ce sont les références à la situation enseignement/apprentissage des élèves de la classe où peu d'aspects négatifs sont référencés. Ainsi, l'enseignante dit que trois élèves blancs font des fautes et un autre change les digraphes. Elle réserve, cependant, les deux seules références qu'elle fait à l'élève capverdien pour affirmer qu'il n'a pas de bases en mathématiques et n'a pas atteint les objectifs minimums. Si nous analysons les références à la personnalité et à la relation socio-affective de cet élève on vérifie que c'est le seul à qui l'enseignante se réfère comme ne pas aimant perdre et comme étant agressif. Curieusement, c'est aussi cet élève qui reçoit le plus grand nombre d'opinions, de la part de l'enseignante, sur son insertion socio-économique et familiale. Celle-ci se caractérise par le manque d'appui familial, des membres de la famille

alcooliques, un père qui tape, non-protection et sous-alimentation. On vérifie ainsi, que l'enseignante garde, par rapport à plus de la moitié des élèves de la classe, une opinion déjà émise au moment où ils fréquentaient la 2^{ème} année de scolarité, avec une majorité d'appréciations de nature positive. A l'exception des références à la distraction d'une élève blanche et au fait d'une autre élève être bavarde ; l'agressivité d'un élève capverdien étant déjà accentuée.

Les élèves qui ont été retenus/ont raté (dans les Classes A et B, en 2^{ème} année de scolarité) ont intégré des classes différentes, c'est pourquoi on a cherché d'écouter l'opinion de ou des enseignantes qui les ont reçus, au moment où leurs camarades qui ont réussi ont terminé la 4^{ème} année de scolarité. Ainsi, les élèves de la Classe A, qui ont été retenus, sont deux ans plus tard passés en 3^{ème} ou en 4^{ème} année, mais l'élève d'ethnie gitane est resté encore en première année. Par rapport à la Classe B, la majorité était passée en 4^{ème} année, en 3^{ème} année et en 2^{ème} année. Selon les enseignantes qui ont accompagné les élèves de la Classe A, depuis la rétention, on apprend que tandis que l'élève capverdien continue à présenter des difficultés au niveau de l'expression orale et écrite, mais révélant des progrès, l'élève gitane réussit à atteindre des résultats raisonnables, malgré les difficultés en lecture, et l'élève capverdien a fait des progrès brillants ; l'élève d'ethnie gitane se maintient pratiquement à un niveau d'initiation. Cependant, et par rapport à ce dernier élève, les opinions émises par les deux enseignantes, qui l'ont reçu à des moments différents, semblent être d'accord sur l'existence de problèmes graves dans les capacités de l'élève, ce qui le mène à ne pas apprendre et, par conséquent, à ne pas éprouver d'intérêt dans l'apprentissage.

D'un autre côté, les élèves retenus dans la Classe B, malgré les difficultés manifestées encore par certains, ont réussi à récupérer, à avoir du succès, à dépasser les attentes de l'enseignante ou à atteindre les objectifs minimums. Les difficultés manifestées par les élèves capverdiens se centrent surtout au niveau de la langue portugaise, d'une certaine façon du fait que trois d'entre eux parlent le créole à la maison. Par rapport à leurs capacités, l'enseignante centre son attention sur un élève blanc qui, selon elle, n'a pas de meilleurs résultats parce qu'il est peu travailleur et ne s'intéresse pas au travail scolaire. En ce qui concerne la relation socio-affective, on remarque deux élèves capverdiens et un élève blanc dont les attitudes conflictuelles et provocatrices provoquent des conflits dans le rapport avec leurs camarades. À l'exception de l'élève blanc, il semble ne pas exister des grands problèmes familiaux dans l'insertion socio-économique et familiale de ces élèves. En ce qui concerne l'élève d'ethnie gitane, l'opinion émise par les deux enseignantes qui l'ont reçu, au long des deux années, n'est pas tout à fait coïncidente. Ainsi, tandis que la première enseignante qui l'a reçu semble un peu négative dans l'appréciation qu'elle fait de lui – il connaissait peu de lettres, il avait des difficultés, il était lent, peu assidu, il avait des difficultés d'intégration, sans progrès -, la deuxième enseignante semble avoir réussi que l'élève progresse, pas seulement parce qu'elle-même l'affirme mais aussi parce qu'elle mentionne les progrès de cet élève dans ce sens – il lit, il interprète, il a des notions basiques, il a atteint les objectifs minimums. Cependant, elle reconnaît que l'élève a besoin d'un appui spécifique. La même enseignante réfère également que le rapport de l'élève avec ses camarades est bon et n'oublie pas de parler du fait que c'est lui qui s'est occupé d'un oncle mourant.

L'analyse statistique de tous les adjectifs employés par les enseignantes pour caractériser les élèves, à la fin de la 4^{ème} année de scolarité, confirme la tendance manifestée à la fin de la 2^{ème} année. Ainsi, le K2 pour $p < .04$ est significatif à cause de la positivité. C'est-à-dire, les enseignantes contrôlent la négativité en ne pas en parlant et accentuent la positivité de manière importante, par ce qu'elles discriminent de manière importante dans cette même positivité.

En ce qui concerne l'analyse sémantique de l'ensemble des opinions émises par les enseignantes, les adjectifs énoncés par les trois enseignantes sur les élèves des trois classes, pendant la 2^{ème} année de scolarité et à la fin de la 4^{ème} année de scolarité, ont été inventoriés et classés par catégories en six groupes sémantiques positifs et sept groupes négatifs. Dans l'ensemble des trois classes, ont été inventoriés 288 adjectifs positifs dont 187 (64.9%) retombent sur les élèves blancs, 53 (18.4%) sur les élèves capverdiens, 21 (7.3%) sur les élèves métisses, 19 (6.6%) sur les élèves angolais et 8 (2.8%) sur les élèves d'ethnie gitane.

Les élèves blancs ont eu une plus grande fréquence de positivité dans le Bloc (n=47-16.3%) où ils sont décrits comme travailleurs (n=16), attentifs (n=12), persistants (n=9), intéressés (n=7), parfaits (n=2) et perfectionnistes (n=1). Les élèves capverdiens, de leur côté, ont une plus grande positivité dans le Bloc (n=15-5.2%) où ils sont décrits comme sociables (n=8), amis (n=2), sympathiques (n=2), gais (n=1), rieurs (n=1) et communicatifs (n=1). Par rapport aux autres groupes, la distribution se présente plutôt équilibrée dans les différents Blocs, on met en évidence le fait que les élèves d'ethnie gitane n'obtiennent aucune fréquence dans le Bloc où tous les adjectifs ont une fréquence pour les élèves blancs : - polis (n=11), serviables (n=9 fréq.), solidaires (n=4), respectueux (n=3), collaborateurs (n=1), dédiés (n=1). Curieux est le résultat du Bloc où les élèves blancs ont le plus grand nombre de fréquences (n=33): intelligents (n=8), rapides (n=8), créatifs (n=6), malins (n=5), participatifs (n=2), enthousiastes (n=2), versatiles (n=1) et critiques (n=1); les élèves capverdiens n'ont obtenu que n=3 - participatifs (n=2) et rapides (n=1); les angolais n=2 - malin (n=1) et participatif (n=1); les élèves métisses une seule fréquence - participatif - et les élèves d'ethnie gitane une seule fréquence également - enthousiaste.

Dans l'ensemble des trois classes 173 adjectifs négatifs ont été répertoriés: 72 (41.6%) retombent sur les élèves blancs; 70 (40.5%) sur les élèves capverdiens; 21 (12.1%) sur les élèves d'ethnie gitane; 5 (2.9%) respectivement sur les élèves angolais et métisses. Les élèves blancs ont une plus grande fréquence de négativité dans le Bloc (n=18 - 10.4%) où ils sont décrits comme bavards (n=9 e n=1), enfantins (n=4), immatures (n=3) et influençables (n=1). Les élèves capverdiens, d'u autre côté, ont une plus grande négativité dans le Bloc où ils sont décrits comme provocateurs (n=4), agressifs (n=4) et n=1 chaque pour: n'aime pas perdre, conflictuels, perturbateur, déstabilisateur, ne reste pas tranquille, moqueur, turbulent, malpoli. Les élèves d'ethnie gitane sont décrits comme peu assidus (n=3), irresponsables (n=1), désorganisés (n=1), désintéressés (n=2), aériens (n=1), peu attentifs (n=1), paresseux (n=2), lents (n=1), imbéciles (n=1), agressifs (n=2), provocateurs (n=1), conflictuels (n=1), peu sûrs (n=1), dépendants (n=1), bavards (n=1), enfantins (n=1). Les élèves angolais sont appelés de lents, paresseux (n=1),

nerveux (n=1), bavard (n=1), pas attentif (n=1). Finalement, les élèves métisses sont décrits négativement comme pas assidus (n=1), peu sûrs (n=1), désadaptés (n=1), introvertis (n=1), silencieux (n=1).

Dans un commentaire final, l'analyse des données semble permettre affirmer que les opinions émises par les trois enseignantes sur leurs élèves en 2^{ème} année de scolarité, d'une manière générale, ont souffert peu de changements quand ces enseignantes sont sollicitées à se prononcer deux ans plus tard. En effet, les élèves qui, d'une certaine façon, étaient alors déjà référencés d'une façon plutôt négative, finissent par ne pas passer en 3^{ème} année, tandis que par rapport aux autres qui sont passés, on vérifie en 4^{ème} année, une situation de transition qui frôle le palier de la non transition ou elle s'effectue dans sa concrétisation. Il est important de retenir qu'il semble, d'une certaine façon, y avoir une certaine contradiction dans l'action des enseignantes qui, face aux caractéristiques présentées par certains élèves, dès la 2^{ème} année, et qu'elles considèrent néfastes pour le succès dans l'apprentissage de ces élèves, elles sont comme que subjuguées par l'inévitabilité du changement de ces comportements. C'est comme si l'agressivité, la désorganisation, l'insécurité, la lenteur, le peu de soins se trouvaient en dehors de leurs champs d'action, comme si ce n'était pas à elles d'aider à modifier. On pressent également, que la précarité de certaines situations familiales fonctionne comme une justification pour le comportement de certains élèves en rendant légitime, d'une certaine façon, l'opinion formée par les enseignantes sur les capacités de ces élèves.

A partir de l'opinion des enseignantes sur les différents groupes ethniques ressort la valorisation positive qu'elles font de leurs élèves blancs et l'impression aussi positive qu'elles ont des élèves métisses, tandis que les élèves capverdiens, et d'une certaine façon les élèves angolais et, surtout, les élèves d'ethnie gitane ont des appréciations négatives.

À la fin de la 4^{ème} année de scolarité, les enseignantes confirment ce qu'elles avaient énoncé en 2^{ème} année sur leurs élèves : elles accentuent de façon importante la positivité des élèves blancs, elles maîtrisent la négativité par rapport aux élèves noirs, en ne par en parlant et marquent la négativité des élèves d'ethnie gitane. Ces résultats sont en accord avec ce qui a été énoncé par Brewer et Crano (1994). Bien que les enseignantes considèrent être sans préjugés, qu'elles n'acceptent pas des croyances racistes à un niveau cognitif conscient, cela ne les empêche pas d'expérimenter des réactions émotives face à des élèves appartenant à des groupes ethniques différents du leur. Elles maîtrisent, cependant, volontairement, leurs comportements discriminatoires pour que, socialement et dans le contexte scolaire, elles ne soient pas jugées comme ayant des préjugés. Dans ce sens, elles se gardent de faire des commentaires négatifs sur des élèves appartenant à certains groupes ethniques en surestimant, en contrepartie, les appréciations aux élèves qui appartiennent à leur propre groupe ethnique, à leur culture, à la culture véhiculée par l'école. Cela ne les empêche pas, cependant, d'agir d'une façon discriminatoire par rapport à certains de leurs élèves et à certains groupes ethniques. En effet, des adjectifs comme humain, pacifique, docile, bon, soucieux, soigneux, sûr, équilibré, mûr, intelligent, versatile, rapide, critique, créatif, parfait, perfectionniste, collaborateur et dédié ne sont énoncés que pour les élèves blancs. Des élèves blancs qui, aussi, ne sont jamais référencés comme : désorganisés, peu soigneux, maladroits, indécis, inadaptés, joueurs, aériens, peu

persistants, peu appliqués, tristes, introvertis, timides, imbéciles, passifs, apathiques, n'aiment pas perdre, provocateurs, perturbateurs, déstabilisateurs, moqueurs, turbulents. Des adjectifs positifs et négatifs qui marquent nettement la différence qui existe entre ces élèves – capverdiens, métisses et gitans – non blancs – et l'ensemble de leurs camarades blancs.

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Preparing Students for A Global Career

¹Mr. Paul R. Cerotti, ²Associate Professor Amalia Di Iorio, ³Dr. Joan Richardson

¹*School of Business Information Systems - RMIT University,* ²*School of Economics and Finance - RMIT University,* ³*School of Business Information Systems - RMIT University*

paul.cerotti@rmit.edu.au

amalia.diiorio@rmit.edu.au

joan.richardson@rmit.edu.au

Abstract

Students have expressed overwhelming levels of support for the experience gained on study tours according to qualitative and quantitative information collected since their inception in 1999. Although the study tours have always been evaluated at a School level, a formal evaluation instrument, the Study Tour Experience Survey, was developed in 2006. Its development combined the expertise of academic staff involved in designing and delivering the courses, as well as members of the Business Portfolio's Academic Development Unit and RMIT University's Policy and Planning Department, and evaluates students' personal and cultural growth and the relevance of the course materials to professional capabilities. A focus was placed on evaluating the effectiveness of assessment tasks, relevance of course content to career aspirations and development of intercultural capabilities.

This rigor built into the student feedback mechanisms and cross-disciplinary staff review cycles was intended to enable incremental continuous improvements to content and delivery. The process used to bring staff and students together for post tour review of quantitative and qualitative student feedback collected, provided an opportunity to gather and use staff experiences across the traditional discipline boundaries and international contexts of study tour delivery. Identification of common patterns allowed a sharing of information pertaining to graduates ability to perform as professionals in the global economy and society on a cyclical basis that informed the design of contextualised activities and assessment tools. This paper outlines requisite capabilities, activities and assessments scheduled for successful study tours across the globe and the tools utilised to evaluate the effectiveness of the components. Implementation of the survey instrument enabled provided evidence that study tours enable students' to develop insights into cultural differences, communicate effectively and tackle unfamiliar problems.

Keywords: Global capabilities - work ready graduates - global work

1. Introduction

RMIT University's strategic objectives include the development and implementation of student learning experiences that build international capabilities. Currently its first priority is to "build a global university grounded in providing our students with a global passport to learning and work". The study tours possess strong academic rigour and the combination of classes, industry site visits, cultural and historical visits assist students in the development of their global competence and extend their capabilities. The definition by Hunter 2004 "having an open mind while actively seeking to understand cultural norms and

expectations of others, leveraging this gained knowledge to interact, communicate and work effectively outside one's environment"(Hunter, 2004, p.130-131) aligns perfectly with delivering global graduates for the global market place. The traditional semester based student exchange model has operated with some success in promoting student mobility for some years, but a more popular and financially attractive option for all students to internationalise their program is the participation on the Study Tour Program. The internationalisation of business has become increasingly important over the past three decades:

Internationalization is high on the agendas of national governments, international bodies, and institutions of higher education... "Internationalization of higher education is the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service function of the institution." This definition understands internationalization as a process, as a response to globalization (not to be confused with the globalization process itself), and as including both international and local elements (de Wit, 1999).

In response to this drive to internationalise learning experiences, the team developed the Study Tour program which was first introduced into Business programs in 1999. The introduction was driven by a number of factors which prevented students from participating: the financial implications of living and studying in Europe, North America, Asia, for an extended period of time (3-4 months); universities in non English speaking countries not offering classes in English; the full time employment obligations of the university's large part time student cohort; and family and social obligations.

The Study Tour Program has proved to be a very attractive option for students to internationalize their learning experiences. RMIT students are able to undertake study tours to Europe, North America and Asia. In 2006, 249 students participated in the tours which compares very favourably with a total of 197 RMIT students who participated in a conventional semester based exchange. Since 1999, over 1,500 RMIT students have participated in RMIT Business Study Tours. Evidence of the effectiveness is demonstrated by increased student participation in the study tours and an increase in delivery destinations. From one study tour in 1999, in which 30 people participated, we now offer eight destinations and send approximately 250 students each year. These include North America, Italy, France, Germany, Denmark, China and Vietnam.

2. Study Tour Structure

Educational institutions provide a diverse range of courses and services for students using a myriad of delivery models. Changes in the higher education cultural environment have altered student expectations. The development of the Study Tour Program demonstrates a proactive response to the massive shift in the expectations of cohorts of fee-paying students. "*The learning area need not necessarily be enclosed within the school premises.*" (Stone, 2004). *New cohorts expect " fun, social connection, training, personal development, greater fulfilment and even environmental sustainability"* (McCrinkle, 2006) in the

workplace. The Study Tour Program was developed to prepare students for the global workforce by providing a culturally inspiring, international learning. It is structured so as to create capacity for global business and cultural understanding and imagination in students. It encourages students to investigate and analyse a variety of issues, extending from the ability to work collaboratively in a group setting to achieve a common goal, to the demonstration of cross-cultural sensitivity. The course is designed to enable students to investigate, examine and reflect on various cultural and cross-cultural issues such as individual cultural assumptions and practices, cross-cultural differences in both tertiary education and business practices, and processes of cultural and social adjustment involved in studying and living in another culture. Its components are:

- A series of workshops conducted at RMIT in Melbourne prior to departure for international destinations. The purpose of these workshops is for students to undertake preparatory work, network with peers and articulate their expectations about the potential cultural and business experiences.
- The Study Tour program that involves academic and practical immersion at a partner university and includes lectures, seminars, workshops, industry site visits, historical and cultural visits and presentations by global industry practitioners. Meeting with industry NGOs, corporate contacts and learning from internationally recognised academics at leading universities around the world all make this a unique learning experience.
- A final series of workshops conducted in the Business Portfolio on the RMIT Melbourne campus designed for students to come together upon their return and to reflect on the meaning of their cultural and academic experiences and formally present their findings. Students compare and contrast the different factors that influence business and tertiary learning experiences both in Australia and in the respective countries and institutions on their Study Tour program.

Hence, study tours provide an integrated global learning experience. According to Giddens (1999) "... globalization is an irresistible force, transforming all aspects of contemporary society, politics and the economy" (Wolf, 2004, p.14). The external environment impacts on all business sectors including higher education institutions. Globalisation is a phenomenon characterised by:

... increasing integration of markets across political boundaries (whether due to political or technological causes); ... falling government imposed barriers to the international flows of goods, services, and capital; and, ... the global spread of market-orientated policies in both the domestic and international spheres. (Wolf, 2004, p.15)

A related yet distinct issue is that of enhancing business education in general. It is well documented that business leaders find that new graduates are unable to apply their knowledge in an interdisciplinary environment [Markulis et al. (2004)] and demonstrate a lack of 'soft skills' such as communication, teamwork, entrepreneurship and leadership. This concern has been made explicit in many

forums, including the recent 2007 annual meeting of Deans and Directors-General organised by the European Foundation for Management Development (EFMD) which owns the EQUIS accreditation process. One of the key messages to emerge from that meeting was that although business schools are doing a good job of producing technically competent students, the same cannot be said of students' soft skills. Moreover, while Olian et al. (2002) observe that "Business education is inadequate in preparing future business leaders to manage the value conflicts and dilemmas they expect to face in their business careers.", Neville (2002) states "*Other skills will also become increasingly important, including the ability to operationalise a variety of tasks to enable rapid development of ideas and products in response to the internationalised market. This leads to the ability to customise and then innovate.*"

Hence, the creation of educational courses is therefore a complex task, as the combination of both professional knowledge and generic skill development is paramount. The provision of real business global experiences enables students' to access experiential learning environments on a global scale.

3. Experiential learning

Kolb and Fry's (1975) model describes a learning cycle comprised of four steps. Student learning experience requires concrete experience, observation and reflection, the formation of abstract concepts and testing in new situations. These steps enable students' to tackle new problems and acquire knowledge of cultural differences in a real university setting offshore. Theoretically the provision of business orientated teaching and learning activities and assessments in new cultural situations ensures experience, reflection, formation of concepts and testing which follows Kolb and Fry' (1975) learning cycle "that begins at any of the four points – and should really be approached as a continuous spiral" (INFED, 2002, p.2). The cycle is illustrated in Figure 1: Kolb and Fry's (1975) Learning Cycle.

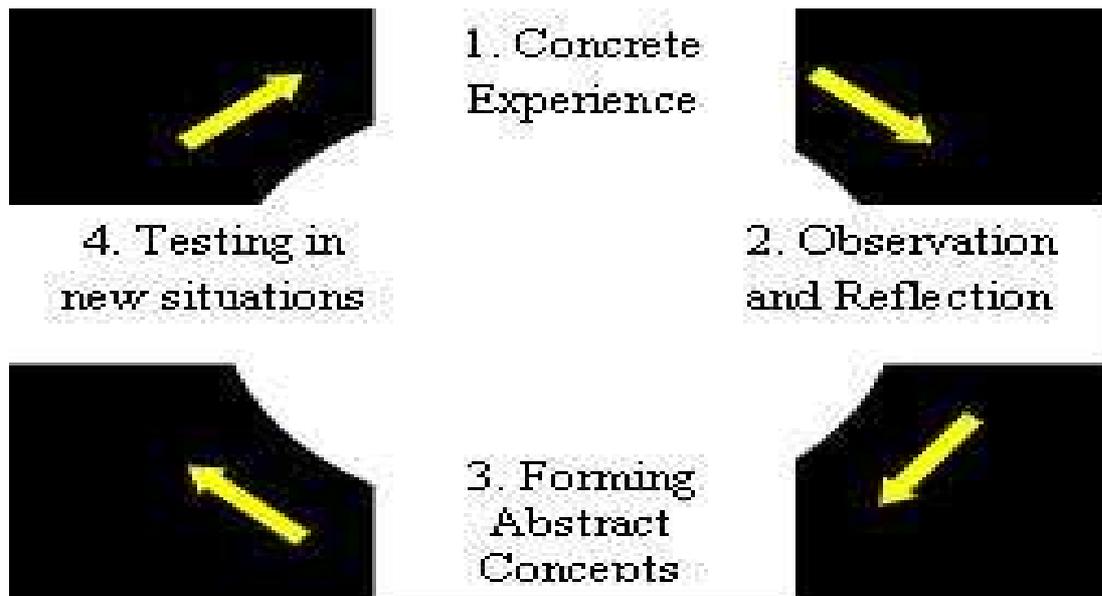


Fig. 1: Kolb and Fry's (1975) Learning Cycle

Kolb and Fry's learning cycle can be aligned with the steps in Lewin's (1948) change model. The first stage of the change model was 'unfreezing' or "the process of disconfirming a person's former belief system. Motivation for change must be generated before change can occur" (Smith & Lovat, 2004, p.7). During the second 'movement' stage participant observation or process consultation or change agents were suggested to facilitate the connection "of concrete (emotional) and analytical detachment required to learn and develop" (Smith et al, 2004, p.7). The collection of feedback during all stages of the change process was considered crucial to continually adjust the process based on accurate information about the impact of the change.

In order to ensure that student's participating in the study tour extended their mental models associated with primary cultural understandings curriculum was designed to enable concrete experiences. Field trips and immersion in the university teaching and learning environment of the destination provided first new cultural educational experience and the opportunity to observe. Pre-trip classroom instruction followed up with a requirement that students keep journals as an assessment task built on the experience through reflective practice. Testing of concepts built through experience, observation and conceptual understandings presented in the more formal teaching and learning environment of lectures, ensured the students' formed new cultural understandings.

Thus the discovery was made that learning is best facilitated in an environment where there is dialectic tension and conflict between immediate, concrete experience and analytic detachment. By bringing together immediate experiences of trainees and the conceptual models of the staff in an open atmosphere where inputs from each perspective could challenge and stimulate the other, a learning environment occurred with remarkable vitality and creativity (Smith et al, 2004, p.7).

4. Study Tour Teaching and Learning Components

The Study Tour Program is aimed at both undergraduate and postgraduate students. Since its' inception, the program has evolved into a comprehensive 24 credit point course that involves both onshore and offshore teaching and learning activities. What was initially a simple two-week intensive program undertaken at an international university has become a multi-faceted program that promotes students understanding of cross cultural encounters and international business environments. The learning activities undertaken by students to motivate and provide an educationally challenging experience can be classified in three categories:

- a) Theoretical – lectures and workshops conducted by academic staff to provide students with theoretical principles in specific disciplines in selected areas of business.
- b) Practical – lectures and workshops conducted by business practitioners to provide students with an insight into selected aspects of business practices in Australian and the respective countries to be visited.
- c) Applied – assessment tasks that involve students engaging in various activities including small group face to face discussions, online discussions, individual reports and group presentations incorporating both the practical and theoretical aspects of the program.

The academic rationale for the Study Tour Program is for students who complete the study tour program to be able to manage and engage in cross cultural encounters in both professional and social settings. In order to support this rationale, students develop the following capabilities:

- Identify cross-cultural differences in business practices.
- Recognise ethno-centric perspective and cultural differences.
- Analyse cross-cultural encounters from an individual and business perspective.
- Identify situations when skilled responses and cultural interpretation may be required.
- Investigate the effect of their own assumptions and practices on others.
- Identify the characteristics and assess the significance of international political, economic, business and financial systems.
- Collaborate with others.

The curriculum designed for delivery therefore includes the social, economic and political components of the operation of business. All of the activities were designed around the capabilities defined in *Table 1: Study Tour Capabilities and Activities*.

| Capabilities | Learning Activities |
|---|---|
| Identify cross cultural differences in business practices Develop an appreciation of cross cultural issues associated with business practice in a global | Participate by way of inclusion in a learning work group. Students will adopt an organisational role in a scenario that provides the opportunity to experience the practical challenges of working in |

| | |
|--|--|
| business environment | global companies. |
| Recognise ethno-centric perspective and cultural differences Critically appreciate and evaluate relationships between global and national business. | Record observations and reflect on personal experiences, identifying similarities and difference in cultural approaches and interpretations of communication Experiential learning work group activities based around a series of global business case studies that address the cultural, personal, business, management and IT perspectives |
| Make culturally sensitive business decisions within a diverse global environment | Prepare, attend and participate in seminars and workshops and/or Site Visits as part of the experiential learning work group model. Critically analyse theories of management and leadership in cross-cultural professional practice against a practical experience of the study tour. |
| Use reflective practice techniques as part of ethical management strategy for globally networked organisations | Attend and participate in seminars and workshops and/or Site Visits as part of the experiential learning work group model. Investigate their cultural assumptions and their practices post-tour. This requires recording of observations and reflecting on personal experiences identifying characteristics that demonstrate commonality and diversity in cultural approaches to negotiation and leadership business practice |
| Work effectively as part of a global multi-discipline collaborative team | Participate as a member of a learning work group in workshops both onshore and offshore. |

Tab.1: Study Tour Capabilities and Activities

5. Survey Instrument Development

The program was completely renewed in 2004 when a capability-based framework was developed and implemented as per the quality assurance cycle at RMIT. Although students were positive about the learning experience additional work was required to improve academic outcomes, personal development and intercultural proficiency. A process for collecting student and staff feedback, followed by review and action planning for improvement was developed to enable changes to study tour delivery schedules, teaching resources, assessment practice and resources for all study tour contexts.

A formal student feedback survey instrument, the Study Tour Experience Survey, was piloted in 2007. Although the study tours had been evaluated at a School level since their inception in 1999, the evaluation instrument developed in 2006 combined the expertise of academic staff involved in designing and delivering the courses, as well as members of the Business Portfolio's Academic Development Unit and RMIT University's Policy and Planning Department. Hence, this cycle of review and improvement drew on all stakeholders' feedback.

The Study Tour Experience Survey instrument (Appendix 1) is an anonymous, one-page computer scan sheet with twenty-seven questions that address various academic aspects of the study tour program's design and objectives, as well as students' cognitive growth and their interpersonal and intrapersonal growth. The

design of the survey form, based on a 5 point Likert scale, is consistent with the Course Evaluation Survey that is implemented to evaluate all courses across RMIT University. Students are asked to indicate their level of agreement or disagreement with all twenty-seven questions. There is also provision for qualitative analysis with students invited to comment on the 'best aspects' and aspects that 'need improvement' of the study tour program. Finally, a number of demographic items are included.

Students were asked to complete the Study Tour Experience Survey during the fourth, and final, workshop. This workshop is conducted after the overseas component of the program is completed but prior to the finalisation of some assessment tasks. Data collected reflected the importance of the study tour experience to the preparation of graduates able to demonstrate global proficiency in their profession. Staff performance in the resource schedule and design, as well as participation in the associated events was informed by scholarship.

6. Data Collection & Analysis

The Study Tour Program enhances the student learning experience and builds students' confidence in dealing with cross-cultural experiences. It also heightens their awareness of differences in business practices across the world and, importantly, potential international employment opportunities. Hence, the students' learning experience is multi-faceted and engaging at a number of different levels - personal, professional, cultural, and social. As one student so succinctly said, "It changed my life!" Students' perceptions of the impact of the learning experience on their personal inter-cultural development are summarised in Table 2: Sample of Student Evaluation Results 2007.

| Survey Questions | Percentage Of Students Responses To Agree Or Strongly Agree |
|--|--|
| Assessment tasks completed for RMIT require me to demonstrate what I have learnt about cross-cultural issues and practices | 74% |
| The learning objectives of this course were clear to me | 83% |
| I have developed insights into cultural differences | 94% |
| My skills in communicating with people from other cultures have been improved by this course | 85% |
| This course contributed to my confidence in tackling unfamiliar problems | 72% |
| I can see how I'll be able to use what I have learnt in this course in my career | 72% |

Table 2: Sample of Student Evaluation Results 2007

Quantitative analysis of the student responses to the survey tool was conducted and also provided evidence of an overwhelmingly positive learning experience.

The tool enabled a more focused evaluation of the effectiveness of offshore activities with respect to building inter-cultural insights and developing communication skills. The combination of the soft skills requisite for effective communication in the different cultural environments and a need to apply business constructs acquired in formal University settings creates a powerful experiential learning environment.

Qualitative data was also collected from the students. Comments were overwhelmingly positive, for example, one Masters student who participated in one 2006/2007 study tour described the tour as "A gift to us". Another student stated that through the tours *"I discovered cultural diversity, in a social sense and in an organisational setting. Finally, I discovered opportunities for personal growth and I hope to continue to learn from my experiences."* An MBA student stated that the tour was *"globalisation in practice, it allowed us to experience globalisation at first hand in visiting amazing organisations, and hearing global practitioners doing global business on a daily basis at places such as the European Union Commission, The World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund. One undergraduate student commented "It was great to see first hand the things we learn about in textbooks. It was also great to come back and appreciate different cultures."*

7. Discussion

7.1. Learning Objectives Clear

Students found the learning objectives of the courses clear. These were stated in course material and explained in formal lecture and workshop classes at the commencement of the program of study. Course objectives are clearly articulated in course guides:

The internationalization of business has become increasingly important over the past three decades. From the relatively uncomplicated import and export transactions that primarily characterized 'international' business in the 1950's and 1960's, to the complex world of international financial and management practices currently undertaken by multinational companies, the business environment has evolved into a challenging, and often unpredictable, setting.

Notwithstanding the international nature of business, individuals often see the world from an ethnocentric perspective. Their view of the rest of the world is tinted by their experiences in their home country, in their home city. As a result, business practices may be one-dimensional, lacking the depth and expertise of a global standpoint.

One of the major objectives of this course is therefore to sensitize students to ethnocentrism and develop students' understanding of cross-cultural differences. They will expose students to an environment that is significantly dissimilar to that of Australia and /or Asia. It will encourage students to see the world from different academic and business perspectives. As students, they

will experience a university system that is unlike to that they know, while as potential business graduates, they will encounter practices that will broaden their knowledge and skills.

However, without the research undertaken to ensure a capability curriculum underpinning the design schedules, learning activities and assessments tools student expectations and staff delivery would have become fragmented and disjointed. The student perception that the expectations for learning were clearly outlined is also an indicator of effective delivery and assessment tools.

7.2. Insights into Cultural differences

The awakening of cross cultural understanding on a study tour is one of the major benefits that participating students talk about and want to explore further whilst on and the tour and after the tour concludes. Culture is one of those phenomena that have long been ignored by business schools until recently. Given that research states that culture influences between 25% - 50% of our attitudes, whereas other issues such as social class, ethnicity, race, sex and age account for the remainder of these attitudinal differences, is it any wonder that culture is now a major study in business schools. Whether you are studying in Australia, USA, France, Italy or Denmark, culture is a major force that one needs to understand, appreciate and conform to when one is on the global stage.

The students who attend a study tour, always claim that they are amazed at how different and similar other cultures are to their own. On the USA tour students state prior to their departure that there is no need to be engaged in a cultural workshop because America is like Australia. Once in the USA, students become aware of the huge differences between cultures. On all of the tours students comment on how different cultures are and how there is a commonality between people and how people are held together. Jordan and Rowntree also claim this when discussing culture:

Culture is a total way of life held in common by a large group of people. Learned similarities in speech, behaviour, ideology, livelihood, technology, value system and society bind people together in a culture. It involves a communication system of acquired beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes that serves to supplement and channel instinctive or inborn behaviour (Jordan and Rowntree, 1986)

Qualitative feedback obtained from the students indicated that they had developed in terms of cultural awareness. Students provided the following comments:

- 'This tour has given me a set of new eyes with which to look at the world in which we live, study, and work.'
- 'I never expected that the tour would make me understand, appreciate and re-evaluate Australian culture.' And "Culture operates subtly, often on the unconscious or semiconscious level" (Ficher1988; Hofstede, 1991, cited in Gannon, 1994, p.5)
- 'I do believe that this opportunity did globalize my thoughts and extend the meaning of business globalisation and how to live and

cope with different cultures which will highly assist me in my future career, and add value to my resume. In addition, this experience did truly increase my confidence and knowledge about business globalisation. I have also benefited from a different environment by being more responsible and independent. Moreover, it made me realize that life is full of taking many decisions, bad ones and good, and by joining this study tour it made me feel that I have decided the best thing for my life, as well as travelling to another country for me it was itself another class that enriches me with knowledge and experience and made me more open minded.' MBIT student 2007

Participating students recognised their personal development with respect to learning about new cultures in a business and social context, as culture establishes the way people and especially students on a study tour look at the world, interact with others and make decisions. Hall (1976) Hofstede(1980), Trompenars (1991), and Laurent (1991) all have researched cultures around the world. All of this research has highlighted the differences that exist within cultures such as beliefs, goals, ideals, time, values, religion, family, sex, politics etc. On a study tour students are confronted with a myriad of cultural issues that need to be addressed as they study, and live in a different culture for a short period of time.

8. Conclusion

Students participating in the study tours are being prepared for work in a range of occupations across business domains. Irrespective of particular professional base, education sector or position in the hierarchy of Higher Education students complete the same learning and assessment tasks. The design of an outcomes based educational product with a focus on cross-cultural understanding and global business applications meets diverse needs. This means that the purpose of the course is not purely academic but ensures that graduates can transfer knowledge and skills in the global and local workplace.

Global Study Tours have been conducted by RMIT Business since 1999. Institutional support for the courses is provided by Academic Development Unit input into curriculum design, review and improvement and school based training of participating academics and administration staff. Although these study tours have been evaluated at a School level since their inception, a formal approach has now been taken with the development of the Study Tour Experience Survey in 2006 for the evaluation of students participating in the 2006/2007 tours. The instrument provides for the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data regarding the course design, as well as students' interpersonal and intrapersonal growth. Based on this first study, student feedback indicates that international study tours are worthwhile educational products that have a significant impact on students' academic, professional and personal lives. It is envisaged that the findings of our data collection through the implementation of the Study Tour Experience Survey will bring to light new research issues in the area of internationalising curriculum and may allow us to focus on the particular needs of subgroups of students.

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Paul R. Cerotti

M. Intl. Ed. (Monash) MBIT (RMIT) B. Ed Stds (Monash) Dip Ed (Monash) Grad, Dip, Bus, Stds, (RMIT) BA (Monash).

Paul is the Global Study Tour leader. Paul has extensive experience in teaching International Business and Globalisation. In 2007, together with Amalia Di Iorio, was awarded the Carrick Institute 'Citation for Outstanding Contribution to Student Learning'. Paul is the recipient of the 2007 Carrick Citation Award and the RMIT Vice Chancellor's Team Teaching Award. Paul is currently completing his doctorate and his research interests are in the area of globalisation, global capabilities and the world of international business.

Dr Associate Professor Amalia Di Iorio

PhD (RMIT), B Bus (Acc), Dip App Sc (Med Radiography).

Amalia is an Associate Professor of International Finance in the School of Economics, Finance and Marketing. She has extensive teaching experience in the disciplines of economics and finance and is the recipient of a number of teaching awards. In 2007, together with Paul Cerotti, she was awarded the Carrick Institute 'Citation for Outstanding Contribution to Student Learning' and the RMIT Vice Chancellor's Team Teaching Award. Amalia has an international research profile in the area of finance with publications in a number of international journals. She has also presented her papers at several international conferences

Joan Richardson

BAppSci (Canberra University), DipEd (LaTrobe), Med (LaTrobe), PhD (LaTrobe).

Joan works in the School of Business Information Technology at RMIT University. Joan has worked on University projects aimed at maintaining a leading position in the application of ICT in business and delivering state of the art courses and programs. She led a team that won the RMIT Quality Teaching award in 2000 for development of resources and delivery to the largest first year computing subject. This work has been built on with Pearsons Education Australia to produce texts, Web sites and CDROM's to support first year undergraduate student learning in Higher Education.

An Examination of Professional Self-Esteem of Candidate Teachers Studying At Faculty of Education

Neriman Aral¹, Figen Gürsoy¹, Remziye Ceylan², Müdriye Yıldız Bıçakçı¹

¹ *Ankara University College of Home Economics, Department of Child Development and Education– Turkey*

aralneriman@gmail.com, fgngursoy@yahoo.com, mudriyebicakci@yahoo.com

² *Ahi Evran University, Faculty of Education Department of Primary Education-Turkey*
rceylan@gazi.edu.tr

Abstract

This study aims to determine the professional self-esteem levels of candidate teachers studying at Ahi Evran University Faculty of Education, examine whether certain variables create any difference in their professional self-esteem levels, and propose suggestions in accordance with the results. The study was conducted among first and fourth year students in Ahi Evran University Faculty of Education in Kirşehir. Data about the candidates was collected through the use of a "General Information Form", and their self-esteem levels were evaluated through the "Arıcak Professional Self Esteem Scale" developed by Arıcak (1999). The results reveal that gender, grade level, credit given to the importance of teaching as a profession, and the ranking of choosing teaching as a profession at university, participating in professional activities in teaching do not cause any difference in candidate teachers' self esteem levels ($p < .05$, $p < .001$), yet the activities that lecturers carry out regarding the reputation of teaching cause difference in their self esteem levels ($p > .001$).

Keywords: Education – teacher - teacher education, professional self-esteem

1. Introduction

Profession has an important role in defining one's life. Individuals maintain their life and place in society through their professions (Arıcak and Dilmaç, 2003). An individual has the desire to put forth his/her innate talents, potentials, and hidden strengths by using and improving them. The most efficient place that these talents, potential, and hidden powers can be used and improved is the work environment. It is in this professional environment that individuals maintain their social identity and social interaction. If they do not have any professional fulfillment, they may go through some personal and social problems (Sarucan, 2008). Baloğlu, Karadağ, Çalışkan, and Korkmaz (2006) pointed out in their research that there is a meaningful correlation between teachers' level of professional self-esteem and their internal and external satisfaction.

There are many social and personal factors that affect the success of the teaching profession. These factors may have a positive or negative reflection on professional self-esteem by creating differences in the activities of the teacher (Campbell, Kyriakides, Muijs, and Robinson, 2003). Teachers spend their entire

day with children sharing all their excitement, motivation, and problems. For this reason, all teachers must have the necessary characteristics to relate well with children and respect their profession; that is, they should be individuals with high professional self-esteem. Being an important element in the success of a teacher, professional self-esteem can be defined as the credit given to the chosen profession (Arıcak, 1999). Professional self-esteem displays how valuable and important the person views his own profession and is seen as a precondition for professional adaptation and satisfaction (Arıcak and Dilmaç, 2003).

Research emphasizes that full acceptance of the profession (Krejsler, 2005), professional motivation and satisfaction (Scott, Cox, and Dinham, 1999), social relations and talents (Byrne, 1994), communication with children, having a member of family with the same profession (Köksal Akyol and Aslan, 2006), the number of children in the classroom, the age of the teacher (Aral, Gürsot, and Yıldız Bıçakçı, 2007), and professional performance (Brighouse, 1995) may be important factors in the improvement of professional self-esteem. Moreover, research shows professional self-esteem and satisfaction have an important place in teachers' own professional self-esteem (Arıcak and Dilmaç, 2003; Erdönmez, 2004) as well as children's self-esteem (Le Cornu, 1999). In accordance with these studies, it is apparent that high professional self-esteem of teachers fosters a better result for both themselves and the children.

Researching the professional self-esteem of teachers is considered crucial in education as they are the ones who give different perspectives to children, shape their views and prepare them for the future, and guide them to make effective decisions. Furthermore, these studies may contribute to the development of educational support programs by assessing the positive and negative elements influencing their professional self-esteem. All these factors have formed the scope of this study that aimed at determining whether gender, grade level, credit given to the importance of teaching as a profession, the ranking of choosing teaching as a profession at university, participating in professional activities in teaching, and the activities that lecturers carry out regarding the reputation of teaching.

2. Method

2.1. Research model

The research was designed as a descriptive study in the sweep model.

2.2. Research population and sample

A total of 315 teacher candidates -140 freshman and 175 senior students - attending the Elementary Education Program at Ahi Evran University took part in this research.

2.3. Data collection tools

Data was collected through a "General Information Form" to gather information about the teacher candidates and their school, and "Professional Self-esteem Scale" designed by Arıcak (1999).

2.3.1. General information form

The first form consists of questions on teacher candidates' gender, grade level, credit given to the importance of teaching as a profession, the ranking of choosing teaching as a profession at university, participating in professional activities in teaching, and the activities that lecturers carry out regarding the reputation of teaching.

2.3.2. Professional self-esteem scale

The Scale for Professional Self-Esteem is a five-item Likert type measurement tool. It consists of 30 items in total, 14 of which are positive and 16 of which are negative. Each item is given a score of 1 to 5. In negative items, reverse scoring is done. The maximum point possible on the scale is 150 whereas the lowest is 30. A higher score shows more positive professional self-esteem. The reliability of the scale was measured with Cronbach α (.93) and test-retest reliability coefficient (.90). Validity was ensured with scope validity and only those items accepted by 75% of field experts were included in the scale. The structural validity of the scale was ensured through factor analysis (Arıcak 1999).

2.4. Data Analysis

In this study, the "T-test" was used in order to determine whether gender, grade level and credit given to the importance of teaching as a profession caused any difference. In order to determine whether the ranking of choosing teaching as a profession at university, participating in professional activities in teaching, and the activities that lecturers carry out regarding the reputation of teaching caused any difference, "one-way Variance Analysis" was used. As a result of the variance analysis that was used, the "Scheffe Test" was applied to determine which group caused this difference (Büyüköztürk, 2002).

3. Findings and Discussion

31,1% of the teacher candidates who participated in this research were 18-19, 16,8% were 20-21, 47,3% were 22-23, and 4,8% were 24 years old. The findings are discussed in the following tables in accordance with the aims.

Table 1 Mean scores, standard deviations and t-test results regarding professional self-esteem of teacher candidates according to gender

| Sex | N | \bar{X} | S | df | t | p |
|--------|-----|-----------|-------|-----|-------|------|
| Female | 190 | 119.01 | 15.21 | 313 | -.246 | .806 |
| Male | 125 | 119.47 | 16.95 | | | |

As seen in Table 1, although the mean scores for teacher candidates' professional self-esteem according to gender do not reveal significant difference ($t_{(313)} = -.246$, $p > .05$), it is noticeable that the scores males received are higher than the females did when the T-test result is analyzed. This finding suggests that some other factors than gender may be influential on professional self-esteem. However, different research results do appear as well. Arıcak and Dilmaç (2003) have come to the conclusion that girls' level of professional self-esteem is meaningfully high compared to that of boys as a result of a study they carried out to analyze levels of self-esteem and professional self-esteem. Girls' regarding teaching as a more appropriate profession for themselves and adopting it more easily can be one explanation to this finding.

Table 2 Mean scores, standard deviations and t-test results regarding professional self-esteem of teacher candidates according to grade level

| Grade level | N | \bar{X} | S | df | t | p |
|-------------|-----|-----------|-------|-----|-------|------|
| First year | 140 | 121.24 | 14.83 | 313 | 1.338 | .188 |
| Fourth year | 175 | 118.02 | 16.43 | | | |

When Table 2 is analyzed, it is seen that there is no significant difference ($t_{(313)} = 1.338$, $p > .05$) between the mean scores of teacher candidates on professional self-esteem according to grade level. According to the professional development theorem of Ginzberg and his friends individuals between the ages of 18-22 can not determine their fields yet as they go through their first years of university education and have just received some basic education. However, through the end of this period there appear changes in their interests and they approach their final moments of decision (Akt: Kuzgun, 2003). Therefore, that the grade level does not have influence on the level of professional self-esteem can be regarded as an expected result since the ages of freshman and senior participants in this study rank between 18-24. Köksal Akyol and Aslan (2006) have reached the conclusion in their research that grade level does not have direct influence on professional self-esteem.

Table 3 Mean scores, standard deviations and t-test results regarding professional self-esteem of teacher candidates according to credit given to the importance of teaching as a profession

| <i>Giving credit to the importance of the</i> | N | \bar{X} | S | df | t | p |
|---|-----|-----------|-------|-----|-------|------|
| Important | 270 | 120.49 | 14.66 | 313 | 1.145 | .243 |
| Unimportant | 45 | 116.51 | 22.64 | | | |

When Table 3 is analyzed, T-test results show that there is no significant difference ($t_{(313)}=1.145, p>.05$) between the mean scores of teacher candidates on professional self-esteem in terms of credit given to the importance of teaching as a profession. Although, according to the results, credit given to the importance of teaching profession does not affect professional self-esteem, the candidates who believe in the importance of the profession appear to have higher mean scores and are in majority. The studies reveal that valuing the profession (Byrne, 1994) and adopting (Krejsler, 2005) have impact on professional self-esteem. Arıcak and Onur (1999) have determined the self-esteem mean average of the group that define 'teaching as a very reputable profession' as meaningfully higher than that of the group defining it as 'an ordinary profession that anyone can do'.

Table 4 Mean scores, standard deviations and variance analysis results regarding professional self-esteem of teacher candidates according to *the ranking of choosing teaching as a profession at university*

| <i>Preference Ranking</i> | N | \bar{X} | S | | |
|---------------------------|-----------|-----------|--------|-------|------|
| First place | 162 | 119.58 | 16.37 | | |
| Middle place | 110 | 117.60 | 15.34 | | |
| Last place | 43 | 121.76 | 15.39 | | |
| GENERAL | 315 | 119.19 | 15.39 | | |
| VARIANCE ANALYSIS RESULTS | SS | df | MS | F | P |
| <i>Between groups</i> | 586.032 | 2 | 293.16 | 1.160 | .315 |
| <i>Within groups</i> | 78827.155 | 312 | 252.65 | | |
| <i>Total</i> | 79413.187 | 314 | | | |

In Table 4, results of variance analysis show that ranking of choosing teaching as a profession does not make any significant difference ($t_{(312)}=1.160, p<.05$) on professional self-esteem of teacher candidates. Profession is the main factor that shapes the values, perspective on life, daily life and habits of an individual (Yeşilyaprak, 2003). The choice of profession, which can be a turning point in one's future life, necessitate a correct and appropriate decision. Choosing a suitable profession helps the individual develop high professional self-esteem whereas an unconscious and reluctant choice causes it to be low (Arıcak, 1999). Övet (2006) points out as a result of his research study that teacher candidates make their choices through four main factors when choosing the teaching profession: consciousness, safety, ideals, and being influenced. The most apparent factor among the four seems to be consciousness, which indicates that teaching has become a profession that is consciously preferred in recent times.

In other words, that the ranking of profession to be chosen does not make any difference in professional self-esteem can be explained in terms of teacher candidates' choosing this profession consciously. Üstün (2005) analyzed the attitudes of teacher candidates towards teaching profession in his study and emphasized the fact that the ones who willingly chose the profession received the highest score.

Table 5 Mean scores, standard deviations and variance analysis results regarding professional self-esteem of teacher candidates according to their *participating in professional activities in teaching*

| <i>Participating in an activity</i> | <i>N</i> | \bar{X} | <i>S</i> | | |
|--|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Participating in seminars | 245 | 119.11 | 16.13 | | |
| Going through an efficient practice teaching | 31 | 116.09 | 16.16 | | |
| Increasing sharing with the people in profession | 39 | 122.15 | 13.96 | | |
| GENERAL | 315 | 119.19 | 15.39 | | |
| VARIANCE ANALYSIS RESULTS | SS | df | MS | F | P |
| <i>Between groups</i> | 640.601 | 2 | 320.300 | 1.269 | .283 |
| <i>Within groups</i> | 78772.587 | 312 | 252.476 | | |
| <i>Total</i> | 79413.187 | 314 | | | |

In Table 5, results of variance analysis show that participating in professional activities in teaching does not make any significant difference ($F_{2-312}=1.269$, $p<.05$) in professional self-esteem of teacher candidates.

The professional satisfaction and positive attitude of teachers towards the profession may affect the level of professional self-esteem. Their participating in activities may trigger a positive attitude towards the profession and thus may have a positive impact on professional self-esteem. In a study conducted by Baloğlu and his friends (2006), it was stated that there was a significant difference between level of professional self-esteem of teachers and their internal and external satisfaction.

Table 6 Mean scores, standard deviations and variance analysis results of professional self-esteem of teacher candidates according to the activities that lecturers carry out regarding the reputation of teaching.

| <i>Activities on respect towards profession</i> | <i>N</i> | \bar{X} | <i>S</i> | | | |
|---|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|----------|--------------------|
| Emphasizing the importance of profession and giving examples of what may be experienced in class ¹ | 164 | 119.11 | 17.05 | | | |
| Giving information on professional ethics ² | 88 | 116.90 | 14.86 | | | |
| Both of them ³ | 63 | 126.23 | 13.22 | | | |
| GENERAL | 315 | 119.19 | 15.39 | | | |
| VARIANCE ANALYSIS RESULTS | SS | df | MS | F | P | Meaning-ful |
| <i>Between groups</i> | 3418.67 | 2 | 1709.33 | 6.88 | .001 | 3-1 |
| <i>Within groups</i> | 77445.5 | 312 | 248.223 | | | 3-2 |
| <i>Total</i> | 80864.1 | 314 | | | | |

As seen in Table 6, variance analysis results show that the activities lecturers carry out regarding the reputation of teaching made a difference in professional self-esteem ($F_{2-312}=1.269$, $p>.001$). The Scheffe test revealed that this difference was brought about by the group who 'emphasized the importance of the profession in their classes and provided examples for what may be experienced in class'. This finding highlights the positive impact of the activities lecturers planned on professional self-esteem regardless of in what sequence and with what aim teacher candidates have chosen this department. Moreover, the respect the teaching profession receives in state or private institutions may also increase professional self-esteem of teachers. The study Aral and his friends (2007) carried out emphasizes that teachers who work at private schools have high professional self-esteem. Furthermore, it was also added in this study that this may be achieved through the activities held in private schools to improve professional self-esteem. In brief, all the activities carried out to maintain respect towards the profession should be considered to bring along professional satisfaction and self-esteem.

4. Recommendations

The following recommendations can be made in accordance with the research results that aimed to determine whether some variables were influential on the professional self-esteem of teacher candidates.

- The teaching profession requires a healthy personality and is not a profession that can be executed by just anyone. Assuming that individuals who do not consider this profession suitable for themselves can still make good teachers may lead to undermining the importance of the teaching profession. For this reason, consciousness on the importance and the necessity of the teaching profession can be increased by organizing educational seminars for teacher candidates.
- Education Faculties play an important role in the quality improvement of the teaching profession. Therefore, educational standards for these faculties that establish the basis of educational system can be developed.
- Family education programs on the importance of the teaching profession in order to develop consciousness and respect towards it can be held together with parents.
- It is suggested that an improvement in the economic and social environment of teacher candidates be maintained so that they willingly execute their profession.

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A Critical Analysis of the Evidence of the Objective Knowledge Growth Framework in Teacher Portfolios

Stephanie Chitpin¹, Marielle Simon²

^{1,2}*University of Ottawa – Canada*

¹steph.chitpin@uottawa.ca

²marielle.simon@uottawa.ca

Abstract

Over the past decades, studies have shown that the use of professional portfolios has rapidly expanded and continues to do so as a way to capture the complexities of teachers' work and learning in authentic settings and in various disciplines (Attinello, 2004; Chitpin & Evers, 2005; Gelfer, Xu, & Perkins, 2004; Dysthe & Engelsen, 2004; Kimball, 2005; Koegler, 2000; Ma & Rada, 2005; Orland-Barak, 2005; Pinder & Turnbull, 2003; Strudler & Wetzel, 2005.). This study seeks to answer the following question: How can the objective knowledge growth framework serve as a model for self-directed professional development for teachers using professional portfolios? This presentation advocates the use of an objective knowledge growth framework as a model of teachers' self-directed professional development. The framework is based on Popper's (1979) critical rationalism, which allows teachers to uncover inadequacies of their teaching theories and provides them with a structure to reflect on their practices. The thick description of one teacher's experience illustrates the step by step inquiry process using the framework as applied within the classroom. The merits and limitations of the model for teachers' professional development are also discussed.

Keywords: OKGF – Portfolios - Professional Development - Teachers

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to propose a model as a basis for viewing the potential reflective practices of teachers through the use of portfolios. This view of reflection also functions as part of the development of teachers' professional knowledge as attested within their portfolios. The theory of reflection proposed is built on the notion of objective knowledge, a framework based on the work of Karl Popper (1979). We use an analysis of interview and of professional portfolio data from a study of six Canadian teachers chosen to demonstrate how their professional knowledge grows, with a particular focus on one teacher who is representative of the group.

Professional portfolios are a means of documenting teacher preparation and professional development, and discussions around portfolios are increasingly frequent in academic and education circles, locally, nationally and internationally. This study seeks to answer the following question: How does the Objective Knowledge Growth Framework (OKGF) model practicing teachers' reflection within their professional portfolios?

We begin by looking at professional portfolios for their power to capture the complexity of these teachers' work and follow with a brief overview of the literature on reflection. Next, we describe how the OKGF can be situated in the professional portfolios. Moreover, we show how reflection can be modeled with the OKGF.

2. Literature review and framework

The use of professional portfolios recently attracted the attention and imagination of numerous educational communities for their power to capture the complexities of teachers' work and learning in authentic settings (Goodfellow, 2004; Tucker, Stronge, Gareis, & Beers, 2003; Xu, 2004). Professional portfolios are also a means of documenting teacher preparation in university education programs and professional development in district school boards. Discussion surrounding portfolios is increasingly frequent in academic and education circles, both locally, nationally, and internationally (Delandshere & Arens, 2003; De Rijdt, Tiquet, & Devolder, 2006; Mansvelder-Longayroux, Beijaard, & Verloop, 2007; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Strijbos, Meeus, & Libotton, 2007; Tigelaar, Dolmans, De Grave, Wolfhagen, & Van derVleuten, 2006; Tucker, Stronge, Gareis, & Beers, 2003; Wray, 2007).

Loughran (2002) argues that reflection, a key aspect of professional portfolios, emerges as a suggested way of helping practitioners better understand what they know and do in developing their knowledge of practice through reconsidering what they learn in practice. Furthermore, reflection is said to sustain the professional health and competence of teachers and the ability to exercise professional judgment which is, in fact, informed through teachers' reflection on their practice (Day, 1999).

Brookfield (1995) states that the reflective practice literature is important for offering a variety of approaches for examining practice so that teachers may discover and research taken-for-granted assumptions that influence their approach to practice so that:

...We can learn about, and start experimenting with, different approaches to assumptions hunting. Many of these approaches to assumptions of power and hegemony...and [they] also outline ways in which a program for the encouragement of reflective practice in others can be systematically developed. (pp. 218-219).

The reflective practice literature also provides teachers with opportunities to understand stories of teachers' lived experiences – many experiences, which teachers can identify with personally. These stories help them to:

...Realize that what we thought were idiosyncratic features of our own critically reflective efforts are paralleled in the experiences of many of our colleagues. We discover that what we thought was our own idiosyncratic difficulty is actually an example of a wider structural problem or cultural contradiction. (Brookfield, p. 219).

From the perspective of the OKGF, the process of reflection has four basic elements. The first element is problem identification (P). Evidence for this consists in how teachers use their antecedent understandings of educational situations, their prior theories, to formulate, theorize, or select problems that require solution in their ongoing practice. Thus, a problem is identified in terms of a set of theorized constraints coupled with the demand for a solution, and a solution is a matter of satisfying as many constraints as possible. In this way, we can use a range of prior theories – in addition to teachers' theories – in order to gain insights into the nature of constraints.

The second element is the formulation of a trial solution, or a tentative theory (TT), for dealing with the problem. Evidence for this is complex since tentative theories are not always articulated in the context of practice. Since all practice is laden with theory, however, an analysis of the implementation of trial solutions will be revealing, and will be used to supplement teachers' verbal accounts of their tentative theories.

The third element is the process of error elimination, (EE). This derives from the rational criticism' notion of fallibilism, the claim that all knowledge is falsifiable and may be in need of revision. A teacher's TT may meet with mixed success when it comes to solving the problem in question, prompting additional revisions. Practice provides the immediate context in which tentative theories are tested for their problem-solving capacities. The central features of error elimination are therefore testing (or criticism) and the revision of a tentative theory so that it survives tests, or solves the problem or enjoys greater empirical content by becoming much more specific. Portfolios, functioning in a knowledge growth capacity, will either contain examples of how (TT)s fared against pedagogical problems, and how tentative theories were revised, or this will be revealed in an investigation of how teachers developed their portfolios.

The fourth, and final, element of the process is the identification of new problems, viewed in the educational context through the eyes of the revised tentative theory. In terms of the OKGF, the cycle is both cyclical and progressive, since the output of one cycle figures is the input of the next. The cycle can be expressed as $P1 \rightarrow TT1 \rightarrow EE1 \rightarrow P2$ (Chitpin, 2003; Evers & Chitpin, 2003; Chitpin, 2006; Chitpin & Simon, 2006). Epistemically progressive trajectories of theorized practice will therefore be successive clusters of problems and solutions that travel through the temporally extended succession of frames.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The six participants in this study were from an Ontario School District, Canada. They ranged from 5 to 10 years of teaching experience and from 32 to 47 years of age. The participants were provided with an example of how a completed OKGF template would look like and were instructed to use the OKGF template called "Summary of Evidence of Knowledge Growth" that was made up of five (5) columns and three (3) rows to document their reflections for one semester. The

completed OKGF template was intended to illustrate a given problem for each cycle, a theory use to solve the identified problem and how the theory was applied to test its refutation. We have used Chris as an illustrative example to approximate the other participants' reflections as modeled by the OKGF. Chris was in her seventh year of teaching. She has taught various grades at the elementary level. At the time of the study, she was teaching a regular Grade Four class with her own French in a K-5 school. She joined the teaching profession after completing her Bachelor of Education.

3.2 Data Collection and analysis

The interview information and participants' portfolios were examined closely to identify problems, tentative theories, and processes for the detection and elimination of error in dealing with problems of practice. Each participant's experience through the interview question was treated as a comprehensive case in and of itself. The data gathered were for the authors to learn as much as possible about the contextual variables because these variables might have a bearing on the case.

The data for each participant were analyzed as six individual cases first, and then the cases were cross-analyzed in an attempt "to build a general explanation that fits each of the individual cases, even though the cases will vary in their details" (Yin, 1994, p. 112). In the following paragraphs, an analysis of the Chris' data is used as an example to demonstrate evidence of teachers' reflection using the OKGF (see Table 1).

4. Results

Chris starts with the issue of how to enhance her professional knowledge, proceeds from there to formulating her tentative theory and then tests her theory to solve her problems. It is interesting to note that in the process of evaluating her theory, which is always critical (as its aim is to discover and eliminate error), like all teachers in the study, Chris chooses to use a situational analysis which according to OKGF means a certain kind of tentative explanation of some human action which appeals to the situation in which Chris finds herself. She says:

...[D]ocumenting and reflecting on where I am as a teacher and where I want to go by means of constructing a portfolio. And sharing my portfolio with my principal to get feedback as to how well I am doing. Asking my principal to visit my class to give me feedback.

Table 1
Summary of evidence of Knowledge Growth for Chris

| Cycle 1 | Cycle 2 | Cycle 3 | Cycle 4 | Cycle 5 |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| P1: How to enhance her professional knowledge? | P2: How can her Language Arts Program be improved so that students do more writing? | P3: How can students be put at the center of the learning process? | P4: How can the practice of regular re-reading be promoted with students? | P5: How can students interpersonal skills be improved so as to etc. |
| TT1: This is achieved by documenting and reflecting on practice using a portfolio. | TT2: This is achieved by implementing and measuring expected outcomes. | TT3: This is achieved by adopting a constructivist approach to learning, one that also asks students to write about what they would like to learn and how this can occur. | TT4: This is achieved by changing the environment so they can write with their image of a successful writer in mind. Opportunities were provided to bring this about. | TT5: |
| EE1: Principal, whose advice is sought, suggests a more targeted approach. | EE2: Feedback from students (and Principal) suggested the need for a more collaborative approach to student learning. | EE3: Feedback from students suggests that much more re-reading of their work by students was required. | EE4: Evidence suggests that students lack interpersonal skills necessary to take advantage of the changes in classroom environment. | |

Chris explained how and why she came up with the ideas, although we need to admit that no creative action can be fully explained. She tried to conjecturally provide an idealized explanation for the problem she identified. And in the process of implementing the suggestions offered by her principal, she decided to focus on one area of her professional growth and that was how to improve her Language Arts Program, particularly, "How do I get my students to write?"

It appears that Chris has the concept of pedagogical content knowledge, which has to do with knowledge of curriculum and knowledge of strategies and representations available "for teaching particular subject matter" (Grossman, 1990, p. 9), since she can recall this information for use in the classroom. Her tentative theory was to:

...come up with a list of strategies for implementing and measuring the expected outcomes and share the list with my principal. And then reflect on the lessons delivered.

In self-assessing the delivery of her lessons, that is, through error elimination exercise, Chris understands that the situation is more complex than just implementing the strategies and reflecting on them, since the information obtained from Chris suggests that she needs to incorporate in her lessons her own views of the students whom she is teaching and her ideas about the nature

of learning. She decides to refine her tentative theory to include the collaborative view of learning.

Reflecting on what my students did by writing about their work. And asking my students for feedback by asking them to write about what they liked to learn and what they would like to see changed in the lessons. This way, I get feedback from the kids.

She needs to convince her students that they have unique, worthwhile, and important ideas that deserve to be shared and recorded. She says:

I would ask the kids to look at their samples of writing and to reflect on them and share them with the class. This way, they feel valued and respected.

Through obtaining feedback from her students, her error elimination strategy, she sees the need for her students to reread their work in progress, to reach the place where their writing is going well. In other words, her students need to be provided with an environment where they can write with an image of a successful writer in mind.

The practical theory underlying Chris' tentative theory is expressed as follows:

If I listen to the experiences of my students, and then help them translate into words, then they should be able to do that whenever they write because the process provides model, permission and opportunity.

Chris' tentative theory is that her students will learn under appropriate circumstances by engaging them in the construction of their own knowledge. She therefore, sets about developing activities that allow her students to do just that. Opportunities are thus provided for her students to respond frequently in class, and she is able to monitor what her students are doing in response to the activity and what they are thinking. In the process of involving her students, Chris finds that she needs to work on her students' interpersonal skills and attitudes, that is, on social skills.

My portfolio helps me reflect on my practice. It helps me see what I do well and what I need to further develop. It helps me because I never stop thinking about my practice. This is how I found out that I needed to work on the social skills of my students.

The data obtained from Chris reveal that constructing a portfolio for documenting her professional growth or professional knowledge has enabled her to refine her tentative theories while monitoring her students' progress. The data also shows that reflecting on her practice and seeking feedback from her principal and students allow her to change her tentative theories to consider possible modifications through error elimination in the implementation of her lessons or the store of ideas available, and to take action to facilitate change in her students as they work on their assignments.

5. Discussion

The rich description of Chris' reflective experience as analyzed through her portfolio and interview responses provides evidence of a potential successful use of the OKGF with the general teacher population. The constructivist stance taken by Chris who places her students at the centre of the classroom is reflective of a reference to an actual tentative theory. Chris' tentative theory is that if her teaching can help students see that they have "something worthwhile to contribute and listen to", then they have some reason to begin paying attention to their writing. She wants to emphasize that writing is a personal activity; it is an expression of one's unique voice (Berlin, 1982, p. 772). Her referral to theory, however, is not typical of the other participants in the study who propose specific teaching strategies. This observation should therefore lead to additional studies focusing on that aspect.

Typical of the other participants however, is her use of feedback as the principal error elimination strategy. In fact, she used only feedback from principal, colleagues and students as her main source of error elimination. Although an acceptable option, the use of feedback may not be sufficient to refute a theory. The use of feedback by many of the participants in this study may have been a result of the use of feedback within an example provided to the group of participant when introducing the framework. Further studies should look into the effect of providing a variety of examples of empirical measures applied to systematically refute the tentative theory, assuming they fully understand the model, or into the effect of offering no examples at all to examine the breadth of error elimination strategies that teachers may naturally come up with in trying to refute their tentative theory.

However, as with the other participants' charts, there is evidence of knowledge growth in Chris' chart because each successive tentative theory is an improvement over its predecessor. In that sense, the sequence of the OKGF cycles would appear to be somewhat epistemically progressive. This is because each successive tentative theory is derived, to some degree, in response to criticism of its predecessor (feedback from principal that a more targeted approach be used), and each successive tentative theory is sharper, more definite, and contains a gain in empirical content by allowing a more explicit formulation of the conditions under which it can be falsified. That is her TT3 of adopting a constructivist approach to learning is bolder than TT2 of implementing and measuring expected outcomes. Her reflections are indicative of her potential to use theories given the appropriate training.

6. Conclusion

This case study highlights the merits and limitations of the OKGF model for modeling teachers' reflections within their portfolios and its potential as a self-directed professional development alternative. Although it offers some evidence for potential learning growth as a result of structured reflection, it also points to the need for focused initial training to encourage and help teachers to actively seek additional information regarding relevant theories of teaching and to design systematic ways to try to refute their theories. Only then will the success of the

application of OKGF in terms of epistemic knowledge development be a sound self-directed professional development option.

The study is different from the others in the field in that the OKGF model is applied to the teachers' reflection after the fact, with very limited information provided to the participants prior to the exercise. Also, it deals with practicing teachers rather than pre-service teachers who have ready access to theories, training, and models. The purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which practicing teachers' tendencies in their reflections, as expressed in their portfolios, naturally follow the self-directed reflective structure prescribed by the OKGF with limited prior or concurrent instruction. With slight adjustments, the interpretation of Chris' reflective experience could be used as a concrete and complete example for training future practicing teachers to formulate appropriate pedagogical tentative theories and error elimination strategies susceptible to refute them therefore leading them to epistemic knowledge growth.

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The Use of the Objective Knowledge Growth Framework for Developing Pre-service Teachers' Professional Skills

Marielle Simon¹, Stephanie Chitpin²

^{1,2}*University of Ottawa – Canada*

¹marielle.simon@uottawa.ca

²steph.chitpin@uottawa.ca

Abstract

Given that classroom management is a complex decision-making process rather than a simple implementation of procedures (Stroiber, 1991), teacher education programs must look into complementary ways to better train and prepare pre-service teachers in developing their knowledge base and their capacity to deal with classroom management issues. This empirical study argues that the objective knowledge growth framework (OKGF) (Popper, 1965; Chitpin & Evers, 2003; Chitpin & Simon, 2006) can contribute to the professional growth of pre-service teachers' classroom management skills. It reports the reflections of twenty four pre-service teachers' use of the framework in the context of classroom management during their teacher training practicum. The article first presents a brief literature review on classroom management and on the objective knowledge growth framework. A description of the methodology and the results follows. The article concludes with a discussion of nature and quality of the framework application by the pre-service teachers and implications on future studies.

Keywords: OKGF – Pre-service Teachers – Classroom Management

1. Introduction

Skilled teachers master a great deal of tasks, roles and functions. Perhaps the task that presents the greatest challenges for teachers is classroom management. Classroom management activities can take up to half of a teacher's total time in the classroom (Jones & Jones, 1990) and present a concern for all teachers, particularly pre-service teachers (Smith, 2000). In fact, teachers experience many incidents of misbehaviour during their careers and, for beginning teachers, it is often the prime obstacle to their success, leaving an unpleasant mark on their careers (Charles, 2002). Difficulties with classroom management can even lead to teachers leaving the profession early (Veenman, 1984).

A comprehensive literature review by Wang, Haertel, and Walberg (1993) on the influence of educational, psychological, and social factors on learning found that of the 228 variables they examined, classroom management had the largest effect on student achievement. The importance of classroom management was also evident among student teachers in the research literature as well. For example, in a review of articles that referred specifically to problems experienced by teachers, Smith (2000) noted that "practically every study cited in this review indicated student teachers were concerned with classroom management" (p.633).

Although definitions of classroom management vary, they can generally be summarized as "actions taken by the teacher to establish order, engage students, or elicit cooperation" (Emmer & Stough, 2001, p.103). They normally include a number of related issues such as time management, managing difficult students, establishing authority, control and respect, minimizing disrupting behaviours, etc. Despite the wide interest in the topic and agreement on its importance, it appears that classroom management issues may not be addressed adequately in the research literature or in pre-service teacher training programs. "The lack of recent empirical evidence has left educators without clear direction and understandings of what knowledge and practices teachers utilize in creating and managing socially complex learning environments" (Martin, 2004, p.406). Borko and Putnam (1996) explain that, in their studies on teaching, many researchers emphasize subject matter knowledge and the instructional aspects of teaching rather than issues relating to classroom management, despite it being considered "a prerequisite for effective instruction and...the most fundamental and difficult task for teachers to perform" (Ballard, 2002, p.2).

Given that managing a group of students is not an easy or straightforward process for teachers and uncertainty can interfere with novice teachers' capacity to apply the knowledge and skills they have learned in their teacher education programs (Floden & Clark, 1988), the objective knowledge growth framework can play an important role in that area because it provides pre-service teachers with a structured process that takes into account the complexities and challenges of classroom management. The framework promotes reflection, which can result in higher pedagogical reasoning, a greater sense of responsibility towards students, and improved self-perception as a problem-solver among pre-service teachers (Stoiber, 1991).

2. Objective Knowledge Growth Framework

The objective knowledge growth framework is based on Popper's theory of rational criticism (1979). This view attests that one can never prove theories at all, but rather works by disproving or refuting hypotheses drawn from them. Further, the theories must be phrased in such a way that it is possible to devise ways of testing them. This is how it works. We start with a problem or a difficulty. Since we have a vague idea of what the problem is about, we produce a solution or theory to that might not master the problem completely. In order to know if the solution/theory works for this particular problem, we put it to the test, that is, we use it to solve the problem. It is by criticizing it that we can come to understand the problem. To understand the problem means to understand the difficulties; and to understand the difficulties means to understand why it is not easily soluble, why the more obvious solutions do not work. By criticizing the theories or solutions we find out why they do not work. This way, we become acquainted with the problem, and may proceed from bad solutions to better ones provided that we have the creative ability to produce new guesses, and more new guesses. This is what we mean by working on a problem. When we work on a problem long enough, we can begin to know it, understand it, in the sense that we know what kind of guess or conjecture or hypothesis will not do at all and what kind of requirement would have to be met

in order to solve it. Popper's theory of rational criticism purports that individuals engage with their environment on three levels: World 1, World 2 and World 3. World 1 is the physical world; World 2 is the world of mental states and of subjective or personal experiences; and World 3 is the world of ideas. World 2, which is the world of subjective or personal experiences can interact with each of the other two Worlds. Worlds 1 and 3, on the other hand only interact with one another through the intervention of World 2. World 3 is the world of objective knowledge and consists of hypotheses, theories, arguments, and open problems. It is one of the most important man-created universes, yet it is largely autonomous (Magee 1985). It is important to note that like Popper (1959), we believe that hypotheses can be originated from many different sources such as creative intuition and everyday experiences and these hypotheses can be formulated and tested in the classroom by teachers. These hypotheses are no less valid or scientific than those formulated by researchers in the laboratory (Rolfe, 2006).

For pre-service teachers' experiences, acquired during their practica, a psychological World 2 process, to be epistemologically progressive and to conform to the demands of knowledge growth, they must mirror the Popper's schema: $P1 \rightarrow TT1 \rightarrow EE1 \rightarrow P2$. Here, 'P1' represents an original problem confronting a teacher, for example 'How to get students to listen while lessons are in progress?' 'TT1' represents a tentative theory or a hypothesis that is generated and proposed by the teacher to resolve the identified problem, such as 'addressing the classroom students with a louder voice'. 'EE1' stands for 'error elimination', especially by way of critical reflection and discussion after applying the theory to practice. We can learn from the result of applying the tentative theory to find the flaw in it and to refute it. In other words, 'EE1' represents 'applying the tentative theory every time students disrupt a lesson in progress for a whole week and keeping track of the number of disruptions in a week. If there is no change in frequency of disruption, then the theory fails'. If this is the case then the teacher continues to work to resolve her identified problem by proposing or reformulating the problem 'P2'. The teacher's knowledge thus evolves through the process of eliminating theories that are unfit and moves on to propose new ones (Chitpin & Simon, 2006).

The framework supports research findings on the need to connect knowledge of classroom management theory with the practical application of classroom management (Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998). As Emmer & Stough (2001) explain: "Developing understanding about classroom management... requires experience in classroom contexts to be pragmatic; that is, to be integrated into the network of scripts, expectations, and routines that the teacher will utilize in the classroom" (p.110). Using the objective knowledge growth framework in real-world settings, and having the opportunity to experience the consequences of their choices during their practicum, can provide pre-service teachers with an effective combination of conditions for developing their knowledge base in the area of classroom management (Chitpin, 2003, 2006; Chitpin & Evers, 2005; Chitpin & Simon, 2006; Evers & Chitpin, 2003).

3. Methodology

Data for this study were collected during a Fall section in the Curriculum and Assessment course, offered as part of an eight-month Bachelor of Education in an Ontario, Canada University. In the Fall Semester, pre-service teachers spend two days per week for two weeks observing in a classroom. They then spend two days per week for three weeks working with individual students or a small group of students in a classroom, and finally they do a four-week practicum.

Twenty-four pre-service teachers enrolled in the course were to document their knowledge building experience in solving teaching related problems. The participants were provided with opportunities to actively engage in testing their tentative theories in a variety of teaching contexts both within the course and during their practicum. They were first introduced to the framework at the beginning of the Fall Semester where they were to read the article "From uncertainty to knowledge growth through individual reflection" (Evers & Chitpin, 2003). They were also involved in a 3.5 hour session discussions on how teachers in the study formulated their tentative theories based on the problems that they have identified. Each participant was encouraged to complete five (5) objective knowledge cycles using the template described in Evers and Chitpin, 2003.

The students shared their work for the research purposes. They were between the ages of 24 to 45. There were 6 men and 18 women and they were part of the primary/junior division (k-6). Half of the participants entered the Bachelor of Education program after completing an undergraduate degree. The other half enrolled in the Faculty of Education after being in the workforce for several years as teaching assistants, sales clerks, and office workers. The assignment was analyzed principally in terms of the nature of classroom management issues identified and a typical chart per issue was further described to get a sense of growth across the OKGF cycles.

4. Results

Out of the 24 pre-service teachers that documented their use of the objective knowledge framework, 19 added one more cycle than the five cycles that were required for the assignment. Four pre-service teachers documented seven (7) cycles and one participant documented eight (8) cycles.

In closer examination of the documented cycles, three categories of issues were identified: (1) minimizing class disruptions, (2) getting one or a few students to behave and (3) having control/authority in the classroom. The data reveal that pre-service teachers worked through the identified categories consistently as documented in their successive Popper cycles. In the following paragraphs, we describe, for each of the generic categories of issues, the typical use of the OKGF by three respective participants.

4.1 Minimizing Class Disruptions

Ten pre-service teachers identified minimizing class disruptions as their first problem (P1). The successive tentative theories of most of the pre-service teachers in this group was focused on either getting all the students to comply, or getting students to comply fully. Joan's response typifies the responses of other pre-service teachers in this category in that she focused on all students (See Table 1). She explains:

These students love to share. They speak out, often forgetting to raise their hand, chat with the person sitting next to them, and they also have difficulty keeping their hands to themselves.

Joan's case is also more complete, thorough, and relevant to the topic compared to the other in this category.

Joan wanted to work on better managing the transition time when students came in from outside as her initial problem (P1). Her tentative theory was to stop and wait until the whole class came in quietly, a tentative theory (TT1) that revolves around a commonly used strategy for gaining students' attention. When she put the theory to the test, that is, she discovered that her method was somewhat unsuccessful as it took far too long to be effective in this situation and a great amount of time was wasted. She therefore decided to eliminate this option or "error" (EE1).

Joan then revised her problem (P2), which was to get students' attention quickly without wasting time. In fact, she had incorporated the knowledge she gained from testing her first tentative theory (TT1). She produced a second tentative theory (TT2), that of clapping a rhythm to control their attention. She said: "The idea behind this is that the students stop immediately in order to clap back. The teacher therefore knows that she has their full attention". While she did appear to have some success with her tentative theory (TT2), her theory did not fully address the issue of student attention during circle time since some of her students were still speaking out of turn (EE2).

Table 1
Joan's Objective Knowledge Growth Chart

| Cycle #1 | Cycle #2 | Cycle #3 | Cycle #4 | Cycle #5 | Cycle #6 |
|--|---|---|---|---|--|
| P1: How to get the students to be attentive during circle time. | P2: How can students' attention be obtained quickly during circle time, without wasting time? | P3: How can the students sit at circle time without speaking out of turn? | P4: How can the students move from circle time to their desks without talking and wasting time? | P5: How can every student complete a smooth transition? | P6: How can interest in the transition song be maintained? |
| TT1: This is achieved by stopping and waiting quietly until everyone | TT2: This is achieved by clapping hands in a rhythm and having the | TT3: This is achieved by introducing the talking feather. Students can | TT4: This is achieved by rewarding points to the first group that | TT5: This is achieved by singing a "transition song" as a group while | |

| | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|--|
| notices, and is ready to continue. | students repeat the clapped rhythm. | only talk when holding the feather. | is settled and ready to begin. | walking to their next destination. |
| EE1: Feedback from students reveals that a sufficient amount of time is wasted. | EE2: Feedback from students reveals that it takes a few claps before all the students are attentive. Students continue to speak out of turn even after repeating the clapping rhythm. | EE3: Feedback from students reveals that the feather eliminates talking out of turn during circle time, but children continue to talk and waste time during transitions. | EE4: Feedback from students reveals that a select few are still having difficulty and talking still occurs. | EE5: Feedback from students reveals that the amount of time wasted has been cut down significantly. Students begin to lose interest in the song and act silly. |

She decided to revise her problem to focus on students' ability to sit down and not speak out of turn (P3). As her tentative solution (TT3), Joan introduced one of the talking feather – mimicking what she likely witnessed other experienced teachers using in other contexts to deal with the problem of speaking out of turn. She tested her theory during circle time and found that the strategy eliminated the issue of talking out of turn, however some students continued to waste time during transitions.

Joan appeared to have eliminated her original problem (EE3) of students talking out of turn during circle time as depicted in (P1), (P2) and (P3) posited in cycles #1, #2, and #3 (How to get students to be attentive during circle time?) to a broader or more general problem in cycle #4; that of getting her students to be attentive beyond circle time. She thus revised her problem (P4) to include getting students to not talk or waste time. She used a points system as an incentive to get the students to settle down quickly - as her fourth tentative theory (TT4). Through implementing the points reward system, she discovered that some of the students were still having difficulty following the rule of not talking and therefore discarded the theory's effectiveness (EE4).

Joan articulated her fifth problem (P5); that of achieving a smooth transition from the carpet to their seats. She explained her attempts to get her students to make smooth transitions from one activity to another as a challenge. She added:

This is a frustrating struggle for my mentor teacher. Upon talking to another primary teacher, my mentor and myself are reminded of singing during transitions. This is a strategy she [another primary teacher] uses in her grade one class and it works very well for her.

She incorporated the idea of singing a song as a tentative solution (TT5) to help her students during transitions. She soon discovered that her students were losing interest in the song, although the amount of wasted time had been cut drastically (EE5). Her newly articulated problem (P6) revealed that she was interested in directing her focus on maintaining the interest of her students

through songs. She even suggested that she would change the song every two weeks as a strategy for maintaining her students' interest during transition periods.

Pre-service teachers are often given a wide variety of views about classroom management. This information will be useless to them unless they also learn specific, technical skills grounded in theory for dealing with some classroom problems (Lasley, 1994) as shown in Joan's example.

4.2 How to Get One or a Few Students to Behave

Eleven pre-service teachers identified getting one or a few students to behave as their initial problem (P1). Their problems (P1) were all related to eliminating the disruptive behaviour exhibited by a particular student(s) and/or getting the student(s) to be more focused on the task at hand. In a few cases the student in question was labeled as having an exceptionality such as ADHD. However in the majority of cases, the student experiencing difficulty in the classroom did not have a disability. Timothy's example illustrated below (See Table 2) typifies the eleven pre-service teachers' experiences in this category in the sense that he dealt consistently with the same issue throughout the cycle. Timothy chose to focus on successfully finding ways to help his student, Nick to focus on the task at hand (P1). He described Nick as:

...a challenge to work with because he is very intelligent, but he lacks the attention span and the ability to work well independently. His quality of work is at or above grade level; however he does not have the concentration to complete most of his work on time.

Given this initial challenge (P1)), his first tentative theory was to use the hidden curriculum (TT1); that of enforcing the explicit and implicit rules of behaviour in the classroom in order to get Nick to sit and focus on the task at hand. Timothy put his theory to test by placing Nick's desk next to his, thus separate him from the rest of the class (TT1), but discovered that, despite this segregation and tight supervision, he continued to be disruptive in his behaviour. Timothy thus concluded that his theory was not working as planned (EE1) and that he needed to think of another solution.

Timothy's new challenge was to find alternative ways of getting Nick to complete his work in the same manner as the rest of the class. Like many novice teachers, Timothy did not understand how to manage the situation with Nick as well as he thought he did. As a result, tensions arose. Again, Timothy's example illustrates that novice teachers tend to focus on the entire class as opposed to isolating the situation to that particular individual. In fact, he said: "This could not only help him [Nick], but the others as well since the room would be much quieter overall". Timothy continued to refine his tentative theory through his error elimination process (EE2) when he found that Nick was still distracted and was day dreaming.

Timothy's theory (TT2) of modifying how the rest of the class did their work in an effort to accommodate Nick appeared to be a good one. However it did not completely solve Nick's problem, thus Timothy turned his attention to finding a

way of maintaining the progress achieved, that of “getting the room much quieter” while continuing to diminish the distractions. He refined his problem (P3) to reflect a theory (TT3) many novice teachers use, that of the hidden curriculum. There is a pervading but false assumption that attentiveness means that the material being presented has been grasped by the learner and that learning has taken place (Beynon & Geddis & Onslow, 2001). In fact, Timothy wrote:

The tentative theory for problem 3 was to continue having the other students work both individually and in groups and perhaps place the student’s desk near the teacher’s. This may motivate him to focus, work harder and be more attentive as a whole. Most children tend to react this way when placed closer to the teacher. This should not be done in an intimidating manner and it should be explained to him that he would be working close to the teacher in case he needs extra help. I do not want the child to feel punished or alienated by this strategy.

Table 2
Timothy’s Objective Knowledge Growth Chart

| Cycle #1 | Cycle #2 | Cycle #3 | Cycle #4 | Cycle #5 | Cycle #6 |
|--|---|---|--|---|---|
| P1: How to get the student to focus, stay on task, and work independently | P2: How to get the student to work independently without being distracted by his peers. | P3: How to maintain the student’s progress and reduce distractibility? | P4: How to maintain student’s motivation, focus, and concentration in the teacher’s presence? | P5: How to have the student work hard and focus but with less attention from the teacher or assistant? | P6: How to have the student complete work without the assistant’s attention, just the same as the other students? |
| TT1: Have the child work independently instead of being part of the group. Thus he can focus on his own, instead of being distracted by his peers. | TT2: Incorporate more independent work activities for the class as a whole, thus the student won’t feel isolated working on his own. | TT3: Place the student’s desk near the teacher. This may motivate him to focus, work harder and be more attentive overall. | TT4: Have the teacher’s assistant work with him, guiding him to stay on task, assisting with the work, answering questions or standing close by. | TT5: Have the assistant visit the student sporadically to ensure he is on task, but not stay with him. This way he is to have work done when she comes back. | TT6: Create a token system/ economy. Student has a progress chart with stickers or drops pennies in a jar when he completes his assignment in class or for homework. Student could track his progress this way. |
| EE1: Child was not focused and was easily distracted by his classmates. | EE2: Student showed improvements and worked quietly, however he was still distracted by others in the class and daydreaming at times. | EE3: Student showed more improvements initially, yet once he was comfortable in that location the teacher’s presence did not motivate him to work harder. | EE4: Student improved dramatically by having someone provide extra help and attention. He worked harder and focused, yet a lot of attention from the assistant was still needed. | EE5: Student showed more improvements. Initially he was upset the assistant was not staying but then he was motivated to complete more work so he could show her when she returned. | EE6: Student shows great improvements. He worked very hard and enjoyed tracking progress but still showed some lack of focus. |
| | | | | | Popper Cycle #7 |
| | | | | | P7: How to have the student work hard and focus without using a token system or tracking chart. |

His tentative theory (TT3) was met with mixed success as was his (TT2). He was using a theory of teaching that promotes transmission of knowledge as opposed to developing an environment for learning.

Timothy addressed Nick's lack of focus and motivation by seeking the support of a teaching assistant as evidenced in his (P4) "How to maintain student's motivation, focus, and concentration in the teacher's presence?" He was framing and reframing the problematic situation in context by basing his strategy on Nick and not on the entire class. He wanted Nick to get the individual guidance from the teaching assistant to assist him in his work completion (TT4). His idea was somewhat successful as Nick was working harder and being focused. However, Nick depended too much on the assistant's attention (EE4).

Timothy's target, which was getting Nick to work harder and be more focused. There was a shift of focus in Timothy's next stated problem (P5 and P6) from attending Nick's immediate needs in the classroom (focusing, staying on task, etc.) to finding a longer term solution. Working on Nick's increasing weaning from the assistant would be beneficial for him at home or in the future when help isn't present. In fact, he put his theory of creating a token system to the test, which enabled Nick to participate in the same way as the rest of his classmates (TT6). Timothy's objective knowledge growth frames included a seventh problem (P7) to show where he would focus his attention next. However, he did not attempt to put his theory to test as illustrated in Table 2.

4.3 Having Control/Authority in the Classroom

Only two pre-service teachers identified issues related to having control/authority in the classroom as their initial problem (P1). Both Paul and Francine posed their first problem (P1) in very similar fashions focusing their attention on establishing effective classroom management techniques. However Paul continued to focus on having control and authority in the classroom throughout his objective knowledge growth frames, while Francine's focus evolved to deal with problems associated with the two categories described above, namely "minimizing class disruptions" and "how to get one or a few students to behave". For these reasons, no specific pre-service case is reported here. Instead, general results on the nature of tentative theories and the nature of the theory applications across the twenty-four cases are presented.

5. Discussion

Joan, Tim, Nick and Francine, like the other participants in this study, did not actually refer to "theories" per se, but offered strategies instead. Joan was seeking specific strategies to control her students rather than developing a framework of skills congruent with her overall expectations of classroom behaviour (Beynon & Geddis & Onslow, 2001). Her tentative theories can be interpreted like that of many other pre-service teachers; Joan did not realize that many of her tacit practices she carried out had a planned effect on the learning environment. Further, like most other participants, Joan's tentative theories were

in general strategic solutions. Joan's talking feather and the points system are typical tricks of the trade, not theories.

There was also a tendency among the pre-service teachers who participated in the study, to move from specific to more broad problems, for example a pre-service teacher said:

During my reflection for my EE4, I made an important discovery. My focus shifted from the student to the rest of his classmates. It was no longer about helping him focus it was about eliminating his distractive behaviour. I found this to be a crucial discovery and I feel that it was discovered because of the use of the cycle" (#18).

In this instance the pre-service teacher realized that the student's behaviour did not only present a concern for the teacher, but also for other students. That is, the focus went from getting the student to pay attention during circle time, to finding ways for other students not to be distracted by the individual in question.

Further, some epistemic growth was generally found in the pre-service teachers' cycles. Timothy's case is used to illustrate this growth. As the cycles progressed, Timothy's tentative theories (TTs) became epistemically more progressive and sharper in their empirical content. For example, Timothy's (TT4) was bolder than his (TT3). The latter had a greater empirical content than the former because it conveyed more information. In other words, his (TT4) offered more possible refutations than his previous tentative theories (TT2 & TT3). TT4 was thus more "testable for the test is more precise and more severe" (Popper, 1965, p. 256)

Pre-service teachers may have internalized theories of classroom management from their teacher education program and from their own experience. However, they lack the complex skills needed to manage actual situations effectively (Beynon, 1994; Bullough, 1994). In addition, they may see their role as a transmitter of knowledge as opposed to those that develop an environment for learning (Feiman-Nenser & Buchmann, 1987; Johnson, 1994). Thus, we argue that the objective knowledge framework used in this study can provide a place for all teachers to frame and reframe the problematic situations in context.

6. Conclusion

The issue of classroom management is a part of teaching that is often contested and controversial, making the process of teaching and learning more complicated. Pre-service teachers seem to think that they need recipes or tricks to fix a variety of problematic situations in their classrooms. They tend to believe that they will be given these solutions in their pre-service year. In this study, we have argued for educators to use the objective knowledge growth framework (OKGF) to build the knowledge base required to tackle the complexity of teaching skills such as classroom management. Pre-service teachers were given several opportunities to practise their management strategies in borrowed classrooms. The OKGF allowed them to systematically explore and expand their theories and strategies as depicted in their growth cycles. Further, the framework facilitated their reflective processes in formulating and reformulating their classroom

management problems as solutions and applications. Further studies are needed to assess the sustainability, feasibility and transfer of this framework within a variety of classroom contexts.

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The Study of Motivation, Activities, and Affect Factors to Students' Part-time Jobs in Taiwan

Shao-I Chiu¹, Hsiu-Yuan Hu²

¹*Taipei College of Maritime Technology – Taiwan*
Schiu@mail.tcmt.edu.tw

²*Taipei College of Maritime Technology – Taiwan*
Huyuan5833@yahoo.cm.tw

Abstract

The purpose of this research is to analyze the motivations and activities of junior college students' part-time jobs and to investigate what statistically significant predictors of the working effects are. The sample consists of 438 students in middle Taiwan. And the data is analyzed by the Descriptive statistics method, t-test, Relation, and Step-wise regression. The major findings are as follows: (1) The percentage of students who used to work part-time is 100.0%. First working phase is on the junior college stage (81.7%). Majority of their monthly wages is below \$5000 New Taiwan Dollar (NTD) (37.7%). Their working period is usually between 12-18 o'clock (63.9%). Many subjects' working hours are between 8-16 hours per week (36.6%). And many of their working places are in factory (32.2%). (2) In terms of motivation of working part-time, what many subjects' selection is "getting working experiences" As to the effects of working part-time, many subjects think that the main benefit is "able to experience different roles of working" (90.4%). The main weakness is "lack of sleep" (55.7%). (3) Gender has statistical difference on their motivation, first working phase, and time period of working part-time. (4) Different working activities and motivations can predict the effects of working part-time statistically.

Keywords: part-time job activities - part-time job motivations - part-time job effects

1. Introduction

According to Havighurst (1964) about professional development, teenagers will need to learn planning for study practice and responsibility taking and to absorb work experiences for preparation of career and economic independence. For most teenagers, part-time working occurs to be major sources of job experience and disposable incomes. Thus, worldwide teenager's part-time working appears quite common, and much impacts on socialization of them (John, Paul, & Robert, 2000). The student with working experience may own different opinions about career values and money or economy from those without it (Huang, 2000).

Percentage of teenagers with part-time working has stably grown during past 40 years (Fred, Ray, & Jeffrey, 1997). Mihalic (1995) revealed that 76% American teenagers began to work for part-time jobs at 16 years and 92% of students held the kind of experiences during senior high years. Similar in Taiwan or Japan, Japanese High School Association checked 500 units largely hiring high-school students including 24-hour shops, post offices, family restaurants, and gas stations, and found 25% of students worked for 3 to 5 days during a week, and

amongst 70% worked on weekends. However, it was not so clear about working scope and prevalence of high-school students, especial for junior college students in Taiwan.

For part-time working, some may have major causes on life quality promotion and pleasure needs instead of getting experiences, especially for boys with high expenditures on dating and recreation and for girls on dressing and beauty things (Huang, 2000). From an international study about motivation of teenagers' part-time working, most pay for personal expenditures with salaries, few save as education funds, but pretty few contribute for family use. Besides, those teenagers incline to the self-indulgent materialism, with most earnings paying for clothing, audio equipment, movie watching, and food in restaurants (Steinberg, Regley, & Dornbusch, 1993), and few students even pay for drugs and alcohol (Steinberg, 1999).

According to Dusek (1996), restaurants and service industries were the major part-time work providers, then booking jobs and labor industries as the second. Santrock (2001) pointed out 17% worked at fast food restaurants, such as MacDonald and Burger King, 20% as cashiers or sales in convenient shops or wholesale markets, 10% as administration assistants, and 10% for labor jobs. However, except for some active functions for teenagers, part-time jobs may induce negative impacts, or even involve in troubles, frauds, or body interference, usually disclosed by news or broadcast media. Analyzed by the opportunity theory, part-time work may bring more disposable incomes for expenses and ease the aberration due to poverty; by the strain theory, work may strain opportunities in individual's aberration to meet material demands; by control theory, jobs may mediate controls from family and school, but induce aberration of teenagers without enough self-control (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). That is, teenagers may avoid aberration when material or demand met by jobs, however, may get negative habits or even aberration under insufficient self control.

A study about senior high school student's part-time working in the United States indicated that school did not provide ample capability and skill trainings for job searching in the society when students was growing, but part-time jobs however can help learning about the social roles as adults, thus conduct teenagers toward positive socialization experiences (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997).

Santrock (2001) also considered that part-time working was an opportunity for teenager's getting along with adults, who however did not believe an intimate relationship with adult colleagues. Mihalic & Elliott (1997) concluded from previous works that part-time jobs promoted students' knowledge for future working, and helped more mature job selection and individual independence, and smoother job seeking. Thus, part-time working may be significantly useful for work capability promotion of students, such as job environment, interview and job approaching skills, monetary management, and time arrangement, and impact on individual independence, maturity, confidence, and disciplining.

However, part-time working might decrease the individual's participation in family and peer activities, interaction between parent and child or peers, and control powers from parents. Especially for the female, working helps them less depend on family loves, enhancement of their self-images, less expectation to

their social roles, and makes them tougher and more independent and confident (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). Meanwhile, it might make the individual abandon their favor sports and leisure, less take part in school activities or even induce truancy, and indulge in smoking, alcohol, and drug under work pressure (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). Students would not be adapted to proper occupation role in adult society, could barrier their mental growing, and might neglect their school programs (John, Paul, & Robert, 2000). Santrock (2001) believed working time is the major factor, which is students might not be able to well prepare lessons and tests when working over 20 hours per week. Fred, Ray, & Jeffrey (1997) considered teenagers might think easy to earn money and then conduct improper attitudes, such as utilitarianism, materialism, or even disesteem others when they worked for tedious and unchallenging jobs, or with high payment. Steinberg (1999) pointed out that most teenagers had dull and uninteresting jobs, only very few had chances for independent judgment and self-decision, and some even faced accident threats under high pressure. The longer part-time working stayed, the stronger teenagers owned their individualism, protecting their benefits with a kind of cynic attitude and lacking concerns to the society or others around. Therefore, understanding activities of teenager's part-time working in domestic appears to be of consequence, including impacts on each life aspects and whether coincident to conditions in other countries.

Several previous studies provided that part-time jobs highly related to teenager's deviant behaviors (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). They could be skeptical for work value and tended to be interested in drug and alcohol, developing a utilitarian concepts and behaviors when enjoying better life quality at too early years with work incomes (Steinberg, 1999).

Some researches found that longer of working hours and the higher of work pressure, the more probability of drug and alcoholic abuse (Mortimer et al., 1996). Bachman & Schulenberg (1993) held a research with a larger sample of 70 thousand subjects and found teenagers with part-time jobs inclined to insufficient sleep time, not eating breakfast, lacking of sports and recreation, and even drug, smoke, and alcoholic addiction. Therefore, previous studies revealed that working time or incomes might be related to aberration.

Accordingly, part-time working becomes an ordinary life style for teenagers with growing impacts and probably sexual distinction. However, empirical studies for junior college student's part-time working are relatively fewer, especially lacking of discusses about motivations, activities, and impacts from process opinion. The research focusing on current conditions and facing problems for junior college student's part-time working based on process opinion is thus quite import, and expects to assist education and remediation professionals on part-time working assistance and consulting, including the following concrete objectives.

1. Current conditions about motivations, activities, and impacts of junior college students' part-time jobs in Taiwan.
2. Whether motivations and activities are statistically correlated with each other.
3. Whether motivations and activities are significantly predictive for impacts.

2. Design for the Research

2.1 Research Design

The research will focus on levels of motivation, activities, and impacts, and mutual relationship in junior college students' part-time working, shown as Figure 1.

As shown in Figure 1, the research will firstly apply the descriptive statistics as research method to calculate times and percentage of sub-issues in each level, and rank them to understand general conditions in college student's part-time working. Then, exploring the relationship between motivations and activities, and prediction to impacts by both will be analyzed.

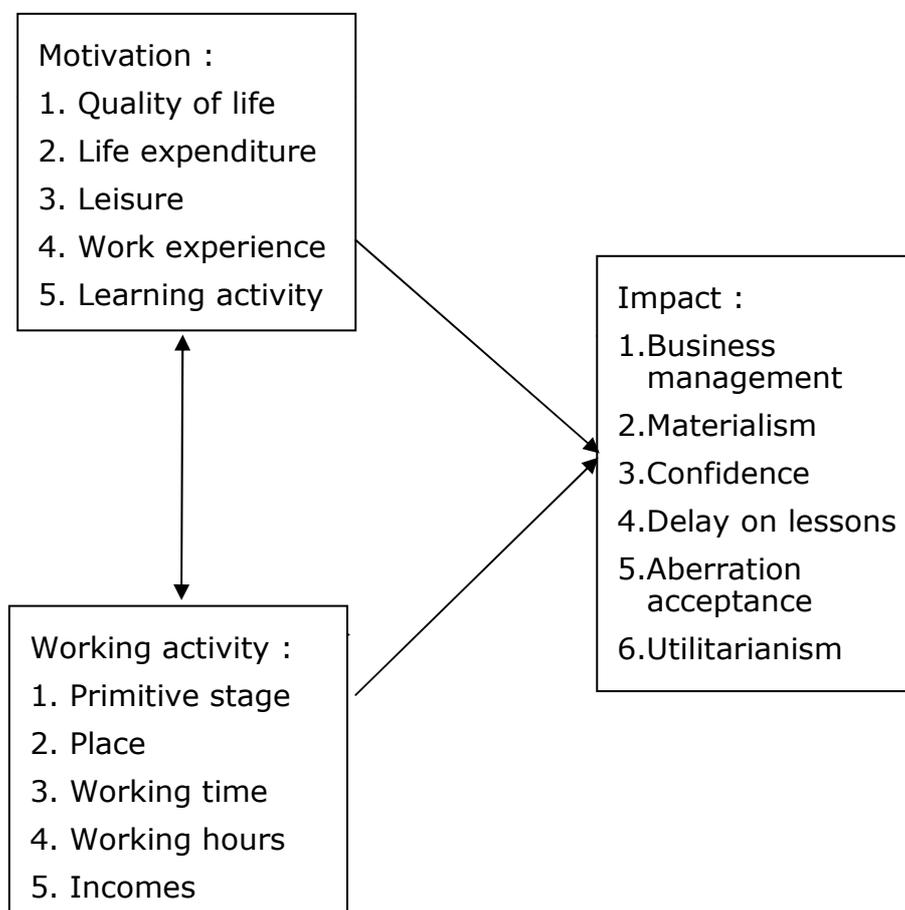


Figure 1: research frame

2.2 Sample

Respondents were 438 vocational students from five vocational junior college students in middle Taiwan. Approximately 49.2% of the respondents were females and 50.8% were males. The mean age was 17 years.

2.3 Materials

To achieve the above objectives, the research prepares the below evaluation tools for data collection and statistical analysis, and names all formal scales as "life experience and attitude investigation scales" to release subjects' worries. Contents and preparation are described as followings:

1. Part-time working activity investigation scale: The scale prepared based on relevant theories of Santrock (2001) and Steinberg (1999) mainly exploring current conditions about subjects' part-time working activities. The questions in the scale include major questions, such as "Whether has part-time working experience"? "At what age for the primitive part-time working"? "At what place"? "Working hours"? "Working time"? "How's the salary"?

2. Part-time working motivation investigation scale: The scale is drawn with relevant theories of Santrock (2001), and Steinberg (1999), mainly checking motivations for students' part-time working in a current. The scale includes 18 questions and is pre-tested with the intent sampling, and the factor analysis and reliability analysis are held for collected questionnaires with standardized procedure. The scale applies the Principal Component Analysis and draw out 5 factors, including "quality of life", "living expenditure", "audio-visual recreation", "working experience", and "learning activities", ably explaining 57.54% of total variations ($\alpha = .81$).

3. Part-time working impact investigation scale: The scale is designed with relevant theories of Mihalic & Elliott (1997), and John, Paul, & Robert (2000) mainly discussing impacts (positive—advantage and negative -- disadvantage) on students by part-time working. The scale is divided into 2 parts, with 11 questions for positive sides and 26 questions for negative sides.

The research proceeds the factor analysis for responds to questions in the scale, and applies the Principal Component Analysis and draw out 3 factors for positive impacts, including "work management", "material life", and "confidence", being able to explain 46.66% of total variations($\alpha = .72$). For negative impacts, 4 factors of "lessons delay", "aberration acceptance", "utilitarianism", and "human relationship" are drew out, explaining 61.67% of total variations($\alpha = .95$).

2.4 Procedure

The research firstly applies the descriptive statistics to calculate working rate, the primitive age, working place, working hours, working time, motivations, incomes, and times and percentage impacting on students in the current student's part-time working, and ranks based on times to understand general conditions. Secondly, the research uses canonical R to analyze the relation of working motivation and activities, and Multiple Regression to study prediction on impacts by motivations and activities.

3. Results and Discussion

The research mainly analyzes motivations, current conditions about activities, and impacts on life aspects in part-time working, and briefs the finding as below.

3.1 Current conditions about working activities

Table 1, 2, and 3 show the current conditions about vocational students' working activities in Taiwan. From Table 1, 100% of college students have part-time working experiences, maybe too high, but confirming the prevalence of adolescent working. Thus, part-time working rate of teenagers can compare with those in developed countries, which may be because junior college education focuses on profession and skill training instead of pursuing advanced study, and students have more disposable time. Secondly, college years become the pre-stage for student's socialization, and that students start to learn dressing and enjoys tourism and leisure life causes raise of daily expenses. In Taiwan, almost vocational schools cooperate with factories that prefer skilled students and provide higher wage level and more opportunities for part-time working.

For primitive age in part-time working, the research finds 81.7% of subjects start at senior-high school stage (first to third years in junior college), 14.2% at junior-high school years, and only 4.1% at primary school age, just as predicts in advance. For incomes, 37.7% of college students acquire less than NT 5,000 per month, the largest population, 24.0% with NT5,000 to NT10,000, the second largest population, and only 5.5% with NT 20,000, the fewest one.

For working time, 43.1% of college students work from 12 to 18 o'clock with the highest percentage, and 34.5% from 6 to 12 at noon, the second largest population. According to observation, most students prefer morning hours or after school hours, and only 3.5% work from midnight to early morning. That may be caused by the education system, students before the third year live in the system similar to that in ordinary senior high school, flexible for time arrangement, but with full class schedule and under night hour control when forced to live in dormitories. Working time is thus concentrated in afternoon hours after school, and the morning hours stand the second high, maybe caused by working preference in the weekend mornings. For working hours, 36.6% of students work for 8-16 hours, and 35.8% for less than 8 hours, total of 72.4%, proving less occupying ordinary life time. However, 12.3% students work for over 32 hours, and whether thus induces impacts is noticeable. For working place, 32.2% of tester work in factories, 31.5% in fast food restaurants, and 22.1% in convenient shops or whole-sale markets, total of over 20%. No-fixed place (8.2%), household (7.8%), sport or leisure places (6.8%), audio-visual

recreational places (6.2%) , and school and public institutes (5.7%) are where less students work. The result shows generally coincident to those of Dusek (1996) and Santrock (2001). That may be due to the requirement on skill and profession is relatively less in factories, and work contents are close to learning in skill initiated colleges, thus easily taken by students. The large number of fast-food shops, restaurants, or convenient stores provides more opportunities for students, however with high leaving rate, perhaps due to relatively low skill requirement and wage rate and fair environment which can better draw students.

Table 1 Abstract for college student's part-time working

| Activities | ranking | Selection | times | % |
|-------------------|---------|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|
| Rate | 1. | Yes | 438 | 100.0 |
| | 2. | No | 0 | 0 |
| The primitive age | 1. | Senior high school stage | 358 | 81.7 |
| | 2. | Junior high school stage | 62 | 14.2 |
| | 3. | Primary school stage | 18 | 4.1 |
| Incomes | 1. | Below 5,000 | 165 | 37.7 |
| | 2. | 5,000 – 10,000 | 105 | 24.0 |
| | 3. | 10,000 – 15,000 | 103 | 23.5 |
| | 4. | 15,000 – 20,000 | 41 | 9.4 |
| | 5. | Over 20,000 | 24 | 5.5 |
| Time | 1. | 12 –18 o'clock | 280 | 63.9 |
| | 2. | 6 – 12 o'clock | 224 | 51.1 |
| | 3. | 18 – 24 o'clock | 123 | 28.1 |
| | 4. | 0 – 6 o'clock | 23 | 5.3 |
| Hours | 1. | 8-16 hours | 160 | 36.6 |
| | 2. | Less than 8hours | 157 | 35.8 |
| | 3. | Over 32 hours | 54 | 12.3 |
| | 4. | 16-24 hours | 34 | 7.8 |
| | 5. | 24-32 hours | 33 | 7.5 |
| Place | 1. | Factory | 141 | 32.2 |
| | 2. | Fast-food shop, restaurant | 138 | 31.5 |
| | 3. | Convenient store, whole-sale market | 97 | 22.1 |
| | 4. | Private business | 75 | 17.1 |
| | 5. | Gas station | 50 | 11.4 |
| | 6. | Non-fixed place | 36 | 8.2 |
| | 7. | Household | 34 | 7.8 |
| | 8. | Sport or leisure place | 30 | 6.8 |
| | 9. | Audio-visual recreational place | 27 | 6.2 |
| | 10. | School & public institute | 25 | 5.7 |

Table 2 : Working motivations

| Order | item | N | % | order | Item | N | % |
|-------|--------------------------------------|----------|------|-------|---|-----|------|
| 1 | Acquiring experience | work 377 | 86.1 | 11. | Participating in outdoor leisure activities | 260 | 59.4 |
| 2 | Increasing savings | 366 | 83.6 | 12. | Supporting family's expenses | 255 | 58.2 |
| 3 | Expanding scopes | view 347 | 79.2 | 13. | Killing free time | 247 | 56.4 |
| 4 | Learning relevant skills | 327 | 74.7 | 14. | Shopping for dresses | 222 | 50.7 |
| 5 | Learning work with adults | 306 | 69.9 | 15. | Paying for house rents | 157 | 35.8 |
| 6 | Paying for life expenditures | 289 | 66.0 | 16. | For overseas tours | 137 | 31.3 |
| 7 | Purchasing textbooks | 284 | 64.8 | 17. | For audio-visual creational satisfaction | 133 | 30.4 |
| 8 | Complementary learning or leaning | 277 | 63.2 | 18. | For skin protection | 114 | 26.0 |
| 9 | Buying computers and audio equipment | 275 | 62.8 | 19. | Car buying and maintenance | 106 | 24.2 |
| 10 | Paying for tuition | 270 | 61.6 | 20. | For family business | 99 | 22.6 |

From Table 2, the motivations for college student's part-time working rank as getting work experiences (86.1%), increasing savings(83.6%), expanding view scopes(79.2%), learning relative skills (74.7%), learning to work with adults(69.9%), paying for basic life expenditures (66.0%), buying textbooks (64.8%), complementary learning or skill learning(63.2%), buying computers and audio equipment (62.8%), paying for tuition (61.6%), participating in outdoor leisure activities (59.4%), supporting family expenses (58.2%), killing free time(56.4%), and shopping for dresses (50.7%), all with over 50%. Conclusively, college students most emphasize working experiences, including getting experiences, learning relevant work sills, and then learning to work with adults, then paying for daily food or supporting family expenses, and at last paying for learning expenses, such as buying textbooks, complementary learning and skill learning, and paying for tuition. Two-dimension purpose on the promotion on quality of life or paying for audio-visual recreation, including buying computers and video equipment, outdoor leisure participation, purchasing dresses, audio-visual recreation, and skin protection.

Comparing to opinions of Steinberg, Fegley, & Dornbusch (1993), the research cannot all support, that is, purposes of working mainly relay on work experiences and paying for learning expenses, instead of personal material satisfaction and audio-visual recreation, although a large number of tester would like to meet personal needs. The reasons may include: First, five-year college is a skill initiated system, and types or characters of part-time working may support student's learning, that is, work experience, human resources, and job

opportunities after graduation are concerns of students, proved by results of table 1. Second, some researches reveal social and economic status of college students is relatively lower than university graduate students, and large population is not born in well-being families, thus working for life, such as paying for daily expenses and supporting family expenses, is proved in the research. Third, that most college students currently have plans for advanced studies, and colleges operate the skill initiated system encouraging students to acquire professional forces students to pay for complementary learning or extra skill training, as the other main motivation.

From Table 3, as high as 90.4% of college students believed "learning different work roles" was the major positive side for part-time working, and then "extending self view scope" (86.8%), "learning to manage emotion"(83.3%), "enhancing confidence"(79.5%), "being proud of work fulfillment " (78.8%) , "learning a mature work attitude" (73.5%) , "acquiring professional training" (73.3%) , and "enhancing education relevant experiences"(71.2%), with over 70% votes from tester. For negative sides, over half of students considered "insufficient sleep" (55.7%) as the top one, and then "less opportunities to get along with peers" (48.4%) , "interferences by work pressure" (47.0%) , "less time to get along with family" (45.4%) , "not enough time for less preparation" (45.3%) , and "unfixed time for eating" (42.5%) , cognized by over 40% students. And, the negative impacts, such as "being unhealthy" and "regression on school performance" are voted by less than 30% of students.

Generally, the research conducts the results matching those of Mihalic & Elliott (1997) and John, Paul, & Robert (2000), that is, positive impacts of part-time working mainly fall on working level, such as work role, view scope extending, and work attitude, probably with the previously said causes, then self growth, including self confidence and emotional management, and at last the materialism. For those, the research agrees viewpoint of Schoenhals, Tienda, & Schneider (1998) and John, Paul, & Robert (2000). That is, part-time working may negatively influence tester's sleep, participation in peers, family, and school activities, and school lesson delay, such as insufficient time for preparation and regression on performance. The most direct impact on tester obviously is decrease of disposable time, causing influences on all life aspects especially when the individual lacks of time management efficiency.

Table 3 : Abstract for impacts

| order | Positive sides | N | (%) | order | Negative sides | N | (%) |
|-------|--|-----|-------|-------|--|-----|-------|
| 1. | Learning different work roles | 396 | 90.4% | 1. | Insufficient sleep | 244 | 55.7% |
| 2. | Expanding self view scopes | 380 | 86.8% | 2. | Less opportunities to get along with peers | 212 | 48.4% |
| 3. | Learning to manage emotion | 365 | 83.3% | 3. | Disturbance by work pressure | 206 | 47.0% |
| 4. | Enhancing confidence | 348 | 79.5% | 4. | Less times to get along with family | 199 | 45.4% |
| 5. | Being proud of work fulfillment | 345 | 78.8% | 5. | Insufficient time for lesson preparation | 198 | 45.3% |
| 6. | Learning a mature work attitude | 322 | 73.5% | 6. | Unfixed time for eating | 186 | 42.5% |
| 7. | Acquiring professional training | 321 | 73.3% | 7. | Low participation in school events | 166 | 37.9% |
| 8. | Enhancing education relevant experiences | 312 | 71.2% | 8. | Low participation in school clubs | 148 | 33.8% |
| 9. | Promoting quality of life | 258 | 58.9% | 9. | Being unhealthier | 129 | 29.5% |
| 10. | Enhancing communication between parents and children | 190 | 43.4% | 10. | Regression on school performance | 125 | 28.5% |

3.2 The correlation of working motivations and activities

First, this study transforms categorical variables to dummy variables, and proceeds follow-up canonical R analysis. As show from Table 4, the three canonical R structures are acquired from the result of the analysis in the research. The first one reaches the low relationship ($\rho=.35$, $p<.001$) while the explanatory measures of dispersion reaches 12%. A variable of X group, also through the first canonical element (χ_1), explains that the explanatory measure of dispersion of the first canonical element of Y variable (η_1) reaches 26.42%. The overlapping is merely 3.25% with weak explanatory ability. The R between the second and third prototypes is relative low at less than .30 and the explanatory measures of dispersion are very slight at the same time. The ρ_2 is .06 and .05 respectively. The explanations to canonical R, therefore, should be based on the first prototype of elements.

Table 4: The correlation of working motivations and activities

| X variable | canonical variable | | | Y variable | canonical variable | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------|----------|----------|-----------------------------|--------------------|----------|----------|
| | χ_1 | χ_2 | χ_3 | | η_1 | η_2 | η_3 |
| (X 1) Quality of life | -.94 | -.22 | .07 | (Y1) Working hours | -.59 | .23 | .13 |
| (X 2) Life expenditure | -.41 | .62 | -.37 | (Y 2) Working income | -.61 | -.18 | .11 |
| (X 3) Leisure | -.15 | -.50 | .03 | (Y 3) Working time (6-12) | .04 | -.08 | -.63 |
| (X 4) Work experience | -.39 | -.44 | -.78 | (Y4)Working time (12-18) | -.03 | -.18 | -.64 |
| (X 5) Learning activity | -.41 | .30 | -.06 | (Y5)Working time (18-24) | -.39 | .07 | -.05 |
| | | | | (Y6)Working time (24-6) | -.33 | -.09 | -.22 |
| | | | | (Y7)Gas station | .11 | .30 | -.10 |
| | | | | (Y8)Convenient store | -.40 | -.19 | .08 |
| | | | | (Y9)Fast food shop | -.17 | .68 | -.18 |
| | | | | (Y 10)Factory | -.38 | .28 | -.17 |
| | | | | (Y11)Private business | -.01 | -.27 | -.31 |
| | | | | Exhaust variance (%) | 11.99 | 7.91 | 9.53 |
| | | | | Redundancy (%) | 1.47 | .49 | .54 |
| Exhaust variance (%) | 26.42 | 19.18 | 15.02 | ρ_2 | .12 | .06 | .05 |
| Redundancy (%) | 3.25 | 1.18 | .85 | ρ | .35*** | .25** | .24* |

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Four variables of purchase of articles for daily use, daily expenses, improving the work experiences and assisting learning activities in X variable are highly related to the first prototype of elements. On the other hand, part-time working hours, income, night shift, convenience stores and factories in Y variable are with medium correlation of first prototype of elements (η_1). This is an indication that, through the first prototype of elements, purchase of articles for daily use, daily expenses, improving the work experiences and assisting learning activities in the motives for part-time working have a higher correlation with part-time working hours, income, night shift, convenience stores and factories.

Based on the above, subjects may increase the part-time working hours and income in order to manage the expenses of articles for daily use, improvement of working expenses and payments for learning activities and work in the night shift or factories. As for the fact that expenses for recreation and entertainment in the motives of part-time work does not have a medium/higher correlations, it implies that the motives for part-time work of students at vocational high schools are mainly to manage the regular expenses such as daily lives and learning activities. The less part-time work for recreation and entertainment might be related to the purpose of continuation of education for most junior college students in Taiwan.

3.3 Prediction on work impacts by motivation and activity.

Table 5 and 6 show the prediction of positive and negative impacts by multiple regression. From Table 5, on positive sides, work experience ($\beta=.48$, $p<.001$) and learning activity ($\beta=.12$, $p<.01$) have significant prediction on work management. According to the β value, work experience and learning activity perform positive prediction, and part-time working has promotion impact when teenagers work for acquiring experiences or paying for learning activities. Quality of life ($\beta=.24$, $p<.001$), recreation and leisure ($\beta=.16$, $p<.01$), daily expenses ($\beta=.12$, $p<.05$), and incomes ($\beta=.10$, $p<.05$) also hold significant and positive prediction according to the β values. The individual may have higher expenditure capability and material enjoyment, promotion on material issues, when working for promoting quality of life, leisure and recreation, paying for higher daily expenses, and getting more incomes. Finally for self confidence, motivation variables, such as work experience ($\beta=.28$, $p<.001$), learning activity ($\beta=.16$, $p<.01$), and quality of life ($\beta=.13$, $p<.01$), and working places, including fast-food restaurants ($\beta=.11$, $p<.05$) and private companies ($\beta=.09$, $p<.05$) hold significant and positive prediction according to β values. Generally, part-time working will be helpful for work capability or confidence, an important experience during teenager's socialization, when working for learning (Mihalic & Eldliott, 1997).

Table 5 : Prediction on positive impact by motivation, and activity

| Variable | Prediction | R2 | R2increment | β value | t value | |
|-----------------|--------------------------------|-----|-------------|---------------|---------|-----|
| Work management | Work experience | .27 | .27 | .48 | 10.94 | *** |
| | Learning activity | .28 | .01 | .12 | 2.64 | ** |
| Material issue | Quality of life | .11 | .11 | .24 | 5.08 | *** |
| | Leisure and recreation | .19 | .08 | .16 | 3.50 | ** |
| | Daily expenses | .22 | .03 | .12 | 2.23 | * |
| | Work incomes | .23 | .01 | .10 | 2.20 | * |
| confidence | Work experience | .14 | .14 | .28 | 5.80 | *** |
| | Learning activity | .17 | .03 | .16 | 3.28 | ** |
| | Quality of life | .19 | .02 | .13 | 2.63 | ** |
| | Fast- food shops & restaurants | .21 | .02 | .11 | 2.50 | * |
| | Private companies | .22 | .01 | .09 | 2.01 | * |

* $p<.05$. ** $p<.01$. *** $p<.001$.

However, with purposes for materialism or quality of life, part-time working may raise material enjoyment, but increase consuming expenses. With major motivation on learning, part-time working will help increase self confidence, or raise quality of life, simultaneously for confidence. By the way, job contents may be positive for confidence. Private companies can provide multiple opportunities, and private business or fast-food shops give chances for students to interact with colleagues or customers, different to stable and tedious jobs in factories.

From Table 6, for prediction on negative impacts, the daily expenses ($\beta=.27$, $p<.001$), working hours ($\beta=.12$, $p<.05$), and working time (0-6 o'clock) ($\beta=.11$,

$p < .05$) have most significant prediction, and may have negative impacts on lesson delays according to β values, supporting the time decision opinion of Santrock (2001). Thus, part-time working will hold direct negative impacts on teenager's class performance, when working for paying daily demands and working over long time or at late night, eventually to cause insufficient sleeps or unable to concentrated in school learning.

Table 6 : Prediction on negative impacts by motivation, and activity

| Variable | Prediction variable | R2 | R2increment | β value | t value |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------|-----|-------------|---------------|----------|
| Lesson delay | Daily expenses | .09 | .09 | .27 | 5.94 *** |
| | Working time | .14 | .01 | .12 | 2.57 * |
| | 0-6 o'clock | .15 | .01 | .11 | 2.48 * |
| Aberration acceptance | Leisure and recreation | .03 | .03 | .17 | 3.59 *** |
| | Working time | .05 | .02 | .17 | 3.60 *** |
| | Audio-visual recreational place | .07 | .02 | .16 | 3.21 ** |
| | 0-6 o'clock | .09 | .02 | .12 | 2.61 * |
| Utilitarianism | Incomes | .03 | .03 | .15 | 3.09 ** |
| | Leisure & recreation | .08 | .02 | .13 | 2.67 ** |
| | Quality of life | .09 | .01 | .12 | 2.43 * |
| Human participation | Daily expenses | .07 | .07 | .26 | 5.59 *** |
| | Working time | .10 | .03 | .16 | 3.53 *** |
| | 0-6 o'clock | .11 | .01 | .11 | 2.31 * |

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Secondly, for prediction on aberration acceptance, leisure and recreation ($\beta = .17$, $p < .001$), working hour ($\beta = .17$, $p < .001$), audio-visual recreational place ($\beta = .16$, $p < .01$), and working time (0-6 o'clock) ($\beta = .12$, $p < .05$) hold most significant prediction, and positive impacts according to β values, correspondent to researches of Bachman & Schulenberg (1993) and Mortimer et al. (1996). Therefore, when working for meeting recreational needs and with fun attitude, students may say close to peers of aberration and gradually conduct negative action. The audio-visual recreational places may be the highly risky place gathering peers of aberration or partially illegal activities, a stimulation factor for teenager's aberration acceptance. Too long working hours and late night working will make teenagers use drug or smoke to spirit up, and highly hidden at late night hours will encourage teenagers to conduct aberration not allowed at normal periods, pretty coincident to control theory (Mihalic & Elliott, 1997). At third, for utilitarianism prediction, incomes ($\beta = .15$, $p < .01$), leisure and recreation ($\beta = .13$, $p < .01$), and quality of life ($\beta = .12$, $p < .05$) have higher prediction and positive impacts according to β values. The more incomes from works, the more fun for works; the more eager for promoting quality of life, the more possible to indulge in materialism and become utilitarian. Finally, daily expenses ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$), working hours ($\beta = .16$, $p < .001$), and working period (0-6 o'clock) ($\beta = .11$, $p < .05$) perform high prediction and positive impacts on participation in human relationship activities from β values. Teenagers may reduce interaction with

peers or family and influence their human relationship when working because of insufficiency to pay for daily life, and working too long or at late night.

Generally, the research better supports time-decision theory and control theory, that is, part-time working will directly decrease disposable time and time for lesson preparation and human interaction. Part-time jobs may lessen family or school controls on teenagers, and students may be addicted to negative habits especially when lacking of self control or closed to peers of aberration due to over-long working hours. With attitude of working for fun or working at audio-visual recreational place, teenagers may increase on aberration acceptance, and incline to materialism and utilitarianism, which education or remediation professionals should pay more attention to and prevent negative influences on students.

4. Conclusion and Suggestion

Part-time working is a way for teenagers to learn growing and socialization, but it is inevitable to impact on aspects in life, especially inducing problems without careful choosing of jobs. The research focuses on current conditions and impact levels, and concludes the following results and suggestions through statistical analyses and relevant discussions.

1. The research finds almost all college students with part-time working experiences. Thus, school may build up systems of industrial cooperation, pre-occupation training, and work opportunities cooperated with learning to pre-provide similar. Schools may plan for multiple and abundant occupation-initiated courses to facilitate students with a variety of skills and strong competition, and encourage students to learn skills from part-time working.

Finally, teachers and parents should have open minds to accept students' works, and definitely not to limit them, and have to stimulate them to well perform on academy and works. Schools shall provide essential information, consultant, and services for better preparation of students, and even organize relevant courses or trainings to promote communication and interviewing skills or enhance students' understanding about labor laws to more secure them.

2. The research finds 53.2% of tester starts part-time working at senior-high school stage (first to third year in junior college) and 37.2% at junior-high school stage, especially for the male with earlier age and higher frequency for working at late night than the female. Therefore, there should be more attention to the male students, and school and family shall root the consultant and remediation services, arranging courses about works or labor rights during junior high stage in order to pre-prepare for teenager's socialization. Most students have incomes less than \$10,000 NTD, however, money management teaching or even substitution management from school and parents to prevent students indulging in materialism or luxury life is still noticeable in education.

3. The major motivation is to promote quality of life, and some students prolong working hours for acquiring equipment, which even impacts on their lessons, human relationship, utilitarianism, or aberration acceptance as significantly

negative side. The research has proved teenagers working at the audio-visual recreational place may incline to aberration, especially the higher salary alluring more students, which may conduct a seriously negative impact for their future life. Parents have to control or even restrict children's working activities, and timely provide market conditions and related legal concepts to guard them. Since starting to work, parents and teachers shall carefully observe children's behavior changes and actively contact with employers to know about their works and to prevent them from any negative habits.

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Reading Strategies and Thai EFL English Major Students

Nuwee Chomphuchart

The University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce, Thailand
iamnuwee@hotmail.com

Abstract

Many of the studies on reading strategies use have discovered that readers spontaneously use different strategies in the reading process (*Chomphuchart, 2006; Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2000; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002*) and also, previous studies have come to consensus that reading strategies can help EFL students improve reading comprehension.

The present study is aimed to investigate reading strategy use of Thai EFL college students when they read English. The research questions are 1) What reading strategies are used by Thai students and 2) How often those strategies are used? The participants were male and female 156 Thai English major students. All 156 students were categorized as Above-averaged, averaged, and below-averaged. Instruments were Background Information Sheet and the Reading Strategies Questionnaire for Thai. Descriptive statistics were used and results demonstrated that the students used various reading strategies but above-averaged students reported using metacognitive strategies more frequently than those students in other groups.

Keywords: Reading Strategy - Reading Comprehension - EFL - College Students Metacognition

1. Introduction

In recent times, there has been a swing in reading research from centering on the product of reading, such as score on reading comprehension assessments, to the process of reading with meticulous attention to strategies that readers use to assist comprehension in various reading contexts (*Anderson, 1991*). However, researchers on reading strategies hypothesize that when readers come across with difficulties in comprehension, they need to make use of strategies to overcome their reading difficulties (*K1etzien, 1991*). As a consequence, one major means to encourage a higher level of comprehension in the readers is to coach them on the use of reading strategies. However, reading research needs first to understand which strategies skilled readers use and how they use them successfully.

1.1 Background and problem of the study

Several research studies were conducted to demonstrate that reading strategies help readers increase their comprehension (*Rusciolelli, 1995*). However, the number of strategies used while reading is not a sole indicator of the level of comprehension because some studies reveal that competent and less-competent

readers use the same number of reading strategies while reading (Kletzien, 1991). Reading strategy researchers agree that reading strategies alone cannot help the readers to build up their comprehension

According to the Thailand National Education Curriculum, a main focal point of the EFL classroom is grammar instruction. When these Thai EFL students enter the university, they are required to use more reading skills, since two main focal points of the EFL classroom at the university level are grammar instruction and reading comprehension. Without a doubt, the majority of Thai EFL university students have problems in reading comprehension. To be more specific, some of the problems are the inability to understand sentences, to get the main ideas of a text, and to provide supporting details. These are reading problems encountered by Thai EFL students regardless of text types they read. Consequently, it will be useful for Thai teachers to investigate how Thai university students use strategies and what factors related to their strategy use.

1.2 Definitions of Terms

Before moving to the literature review section, it might be useful for me to define some possibly unfamiliar terms used in this study.

1.2.1) *ESL or English as a second language* refers to the concept that “the language being learned is spoken in the community in which it is being learned” (Cohen, 1998, p. 4). Students learning English are also living in a community where English is the dominant language.

1.2.2) *EFL or English as a foreign language* refers to the idea that “the language is not spoken in the local community” (Cohen, 1998, p. 4).

1.2.3) *Reading strategies* are often used to monitor understanding and take action when necessary (Johnston, 1983). For the purpose of this study, a strategy is defined as “any overt purposeful effort or activity used by the reader to make sense of the texts he/she is interacting with” (Jimenez, Garcia, & Pearson, 1996, p. 76).

1.2.4) *Metacognition* is broadly defined as awareness of how one learns; awareness of when one does and does not understand, knowledge of how to use available information to achieve goals (Flavell, 1979).

1.2.5) *Metacognitive strategies* refer to intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading. During reading, metacognitive processing is expressed through strategies, which are procedural, purposeful, effortful, willful, essential, and facilitative in nature (Alexander & Jetton, 2000).

1.2.6) *Cognitive strategies* refer to the actions and procedures readers use while working directly with the text. These are localized, focused techniques used during reading when problems develop in understanding textual information. Examples of cognitive strategies include adjusting one’s speed of reading as the material becomes difficult or easy, guessing the meaning of unknown words,

translating to one's native language, re-reading the text for improved comprehension, using imagery, summarizing text into one's own words, identifying grammatical categories of words, used reference words, and identifying word families (*Barnett, 1988; Oxford, 1990; and Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001*).

1.2.7) *Support strategies* refer to support mechanisms intended to aid the reader in comprehending the text during reading stage. The strategies include underlining or highlighting the text to better understand it, or paying attention to linking words (*Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001*).

2. Review of Literature

To understand the relationship between reading strategies and reading comprehension, I will discuss literature relevant to a) Reading Strategy and b) reading strategies research.

2.1 Reading Strategy

Several researchers have defined the term reading strategy. *Garner (1987)* described reading strategies as a sequence of actions readers use while reading in order to construct meaning. *Paris, Lipson & Wixson (1983)* define reading strategies as deliberate, cognitive steps that learners can take to assist in acquiring, storing and retrieving new information, and which can therefore be accessed for a conscious use.

In reading, the cognitive orientation focuses on the mental activities of the readers that lead up to a response, and it explicitly acknowledges the following a) schema, b) cognition, and c) metacognition. Therefore, I will discuss the three domains in detail in the next sections.

2.1.1 Schema

Schemata are thought to be the key units of the comprehension process. The theory was used to explain and interpret a host of cognitive processes such as inferencing, remembering, reasoning and problem solving and served as a foundation for a large number of experimental researches projects in reading comprehension (*Anderson, 1994; Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Bransford & Jonhson, 1972*).

2.1.2 Cognition

Cognitive strategies are of great value to reading comprehension because they are directly related to readers' cognitive development and are necessary for success in school. According to *Paris, Wasik and Turner (1996)*, there are many reasons why cognitive strategies are fundamental to the development of readers. First, cognitive strategies allow readers to elaborate, organize and critically

evaluate information derived from text. Second, the early acquisition of reading strategies corresponds to development during childhood with the development of more cognitive strategies to enhance multiple cognitive abilities (i.e. attention, memory, communication and learning). Third, cognitive strategies are individualized cognitive tools and could be managed by readers to be used in different tasks. Fourth, they can be taught, especially those strategies that help reading and thinking, and fifth, they can increase learning throughout the curriculum. *Baker and Brown (1984)* emphasized that knowing how to solve reading problems and knowing how to use cognitive strategies are important in the reading process.

2.1.3 Metacognition

Baker and Brown (1984) define metacognition as awareness and control of one's learning. According to *Flavell, (1979)* metacognition is described as: awareness of how one learns; awareness of when one does not understand; knowledge of how to use available resources to achieve a goal; and knowledge of what strategies to use for what purposes before, during and after reading performance. Whereas cognitive strategies help a reader to build knowledge, metacognitive strategies help the learner to monitor and improve his/her learning. Therefore, metacognition is important to reading comprehension. Researchers have found that readers who are metacognitively aware are conscious of both their own cognitive characteristics and the task demands. They are able to select, employ, monitor and evaluate their use of strategies, and are able to recognize and repair comprehension failures. In other words, they have a strong sense of meaningfulness of reading, appreciation of the value of self-evaluating, and recognition of the need to vary their strategies depending on their purpose (*Palincsar & Brown, 1984*).

2.2 Reading Strategies Research

In this section, I will discuss research studies which have been examined the differences between good and poor readers; native and non-native speakers of English concentrating specifically on investigating reading strategy use.

2.2.1 Differences between good and poor readers

A study by *Kletzein (1991)* was conducted to find whether good and poor readers differ in their use of strategies when they read passages of the same and different difficulties. Findings showed that good readers appeared to have greater ability to control their strategy use by changing types of strategies, especially for the Independent level passage. In addition, good readers continued to try different strategies to construct the meaning of the text, whereas poor readers experienced a decline in strategy usage (both in variety of strategies and in number of times strategies were used).

On the whole, good readers adjust their strategies to the type of text they are reading and to the purpose for which they are reading (*Smith, 1967; Strang & Rogers, 1965*). That is, good readers are able to differentiate between important

information and details as they read and are able to use clues in the text to make predictions (*Olson et al., 1984*). Moreover, research findings suggest that good readers are able to detect inconsistencies in a text and make use of strategies to make these inconsistencies understandable (*Hare, 1981*).

In addition to studying the different strategy use of good and poor readers, studies by *Ikeda and Takeuchi (2000)* and *Oxford, Cho, Leung, & Hae-Jin (2004)* examined how task factors affected the students' reported frequency of strategy use. Ikeda and Takeuchi examined whether data collected through a questionnaire is affected by the presence/absence of an actual reading text and/or the difficulty of the actual tasks. The participants in the study were 97 male engineering-majors and 95 female nursing school students. With regard to their English proficiency as measured by a cloze test, the engineering-major students fell into the "Higher-Group", the nursing school students were in the "Lower-Group".

The findings demonstrated that the participants in both groups tended to report higher frequency of strategy use in the No Text condition than in the Easy Text and the Difficult Text conditions. In addition, Ikeda and Takeuchi's findings revealed that almost one third of the strategies reportedly used were affected by the difference in text difficulty. The results indicated that the task difficulty influenced the data collected through the reading strategy questionnaire for both the male and female participants. Also, the engineering participants reported an increase use of analytical strategies when they read the Difficult Text whereas the nursing students decreased the use of some analytical strategies. The one exception was on the Difficult Text where the nursing students used one analytical strategy related to the analysis of vocabulary more frequently. A study by *Oxford et al. (2004)* extended and partially replicated *Ikeda and Takeuchi's (2000)* investigation. The participants were 14 male and 22 female students, all of whom were enrolled in ESL classes at one of three institutions in large northwestern metropolitan areas in the U.S. The participants had various academic backgrounds, and their current majors included business, computer science, and liberal arts. There were three stages in the data collection: No Task, Easy Task, and Difficult Task.

The results indicated that the two proficiency groups were different in terms of the overall mean reported frequency of strategy use across the three task conditions. Results also showed that the proficiency groups differed in their reported overall mean frequency of strategy use only in the Difficult Task condition. In the Difficult Task condition, high-proficiency participants reported a lower mean frequency of strategy use than low-proficiency students. In addition, the overall findings revealed that with the easier reading passage, it seemed that the difference in overall strategy use between the low-proficiency and high-proficiency participants was not as strong. However, when the difficult reading passage was presented, it seemed that low-proficiency students had greater difficulty comprehending the text, thus leading them to use more strategies and with greater frequency than did high-proficiency learners.

2.2.2 Native/non-native English speakers' strategy use

Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) investigated differences in the reported use of reading strategies of English monolingual students and non-native English speakers when reading academic materials. Participants were 302 college students who completed the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS). Sheorey and Mokhtari examined the students' responses in terms of the individual strategies items as well as the three categories: Metacognitive, Cognitive and Support. Results showed that both groups differed significantly in the overall means.

Also, results indicated that both groups showed a clear preference for Cognitive strategies, followed by Metacognitive and Support strategies. The results showed that for the ESL students, there was no significant difference between male and female students in their perceived use of strategies. As for the U.S. students, the overall male and female means were significantly different, where the mean of the female U.S. students were higher. In addition, Sheorey and Mokhtari compared good readers and poor readers across the U.S and ESL/EFL conditions, examined their reported strategy use, and found that there was a significant difference between the two groups.

Unlike the aforementioned studies, *Shmais (2003)* focused on the effect of gender and level of proficiency on reading strategy use. Shmais studied 99 EFL English-major university students in Palestine and results showed that there was no significant difference for the two variables gender and English language proficiency. In the Shmais study, she used the participants' university cumulative average of the English courses (GPA), instead of the TOEFL scores, to categorize the students into two groups, less proficient and more proficient. Even though there was no significant difference, Shmais concluded that the results of her study indicated that there was a positive relationship between strategy use and language proficiency with the high proficiency students used more Cognitive strategies than less proficient students.

In addition to the *Shmais (2003)* that focused on the EFL students' reading strategy use and level of proficiency, *Salataci and Akyel (2002)*'s study focus on EFL students and the effect of strategy instruction. Their study was aimed to investigate the reading strategies of Turkish EFL students in Turkish and English and possible effects of reading instruction on reading in Turkish and English. The participants consisted of 8 Turkish students and the results revealed that strategy instruction had a positive effect on both Turkish and English reading strategies and reading comprehension in English.

3. Methodology

To answer this study's research question concerning what reading strategies are used by Thai EFL college students enrolled at a private university in Thailand when they read English texts, I used a survey research method.

Survey research is a non-experimental, descriptive research method. Surveys can be useful when a researcher wants to collect data on phenomena that cannot be directly observed (e.g. reading strategies usage). In education, surveys are

used extensively to assess attitudes and characteristics of a wide range of subjects, such as the quality of parents' opinions or students' reading habits. In this study, data were collected through the use of questionnaires. The method of data collection was quantitative.

3.1 Participants

The participants in this study were 156 male and female Thai students who were majoring in English in a private university in Bangkok, Thailand in 2007. During the data collected, all participants were third year students. The students were grouped into three groups due to their GPA. The three groups were above-averaged, averaged and below-averaged. Their age ranged from 19-26 years old.

3.2 Instrumentation

3.2.1 The Reading Strategies Questionnaire for Thai [RSQ- Thai]

The Reading Strategies Questionnaire for Thai (RSQ-Thai) is an adaptation of a paper and pencil Questionnaire for EFL Reading (Version 3.2) written by *Ikeda & Takeuchi (2000)*, and adapted by Oxford et al.(2004) as the Reading Strategies Questionnaire (RSQ). The RSQ-Thai was composed of 35 items, and responses were selected using a Likert scale of 0 (*almost never*) to 5 (*almost always*).

3.2.2 Background Information Sheet

In addition to the questionnaire, each participant was asked to complete the Background Information Sheet (*Oxford et al., 2004*). The Background Information Sheet (Appendix A) was designed to elicit general information about the participants' personal background such as age, gender, and academic major. The Background Information Sheet also included information on other relevant topics, such as duration of their English language learning, their GPA, and their self-rate of overall English proficiency. After participants completed the Background Information Sheet, they completed the RSQ- Thai.

3.3 Data Collection

The participants were asked to complete the Background Information Sheet and then the RSQ-Thai. They were allowed 20-30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. They were told that their names would be kept confidential, and that the data would be analyzed confidentially with the goal of finding group patterns, not individual respondent patterns. The participants were informed of the purpose of the study and the fact that they could withdraw from the study any time. Also, they were informed that there was no right or wrong answers for the RSQ-Thai.

3.4 Data Analysis

After the data were collected, they were compiled to an Excel database. The Excel file was imported into SPSS version 14.0 for analysis.

Level of strategy use. In examining strategies used by the participants on the RSQ-Thai, which ranged from 1- 6, I also identified three levels of usage as suggested by *Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995)*: high (mean of 3.5 or higher), medium (mean of 2.5 - 3.49), and low (2.49 or lower). However, the Likert scale that Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) used was from 1-5 whereas it was 1-6 in this study. In order to accommodate this difference, I transformed the scale using a proportional computation to maintain the scale percentage. For this study, the scale was high (4.20 or higher), medium (2.89 - 4.19) and low (2.88 or lower). These levels are useful as they provided a convenient benchmark which enabled me to make comparison of the participants' responses with respect to their reported strategy use.

4. Results

Results of this study are presented to answer the two research questions a) what reading strategies Thai EFL college students use? and b) How often do they use those strategies?

4.1 Frequency and Strategy Use

I first combined the mean frequency of reported strategy use to get an overall result of reported strategy use (Table 1). The participants' overall identified frequency of strategy use ranged from a high of 4.73 to a low of 2.93, with a mean of 3.64. This low end score and mean fall in the level of medium strategy use (*Oxford & Barry-Stock, 1995*). The upper range score falls in the high level category. This indicates that overall, the participants reported using the reading strategies at a medium level.

In examining the overall strategy use, the five highest strategies reported as used most frequently were items numbers 9 ("I start reading from the first paragraph and read all the way through to the last paragraph"), 12 ("I change reading speed depending on the difficulty of the text"), 15 ("I link the content with what I already know"), 22 ("I go over difficult parts several times"), and 26 ("If I'm having trouble, I go back to previous sentences"). Also, the five strategies subjects reported using least were strategy item numbers 6 ("I focus on the tense of the verb"), 19 ("I check what each pronoun refers to"), 23 ("I read aloud the entire text"), 24 ("I make a picture in my mind about what the text is saying"), and 28 ("I use slashes to divide a sentence grammatically").

Table 1
Overall strategy use for each proficiency group

| | <i>M</i> | Max. | Min. |
|----------------------|----------|------|------|
| Overall (all groups) | 3.64 | 4.73 | 2.93 |
| Below-averaged | 3.66 | 5.20 | 2.80 |
| Averaged | 3.38 | 4.60 | 2.60 |
| Above-averaged | 3.89 | 5.00 | 2.75 |

4.2 Proficiency Level and Strategy Use

Below-averaged. The strategies subjects reported using most frequently were item numbers 12 (“I change reading speed depending on the difficulty of the text”, *M* = 5.20), 22 (“I go over difficult part several times”, *M* = 5.00), item number 9 (“I start reading from the first paragraph”, *M* = 5.00). All of the items fell into the high usage group. The strategy item numbers 28 (“I use slashes to divide the sentence grammatically”, *M* = 2.8, 6 (“I focus on the tense of a verb, such as present tense and past tense”, *M* = 3.0, and 23 (“I read aloud the entire text”, *M* = 3.0) were reported using least frequently in the below-averaged group.

Table 2
Five highest reported reading strategies in the Below-averaged group

| Below-averaged | | | |
|----------------|------------|---|----------|
| Question No. | Categories | Strategy Name | <i>M</i> |
| 12 | Cog | I change reading speed | 5.20 |
| 22 | Cog | I go over difficult part several times | 5.00 |
| 9 | Sup | I start reading from the first paragraph | 5.00 |
| 21 | Sup | I mark important parts, using colored pen | 5.00 |
| 27 | Sup | I follow the line I am reading with my finger | 4.80 |

Averaged. the strategy items subjects reported using most frequently were item numbers 12 (“I change reading speed depending on the difficulty of the text”, *M* = 4.60); 22 (“I go over difficult part several times”, *M* = 4.60); and 26 (“If I’m having trouble, I go back to previous sentence”, *M* = 4.60) and these items fell into the high-usage group. However, the strategy items that the participants reported using least frequently were strategy item numbers 2 (“I consider what type of text it is”, *M* = 2.60); 6 (“I focus on the tense of the verb, such as present tense and past tense”, *M* = 2.60); and 23 (“I read aloud the entire text”, *M* = 2.60). All these items fall into the low-usage level.

Table 3

Five highest reported reading strategies in the Averaged group

| Averaged | | | |
|--------------|------------|--|----------|
| Question No. | Categories | Strategy Name | <i>M</i> |
| 12 | Cog | I change reading speed | 4.60 |
| 22 | Cog | I go over difficult parts several times | 4.60 |
| 26 | Cog | I go back to previous sentences | 4.60 |
| 11 | Cog | I continue reading even if I have difficulty | 4.30 |
| 15 | Met | I link the content with what I already know | 4.20 |

Above-Averaged. The results showed that the strategies subjects reported using most frequently ($M = 5.0$) were item number 2 ("I consider what type of text it is", $M = 5.00$); item number 17 ("If I don't understand something such as a word or phrase, I guess its meaning using context clues from the text", $M = 5.00$); and item number 9 ("I start reading from the first paragraph and read all the way through to the last paragraph", $M = 5.00$). All three items fell in the high-usage level. However, the strategy item no. 9 that the participants reported using was a reading strategy that Paris, Wasik and Turner (1984) characterize as a skill used by less competent readers.

Table 4

Five highest reported reading strategies in the Above-averaged group

| Above-averaged | | | |
|----------------|------------|--|----------|
| Question No. | Categories | Strategy Name | <i>M</i> |
| 2 | Met | I consider what type of text it is | 5.00 |
| 17 | Met | I guess its meaning using clues | 5.00 |
| 9 | Sup | I start reading from the first paragraph | 5.00 |
| 14 | Cog | I skip unknown words | 4.80 |
| 26 | Cog | I go back to previous sentences | 4.80 |

Strategy Category results: Metacognitive, Cognitive, and Support strategies

As Table 5 shows, the participants who were in the Above-averaged group reported using Metacognitive strategies more frequently than those students in the other two groups whereas the participants in the Below-averaged group reported using Support strategies more frequently than those in the other two groups.

Table 5
Strategy groups: Means of Metacognitive, Cognitive and Support strategies categories

| Groups | MET | COG | SUP |
|----------------|----------|----------|----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>M</i> |
| Below-averaged | 3.30 | 3.80 | 4.00 |
| Averaged | 3.50 | 3.20 | 3.50 |
| Above-averaged | 4.10 | 3.80 | 3.60 |

MET = Metacognitive strategies; COG = Cognitive strategies; and SUP = Support strategies

5. Discussion

5.1 Frequency and Strategy Use

The results from this study were close to those from that of *Oxford et al. (2004)* in terms of the strategy items the participants reported as used most frequently. In both studies survey items numbers 12 and 22 were reported as used most frequently.

According to the *Oxford et al (2004)*, these strategies are a sign of strategic reading behavior. These strategies utilize higher order thinking skills, and are planning-related strategies which they expect high proficiency readers to use. Also, the findings of this study show that the strategy items that the participants reported using the least were item 28 ("I use slashes to divide a sentence grammatically"), and item 19 ("I check what each pronoun refers to"). These strategy items were reported as used most by the low proficiency readers in the Oxford et al. study.

The results of this study are in line with those of *Salataci and Akyel (2002)*. In the Salataci and Akyel, the participants who received strategy instruction reported using top-down strategies such as finding the main ideas and summarizing more frequently. Those participants reported using knowledge of clauses and sentences structure less frequently at the significance level of $p < .05$.

5.2 Proficiency Level and Strategy Use

The findings of this study are not consistent with that of *Song (1998)*, who found that EFL Asian students rarely used Metacognitive strategies. Song concluded that the participants in her study tended not to use Metacognitive strategies which focus on background knowledge, the overall sense of a text, and its internal organization as a guide to comprehension. Also, Song stated that EFL students believe that they had to know all of the vocabulary and grammatical

structure before they could appreciate the whole text. Song implied that this assumption, formed in the process of learning to read English, becomes a barrier to become an effective English reader.

Unlike the *Song (1998)* study, the students who were in the Above-averaged group in this study reported using Metacognitive strategies more often than those in the other groups. This findings support *Anderson (1991)* that the number of strategy use is not a sole indicator of students' reading comprehension but whether they use the strategies metacognitively.

Results also show that the Above-averaged students reported using Support Strategies item number 9 ("I start reading from the first paragraph and read all the way through to the last paragraph") most frequently. This is not in line with what *Baker and Brown (1984)*. They mentioned that this reading behavior is not a sign of strategic reading. They concluded that proficient readers go back and forth within the texts. Therefore, a Thai teacher should be aware of this behavior and should start teaching to explore new and more effective reading strategies. In addition to the subjects' familiarity with being taught to use background knowledge or schemata, reread and go back to previous sentences are general reading strategies that have been taught in colleges across Thailand. *Kletzein (1991)* claimed that readers repeatedly utilize strategies which they feel comfortable with and do not spontaneously try other strategies.

6. Conclusions

The main findings could be summarized as follows: first, the subjects who were in the Above-averaged group tended to report using strategies more frequently. Second, the subjects used a combination of the three reading strategy categories (Metacognitive, Cognitive and Support) but the Above-averaged group reported using Metacognitive strategies more frequently than those in the other two groups. Third, overall, the participants reported using reading strategies in a medium usage level. In addition, the participants' unique cultural method of learning English seems to have affected the way the subjects reported using strategies. Before discussing the implications of the study, a few limitations of this study should be explicated. First, the participants were English major students and therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to other groups of students. However, the results can give us a beginning picture of how Thai EFL college students who were majoring in English use reading strategies. Second, the participants were asked to complete the questionnaires without an authentic text to read. Future research should be conducted assigning a reading task to participants to mitigate any effect that the without text/with text condition may have had on their reported strategy use by text condition.

7. Implications

The findings in this study have some implications for strategy instruction. From an instructional perspective, this study indicated the reading strategies that participants in different proficiency groups reported using were slightly different. Teachers, therefore, need to teach students to use different strategies successful

or above averaged readers use. As we know that metacognition is crucial to reading comprehension, teachers therefore, should incorporate Metacognitive strategies in their teaching when they teach English reading to Thai students. Thai teachers should start teaching and adding new reading strategies so that students have a wider variety of reading strategies. Having limited repertoire of reading strategies might interrupt reading comprehension and cause comprehension failure.

Also, Thai teachers can use instruments such as the RSQ-Thai, which is adapted to examine the strategies usage among Thai EFL students. While this instrument does not provide information about actual strategy use, it can shed light on the perceived use of strategies. Teachers may need other instruments, such as using actual reading passages with think-aloud and interviews, to gain solid understanding of what strategies students actually use so that they can meet students' comprehension needs.

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Appendix A: Background information sheet

Direction: Please complete this form.

1. Your gender: Male ____ Female ____
2. Your age: _____
3. Your school, college or university: _____
4. Your major: _____
5. How many years have you studied English?
6. What is your reason to study English?
7. How important is it for you to become proficient in English?
Very important important not so important
8. What is your current GPA?
9. What is your English GPA?
10. How would you rate your own overall English proficiency?
Poor fair good excellent

Reference

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Appendix B: The Survey of Reading Strategy

Depending on your reading strategy experience and needs, you may use different types of strategies. The reading strategies presented here are general. Not everyone needs the same kind of strategies. A low score does not mean you are a bad reader.

Before I read a text,

1. I use the title to help predict the contents.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
2. I consider what type of text it is, such as a newspaper article, a scientific paper, or a novel.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
3. I skim it first, and later I read for details.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always

While I am reading a text,

4. I pay attention to parts of sentences such as phrases and clauses.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
5. I pay attention to the beginning and the end of each paragraph.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
6. I focus on the tense of a verb, such as present tense and past tense.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
7. I try to understand the meaning of every word in a text.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
8. I translate each sentence into Thai.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
9. I start reading from the first paragraph and read all the way through to the last paragraph.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
10. I pay attention to sentence structure, such as subjects and objects.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
11. I continue reading even if I have difficulty.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
12. I change reading speed depending on the difficulty of a text.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
13. I read aloud the difficult parts of a text.
 Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
 always
14. I skip unknown words.

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|--------|
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 15. I link the content with what I already know. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 16. I try to understand the meaning of an unknown word by dividing it into parts. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 17. If I don't understand something such as a word or phrases, I guess its meaning using clues from the text. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 18.If I don't understand something such as a word or phrases, I guess its meaning using information I know about the topic. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 19.I check what each pronoun refers to. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 20. I underline important parts. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 21. I mark important parts, using colored pens or drawing stars. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 22. I go over difficult parts several times | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 23. I read aloud the entire text. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 24. I make a picture in my mind about what the text is saying. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 25. I try to understand the meaning without translating the text into Thai. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 26. If I'm having trouble, I go back to previous sentences. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 27. I follow the line I am reading with my finger or my pen. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 28. I use slashes to divide a sentence grammatically. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 29.When I cannot understand a sentence even if I know every word, I skip that sentence. | | | | | | | |
| Almost never always | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | Almost |
| 30. I predict what will come next. | | | | | | | |

Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
always

31. I pay attention to linking words such as 'however' and 'besides' so that I can understand the structure.

Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
always

32. I write down key words.

Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
always

33. I try to figure out the main idea of each paragraph.

Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
always

34. I read the comprehension questions first and then read the text.

Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
always

After I read a text,

35. I summarize it in my own words.

Almost never 0 1 2 3 4 5 Almost
always

References

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Building a Capability Development Model for Professional School Leaders in Thai Education

Koolchalee Chongcharoen, Peter Kell, Narottam Bhindi

University of Wollongong – Australia

kc703@uow.edu.au

University of Wollongong – Australia

pkell@uow.edu.au

University of Wollongong – Australia

nbhindi@uow.edu.au

Abstract

This paper focuses on developing a capability development model for professional school leaders in the modern Thai education context. The data reported in this paper are based on interviews of forty experts which were followed by a focus group of ten experts and stakeholders. Some early analysis of the data relates to the primary objective of the research: What are the key capabilities that Thai school leaders should have? The key theme emerging from the results that was considered most significant for this paper was that of the school leader's role in building collaborative school culture. However, the findings show that bureaucracy and hierarchy are major factors in the national culture which in turn is a key influence on the personality and character of Thais and have directly impacted on Thai workplace collaboration. In the "new work" of Thai school leaders, promoting norms of collaboration is crucial. This paper illustrates how collaborative strategies for school leaders based on Thai culture could be effectively developed.

Keywords: Capability - Leadership – Professional Development

1. Introduction

This paper explores the challenge of school reform and the task for school leaders in promoting and supporting such reform. Reform structures used internationally allocate significant authority and responsibility to decentralized schools while the expectations for effective schools have been raised (Dinham 63 and Caldwell 455). The focal point for these reforms is leadership capabilities and this paper will explore such capabilities in the context of Thai education. The paper will discuss research data on changing the nature of the Thai workplace to reflect a more collaborative approach, and reports on research on developing a school leader's capability in the Thai context. The model is broadly consistent with the emphasis on devolved and collaborative processes in school reforms and professional development proposed in Australia (Caldwell 456), New Zealand (Cardno 301), and England (Law 76).

2. Background

Siam was the country's official name of Thailand until it was changed to 'Thailand' by official proclamation in 1949. Thailand is located in tropical Southeast Asia above the Equator. Thailand is divided into 5 regions: North (mountains), Northeast (plain plateau), Central (plain), East (mountain and seashores), and South (seashores). The country is governed under a democratic monarchy. About 92% of the people are Buddhists and the rest are Muslims and Christians (Sawanpanyalert 324). In the past, Thailand was an essentially agricultural country. However, over the past few decades, it has undergone a significant shift from a mainly agriculture-based economy to one that is more industry and service-based and export-oriented. Thailand, like many other countries in South East Asia, has experienced rapid economic growth and substantial social change. It has been subject to considerable pressure to change its institutions such as education to become more responsive to the global economy and schools have been identified as a key component in this reform process emerging in the late 1990s.

The Thai government implemented the new Thai constitution and enacted the National Education Act of B.E. 2542 (1999). These changes pushed Thai education into a new phase of educational administration which required all educational institutions to improve educational quality and standards at all levels. Thai education had been supported by technical assistance projects from the international organizations such as the Asian Development Bank and United Nations Development Program. School reform was part of a national agenda and had become integral to the development of human resources and the revitalization of communities and cities throughout the nation.

One of the important changes relating to school reform is the professionalisation of school leadership and the development of leadership skills. Thai school leaders were identified as needing a higher degree of professional capabilities which include skills, knowledge, and attitudes to provide leadership to respond to the challenges of the future. Since school leaders' capabilities are greatly affected by globalization and change, this particular study attempts to distinguish and identify capabilities for a specific group of leaders and to thereby build a capability development model for professional school leaders in Thai education. This research explores these issues and looks at ways to improve the professionalism of Thai school leaders.

3. Research questions

This study focuses on the following research questions.

- 1) What are the key capabilities that Thai school leaders should have?
- 2) What forms of professional development are required for a capability development model?

4. Capability

Many researchers discuss the importance of capability and leaders' capability for school management. According to Michael Eraut, 'capability' has two meanings. One refers to the capacity to perform professional work; the other refers to a sense of future which can be viewed as a foundation for the provision of future competence which is necessary for professional work (208).

The definition of capability appears in many studies of organizational and leaders' development. It can be seen in terms of key clusters of good management competencies (Leonard-Barton 113) and the ability to deploy potential input from resources to enable achievement of a desired goal (Amit and Schoemaker 35 and Nanda 106). Capability is also referred to as being future-oriented capacity and focused on the strategies for acquisition of needed skills and knowledge to respond the future goals (Brown and McCartney 8) and having the capacity to take a role in leading change (Stephenson and Weil 9 and Fiol 693).

In short, capability is viewed as the key characteristics of good management that include skills, knowledge, and attitudes that enable a person to perform at a high standard in new and changing circumstances, and abilities to achieve future success.

5. School-Based Management

To cope with challenges from rapid change, schools worldwide have implemented education reform to develop more effective education systems (Cheng 3). School-based management (SBM) is one of the models that emphasizes decentralization and improves education quality by relocating decision-making authority from the central level to the school level (David 5).

Several research studies involving SBM have found that successful SBM schools require improvement through professional learning communities and support both within and outside the schools (Louis and Marks 26). Other evidence suggests that SBM cannot change in classroom environments and student learning activities (Leithwood and Menzies 340 and Murphy 123-129).

Although there is some evidence of difficulties and challenges in the implementation of SBM, it has created chances for schools to improve both the way they involve people and school outcomes (Cheng 3). Jane L. David argues that SBM fosters the involvement of principals, teachers, students and stakeholders in the education process and aims to encourage participative decision-making in schools to enhance students' achievement (6).

6. The data

The empirical data used for this paper are drawn from interviews with forty administrators in the Ministry of Education and schools. There were also interviews with experts at human resource development centres and universities. The selection of interviewees was based on breadth and extent of their

professional experience and their understanding of development and training issues. Additional data were sourced from a focus group of ten experts and stakeholders. Reviews of official documents were also employed as sources of supplementary data to support the interviews and focus group data.

7. The key themes emerging from the data

The findings showed that four major changes have impacted on Thai education: contextual change; the need for education reform; technological advancement; and the influence of new theories and practices. These changes suggest that Thai school leaders need to change in three specific roles.

- The role of educational strategic thinking
- The role of providing educational leadership
- The role of building and managing a collaborative school culture.

It is important to note that all three roles seem to be rarely fulfilled by both Thai school management and school leaders despite their importance if Thai education is to cope with necessary changes. To be effective, the new roles of the effective school leader require a new set of professional capabilities. This is now one of the biggest challenges for school reform, as has been summarised by Lawrence Angus:

Leaders have no monopoly on the development of organizational meaning' rather, everyone – 'whether they like it or not (73).

The theme that was considered most outstanding for this paper was the issue of the role of building and managing a collaborative school culture and the challenges this poses in the future.

8. Collaborative school culture

A central task for a school leader is to create and foster a culture within the school that develops collaborative working relationships for change among teachers, and between teachers and the school leader, teachers and parents, and teachers and the community. Effective school leaders will recognize that school culture change is one of their most vital tasks.

This study identified the need for school leaders to see the school organization from a broader and more holistic point of view. School leaders need to develop a "big picture" and be able to communicate that vision across the school community. They also need to be able to shape the school vision around the values, beliefs, and attitudes of staff, students and the community. One of the interviewees indicated what school leaders will have to do:

The school leaders will be the persons who lead the change. They will be professional managers. According to the National Education Act, they need to relate to the school outsiders and the insiders.

The quality of relationships is central to the reform process not least with teachers. Andy Hargreaves argues that the culture of collaboration in a school comes mainly from teachers but needs to be driven through administratively regulated, compulsory, implementation-oriented processes that are fixed in time and space and are predictable (195-196). Edward H. Seifert and James A. Vornberg observe that school culture is also a direct reflection of the community culture and that if the community supports, takes responsibilities in school management and also takes a pride in what the school achieves, then students will reflect that same pride in their academic achievements (91). Edward H. Seifert and James A. Vornberg add that the attitudes and beliefs of the stakeholders in the school shape the foundation on which the school culture is built (92).

One of the interviewees in the study agreed with these observations:

The other thing to be taken from education law is the parent and community networking. Not only the teachers and the children that the leaders communicate with, but also the parents and communities ...they have to walk in and assist us. In the past if they walked into school, it looked strange. We need to think that when they give a hand, they can support us in many kinds of things including being consultants, workers, facilitators...management resource supporters...they're very significant for school improvement.

According to Bruce A. Lane, healthy school cultures thrive in environments built through collaboration, trust, and care for all of members of the school and suggests:

The culture-building mode is not meant to imply that the principal single-handedly constructs the school culture. Rather, it is meant to describe the principal's effort to influence or shape the existing values and norms of the culture in a direction that best supports instructional effectiveness (92).

9. School-Based Management and Collaboration in Thai schools

9.1 School base management in Thailand

Consistent with the collaborative approach, school-based management (SBM) is the model of education decentralization that the Ministry of Education adopted to reform Thai schools since 1997 (Office of Education Council 59).

Research on the implementation of SBM in Thai schools found that most principals, teachers and board members were enthusiastic in developing their schools and tended to be satisfied with the operation of their schools under the new structure (Nenyod 14 and Gamage and Sooksomchitra 269-299). However, it also showed that some principals dominated the decision-making process and these principals and their board members need to be trained continuously in educational leadership and management so that the real objective of reform can be realized (Gamage and Sooksomchitra 296).

The shift to SBM is intended to better prepare Thai schools for facilitating participation and collaboration; however, the implementation of SBM in Thai schools still faces challenges. Research by Phillip Hallinger and Pornkasem Kantamara on the introduction of the western concept of school-based management into Thailand concludes that:

Not surprisingly, these reforms have found an even more tentative welcome in the strongly hierarchical social and institutional culture of Thailand's schools. More so than in the West, the values and assumptions underlying these modern educational practices run counter to traditional cultural norms of Thai society. (191)

Michel Fullan and Nancy Watson state that effective SBM is difficult to establish in many countries, especially in developing countries where there is a hierarchical structure of management (12). This involves not only those in power embedded at the top level but also at the bottom or school and community levels which require the willingness to accept roles in promoting change. If a collaborative school culture is to succeed in Thailand, the issues of culture that are historically ingrained in Thai society, particularly among leaders, have to be seriously considered.

9.2 Tensions in collaborative school culture in Thai schools

Although democracy in Thailand has existed since 1930, educational bureaucracies and centralized decision-making have continued in Thai public organizations (Phongpaichit and Baker 21) and strongly impact on the decentralization of education reform. Military and civilian bureaucracies have been the most important forms of organization and these are hierarchical and bureaucratic structures that are not inclusive (Samudavanija 46). This shapes the behaviour of administrators, teachers, students and parents who show an unusually high deference towards those of senior status in all social relationships (Niratpattanasai n.p.).

Data from this study show how the durability of the old values of leaders' position and deference to the authoritative culture and power distance still influence their behaviours. As an interviewee said:

It is noticeable that some of Thai leaders' cultures such as the authoritative culture, and corrupt behaviours, play the significant role in organizational management. Thai leaders will copy behaviours as in the past. When they were selected in the leader position, they carried on in the ways they knew. It's quite hard but I can say that their old context and concepts influence their administrative behaviours.

In Thai education, it is interesting to note that power and authority are personalized matters for Thais (Komin, "The Thai Concept of Effective Leadership" 278). From Geert Hofstede's study of cultural differences found that on the power distance dimension Thais rank highly (104). Further some studies found that Thai society is governed by two closely interrelated variables which

mark inequalities among people. One is status, which covers with age, birth, family background, and physical appearance, education and position in work as well as rank and title. The other is seniority, which includes age, grade and civil service (Vichit-Vadakan 440-441 and Mulder (90).

According to a Thai value study by Suntaree Komin, Thai leaders have the highest level of agreement with the statements: "Most managers seem to be more motivated by obtaining power than by achieving objectives"; and, "The main reason for having a hierarchical structure is to make everyone know who has authority over whom" ("The Thai Concept of Effective Leadership" 277). This indicates how much power and authority is ingrained in Thai leaders' behaviours.

Phillip Hallinger supports this and gives evidence of a Thai secondary school leader's perspective on change and collaboration:

I understand that leading change is very complex in the United States where everyone wants to have a say and participate in everything. So it's important to talk to everyone and get them interested and so forth. But here in Thailand, that's not necessary. If I want teachers in the school to change the way they are doing something. I just tell them, 'Do it!'. (3)

Another perspective from an interviewee here described the dilemmas:

The leader's role in the past was mostly directing. It looked like he was the only person who manages all of the things in the school. But the new education law focuses on the committee and participation management so the role of directing in the past needs to disappear. They need to listen to the others and integrate other concerned people's ideas into practice.

Some data revealed collaboration between teachers and school leaders. Teachers in Thai schools were accustomed to participating in the system where junior teachers were culturally subordinate to their senior teachers and their school leaders. Phillip Hallinger demonstrates a school leader perspective to teachers regarding change and collaboration:

You know, sometimes even if I want to involve staff more actively in determining the direction and procedures for change they misunderstand. If I really spend a lot of time asking their opinions, they think I don't know how to do our job! It's as if they say, "You're the principal. If you have to ask me, it must mean that you don't know what you're doing". (3)

An interviewee in this study responded similarly:

Most teachers have been trained in our old work culture that always involved command policy direction so it needs time and patience to change to the new ways.

It can be considered that national culture has a key influence on Thais' personality characteristics (Komin, "The Thai Concept of Effective Leadership" 278). Bureaucracies and centralized decision making and other characteristics of Thai culture such as deference to seniority are still significant factors which strongly impact on building and managing collaborative school cultures.

10. Leading Thailand into a “New Work” of Collaboration Practice

In the “new work” of Thai school leaders, promoting norms of collaboration is a crucial role. Many studies and interviewees here have proposed strategies that Thai school leaders use to develop collaboration among their staff and stakeholders.

Culture and personality characteristics of Thais. Thai culture is one of the main factors that shape the leaders’ values and behaviours related to collaboration practice. Some participants here believe that if the leaders use some aspects of culture in a proper way, they can help them to manage collaboration effectively. One interviewee said:

I think Thai culture is one of the significant factors in leader’s development but we need to use it in the correct way. The outstanding characteristics of Thai society are high intellectual capital...and spiritual capital. We have the family relationship system...we have elder (or younger) brothers (or sisters). We have equity in some cases but we need to learn about the seniority. To have respect for others is the most important for Thai people. It is a concern today that our society will follow the changing world and how our schools can integrate the old important culture of Thai society and the new inflow cultures.

Another participant agreed:

The new school leader needs to not only be a leader but a follower. They should follow one of the Thai proverbs which are important for a leader. It said, “ao-jai-khao-maa-sai-jai-rao (Thai)” which means “to empathize or put yourself in somebody’s place (or position or shoes)”. In the new kinds of change, I try to develop the new context but remind myself not to forget our old precious culture, and significantly, we must not forget our cultural roots.

Some studies have shown that Thai cultural and personal personality characteristics can support school leaders in developing a collaborative school culture. A study by Rie Atagi on the educational reform in Thailand shows that Thai personality characteristics such as gentleness, expressing pleasure, accepting direction, and having an easygoing nature and an ability to compromise in participatory activities will promote a pleasant working atmosphere and encourage a strong spirit of community through social relations (61). Suntaree Komin also shows that the Thai characteristics of mutual helpfulness, collaboration and peaceful coexistence, non-aggression, and friendly ‘harmonious relations’ are valuable in social interactions (“Culture and work-related values in Thai organizations” 701).

Learning how to learn from others. Some interviewees emphasized the importance of learning from others. They thought that to learn from others, both in success and failure from both older and younger, would be of benefit to leaders. One interviewee commented:

He is also the person who needs to listen...listen to the teachers...listen to the students...and listen to others who have different ideas. It will make him alert and make him learn along with the others. It's not necessarily true that the leaders will be smarter than the teachers or the adults will be more expert than the children. Sometimes the children will be more proficient than the adults for example in high technology.

Building a culture of trust. An idea was suggested by one interviewee on how Thai school leaders can create a culture of trust which is the basis for building and managing a collaborative school culture:

We can build a 'trust culture' by sharing our feelings with the teachers, telling them the truth, demonstrating our competence and, importantly, showing them consistency. I believe that this way we will get their involvement and can manage our school culture collaboratively.

Another interviewee made suggestions on how to build trust in dealing with others:

If we trust in our subordinates, we will get it from them in turn. If we give them opportunities to show their capabilities...they will see that their leaders pay attention to their work. This is the essential point. The more we trust others, the more effective will their work be".

Communication and cooperation. The data here show that communication and cooperation are perceived to play an essential role in collaboration. The participants suggested that school leaders need to have a new understanding of school leadership that involves expertise in leading through better communication and cooperative practices.

One interviewee focused on the importance of communication in the understanding of change:

Good school leaders need to communicate to the teachers and the stakeholders so that they understand the change clearly and I believe that if they understand it, they will cooperate in school development.

Another interviewee commented on the importance of communication in situations where there is conflict:

So I think, the leaders need to have professional management. I also think that in a period of change, conflict or resistance are always happening. This can be linked to its solution. In my opinion, the important way to resolve this situation is good communication and, significantly, you need to do it continuously. Sometimes you need to find the member of the group who has the most power to talk to. I think that can help.

In the new approaches required of Thai professional school leaders in building and managing a collaborative school culture they are viewed as "colleague" rather than "boss". They also should replace the old characteristics of power with those of "*baramee*" (Thai) which Suntaree Komin defines as the respect, love, loyalty, and sacrifice among others ("The Thai Concept of Effective Leadership")

280). Leaders who have *baramee* are also viewed as having moral authority and truth in educational management (Hallinger 8).

11. Conclusion

This paper presents an overview of a capability-development model for professional school leaders in Thai education. It focuses on an important theme emerging from the data, which is the importance of building collaborative cultures in Thai schools.

Participants from this study agreed that collaborative school culture- building and management is an essential leadership capability in school-based management, but that the responsibility for creating such a culture is challenging for Thai school leaders. The current study reveals that although traditional cultural norms, particularly in relation to status and seniority, are significant factors which strongly impact on changes to SBM and collaborative leadership. At the same time, some aspects of Thai national culture can be seen useful for the implementation a collaboration school culture.

The data also show that some of the traditional Thai personality characteristics could shape the leaders' values and behaviours toward collaborative practices. Further, leaders' learning from others, building a culture of trust, and communication of an understanding of change to stakeholders can create a basis culture for building and managing a collaborative culture in Thai schools. The new role of building and managing a collaborative school culture for Thai school leaders requires a new kind of professional leadership, particularly cultural leadership to meet the challenges in implementing required change in the future.

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The Effects of Statistical Analysis Software and Calculators on Statistics Achievement

Edwin P. Christmann¹

¹*Slippery Rock University– USA*
edwin.christmann@sru.edu

Abstract

This study compared the effects of microcomputer-based statistical software and handheld calculators on the statistics achievement of university males and females. The subjects, 73 graduate students enrolled in univariate statistics classes at a public, comprehensive university, were randomly assigned to groups that used either microcomputer-based statistics software or handheld calculators in performing their statistical calculations. The effects of the independent variables of microcomputer-based statistics software and handheld calculators on the dependent variable of statistics achievement were analyzed with a two-way analysis of variance that revealed no significant difference on the basis of gender ($p = .622$). However, the two-way analysis of variance revealed a significant difference between the achievement of students who used the microcomputer-based statistics software and those who used handheld calculators ($p = .024$), with those students who used microcomputer-based statistical analysis software scoring higher. Additionally, a significant interaction effect was disclosed ($p = 0.027$), with an effect size of 0.621 indicating that, on the average, those males who used microcomputers outperformed 73% of the females who used microcomputers in performing their statistical calculations; while the females who used calculators outperformed 71% of the male users of calculators, on the basis of an effect size calculation of 0.545.

Keywords: Software – statistics – calculator – microcomputer - university

1. Introduction

Since the advent of mainframe computers, scientists and mathematicians have used computers to perform complex calculations at much faster rates. However, as technology improved over time, computers were transformed into smaller, handheld devices called calculators. Hence, calculators became accessible to students as portable and affordable problem-solving tools (Lorimer, 1996). Next, the microcomputer evolved into a tool that was heralded by researchers as a mechanism that would increase the academic achievement of mathematics students (Pollina, 1995). Perhaps falling short of some expectations, however, research to date does show that computers have had their greatest effect on the mathematics achievement of our students (Roblyer, 1985), possibly because the processes of mathematics are commensurate with the discrete and objective steps that software offers students in the solution of most mathematics problems (Patterson & Smith, 1986). For example, Hartley (1977) suggests that computers are effective in increasing mathematics achievement, reporting that students instructed with computers gain an average effect size in achievement of 0.410, which is equivalent to an increase from the 50th to the 66th percentile in mathematics achievement. Christmann et al. (1997a), however, calculated an

average effect size of 0.179, showing a lower effect size for mathematical achievement using computers than Hartley (1977).

Statistics is an academic discipline that is closely related to mathematics and provides graduate students with a foundation for conducting research. The presentation of statistics to students, however, is often methodologically obscure, which prohibits the application of problem-solving skills (Garfield and Ahlgren, 1988). In agreement, Snell and Patterson (1992) argue that the mathematical core of statistical analysis is not congruent with the aptitudes of most students enrolled in introductory statistics courses. Therefore, current technologies are considered to be beneficial in assisting these students with complex statistical calculations.

Today, many universities are embracing microcomputer technology, confirming Kerr's (1996) expectation that technology will make a difference in our lives. Segal (1996) suggests that America's fascination with technology has exceeded 60 years, with the novelty appeal of technology continuing to be equated with increases in progress. Subsequently, many schools and universities are embracing computer technology at a continuous rate, but often without giving full consideration to the effectiveness and efficiency of these learning tools.

The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) has recommended that students have access to microcomputer-based instruction and that schools provide a calculator for each student (NCTM, 1989). Hence, in response to these suggestions, many educators are integrating microcomputers and calculators into instruction to enhance students' understanding of statistical formulae and processes through the graphics available via microcomputers and calculators. More specifically, Christmann and Badgett (1999) computed an average effect size of 0.256 for university students who used microcomputer-based statistical analysis software as a supplement to statistics instruction. This effect size calculation shows that a student exposed to microcomputer-based statistical analysis moves from the 50th to the 60th percentile.

For well over a decade, researchers have reported academic and attitudinal differences between males and females who used calculators and microcomputer-based statistical analysis software (Christmann and Badgett (1997b). Although, Christmann and Badgett (1997b) did not find any difference in academic achievement between students who used calculators and microcomputer-based statistical analysis software, they did find an interaction effect showing that females performed better on statistical calculations when using handheld calculators as opposed to using microcomputer-based statistical analysis software. Therefore, this study seeks to once again explore the effects of statistical analysis software and calculators on the statistics achievement of male and female university students.

Hence, the study has thus focused on the following two null hypotheses:

1. There will be no significant difference between the achievement of university students who used microcomputer-based software and those who used handheld calculators in a univariate statistics course;

2. There will be no significant difference between the achievement of male and female university students who used microcomputer-based software and those who used handheld calculators within a univariate statistics course.

2. Methodology

2.1. Subjects

The participants were 73 graduate students enrolled in a univariate statistics course at a northeastern public, comprehensive university enrolling approximately 8100 students. The subjects were 18 males and 55 females who were enrolled in a required, one-semester graduate statistics course.

2.2. Intervention

Microcomputers. Macintosh and PC computers were used by the students in the microcomputer group.

Computer Software. GraphPad Statistical Applications software was utilized by the students in the microcomputer group. This software was used to calculate means, minimums, maximums, sums, standard deviations, variances, standard errors of the mean, and ranges.

Handheld Calculator. The Texas Instruments TI-30X Scientific Calculator was used by the students in the handheld calculator group. The calculators were used to calculate means, minimums, maximums, sums, standard deviations, variances, standard errors of the mean, and ranges.

Dependent Measures. The dependent measure was a teacher-designed test that was edited by the research staff on the basis of course unit objectives. The test contained 50 questions that assessed the students' abilities to analyze and interpret statistical data. The Spearman-Brown Prophecy Formula was used in calculating the reliability of the test. The reliability coefficient was calculated to be 0.912.

2.3. Research Design

The study employed Gall, Borg, and Gall's (1996) description of the Randomized Posttest Only Control Group Design. This design was selected in efforts to avoid pretest contamination. More specifically, if students in either of the randomized groups had perceived low scores on a pretest, they realistically could have begun working problems independently outside the confines of the experiment, thus distorting the effects of either the computer or the calculator. Moreover, this research design controls for the main effects of history and maturation, as well as pretesting, because randomization permits the assumption of group equivalency at the time of assignment.

3. Results

3.1. Statistics Software versus Calculators

Two-way ANOVA results yielded a significant difference between the computing methods between those students who used microcomputer-based statistics software and handheld calculators [$F(1,69) = 5.317, p = .024$], with the group exposed to microcomputer-based statistics software scoring significantly higher than those exposed to handheld calculators. The overall mean posttest score for the group using microcomputer-based statistics software was 86.92 (SD = 8.57), while the overall mean posttest score for the group using handheld calculators was 83.93 (SD = 8.35).

3.2. Gender

The two-way ANOVA results yielded no significant posttest results with respect to gender [$F(1,69) = 0.245, p = .622$]. However, a significant interaction effect was found [$F(1,69) = 5.101, p = .027$]. Consequently, it is important to note that when comparing males (M = 91.125, SD = 4.911) and females (M = 85.441, SD = 9.15) who used the microcomputer-based statistics software, a mean effect size of 0.621 resulted. Cohen (1977) classifies such an effect size as a large effect. Hence, this mean effect indicates that, on the average, a male student using microcomputer-based statistical software showed academic achievement that was greater than that of 73% of the female students who used microcomputers in performing the same statistical calculations.

When comparing males (M = 76.00, SD = 16.97) and females (M = 85.25, SD = 6.552) who used the handheld calculators, a mean effect size of 0.545 was calculated. Cohen (1977) classifies such an effect size as a medium effect. Accordingly, this mean effect indicates that the average female student using handheld calculators showed academic achievement that was greater than that of 71% of the male students who used handheld calculators in performing the identical statistical calculations.

Nevertheless, it is important to remember that the students of both genders who used microcomputer-based statistics software performed their calculations at a much faster rate than did those students who used the handheld calculators. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that students using the microcomputer-based statistics software would perform a greater number of calculations in the same amount of time than would students using calculators.

4. Conclusions

The results of this research disclose a significant difference between the mean achievement scores of students who used microcomputer-based statistical analysis software and those who used handheld calculators in a univariate statistics course. It is important to note that this finding contradicts Christmann

& Badgett's (1997b) study, that showed no difference between students who used computer-based statistical analysis software and those who used handheld calculators for performing student calculations. As a possible explanation for the difference between the results of these two studies, progress in software development seems to have made statistical analysis software much more user friendly over the past decade. Furthermore, since the publication of Christmann & Badgett's (1997b) research findings, it is evident that a higher proportion of students appear more knowledgeable when it comes to computer applications. Subsequently, it is possible that students find it easier to use microcomputer-based statistical analysis software than in the past. It is noteworthy, however, that for the price of one microcomputer station equipped with statistical analysis software, approximately 200 handheld calculators can be purchased.

Although the results reveal no significant differences between the scores of males and females who used microcomputers or handheld calculators in the solution of statistical problems, a significant interaction effect reveals that 73% of those male students who used microcomputer-based statistics software scored higher than the females using this software. Yet, as disclosed by an effect size calculation, those females who used handheld calculators outperformed 71% of the male users of the calculators.

The results of this study again suggest a need for further research that is geared toward determining the most proficient and efficient mechanical methodology that can be implemented in collegiate or scholastic statistics courses. Consequently, these figures definitely reflect the necessity for continuing research regarding the effectiveness of microcomputer-based statistical analysis software and handheld calculators on university statistics achievement. Undoubtedly, additional research is imperative for determining the most effective and efficient means of bolstering the achievement of students enrolled in statistics courses.

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Contextes de formation et méthodes pédagogiques : Gestionnaires d'écoles francophones au Canada

Claire IsaBelle¹, Yamina Bouchama², Claire Lapointe², Lise Langlois² et Paul Clarke³

¹*Université d'Ottawa, Ontario - Canada*

Claire.IsaBelle@uottawa.ca

²*Université Laval, Québec - Canada;*

³*University of Regina, SK - Canada*

Résumé

Le nombre de renouvellements des gestionnaires d'écoles est très élevé (Levine, 2005 et McIntyre, 2005). Il apparaît urgent d'étudier les contextes de formation et les méthodes pédagogiques qui répondent à leurs besoins. Si nous en savons très peu sur les contextes formels de formation, nous ignorons presque tout sur les contextes non formels et informels de développement de compétences (Marchand, 1997) chez les gestionnaires d'écoles. Le but de notre étude est d'identifier les contextes de développement des compétences que les gestionnaires préfèrent et les méthodes pédagogiques qui les aident à développer des compétences en gestion. Deux cent treize gestionnaires franco-canadiens ont répondu à un questionnaire. Les résultats indiquent que le contexte de formation le plus apprécié est le contexte informel. Les travaux pratiques en lien direct avec le milieu scolaire et les études de cas sont les deux méthodes pédagogiques qui les aident le plus à développer des compétences.

Mots clés : Gestionnaires d'écoles - contextes de formation - méthodes pédagogiques - franco-canadiens

1. Introduction

Devant la complexité du rôle des gestionnaires d'écoles et en période de renouvellement massif (Levine, 2005, McIntyre, 1999), des formations s'avèrent essentielles, car les gestionnaires d'écoles ont besoin de développer les compétences qui permettront de créer un climat de travail harmonieux pour les enseignants et un lieu favorable à un apprentissage optimal pour les élèves. Or, il appert que les programmes universitaires en administration scolaire sont limités et ne préparent pas adéquatement les diplômés pour faire face aux réalités de l'école.

Outre les apprentissages formels, plusieurs façons permettent de développer des compétences dans un champ en particulier. Si nous en savons très peu sur les contextes formels de formation, nous ignorons presque tout sur les contextes non formels et informels d'acquisition de connaissances et de développement de compétences par les gestionnaires d'écoles. Le but de notre étude apparaît d'emblée : identifier d'une part, les contextes d'acquisition de connaissances et

de développement de compétences que les gestionnaires d'écoles francophones affirment préférer pour développer de nouvelles compétences en gestion scolaire et d'autre part, les méthodes pédagogiques qui les aident à développer des compétences en administration scolaire. Le présent article rapporte une première série de résultats provenant d'une étude échelonnée sur trois ans.

2. Contexte et problématique

2.1 La formation en administration scolaire

En 1999, aux États-Unis, la National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE) signale la qualité inférieure des programmes de certification à la direction d'école et demande que celle-ci soit indépendante des programmes formels de formation offerts dans les universités (Fossey et Shoho, 2006). Dans la même foulée, Levine (2005) avance que la formation offerte aux étudiants en principalat est beaucoup trop limitée. Il semble que les programmes universitaires ne préparent pas adéquatement les diplômés pour faire face aux réalités de l'école. Bien que le rapport de Levine (2005) ait été critiqué au plan méthodologique et en ce qui a trait à l'absence d'informations adéquates sur les développements récents dans le domaine, tels que la création de Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) et les standards des meilleures pratiques en gestion scolaire (Young, Crow, Orr, Ogawa et Creighton, 2006), il demeure qu'il mérite d'être considéré (Fossey et Shoho, 2006), car il appert que trop de programmes en leadership éducationnel ne préparent pas adéquatement les futurs leaders (Young et al. 2006).

Au Canada, Roberts, Richmond, Howard, Lecoupe et Flanagan (1998) rapportent dans leur étude pancanadienne, les planificateurs scolaires ont mentionné que leurs perfectionnements professionnels « devraient refléter la réalité des salles de classe et des bureaux, être à la fois théoriques et pratiques, et fonder leur conception, leur élaboration, leur prestation et leur évaluation sur la collaboration et l'esprit d'équipe » (p. xii). Selon Lapointe et Langlois (2004), « les profils de formation réduisent et négligent actuellement certaines composantes prioritaires dans la définition des compétences qui sont aujourd'hui requises chez une ou un leader en éducation » (p.188). Dupuis (2004) soulève même la carence d'écrits sur la problématique de la préparation aux postes de gestionnaire et la légèreté des analyses qui y sont consacrées comparativement à celles portant sur les enseignants.

2.2 Définition de compétences et leur développement

Depuis près d'un demi siècle, les « compétences » deviennent un enjeu majeur dans toutes les organisations (De Ketele, 2000; Le Boterf, 1999). Pour Laurier (2005) une compétence est « une combinaison de connaissances, d'habiletés et d'attitudes » qui crée « un savoir-agir » (p. 16) qui, si quelqu'un l'intègre à sa pratique, fera de lui un professionnel compétent dans les fonctions qu'il exerce. À cet effet, Meirieu (2005) répond qu'« une compétence est maîtrisée quand elle peut être utilisée dans une situation nouvelle. (...) Pour qu'une compétence soit

transférable, il faut que l'apprenant sache reconnaître les situations nouvelles où elle peut s'appliquer » (p.25). Ainsi, développer des compétences consiste à faire preuve de savoirs et de savoir-faire, d'habiletés, d'attitudes et d'aptitudes suffisamment autonomes et flexibles dans l'accomplissement efficace de tâches simples et complexes dans un milieu professionnel. En parcourant toutes ces définitions, il appert que « connaissance » et « compétence » ne sont pas synonymes sans pour autant être en contradiction. La première concourt au développement de la seconde.

2.3 Compétences requises des gestionnaires d'écoles

De plus en plus les associations des directions d'écoles, les ministères de l'Éducation voire des chercheurs (Dupuis, 2004) proposent des référentiels de compétences que doivent posséder les gestionnaires d'écoles. Habituellement, ces compétences renvoient à un leadership pédagogique qui consiste à faire preuve de connaissances des méthodes d'enseignement, d'esprit analytique et de sens d'organisation, à des habiletés humaines qui confèrent une tolérance au stress et des compétences communicatives et à des capacités administratives englobant un bagage de culture générale susceptible de donner des outils de motivation.

Si aujourd'hui, nous connaissons bien les exigences demandées aux gestionnaires d'écoles (Paillole et Rimet-Meille, 2005), nous sommes incertains des compétences que possèdent ces dernières et encore moins de quelles façons celles-ci préfèrent les développer. Bref, peu d'études se sont penchées sur la question des contextes formel, non formel et informel de formation permettant aux nouvelles directions d'écoles de posséder tous les outils nécessaires pour bien s'acquitter de leurs tâches et sur les méthodes pédagogiques qui les aident à développer des compétences en gestion scolaire.

2.4 But et objectifs

Le but de notre étude consiste à analyser les contextes d'acquisition de connaissances et de développement de compétences que les gestionnaires d'écoles préfèrent pour développer leurs compétences. Le premier objectif est de repérer les contextes formel, non formel et informel de formation que les gestionnaires d'écoles affirment préférer pour développer leurs compétences afin de mieux gérer leur école. Le deuxième objectif est de vérifier les méthodes pédagogiques avec lesquelles elles disent apprendre le plus.

3. Cadre conceptuel

3.1 Contextes d'acquisition de connaissances et de développement de compétences

Il existe trois types de contextes d'acquisition de connaissances et de développement de compétences, c'est-à-dire « la capacité de mobiliser diverses ressources cognitives pour faire face à un type de situations » (Perrenoud,

1999 : 17). Il y a tout d'abord le contexte formel de formation, lié aux systèmes d'éducation et de formation. Ce type de formation conduit à des apprentissages formels car les enseignements mènent à l'obtention de diplômes, de titres décernés par l'État, le domaine parapublic ou les établissements reconnus. La supervision de la formation est assurée par des professionnels de l'éducation qui sont responsables des contenus, des objectifs et de l'évaluation (Vallée, 1987, cité dans Marchand, 1997). Il y a ensuite le contexte non formel de formation, celui qui existe en dehors des systèmes mais en lien avec des organisations de la société civile (Eurydice, 2000). Marchand (1997) précise que ce processus à caractère éducatif n'aboutit pas à un diplôme ou à une qualification. Il y a enfin le contexte informel de formation, soit tout type d'activités organisées par l'individu lui-même pour parfaire ses connaissances et ses compétences telles que l'écoute des médias et les échanges entre collègues.

3.2 Contexte formel de formation

Au Canada, les exigences et les formations initiales et continues pour les gestionnaires d'écoles francophones sont actuellement très diversifiées selon les provinces. Bien que pour toutes les provinces concernées, un nombre minimal de trois à cinq années d'enseignement est exigé pour accéder à un poste de direction, il demeure que d'autres exigences sont demandées selon les provinces. Par exemple, voyons les exigences pour certaines provinces. En Ontario, une direction d'école doit posséder un diplôme de 2^e cycle et deux qualifications additionnelles de spécialiste ou encore, la moitié d'une maîtrise et une qualification de spécialiste. L'Association des directions et directions adjointes des écoles franco-ontariennes (ADFO) offre les cours de qualifications à la direction. En Colombie-Britannique, bien que la loi n'exige aucune formation, certaines commissions scolaires, elles, requièrent une maîtrise en administration scolaire. Pour l'Alberta et la Saskatchewan, aucune certification en administration scolaire n'est obligatoire (Roy, 2004).

4. Méthodologie

4.1 Population

L'étude a été menée auprès de toutes les directions et directions adjointes d'écoles des neuf provinces et des trois territoires (Nunavut, Yukon et Territoire du Nord-Ouest). Le Québec n'a pas fait partie de notre étude.

4.2 Instruments de collecte de données

L'instrument de collecte de données est le questionnaire Contextes de formation pour les gestionnaires d'écoles développé dans le cadre du projet *Contextes formels, non formels et informels d'acquisition de connaissances et de compétences chez les gestionnaires d'écoles francophones*. Celui-ci comporte six sections. Nous détaillons seulement les sections qui se rapportent aux résultats présentés dans cet article. La première section porte sur l'identification du

répondant. Dans la deuxième et la troisième parties, nous interrogeons les répondants sur le portrait de leur école. La quatrième section porte sur la perception des compétences possédées pour gérer l'école. Dans la cinquième et la sixième sections, nous avons interrogé les gestionnaires sur les lieux d'apprentissage et les méthodes pédagogiques qu'ils préfèrent. D'abord, nous leur avons demandé « De quelles façons aimez-vous le plus développer de nouvelles compétences en lien avec votre travail. La réponse était donnée selon une échelle à cinq niveaux (1- N'aime pas du tout à 5- Aime beaucoup.». Ensuite, nous leur avons posé la question: « Lors de formations, quelles méthodes pédagogiques vous aident le plus à développer de nouvelles compétences en administration scolaire (1- N'aide pas du tout à 5- Aide beaucoup).

Le questionnaire a été administré au mois de mars 2006 à 831 directions et directions adjointes d'écoles francophones. Une relance a été nécessaire en avril 2006. Les directions et les directions adjointes d'écoles pouvaient répondre au questionnaire dans une version papier reçue par la poste ou dans une version offerte en ligne.

4.3 Techniques d'analyse des données

Les données quantitatives ont été traitées et des analyses statistiques ont été exécutées à l'aide du logiciel SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Des distributions de fréquences en pourcentage de réponses et des moyennes ont été calculées. Également, des tests-t ont été réalisés pour différencier les réponses de deux groupes de gestionnaires, ceux ayant moins de cinq ans d'expérience et ceux ayant six ans et plus d'expérience, à l'égard des contextes de formation.

5. Résultats

5.1 Profil des répondants

Des 831 questionnaires envoyés, sept nous ont été retournés par la poste pour des raisons inconnues. Au total, 234 gestionnaires et gestionnaires adjointes ont répondu au questionnaire, soit 29 % en ligne et 69% en version papier. De ce nombre, nous avons dû éliminer 21 questionnaires car ceux-ci n'étaient complétés qu'à 30% et moins. Le taux de réponse est donc de 25% (213/831). Cinquante pourcent des répondants viennent de la province de l'Ontario, 23% du Nouveau-Brunswick et 8% du Manitoba. Pour les trois provinces de l'ouest et les territoires (Colombie Britannique, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Nunavut, Territoires du Nord-Ouest et Yukon), les répondants représentent 10% de notre échantillon, alors que les répondants de trois provinces de l'est (Île-du-Prince-Édouard, Nouvelle-Écosse et Terre-Neuve et Labrador) forment 5 % de notre échantillon. Deux pourcent des répondants n'ont pas identifié leur province.

Une proportion presque égale de répondants de sexe féminin (48%) et de sexe masculin (50%) a répondu au questionnaire. Deux pourcent des répondants n'ont pas identifié leur sexe. Le tableau 1 présente les données selon l'âge des

directions et directions adjointes (regroupées). On y constate qu'elles sont sensiblement bien réparties, de 17% à 25%, selon les quatre catégories d'âge allant de 35 à 54 ans.

Tableau 1 : Âge des gestionnaires

| Âge | Fréquence (n) | Pourcentage (%) |
|-------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 30 à 34 ans | 20 | 9,4 |
| 35 à 39 ans | 36 | 16,9 |
| 40 à 44 ans | 53 | 24,9 |
| 45 à 49 ans | 40 | 18,8 |
| 50 à 54 ans | 45 | 21,1 |
| 55 et + | 16 | 7,5 |
| VM | 3 | 1,4 |
| TOTAL | 213 | 100 |

Vingt-quatre pourcents des répondants possèdent entre six et dix années d'expérience à la direction ou direction adjointe d'une école. Cinquante pourcents des répondants possèdent une formation universitaire aux études supérieures (Voir Tableau 2). Les données du tableau 3 démontrent que 21% des répondants n'ont pas encore complété une première année à la direction d'une école et que 41% avaient entre une et cinq années d'expérience, ce qui signifie que trois gestionnaires sur cinq ont cinq ans et moins d'expérience dans un poste de gestion, une proportion plutôt élevée.

Tableau 2 : Formation antérieure des gestionnaires

| Formation antérieure | Fréquence (n) | Pourcentage (%) |
|----------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Bac | 38 | 17,8 |
| B.Ed. | 63 | 29,6 |
| DESS | 24 | 11,3 |
| M.Ed. | 63 | 29,6 |
| M.A. | 16 | 7,5 |
| Ed.D. | 2 | 0,9 |
| Ph.D. | 1 | 0,5 |
| VM | 6 | 2,8 |
| TOTAL | 213 | 100 |

Tableau 3 : Nombre d'années à la gestion

| Années à la gestion | Fréquence (n) | Pourcentage (%) |
|---------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Moins d'un an | 45 | 21,1 |
| 1 à 5 | 88 | 41,3 |
| 6 à 10 | 51 | 23,9 |
| 11 à 15 | 17 | 8,0 |
| 16 à 20 | 5 | 2,3 |
| 21 et + | 3 | 1,4 |
| VM | 4 | 1,9 |
| TOTAL | 213 | 100 |

5.2 Regroupements selon le nombre d'années d'expérience

Nous avons formé deux groupes : les gestionnaires ayant cinq années et moins d'expérience à la gestion d'une école comme direction ou direction adjointe et ceux ayant six années et plus d'expérience. Le premier groupe est composé de 133 gestionnaires avec 62,4% de tous les répondants et le deuxième groupe est formé de 76 répondants avec 35,6% des participants.

5.3 Catégories de contextes de formation

Contexte formel de formation

Afin d'identifier le type de formation que les gestionnaires préfèrent pour développer des compétences en gestion, ceux-ci ont été invités à évaluer les contextes de formation en fonction de leur préférence. Dans le contexte de formation formel, nous avons regroupé les énoncés : en suivant des cours à l'université en classe et à distance. Nous avons dû éliminer en suivant des formations par l'association des directions d'écoles car il semble que ce n'est qu'en Ontario que les formations offertes par l'association soient considérées formelles pour obtenir le certificat de direction.

Contexte non formel de formation

Afin de mieux analyser les différents éléments qui composent le contexte non formel de formation chez les gestionnaires d'écoles, nous avons regroupé les formations offertes par le district scolaire / le conseil scolaire, le ministère de l'Éducation, les pratiques de formation telles qu'en assistant à des conférences provinciales et hors province, et en participant à des activités offertes habituellement à l'école par le Conseil - District scolaire tels que le mentorat, la communauté d'apprentissage professionnelle (CAP) et le groupe de développement professionnel.

Contexte informel de formation

Pour mieux analyser les données des différents éléments qui composent le contexte de formation informel chez les gestionnaires d'écoles, nous avons composé deux regroupements. Dans la catégorie Contexte informel 1, nous avons regroupé les pratiques de formation reliées à la discussion telles qu'en discutant avec d'autres gestionnaires, des enseignants et des amis et dans la catégorie Contexte informel 2, nous avons regroupé l'apprentissage par des lectures personnelles, par «essais et erreurs» sur le tas et en participant à des activités bénévoles.

5.4 Préférence des contextes d'apprentissage des répondants et le nombre d'années d'expérience

Les données du tableau 5 indiquent qu'il n'y a aucune différence significative entre les deux groupes de gestionnaires, ceux ayant cinq ans et moins d'expérience et ceux possédant six ans et plus d'expérience, quant à leur préférence du contexte formel de formation. Cependant, sur une cote maximale de 5, la moyenne aux énoncés du contexte formel de formation (en suivant des cours à l'université, en classe et à distance) laisse croire qu'autant pour les

nouveaux gestionnaires d'écoles ($M = 2,68$, $\acute{E}c.-t. = 1,231$) que pour les plus expérimentés ($M = 2,52$, $\acute{E}c.-t. = 1,207$), ce type de formation semble ne pas être très apprécié, particulièrement la formation à distance.

Tableau 5 : Nombre, moyenne, Écart-Type et Test-t des types de formation en contexte formel selon les deux catégories d'expériences des gestionnaires d'écoles des neuf provinces et des Territoires

| CONTEXTES | | N | M | Éc-t | ddl | Test-t |
|-------------------------------------|------------|-----|------|-------|-----|--------|
| CONTEXTE FORMEL | 5 ans et - | 114 | 2,68 | 1,231 | 178 | 0,394 |
| | 6 ans et + | 66 | 2,52 | 1,207 | | |
| En suivant des cours à l'université | 5 ans et - | 117 | 3,15 | 1,579 | | |
| | 6 ans et + | 71 | 3,06 | 1,530 | | |
| - en classe | 5 ans et - | 122 | 2,31 | 1,691 | | |
| | 6 ans et + | 68 | 2,13 | 1,525 | | |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Contexte non formel de formation et le nombre d'années d'expérience

Les résultats du Test-t présentés au tableau 6 montrent que les nouveaux gestionnaires d'écoles ($M = 3,75$ $\acute{E}c.-t. = 0,899$) préfèrent plus que les gestionnaires expérimentés ($M = 3,46$, $\acute{E}c.-t. = 0,989$) développer des compétences dans leur domaine dans un contexte non formel de formation. De plus, les moyennes suggèrent que les gestionnaires des deux groupes semblent apprécier développer des compétences en suivant des formations offertes par leur district scolaire / leur conseil scolaire puisqu'elles se situent à 4,13 et 3,83, respectivement, pour les nouveaux gestionnaires d'écoles et les gestionnaires expérimentés. En comparaison, les gestionnaires des deux groupes semblent ne pas apprécier développer des compétences en assistant à des conférences hors province puisque les moyennes sont à 3,03 et 3,07, respectivement, pour les nouveaux gestionnaires d'écoles et les gestionnaires expérimentés.

Tableau 6: Nombre, moyenne, Écart-Type et Test-t des types de formation en contexte non formel selon les deux groupes d'expériences des gestionnaires d'écoles

| CONTEXTES | | N | M | Éc-t | ddl | Test-t |
|--|------------|-----|------|-------|-----|---------|
| CONTEXTE NON FORMEL | 5 ans et - | 123 | 3,75 | 0,899 | 189 | 0,038 * |
| | 6 ans et + | 68 | 3,46 | 0,989 | | |
| En suivant des formations offertes par :le district scolaire | 5 ans et - | 127 | 4,13 | 1,217 | | |
| | 6 ans et + | 70 | 3,83 | 1,262 | | |
| En participant à des activités telles que mentorat, CAP, groupe de développement professionnel | 5 ans et - | 127 | 3,98 | 1,315 | | |
| | 6 ans et + | 74 | 3,51 | 1,528 | | |
| En assistant à des conférences provinciales | 5 ans et - | 129 | 3,88 | 1,341 | | |
| | 6 ans et + | 74 | 3,80 | 1,216 | | |
| En suivant des formations offertes par le ministère de l'Éducation | 5 ans et - | 124 | 3,77 | 1,413 | | |
| | 6 ans et + | 70 | 3,29 | 1,364 | | |
| En assistant à des conférences hors province | 5 ans et - | 129 | 3,03 | 1,920 | | |
| | 6 ans et + | 74 | 3,07 | 1,816 | | |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Contexte informel de formation et le nombre d'années d'expérience

Pour la première catégorie, Contexte informel 1, le Test-t indique de façon significative que les gestionnaires ayant peu d'expérience ($M = 4,11$ Éc.-t. = $0,810$) apprécient davantage développer des compétences en discutant avec leurs pairs, des enseignants et des amis que les gestionnaires ayant plus d'expérience ($M = 3,86$, Éc.-t. = $0,781$). Pour la deuxième catégorie, Contexte informel 2, les résultats du Test-T ne sont pas significatifs. Cependant, sur une note maximale de 5, les moyennes aux énoncés du contexte de formation informel 2 démontrent peu de différences d'appréciation entre les nouveaux gestionnaires d'écoles ($M = 3,15$, Éc.-t. = $0,898$) et les gestionnaires ayant plus d'expérience ($M = 3,07$, Éc.-t. = $0,854$). Il est intéressant de noter que la majorité des gestionnaires, tant les plus jeunes que les plus expérimentés, semblent apprécier développer leurs compétences par des lectures personnelles (Tableau 7).

Tableau 7 : Nombre, moyenne, Écart-Type et Test-t des types de formation en contexte informel selon les deux catégories d'expériences des gestionnaires d'écoles

| CONTEXTES | | N | M | Éc-t | ddl | Test-t | |
|----------------------------|--|------------|------|-------|-----|--------|-------|
| CONTEXTE INFORMEL 1 | 5 ans et - | 118 | 4,11 | 0,810 | 186 | 0,021* | |
| | 6 ans et + | 70 | 3,83 | 0,782 | | | |
| | En discutant avec d'autres gestionnaires | 5 ans et - | 129 | 4,56 | | | 0,717 |
| | 6 ans et + | 74 | 4,39 | 0,808 | | | |
| | En discutant avec des enseignants | 5 ans et - | 129 | 4,40 | | | 0,755 |
| | 6 ans et + | 73 | 4,34 | 0,628 | | | |
| En discutant avec des amis | 5 ans et - | 118 | 3,36 | 1,776 | | | |
| | 6 ans et + | 71 | 2,76 | 1,785 | | | |
| <hr/> | | | | | | | |
| CONTEXTE INFORMEL 2 | 5 ans et - | 117 | 3,15 | 0,898 | 180 | 0,566 | |
| | 6 ans et + | 65 | 3,07 | 0,854 | | | |
| | Par des lectures personnelles | 5 ans et - | 127 | 3,67 | | | 1,048 |
| | | 6 ans et + | 72 | 3,69 | | | 1,074 |
| | Par «essais et erreurs» sur le tas | 5 ans et - | 129 | 3,47 | | | 1,244 |
| | | 6 ans et + | 74 | 3,34 | | | 1,219 |
| | En participant à des activités bénévoles | 5 ans et - | 118 | 2,25 | | | 1,744 |
| | | 6 ans et + | 67 | 2,24 | | | 1,577 |

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Préférence des méthodes pédagogiques d'apprentissage des répondants

Les analyses du Test-T indiquent qu'il n'y a aucune différence significative entre les deux groupes de gestionnaires, ceux ayant cinq ans et moins d'expérience et ceux possédant six ans et plus d'expérience, quant aux méthodes pédagogiques avec lesquelles elles affirment le plus développer de nouvelles compétences en administration scolaire. Toutefois, selon les données descriptives du tableau 8, nous constatons par ordre de décroissance et ce tant chez les gestionnaires ayant cinq ans et moins d'expérience que chez ceux ayant six ans et plus, que les cinq méthodes pédagogiques qui semblent le plus les aider, et ayant une

moyenne de 3,75 et plus, sont des travaux pratiques en lien direct avec leur milieu scolaire, des études de cas, des rencontres avec des conférencières et conférenciers invités, des travaux d'équipe et des analyses réflexives. Comparativement les trois méthodes pédagogiques qui semblent le moins les aider à développer des compétences, ayant une moyenne au dessous de 3 sont, les cours magistraux, les échanges dans un forum électronique ou messagerie instantanée avec le formateur et les échanges dans un forum électronique ou messagerie instantanée avec d'autres étudiants.

Tableau 8 : Nombre, moyenne, et Écart-Type des types de méthodes pédagogiques selon les deux catégories d'expériences des gestionnaires d'écoles

| | Expériences | N | Moy | É-T. |
|---|-------------|-----|------|-------|
| Travaux pratiques en lien direct avec mon milieu scolaire : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 4,56 | 0,610 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 4,41 | 0,757 |
| Études de cas : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 4,21 | 1,046 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 4,17 | 0,760 |
| Rencontres avec des conférencières et conférenciers invités : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 4,05 | 1,106 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 3,96 | 0,779 |
| Travaux d'équipe : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 4,04 | 0,889 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 3,77 | 1,098 |
| Analyses réflexives : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 3,76 | 0,953 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 3,75 | 0,974 |
| Mentorat : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 3,74 | 1,275 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 3,57 | 1,029 |
| Travaux individuels : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 3,68 | 0,925 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 3,57 | 1,029 |
| Lectures critiques : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 3,66 | 0,996 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 3,65 | 0,951 |
| Jeux de rôles : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 3,34 | 1,250 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 3,01 | 1,310 |
| Cours magistraux : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 2,98 | 1,081 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 2,84 | 1,115 |
| Échanges dans un forum électronique ou messagerie instantanée avec le formateur : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 2,36 | 1,436 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 2,24 | 1,343 |
| Échanges dans un forum électronique ou messagerie instantanée avec d'autres étudiants : | 5 ans et - | 133 | 2,01 | 1,428 |
| | 6 ans et + | 76 | 1,91 | 1,305 |

6. Analyse et conclusion

6.1 Contextes de formation

6.1.1 Contexte informel de formation

Les analyses significatives du Test-T indiquent que les gestionnaires ayant peu d'expérience apprécient davantage développer des compétences en discutant avec leurs pairs, des enseignants et des amis (Contexte informel 1) que les gestionnaires ayant plus d'expérience. Cela apparaît normal, car plus un gestionnaire possède de l'expérience, moins il pense qu'un collègue peut lui apprendre quelque chose. Des études portant sur les styles d'apprentissage des apprenants confirment que les managers du secteur public apprendraient davantage à partir d'un contexte informel plutôt que d'un contexte formel de formation (Anis, Armstrong, Zhu, 2004). En fait, il appert que les managers développent davantage leurs compétences au travail, par essais et erreurs et en discutant avec des collègues plutôt que lors des formations formelles.

6.1.2 Contexte non formel de formation

Les analyses du Test-T indiquent des différences significatives entre les deux groupes de gestionnaires quant à ce contexte de formation. En effet, les nouveaux gestionnaires d'écoles préfèrent davantage que les gestionnaires expérimentés développer des compétences dans leur domaine dans un contexte non formel de formation. De façon plus spécifique, les nouveaux gestionnaires affirment davantage que les gestionnaires expérimentés apprécier développer des compétences en suivant des formations offertes par leur district / conseil scolaire, en participant à des activités telles que le mentorat, des communautés d'apprentissage professionnelles (CAP), des groupes de développement professionnel et en suivant des formations offertes par le ministère de l'Éducation. Il n'est pas étonnant de constater que les nouveaux gestionnaires apprécient ce contexte de formation car il correspond davantage à leurs attentes et besoins. Les activités de perfectionnement offertes par les districts /conseils scolaires et le ministère de l'Éducation sont ciblées pour répondre aux besoins immédiats des nouveaux gestionnaires. De plus, le mentorat, les CAP, les groupes de développement professionnel s'inscrivent dans la foulée d'un soutien approprié aux nouveaux gestionnaires.

6.1.3 Contexte formel de formation

Les analyses du Test-T n'indiquent aucune différence significative entre les deux groupes de gestionnaires quant à leur préférence pour le contexte formel de formation. Cependant, les moyennes suggèrent que la perception des nouveaux gestionnaires quant à l'appréciation du contexte formel de formation semble peu positive malgré les attentes et les exigences académiques de plus en plus élevées pour obtenir un poste de gestion. Par ailleurs, même si la formation à distance et en ligne prend de l'ampleur et que certaines universités offrent un

programme ou certains cours de 2^e cycle en administration scolaire à distance et en ligne, les résultats de notre étude suggèrent que tant les gestionnaires ayant plusieurs années d'expérience que les nouveaux semblent ne pas apprécier cette façon de développer des compétences.

6.2 Méthodes pédagogiques

Même si les analyses du Test-T indiquent qu'il n'y a aucune différence significative entre les deux groupes de gestionnaires, quant aux méthodes pédagogiques avec lesquelles elles affirment le plus développer de nouvelles compétences en administration scolaire, il demeure que les données descriptives, révèlent que chez les deux groupes de gestionnaires d'écoles, les cinq méthodes pédagogiques qui semblent le plus les aider, sont des travaux pratiques en lien direct avec leur milieu scolaire, des études de cas, des rencontres avec des conférencières et conférenciers invités, des travaux d'équipe et des analyses réflexives. Comparativement, les trois méthodes pédagogiques qui semblent le moins les aider à développer des compétences sont les cours magistraux, les échanges dans un forum électronique ou messagerie instantanée avec le formateur et avec d'autres étudiants.

Si nous avons maintenant une idée un peu plus précise des contextes de formation préférés des gestionnaires d'écoles francophones, nous devons chercher à mieux comprendre les raisons pour lesquelles ceux-ci préfèrent le contexte informel. Il s'avère important de savoir les raisons pour lesquelles les gestionnaires affirment ne pas apprécier le contexte formel de formation pour développer des compétences dans leur domaine. Ces informations nous permettraient de mieux cibler les contenus des formations offertes aux gestionnaires afin qu'ils puissent affirmer avec enthousiasme que celles-ci leur ont permis de développer les compétences nécessaires à l'exercice de leurs fonctions. Ainsi, d'autres études doivent être menées afin de mieux saisir les informations que les gestionnaires recherchent le plus lors de leurs communications informelles avec leurs collègues et surtout pour répondre à quels besoins. Ces données permettront de mieux adapter tous les contextes de formation.

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“I Don’t Associate School With Music”: The Neglected Musically Talented

Chris Cooper

Victoria University of Wellington

chris.cooper@vuw.ac.nz

Abstract

This ethnographic enquiry focuses on the social contexts and musical experiences participants engaged in from birth to age six, and the early intervention and support provided by the parents and music community. The retrospective investigation through a questionnaire and interviews using case study methodology with seven adult participants was to identify the contributing factors on how their musical ability of absolute pitch developed in their first six years of life – in family, community, kindergarten, and in their early primary school contexts. AP is defined by the researcher as the ability to produce or identify specific pitches without reference to an external standard. Findings highlighted the wide variety of musical activities and experiences participants were exposed to; the positive and supportive home environments, and the lack of support in catering for these talented children’s needs in the kindergarten and New Zealand primary school contexts.

Keywords: Musically talented – children – education – absolute pitch – learning needs

1. Introduction

Music and the Arts is a compulsory part of *The New Zealand Curriculum* (2007) and a compulsory course component in every teacher education programme in New Zealand—including programmes that qualify teachers to work with children from 18 months of age through to 18 year olds.

Music has been reported as the first intelligence to develop (Gardner 1993) and spontaneous singing and moving have been observed to flourish throughout infancy and into the preschool years. Music and the Arts provide essential learning for living and a wide range of general and specific skills, which are significant in many aspects of life. This is testimony to the continued importance placed on music in human development and the acknowledgement given to the intrinsic and extrinsic merit of engaging with music in school curricula (North & Hargreaves 2000). These studies reveal the influence of music and its increasing range of functions in everyday life.

One aspect of musical development that has received limited attention in the last ten years has been addressing the needs of the musically talented. As a music educator I am interested in identifying children’s musical needs, strengths, and talents, especially children with absolute pitch abilities.

Research on absolute pitch abilities has been spasmodic throughout the past fifty years, with the focus during the last three decades moving from case studies of individuals to general population studies. More needs to be known about the

development of absolute pitch in the critical learning period so that interesting and challenging programmes can be developed to cater for children with absolute pitch abilities. This investigation involved a mixed method approach with a small number of selected participants ($n=7$) so as to provide in-depth details in each case of the critical learning period.

2. Theoretical Background

The research design and theoretical framework underpinning the investigation has a constructivist, socio-cultural approach and draws on the literature on the 'critical' (early) learning period—in this case from birth to six years. Elements of Piaget's cognitive-developmental theory, such as the types of experiences presented to children, the nature of how they are actively engaged in learning that is, through a hands-on approach, and the importance of interest, autonomy and peer interaction, are related to the important notion that children construct their learning from their experience of the world. The importance of the home musical environment, particularly before children enter formal schooling, is also significant (Shuter 1968). It is in the home that a child acquires language, begins to learn about numbers, develops social skills, and is encouraged or discouraged in a vast range of abilities, interests and activities including music. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological theory describes the importance of families and other social support within the child's microsystem. The ecological model also provides a useful way of examining how the interactions between family, community, early childhood, school and broader systems (macrosystem) influence children's development and achievement—in this case, in supporting, guiding and directing the absolute pitch participants and contributing to their acquisition of absolute pitch.

Vygotsky (1978) has as a central theme in social constructivist theory that children are wrapped around by their culture (represented by tools, social structures and language), and this mediates the form and extent that cognitive development takes. Therefore, learning is a process through which the learner carries out personal activity in collaboration with other people. This notion of social constructivism, with its emphasis on social interactions and collaborative learning environments, flourished in the 1990s.

When applied to music, theorists such as Hargreaves, Marshall and North (2003) talk about 'social perspectives', given that music has cognitive, emotional and social functions. They state that all musical behaviour is social, and distinguish four levels of social influence in music psychology: "the individual level (indicating differences in age, gender and personality); the interpersonal level (peer collaboration and small group interactions); the institutional level (the ways in which institutions such as the home, school, community music organisations influence musical behaviour); the cultural level (media, commercial influences, national and regional traditions and cultures)" (Hargreaves, Marshall & North 2003, p. 151).

2.1 Literature Review

The literature on absolute pitch from Revesz (1913) to Miyazaki (2006) covers a wide range of findings. There are a number of researchers who have continued to contribute to the knowledge available on absolute pitch. Amongst the most prominent are Takeuchi and Hulse (1993), Sloboda and Howe (1991), and Miyazaki (1995). Although the literature provides a picture of what absolute pitch is, along with data about the possessors and disadvantages associated with having absolute pitch, there are few indicators about what contributes to the development of absolute pitch other than 'early music training'. Some researchers mention the influence of the parents' musical interest, encouragement and support (Takeuchi & Hulse 1993), while others (Miyazaki 1992) refer to the influence of culture as in the case of Japanese culture where there is an emphasis on beginning music tuition early in life.

The literature from the field of educational psychology identifies the first six years as the critical period of development for absolute pitch (Russo, Windell & Cuddy 2003; Sergeant & Roche 1973; Takeuchi & Hulse 1993). Possessors of absolute pitch have internalised their pitch references and are able to maintain stable representations of pitch in their long-term memory. Absolute pitch is regarded by many Western music-makers, educators and composers as a musical talent and useful ability alongside relative pitch—comparing the position of one pitch with another. The interpretation of the concept of being 'gifted and talented' is undergoing constant change worldwide. Renzulli's (1986) three-ring concept of above-average ability, creativity and task commitment related to the nature of being gifted and talented has had the greatest appeal over the last decade.

Overall, much research has been contributed to the field in the last fifty years with more indicators being provided for parents, teachers of music, and educators. Many of the early researchers approached absolute pitch ability as an exceptional talent present through inheritance (Bachem 1937; Revesz 1913). Since then, research has supported the notion that absolute pitch is a learnt ability (Baharloo, Johnston, Service, Freimer and Gitschier 1998; Miyazaki 1992; Sloboda 1985). This current retrospective investigation therefore set out to identify the contributing factors on how their musical ability of absolute pitch developed in the participants' first six years of life – in family, community, kindergarten, and in their early primary school contexts.

3. Methodology

The research methodology, while predominantly qualitative also draws on quantitative approaches. The ethnographic research design employed allows the investigation of the lived experiences of participants (those with absolute pitch abilities and their parents) using case study design with semi-structured interviews, and a questionnaire. The result of this current research is a rich description and analysis of the early music experiences and the sociological and cultural backgrounds of the participants identified as possessing absolute pitch.

Case studies emphasize a detailed contextual analysis of a limited number of events or conditions and their relationships within its real life context. The acceptance of case studies as a research tool has re-emerged as researchers want a convenient and meaningful technique to capture an individual's characteristics and performance. Yin (2003) states that case study method may be used when the researcher deliberately wants to cover contextual conditions, believing that they might be highly pertinent to the phenomenon of study. Content analysis strategies identified by Berg (2004) were used as the analysis tool for identifying common features in the interview data.

The source of stimuli used to measure absolute pitch abilities in identifying pitch with participants in past studies has been piano tones, electronic tones from electronic keyboards or sine tones. Levels of accuracy of the participants' abilities can vary depending on the familiarity or past musical history of participants (Bahr, Christensen & Bahr 2005). This suggests that even high level experts may experience problems if the stimulus does not completely match their past music experiences. Six of the seven participants had pianos in their homes and all managed to achieve a score of 85% and above for inclusion in this research.

In this current research the seven participants were identified with absolute pitch through a 60-tone test using a Roland SK-50 electronic keyboard. Other data gathering instruments included an adaptation of HOMES (Home Musical Environment Scale) developed by Manny Brand (1985) consisting of a 15-item self-reporting questionnaire, and semi-structured interviews with participants. These sources of data were complemented by questionnaires completed by the available parents of the participants. The pilot and following interviews, audio and video recording and transcribing, was carried out by one researcher. Interviews, including the 60-tone testing and questionnaire completion, took between 65 and 85 minutes.

3.1 Participants

The seven participants in this study ranged in age from 15 years to fifty-five years old. One participant was attending secondary school (for students 13 to 17 years old in New Zealand) while the other six were of mature age in the workforce. Of these six, three were involved in music activities as their employment. Two others were very involved in music activities in out-of-work time. The sixth participant had been more involved in music earlier in life but work demands had reversed this situation. Six participants were Pākehā New Zealanders, while the seventh was a New Zealand-born Indian. Five participants were male and two female. Ethical approval was granted from the Deakin University Human Research Ethics Committee Melbourne for this investigation for my PhD research. Written permission was gained from all participants for taking part in the study with ongoing and full disclosure taking place at each step so that all participants were giving 'informed' consent.

4. Results

4.1 Modelling and early signs

Music was a preferred activity in the homes of the participants, with live music being engaged in regularly. Through active participation, parents and siblings were modelling their own value of music. The participants and parents in the present study noted early signs of absolute pitch ability. Parents also noticed the early signs of musical interest, enthusiasm and fast rate of learning new music, the occurrence of self-teaching, learning through observation / role modelling from other family members, playing by ear music that they had heard, singing in tune, learning music notation at a young age and being competent in tasks above their developmental level.

4.2 Supportive family environment

The family as a social unit was seen to be a strong influence in the early development of musical interest and development of participants' music abilities. This was also demonstrated in research by Baharloo, Johnston, Service, Gitschier and Freimer (1998), where the families' actions in providing support and challenge was reported as enhancing the development of the absolute pitch participants' talent.

Children's participation and interest in music was seen as natural and was an 'expectation' in these families where at least one adult was fluent in reading music notation and in playing a musical instrument. The participants interviewed in the present study all came from stimulating musical home environments with warm, caring parents and they believed that these factors had a positive effect on the development of their musical talent. Participants reported that their absolute pitch abilities were not always accepted, appreciated or understood—by themselves, others and members of the music community.

4.3 Opportunities

Parents as 'first teachers' reportedly praised their child's interest and efforts in music, and rapid progress was made in the early years and when participants began learning instruments. Play and informal interaction, rather than guided instruction, seemed to be most common although this was reported as taking place in some cases. The participants felt their parents were caring and committed to devoting considerable time, money and energy to meeting the needs of their children through providing challenging learning opportunities, music lessons and resources. Strong family support was also noted as being of significance in the research of Csikszentmihalyi, Rathunde and Whalen (1993) in the following circumstances: where music was valued and there was an emphasis on enjoyment; at least one person in the family believed in the child's future potential; praise and rewards followed for even small progress; there was careful selection of teachers; there was support including networking being

organised; and parents and families were willing to invest time and effort in musical activities.

The absolute pitch possessors were provided with different opportunities for musical play, experimenting, and making music with other family members. Young children are active learners who need time to explore ideas and interests in depth. One participant in the current study stated: 'My Mother played the piano to me and encouraged me to experiment with playing the piano'.

A number of parents taught the rudimentary skills of basic notation and performance technique as their child showed interest during their preschool years. One father taught his child to read music from the beginning. A mother taught the basics of music notation to her child at age three and a half, and the participant self-taught shortly after that. Some parents and participants stressed that learning to read music (and play the piano in some cases) had been rapid and spontaneous—that is, no formal teaching had taken place.

Opportunities to become familiar with a musical instrument and to learn basic music notation were, therefore, available at an early age and the participants, with at least some support, soon learnt the language of music. It was found that parents and older siblings also modelled performance techniques and provided resource materials for the participant to play—whether through reading notation or 'ear'.

4.4 Instruction

Older siblings were also reported as playing a part here with scaffolding, 'teaching', introducing new learning opportunities and therefore creating further interest for the participant. These positive socio-cultural aspects were important factors which enhanced or helped to develop the absolute pitch abilities of the participants.

One of the participants learnt the violin through the Suzuki method of instruction. Key factors in this method of music learning, where children begin learning from the age of three years, are having the best possible teacher as a model, daily practice with parent involvement, and a carefully prescribed programme of musical content developed with consistent aural and practical reinforcement (Suzuki, 1993). This modelling by the music teacher and involvement of a parent were important aspects of this participant's music socialisation and were 'significant others' in his musical development. The carefully prescribed musical programme with aural and practical reinforcement may have also contributed towards absolute pitch development.

Parents in the present study were able to pay for lessons and provide transportation, instruments and materials needed for formal instruction. This enabled their child to study systematically with a teacher at a set time and place. In the early stages, the decisions to make such provisions were made for the participants by the parents as part of their promoting of family interests and activities that engaged their children. Involvement in music lessons was considered to be part of 'belonging to the family'.

Others mentioned outside the immediate family in this research were an aunt who was a music teacher, a nun who was a music teacher and who 'knew what

she was doing', and a private music teacher who was 'a wonderful teacher'. Parents in this present study attempted to find the right teacher who would take an interest in their child and who was enthusiastic about teaching music. These teachers made an impact on these participants in a significant way that contributed towards the ongoing interest in music of the participants. Few details on formal teaching methods and the lessons that took place were given by the parents and participants during the interviews. The influence of teaching methods and lessons on the acquisition and maintenance of absolute pitch therefore remains unanswered in terms of this case study. This is an aspect to focus on in future studies.

The average age when participants began regular lessons was 5.5 years. The prevalence of early music training among absolute pitch possessors is consistent with absolute pitch theory on a critical learning period. This also fits with Piaget's cognitive theory of the preoperational stage of development—when children have yet to begin to think of musical notes in a more relative way—a 'fixed pitch' instrument—that is, in relation to one another. Playing the piano occurred in the case of six of the seven participants. This 'audiation' will have provided the preparatory aural experiences that Gordon (2003) identifies as the 'mapping of each pitch spatially on the keyboard' and eventually matching pitch names.

The talented participants in this study took part in early childhood (kindergarten) education programmes but were not identified as having general musical talent or specific absolute pitch by their teachers and were therefore not intentionally involved in challenging activities. Although a greater importance has been placed on early childhood education and development in the last few decades, gifted and talented preschoolers may be the most neglected, unidentified and least well catered for children in their age group.

Parents of participants in the present study did not speak very favourably about the music programmes provided in early childhood and primary school education programmes. Most of the participants mentioned a lack of ear training or aural skill development at both early childhood and primary levels, but did state that music was fun in early childhood education with singing, dancing, musical games and playing of percussion instruments. Music at primary school was reported as being 'just singing songs', and this was a concern mentioned by both participants and their parents. Participants could not recall being involved in a structured music programme, as one participant stated that he didn't associate school with music.

There was tension between the expectations of the parents of participants and the ability of schools to recognise and cater for the participants' absolute pitch needs in the class music programme provided by the school. Vygotsky's notion of proximal development maintains that the 'teacher' plays a critical role in assisting children to extend what they can achieve alone to what they can achieve with support. The role of teachers therefore needs to be both active and interactive in order for the needs of pupils with absolute pitch and music talent to be fully realised.

Participants in the present study demonstrated musical skills in advance of their chronological age. Expected competencies in the reading of music notation and the rapid learning of early music pieces were indicators to the parents of the

participants' interest and ability in music. Participants stated that their parents considered them talented and this was also confirmed later by their music teachers.

5. Discussion

5.1 Environmental factors

The findings of this research suggest that the consistent, caring, secure and responsive environment provided by the parents of the participants and most music teachers may have assisted the participants to develop their absolute pitch abilities and music potential. All participants received, during infancy, musical learning through their involvement in the music activities and practices that occurred within their home and social environments. Of the seven homes, 85.7% (six of the seven) had a piano which was used by the participants and other members of the family.

As the participants were engaged directly or indirectly within these social contexts, they observed, explored and developed understandings about music practices, skills, attitudes and meanings. The participants could, as infants, discriminate the differences in the pitch of notes; could locate these on a tuned instrument (usually the piano) and name these.

5.2 Early recognition and intervention

The participants' absolute pitch ability was recognized in their early years (although not totally identified in all cases) and due to this, opportunities and support were provided mainly from the family and private music teachers through purposeful activities to further develop skills and their enjoyment in the field of music. The importance of this early identification and intervention is clearly stated by Temmerman (1998) who says; "The musical nurturing a child receives during the early years can have a marked impact on later success, their level of involvement and attitude towards music as future adults" (p.27).

5.3 'Significant others' musical knowledge and skills

The parents in this research were particularly skilled in the language of music and their ability to play at least one musical instrument. Of particular interest was the fathers' involvement in musical activities which may have been more influential in relation to the children's musical potential to develop absolute pitch abilities, for six of the seven fathers (87.5%) could play a musical instrument and five of the seven fathers (71.4%) were able to play a piano. In six of the seven participants' homes there existed a piano providing fixed pitch / tuning, while in the seventh home, guitars were kept in tune and played daily. The fathers' support, encouragement and role modelling may have contributed towards the participants' motivation to achieve and develop their absolute pitch abilities, although no generalisation can be drawn from this. Music play,

combined with scaffolding from another more experienced person, helped each participant achieve small steps of success using their absolute pitch abilities with greater confidence, and this was built on over time.

6. Implications

6.1 Catering for children with absolute pitch abilities

This study involved a small sample of participants ($n = 7$) with absolute pitch abilities who enjoyed being actively engaged in exploring and making music from an early age. The abilities of these absolute pitch participants, when they were infants and young children, were not identified or valued by others, apart from their parents, family, extended family and music teachers. In this way, their musical abilities and possible contribution to society will be undervalued. If we want children to develop their musical abilities we have to provide activities, programmes and a supportive environment that will do this and work on the acquisition and development of such skills, instead of the musically talented underachieving and experiencing a lack of challenge. Children's musical development depends much on current musical culture, which can differ largely from their parents' culture. Parents and teachers, therefore, need to be aware that the children's musical development may differ considerably from their own. These factors highlight the importance of sharing research and the need for education in such situations.

6.2 Further research

Although this research was unable to provide specifics on teaching methods and aural training used either by the parents or music teachers, which assisted the development of absolute pitch abilities, it has highlighted the fact that the participants were sensitive to variations of pitch and displayed good pitch discrimination in their early years which was recognized by their parents and / or confirmed by their music teachers. Further research is needed on aural training and teaching strategies used in the early years that contributes towards the development of absolute pitch and where positive outcomes are achieved. Such investigations could include young school aged children who have been identified with absolute pitch abilities.

6.3 Early recognition and intervention

The demands for early childhood education for children and the number of centres available, whether state owned or private, are growing. Differing ideologies and societal expectations for the outcomes of education for the young are constantly discussed and debated by parents, the education profession and the state. Linking to Level Four of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological model of learning, the nation's beliefs and values about children, early childhood education, teacher training and teacher competencies relate to whether children's rights and needs can be catered for. Temmerman (2000) points out

that children learn more, and more quickly in the first few years of life than any other time. Early intervention could have enhanced these children's achievements or made their absolute pitch abilities more meaningful to them at this early age. To develop a child's talent can be a valuable investment for both their future and for the community.

6.4 Teacher competencies

The primary school years have been viewed as significant in the development of lifelong attitudes to music. In New Zealand those responsible for the teaching of music at early childhood and primary levels are generalist classroom teachers. Australian studies have shown that generalist classroom teachers lack confidence, competence and resources to adequately cater for the needs of learners (Jeanneret 1994). This was also identified by participants in this study. This situation seems to indicate that the school music experiences of the participants may not have contributed towards their development of absolute pitch. Educators need to provide a stimulating, challenging, fun, balanced and practical developmentally appropriate programme to continue to nurture musical talent. Today's teachers need to be equipped with the necessary skills for this, and further research is needed to support parents, educators and music teachers to achieve this. Providing contacts, specialists in this area combined with close networking of services can also help cater for children with musical talent.

6.5 Partnership

Development of a partnership between the education communities and music education communities and parents is essential to provide support for children with absolute pitch and their families. Families should not be required to totally support the talent development of their child. The current policy documents provide clear direction for early childhood and primary school educators and governing groups so that these children have their needs addressed. Perhaps the future music education for musically talented children will not depend on schools but opportunities in local communities and from networking. Fortunately for the participants in this study the parents had some resources, music knowledge and skills to assist their child during the critical period of development.

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Democratic Pedagogies In Creative Disciplines: Sustaining Study Groups For Student Reflexivity And Praxis

Christopher Crouch¹, Jane Pearce²

¹*Edith Cowan University, Western Australia*

C.Crouch@ecu.edu.au

²*Murdoch University, Western Australia*

J.Pearce@murdoch.edu.au

Abstract

What are the conditions in which study groups in creative disciplines can be sustained in a university environment? Transmissive models of teaching remain the norm in many Australian universities (Biggs 2001). Such approaches can result in asymmetrical power relations between tutors and students, are not conducive to student independence and tend to result in uncritical, unreflexive surface learning (Brockbank and McGill 1998). In creative disciplines, where student reflexivity and praxis are central, different pedagogies are needed. Study groups have the potential to support student independence, deep learning and a critically reflexive approach to creative practice. They are non-supervised groups of students whose purpose is to collectively prepare for tutor-facilitated discussions, and focus on peer teaching and collaborative problem solving to find meaning. This study explores the sustainability of study groups in a core undergraduate course in cultural theory, using a critical case study approach to understand the experiences of tutors and students working in study groups. The research indicates that study groups work well in creative discipline areas, but institutional barriers such as transmissive teaching practices compromise their sustainability. This paper explores some of the institutional conditions that affect the sustainability of study groups.

Keywords: Reflexivity - study groups - creative disciplines - democratic pedagogies - university learning

1. Introduction

While independence or self-direction in learning has long been a goal of adult educators (Candy, 1991), transmissive models of teaching remain the norm in many Australian universities (Biggs 2001). Such models privilege teacher knowledge, and lead to a focus on subject matter and an increasingly "computer-mediated education" (Brabazon, 2002, p. 36). While teacher-centred models may be justified on the grounds of efficiency, student-centred approaches that promote student independence and peer-based learning place a higher value on student knowledge and independence (Friere, 2002) and have the potential to nurture a critical, reflexive approach to learning (Brockbank and McGill, 1998) that teacher-centred approaches may not. Student-centred approaches are particularly important for education for the creative arts, and in establishing research methods and work practices for those students who wish to pursue a career in the creative industries. Florida (2003) suggests that the engine that drives the globalised economy is 'human creativity'. He suggests the qualities

that distinguish 'the creative class' from its predecessors are the purpose and ability to 'create meaningful new forms'. Whilst one can qualify his work as populist re-workings of Drucker's concept of the 'knowledge worker' that sidestep Debord's critique of the debilitating effects of the commodification of ideas (Debord, 2005), it is very important in identifying a contemporary trope that pays lip service to the promotion of innovation and creative thinking. The key to this paper is the gap that lies between the populist rhetoric of innovation and creativity, and the reality of instrumentalist teaching in those university faculties dedicated to serving what Adorno sardonically identified as the 'culture industries' (Adorno & Horkheimer, 2002).

2. Pedagogies for creative disciplines

Biggs (2001) suggests that institutional practices such as pedagogy are themselves based on particular beliefs or 'meta-theories' about learning. He suggests that these beliefs give rise to the development of different cultures, or learning climates in universities. Biggs broadly differentiates between academics who believe that students work best when closely supervised, and those who value students' independence (2001, p. 62). We look first at some of the implications of a supervisory approach, and contrast these with some implications of approaches that promote student independence. A focus on close supervision and what else that entails often results in students becoming non-reflexive, surface or strategic learners with limited levels of engagement with the subject material: thus the notion that students 'need' supervision because they are not able to work independently becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. Such practices also tend to solidify asymmetrical power relations between tutor and student. Some practical consequences of a teacher-centred, supervisory model for teaching and learning include the adoption of linear, mechanistic approaches to curriculum planning and organisation within institutions (Levinson & Holland, 1996).

Homogenization of teaching and learning programmes are other consequences of an institutional culture that seeks to control what students ought to learn. This can be particularly problematic when standard practices are imposed across an institution that covers a very diverse range of discipline areas. Examples of standardised practices are strictly timetabled programmes of lectures and tutorials, programmes of assignment submissions with their strict adherence to processing deadlines, and examinations which enable individual achievement to be securely identified to ensure that there's no possibility that students can gain credit for another's work. Thus there ensues a focus on individualism, competition, and summative results. Summative and standardised assessment practices also result from a teacher-controlled learning environment when 'official' knowledge is more highly valued than the unofficial, experiential knowledge that students bring with them (Friere, 2002).

However, as Biggs points out there are other meta-theories of learning to be found in universities. Academics who value students' independence tend to work against the grain of transmissive practices. In such institutional cultures, practices such as peer and group assessment and teaching approaches that provide space for discussion and student input are prioritised because the focus

is on learning rather than efficiency and measurable outcomes (2001, p. 62). Key justifications for increased learner control, suggested by Candy (1991), include its potential to develop "habits of curiosity and self-initiated enquiry" (p.51) and it is this feature that is particularly significant for the context we discuss here. However we acknowledge that learning at university is necessarily mediated by the institutional context. Working against the grain of institutional culture is very difficult, particularly in a regime where strict timetables, large lecture groups and individualistic assessments are the norm. The challenges are particularly great when changes to academic work practices have made academics more accountable and less autonomous (Vidovich & Currie, 1998). It is these tensions that we address in the discussion that follows.

Working against the grain is not a wilful exercise; it is the essence of creating intellectual dialogue and of stimulating new ideas. In the creative disciplines student reflexivity and praxis are central to developing the ability to manage the links between the subjective self and the social world. Study groups, with their focus on peer teaching, collaborative problem solving and a consequent de-centralising of the tutor's role as transmitter, have the potential to support deep learning and high levels of engagement with the subject matter. They interrupt normalised teaching and learning practices in universities, and can model ways in which the individual negotiates personal interpretation with normative values.

The wider debates that surround praxis and reflexivity as a means to personal empowerment (Grundy, 1987; Giddens, 1991) are neither abstract nor utopian. The value of such ideas is not limited to a theoretical educational practice, and is increasingly adopted by business strategists and managers. At a most pragmatic level the adoption of the triple bottom line by businesses globally (Australia, Department of the Environment & Heritage, 2004) validates, if validation is needed, Giddens' (1991) and Grundy's (1987) positioning of the reflexive ethical individual within a network of social obligations. The reflexive creative individual is also a central component of the creative industries, where personal insights, re-evaluations and re-readings of normative values are 'industrialised' in order to satisfy a market hungry for novelty. The reflexive individual is also well equipped to cope with the vicissitudes of the creative industries, and the concerns that theorists like McRobbie (2002) have for an institutionalised reflexivity that separates the individual from wider concerns can be addressed by the adoption of praxis.

Creative acts begin with the seemingly spontaneous expression of the self. Those acts are then socialised. It follows that the social and the individual are hybridised within the individual and thus the creative act and the awareness of the creative self arise from social processes (Manis and Meltzer, 1972). An institutional environment in which social processes are proscribed by transmissive and individualistic pedagogies, such as is found in many university settings, is antithetical to deep learning. In such an environment the conditions necessary for creative education – a culture of critical analysis that builds relationships between new and established ideas – cannot be established. The study group has the potential to dislocate the student from expected patterns of behaviour that transmissive teaching reinforces, and by doing so can encourage deep learning. By focusing on de-centralising the origin of knowledge, the study group reinforces theoretical (Nicolini, Gheradhi, & Yanow, 2003), economic

(Hartley, 2003) and political (Vessey, 2002) analyses of the reflexive individual's potential to generate new knowledge.

3. The critical case study

Our focus in this paper is the sustainability of study groups in a core undergraduate course in cultural theory. We use a critical case study approach to understand the experiences of tutors and students working in study groups, and to explore some of the institutional conditions in which study groups are most sustainable. In this sense, the case is a "specific, unique, bounded system" (Stake 2003, p. 136). For us, our interest in this case is intrinsic, and lies in its particularity (Stake, 2003 p. 136). However our intention in presenting this case is to offer some insights that might inform the thinking and decisions of others engaged in similar struggles. The notion that qualitative research is "based on a holistic view that social phenomena, human dilemmas, and the nature of the case are situational" (Stake, 2003, p. 141), leads to our focus on the particular institutional environment in which the study groups evolved.

The setting is a Faculty of Education and Arts in a minority world university, where most students are aged between 17 and 25 and come from privileged, affluent, English-speaking backgrounds. There is a predominance of women in the particular student cohort and culturally different students make up a substantial minority of the group. This minority includes Indigenous students from the local community, mature-aged students and recent migrants. The specific context is two core cultural theory units taught to all students in the Bachelor of Creative Arts and the Bachelor of Creative Industries degrees. The core theory units make up one quarter of these first year students' foundation experience. Students from several discipline streams: music technologies, visual arts, fashion, contemporary performance, 2D design, 3D design, games design, interactive multi-media, photo-media, film and video: mix with one another in the learning groups. Across the cohort as a whole there appears to be a distinction between those students whose courses prioritise the uncritical acquisition of skills, and those whose learning incorporates critical approaches.

A central element in the learning and teaching of the theory units is the use of 'study groups', where students work in non-supervised groups whose purpose is to collectively prepare for tutor-facilitated discussions, and whose focus is on peer teaching and collaborative problem solving to find meaning. Students worked in small study groups, of about four people, to critically examine short key texts and to prepare a presentation of the text to a larger tutorial group and the group's tutor. Students in the small groups were expected to work independently, taking responsibility for delegating the reading tasks, for organising meetings times and for working collectively to raise their own responses from questions posed by the tutor for discussion in the tutorial. Each small group focused on a different text a fortnight; groups were encouraged to concentrate on the process of engagement with the ideas presented in a single text rather than amassing knowledge or information. A series of about six scaffolded questions, using Bloom's taxonomy (Morgan & Saxton, 1991), were provided for each reading, to assist students to begin to identify the key points and understand how the ideas were applicable to their creative practice. These

questions were open-ended, aiming to encourage students to engage with the texts from their own discipline and cultural capital position. The intellectual work of the individual group members included adopting a critical stance in order to analyse the texts, as well as synthesising and evaluating the material, before presenting it to the study group for discussion. Then, alternating with the small group meetings, students met in larger tutor-led groups once a fortnight. Here, small groups presented their 'readings' of the texts to the larger group. After discussion, there was opportunity at the end of each cycle to review and reflect.

4. How the study groups worked

We focus first on the positive outcomes. Some groups seemed to become addicted to the process, and continued their discussions outside the formal meeting times with conversations often continuing at parties. These groups were largely from visual arts and music technology courses and readily identified themselves as being part of a wider set of open-ended cultural discourses. Some groups (in particular those from drama education and contemporary performance) began to use nicknames for some of the key writers whose work they were engaging with, and thus 'great' scholars were ironically embraced as surrogate members of the students' sub-culture. We see this as an indication of extent to which these writers and their ideas became part of students' vocabulary, and wonder how Anthony Giddens would feel about being nicknamed "the Gidmeister". The concepts discussed during study group time routinely found their way into these students' everyday conversations. The discourse ranged from the playful iteration of concepts and names ("Bhabha is my Homi!") to serious musings on culture.

"Hey,

Just thought I'd send over some positive waves. A friend and I have always been appalled with the music industry and the way it has virtually no artistic intent. Inspired by the contexts of modernity unit and what I've been able to understand about the culture industry and our commodity culture, I have joined forces with him to 'culture jam' and attempt to create a new system in which music can still be appreciated as art, but survive capitalism." Student email 25,05,07.

Ideas first encountered in study groups would often flow out into aspects of students' lives outside the institutional context. One group of students created T-shirts for themselves and their tutor to wear, with punning slogans using the names of the key theorists ("Adorno about you but I Habermassive headache") and the core concepts that the group had found particularly powerful (or difficult). These examples show the extent to which some students were able to take ownership of these ideas, and indicate a deep level of appropriation by which students made these ideas their own. Thus for some students the experience was in many senses life-changing.

In terms of other outcomes of the learning, peer learning enabled members of the successful groups to reveal the limitations of the single perspective that can be characteristic of a learning environment that privileges expert authority. As students discovered that the written word is complex and that texts are multi-layered, the study groups provided space for students to raise questions and

develop their own voice without the constraints of tutor authority. In study groups it became possible to see learning as exploratory work rather than as the search for the 'right' answer. Successful groups embraced the opportunities to make the ideas their own: an opportunity essential for developing the creative process with its focus on independence and mould breaking practice. Compliance is inimical to creative practice, and the best groups relished the space provided to think for themselves beyond and without the constraints of tutor authority.

Not all groups immersed themselves so completely in the learning. Some groups found the process extremely difficult and confronting. For one thing, as was expected (and as it turned out) not all students were able to engage at such deep levels with the texts, as this posting on the online discussion board illustrates:

"I really don't see what talking about industry in the nineteenth century has got to do with me finding a job in IT but I am sure someone with a long list of qualifications will tell me."

Nor was everyone equally comfortable with the level of independence expected.

"Is any body else as lost as I am? This is just ridiculous, why don't they [the tutorial staff] just tell us what they want?" (online discussion board posting).

For many students this was an unfamiliar way to work, and some found this more difficult than others. In recognition of the potential difficulties faced by students working independently, mechanisms were provided to support students' reading, research and writing, but these were utilised by only a small handful of committed students. Indeed, in order to access these support mechanisms students had to be able to first recognise then articulate their problems. One such mechanism was the online discussion board, which was provided largely as a means for students to acquire and share information, and to enquire about and share resources. While most contributions to this showed that students had risen to the challenges presented by the texts, the online tool gradually became a forum for diatribes against the course as negative comments began to appear (as seen in the comments provided above). Though negative comments were the exception such comments gradually changed the dynamics of the discussions and people who had previously been regular contributors began to withdraw. Once the tenor of the discussions began to change it became increasingly difficult to encourage students to return, in spite of interventions by the more persistent, positive students. Interventions by the unit coordinator, some unit tutors and tutors from the full time study skills learning support team, in attempts to moderate the tone of comments and to frame concerns and worries productively, were unsuccessful. Such attempts to moderate simply made the discussion board a further place where angry students felt oppressed and which capable students saw as boring. Over time, students' responses to the experience of working in study groups became increasingly polarised.

Where study groups 'failed' to engage students in productive learning, it is tempting to locate the 'problem' with the students. However, a critical case study approach allows us to take a broader view of the failings. If we examine the 'problem' within the broader institutional context we see that two key elements play roles in shaping students' attitudes to independent group-based learning.

These are the culture and practices of the institution as a whole, and the culture and practices of the different disciplines within the Faculty

5. The impact of institutional culture

There were several factors at the organisational and structural level that had an impact on the work of the study groups. At the organisational level, factors such as the way each semester was conceptualised as a linear progress towards an end point, marked by an assessment period, worked against the notion that learning takes place in a cyclical manner and is a process rather than a product (Bruner, 1966). Some students saw the units as an unnecessary timetable commitment outside their specialised studies. This conceptual lack of engagement with the units was physically reinforced by the large lecture theatres necessary to accommodate the numbers attending the core units, located on parts of the campus not usually visited by students. Students who were used to the intimacy of purposely designed teaching suites in their specialist areas, were physically distanced from the process when core elements of the unit were 'delivered' in lecture theatres. Furthermore, embedded in many students' expectations was the notion that each week's reading was complete in itself, disconnected both from what had been presented in the previous week and from what would be 'covered' in the weeks following. Once the end of semester was reached and the unit over, it was time to move on to the next thing. However this was not the intention of the course, which prioritised review and reconsideration of the ideas in the light of new perspectives and new theoretical elements. The ramifications of timetabling thus limited the possibility for re-visiting complex ideas.

The notion of efficiency of delivery, which was built into the timetabling system, also had to be replicated in the design of tutorial materials. Selected texts had to try and address all the needs and perspectives in the group. Again there was a clear divide between those students who were able to extrapolate from generic texts and those students who were unable to reflect critically upon ideas and their relationship to their own studies. It might be expected that there would be a division between students based in disciplines considered to be more creative and those based in skills-based areas, but additional factors also came into play that had an impact on students' responses to the group learning. The teaching environment, created by individual lecturers and tutors in the students' discipline base, was one important factor, and this will be examined in more detail below. The students' cultural capital also played an important role in their ability to negotiate with the texts. It is clear that any suggestion that study groups are an economically efficient way of delivering material is to miss the point. Students still need tutor guided activities and lecturer support to engage in deep learning, and it is the broader educational, rather than the administrative, environment within which study groups operate that can make them efficient.

There was a perceptible reluctance to engage in group learning by students who brought with them a perception that if work was not going to be assessed it was not worth doing. This is understandable when students' past learning is circumscribed by instrumental views of learning, which carry with them the expectation that learning is a means to the end of assessment. It might be

argued that there is an inherent contradiction when we say we want students to become autonomous learners in an academic environment that has developed around notions of competition, the pursuit of excellence and individual achievement. There is a further contradiction in saying that individual achievement is valued if that 'achievement' takes place within an institution's own pre-determined boundaries and, further, the 'achievement' is the result of compliance to the institution's norms. We would argue that valuing individual achievement is not the same thing as valuing autonomy.

Connected to the valuing of excellence and individual achievement as products of learning is the valuing of expert authority. When experts adopt a gate-keeping role (and this is a consequence of institutional practices that privilege compliance) then student dependence, rather than independence, is encouraged. In the context of this particular case study, it is important to take into account that tutors involved in supporting the student groups brought with them their own sets of predispositions and experiences that influenced the groups' processes.

6. The cultures of different disciplines

Except for the coordinator, all tutors chosen to facilitate group learning were employed as casual academics. Selected for their philosophical commitment to student-centred learning and for their prior experience of reflexivity in teaching and learning, tutors were drawn from disparate specialist areas including graphic design, computer programming, fashion, and visual arts. Tutors identified with the whole process and recognised its value because they had themselves experienced similar learning contexts. Some tutors were ex-students, so it could be argued in some respects the system was self-perpetuating. Not all those involved in teaching had been students on similar programmes but still they recognised the value of the approach and actively supported students who struggled with the group practices. Group tutors valued the experience and engaged in the process beyond what is usually expected of casually employed tutors. The positive response of the casual tutors teaching on the programme formed a contrast to the responses of many tutors and lecturers teaching students in the specialist areas outside the core programme.

Not all academics involved in first year specialist teaching saw the value of the core programme. While lengthy faculty wide discussions with all first year staff preceded any decision to go ahead with the programme staff, responses remained mixed with some vocal opposition. It was evident that negative attitudes from within different discipline streams spilled out into the attitudes of the students. The authority of tutors working with tutorial groups in the core programme was observed on occasions to be challenged by a handful of students who were resistant to the process. Observations indicated that if the group-based pedagogy did not have validation from specialist tutors and lecturers (whose expertise carried more weight in students' eyes), students would feel justified in expressing resistance to the group process. Students thus appeared to accept without question the normalised pedagogies practised in their specialist areas.

The opposition from specialist lecturers may be explained in terms of their perceived ownership of their skill base. Studies have demonstrated that the socially embedded nature of knowledge can impede cross-discipline and/or collaborative work and knowledge transfer, if the value of the participants' knowledge is seen (rightly or wrongly) to be in jeopardy (Lam, 1997; Empson, 2001). This phenomenon was evident in the responses of some academics to the need to rethink their relationship to their knowledge base and their teaching. The study group process meant that there was a questioning by students of academics' specialist bodies of knowledge and accepted practices. This was seen by some as destabilising their regimes. Students were seen as becoming politicised in this sense – critically questioning existing practices within the commodity culture at the root of the creative industries. Whilst not all students responded by simple expressions of resistance, it is undeniable that many students began to comprehend some of the internal contradictions in their studies, principally the conflict between the rhetoric of creative independence and the reality of consumer based projects.

7. Conclusion

Based on the case study research, we put forward some modest conclusions about the optimum conditions for successful group learning in the creative disciplines. Students' prior experiences form one element of the milieu that, along with institutional practices and expectations at both institutional and local levels, create environments in which group learning may or may not be sustained. One key lesson is about the difficulty of embedding approaches to learning and teaching that interrupt institutional norms (at both institutional and disciplinary levels). The research indicates that study groups can work well in creative discipline areas, but institutional barriers such as transmissive teaching practices and the prioritising of the individual compromise their sustainability. The research also reinforces the idea that productive group work requires an explicit focus on group process on the part of academics. This includes the availability of a supporting back-up system to facilitate group work and model reflexive engagement with texts and with people. It is important to have this in place from the start, though the existence of support systems in itself does not guarantee success.

The research also indicates that students who were most successful were those who had the capacity to be reflexive already and who had experienced an education that was similar in approach or who had come from a creative discipline. Thus students who were doubly reflexive, both as learners having a reflexive engagement in the learning process and as thinkers having a reflexive engagement with the information presented, were able to gain most from the study groups. Students with the cultural capital that matched the content and processes that framed their learning in that context were also more immediately successful than those for whom the core concepts were unfamiliar. Whilst the range of responses could not be broken down as discipline-specific, students' discipline bases did have a bearing on their response to the pedagogy, which suggests that there is a connection between the pedagogies and epistemologies associated with different disciplines. The research showed that the most resistant students were those from disciplines with transmissive pedagogies, and who had

experienced a teaching environment within the university that replicated their experiences of high school teaching and who saw their sole reason for studying as instrumental; in this case, having a vocational orientation.

The research leaves a key question unanswered. To what extent is it possible to have independent educational initiatives within an institutional paradigm that values compliance? In particular, what spaces can be carved out for creative practice in an institution where normalised practices run counter to the development of reflexive, independent learning?

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Mathematics And Culture In The Minority Classroom

Yvette d'Entremont

Campus Saint-Jean/University of Alberta – Canada

yvette@ualberta.ca

Abstract

The integration into the curriculum of the cultural heritage of students encourages them to become more interested in mathematics and to appreciate their culture and the culture of others (Zaslavsky, (1989,1991). However, it is not always evident how to integrate the cultural and identity of students into specific content material. This paper outlines how four math educators developed activities that would help them integrate the culture of minority students as well as other cultures into the mathematics curriculum. The activities summarized in this paper were planned and created utilizing the mandated program of studies and knowledge of the cultural backgrounds of their students and other cultural interests. Mathematics should be presented in a meaningful multi-cultural context that relates to the students' own world and interests and incorporates material from other cultures.

Keywords: mathematics – culture – teaching – francophone - minority

1. Introduction

Teaching mathematics to a group of students with the same mathematical abilities, the same learning styles, and the same cultural backgrounds would probably be easy (Dossey et al, 2002). It might also be very boring. The various lived experiences, cultural backgrounds and learning styles of students makes teaching more interesting and more challenging. Culture can be defined as the beliefs, values, attitudes, customs, social relationships, art and literature that define an ethnic group of people (Abidi, 1996; Banks, 2008). Many teachers in subjects such as mathematics, chemistry, physics and biology are under the impression that mathematics is a non-cultural subject (Banks, 2008; Dalley & d'Entremont, 2004). It is clear however that mathematics is not a culture-free discipline (Zaslavsky, 1998). All cultures are rich in artifacts that exhibit mathematical concepts. Mats and baskets in Uganda demonstrate symmetry, mathematical patterns, and shapes (Kaahwa, 1999). Eglash (1999) studied the mathematics in the designs of the traditional bead work and basket weaving in native cultures. Zaslavsky has demonstrated the link between mathematics and culture in a variety of ways: the development of numeration systems (1973), the characteristic designs of native tapestries (1990), the round house that is traditional in some cultures (1987, 1989) and games of chance (1982).

It is increasingly important to make connections that integrate the cultural heritage of the students with math instruction (Eglash, 1999). One factor that influences learning is children's upbringing. Using objects that are familiar to the students embraces mathematical learning (Kaahwa, 1999). It is important to

acknowledge the knowledge that the children bring into the classroom from their homes and communities (Zaslavsky, 1998). "When mathematics is placed in a relevant context, it has meaning for students" (Zaslavsky, 1998, p.503).

According to the Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics (NCTM, 1989), students should have numerous and varied experiences related to the cultural, historical and scientific evolution of mathematics. Students can learn that mathematics arose from real needs and interests within a society. "Mathematics is one of the greatest cultural and intellectual achievements of humankind, and citizens should develop an appreciation and understanding of that achievement, including its aesthetic and even recreational aspects" (NCTM, 2000, p.4).

The student brings with him all the results of previous learning and experiences (Eckermann, 1994). This knowledge is extremely valuable in the classroom as it helps students relate the mathematical concepts to his lived experience. Civil (2002) emphasizes the need to develop mathematical learning experiences that sensitive to the cultural experiences of students. These experiences are often rich in mathematics. One such example is the quilt. In many cultures, quilt making is a tradition that has been passed on to future generations. The creation of a quilt is mathematical in nature and the final product is a work of art.

To enjoy a rich learning experience, students should be exposed to a variety of cultural experiences and resources. Schools can help students learn about their own culture as well as other cultures through the use of activities that demonstrate a relationship between culture and mathematics.

2. Context

Four mathematics educators participating in a graduate level course on Mathematics and Culture were interested in creating activities that would link mathematical content to culture as outlined in the mathematics program of studies. The four participants were female and taught at different grade levels at different schools. The participants were practicing teachers in Francophone schools in the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan. The provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan are English dominant.

In the province of Alberta, the mathematics program of studies recommends that teachers incorporate lived experiences of students into their teaching. The Alberta Education Mathematics Kindergarten to Grade 9 Program of Studies (2007) indicates that "they (students) come to classrooms with varying knowledge, life experiences and backgrounds. A key component in successfully developing numeracy is making connections to these backgrounds and experiences" (p.1). The mathematics program of studies in Saskatchewan makes the same recommendation. It encourages teachers to design problems related to the students' environment and to use materials with which the student is familiar with (Saskatchewan Education, 1992). The activities created by the participants were related to the mandated mathematics program of studies their home province of the participants

3. Methodology

Four school mathematics educators were enrolled in a graduate level course entitled Mathematics and Culture that had the following questions as objectives.

- 1) How can learning be influenced by one's culture?
- 2) How can teaching be influenced by one's culture?
- 3) How can culture be integrated into the study of mathematics?
- 4) How can we learn about other cultures through the study of mathematics?

The four mathematics educators were first asked:

- 1) To define culture as it means to them.
- 2) To indicate how it was demonstrated in their own classroom.
- 3) To identify the cultural backgrounds of their students.

Subsequently, they were asked to develop and plan an activity that would integrate mathematics and culture. Two criteria were given: 1) the activity could be related to the cultural traditions and beliefs of the students in their own classroom or 2) it could be related to another culture in order to simply the understanding of a mathematical concept.

The intent of the activity was to allow the educators to reflect not only on their own practice but also on the cultural values and beliefs of their students. The methodology followed was one of action research as the main area of focus was to reflect on their teaching in order to improve or enhance it. This reflection served to better respond to the objectives in the mandated mathematics program of studies. The second step involved the planning and the development of the activities and their relationship to culture and mathematics. The third step was the implementation of the activity to be completed in their classrooms with their students after the course.

4. Results and discussion

The activities developed by the four mathematics educators correspond to content integration of culture which is only one element of multicultural education. Content integration deals with the way and the extent to which educators use traditions and information related to the cultural backgrounds of their students to "illustrate the key concepts, principles, generalizations, and theories in their subject area or discipline" (Banks, 2008, p.31).

The results summarize the activities developed by the participants and the reason why they chose the activity.

Joanne*, a junior high school teacher, immediately knew that she wanted to prepare an activity related to Roman Numerals. Her immediate reaction was very interesting as the study of Roman Numerals has not been part of the Alberta Mathematics Program of Studies for at least 20-25 years. Upon further questioning, it became apparent why she chose this topic. There were two reasons. She and her students were studying the novel *The Count of Monte Cristo* by Alexandre Dumas but the students were unable to quickly find the chapter being studied nor were they able to read the names of the kings because they were written using Roman Numerals. The second reason was that the

students would be going on a trip to France. She wanted to help the students make the most of their trip as they would be visiting a number of historical monuments and buildings where the dates were recorded with Roman numerals. She felt it would be beneficial and important to at least be able to read and write basic numbers in Roman Numerals. A visit to Vimy Ridge demonstrates that certain historical events are noted using Roman Numerals, for example, World War I (WW I) and World War II (WW II). The districts in Paris (les arrondissements) are written in Roman Numerals: for example, the Louvre is in the Ith arrondissement, Notre-Dame de Paris is in the IVth and the Eiffel Tower is in the VIIth.

The objectives of the student activity were:

- 1) To be able to recognize and identify the following Roman numerals
I = 1, V = 5, X = 10, L = 50, C = 100, D = 500, M = 1000,
- 2) To be able to write Roman numerals,
- 3) To study the history of Roman numerals, and
- 4) To relate the use of Roman numerals in today's society.

Although it is easier to read Arabic numerals (1988 is much easier to read than MCMLXXXVIII), Roman numerals continue to be used in a variety of ways: to mark the hours on clock faces, to express copyright dates, to indicate specific sporting events such as the Olympics, to name monarchs and popes, etc. Students would have a better understanding of historical and certain current events if they had knowledge of Roman numerals.

Sandra*, an elementary teacher, chose to have the students develop their own number system that could be used to count and label things in units, tens and hundreds. The students studied the following example (Figure 1) of Hieroglyphic writing used by the Egyptians in 3 000 BC as a way of writing numerals. The students were asked to describe each symbol. They are: single stroke=1, heel bone=10, coiled rope=100, lotus flower=1 000, bent finger=10 000, tadpole=100 000, astonished person=1 000 000.

| Value | 1 | 10 | 100 | 1,000 | 10,000 | 100,000 | 1 million |
|------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Egyptian Numeral |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Description of Symbol | Single stroke | Heel bone | Coil <u>rope</u> | of Lotus flower | Bent finger | <u>Tadpole</u> | Astonished person |

Figure 1: Hieroglyphic writing (Krause, 2000, p.2)

The students were to imagine themselves as part of a community that sold goods at market such as cows, blankets, vegetables. The "sellers" and "buyers" must develop a number system that would allow them to keep track of their inventory and their money without use of the Arabic number system. The students could work in groups to develop their own numeration system and explain how it could

be used. The students were to practice using their numeration system by setting up a number of market stalls in the classroom. The intent of the activity was to explore another culture while at the same time developing mathematical problem solving and numerical sense.

Christine*, a junior high school teacher, chose to teach the geometrical concepts of congruency, symmetry, translation, rotation and reflection using "Dream Catchers" (Figure 2).



Figure 2: Dream Catcher

Source : <http://lahuronniere.com/Resources/dessin-captur-de-reves.jpeg>
(Accessed: May 12, 2008)

Christine chose to introduce the unit of study by asking students what they know about Dream Catchers and why they called Dream Catchers. Students have seen a variety of Dream Catchers as they are readily available for purchase. The Indian legend says that the dream catcher filters the pleasant dreams from the bad dreams. The dream catcher allows the good dreams to slip through the hole in the centre while capturing the bad dreams in its web. At day break, the bad dreams perish while the good dreams remain. The components and the significance of the Dream Catchers are discussed with the students: the round hoop, the circle in the centre, the beads and the feathers. By providing the students with the necessary materials, the students create their own Dream Catcher. In order to create the design, the students will, unknowingly, be using the mathematical concepts of symmetry, translation, rotation and reflection. The completed Dream Catchers can then be used to illustrate these concepts. This activity demonstrates the relationship between mathematical concepts and First Nations and Métis cultures. Western Canada has a strong First Nations and Métis population and these students "often look for connections in learning and learn best when mathematics is contextualized" (Alberta Education, 2007, p4). Other students can also appreciate a different culture.

Michelle* teachers in a small French community where the French language and culture are very much is evidence. This small community sponsors a yearly winter carnival where all Francophone and French Immersion students are invited to participate. The six day carnival hosts a number of events. In evidence

is the "ceinture fléchée (the French sash or arrow sash) as worn by the majority of participants (Figure 3). The activity created by the educator allows the students to study the history of the ceinture fléchée, an artifact of their own culture, as well as the mathematics required to create one. Where did it come from? What was it used for? Who used it? These are a few of the questions that the students must research. Although the students are aware of its existence, they may even have one of their own, they do not know its history as they think of it only as a colorful accessory that one wears during the winter festival. The students are invited to bring a ceinture fléchée from home and discuss the regularity of its pattern. With the materials provided, the students draw a design on paper that they will be able to reproduce using a variety of colored strings. The creation of a ceinture fléchée will require knowledge of the mathematical concepts of symmetry, regularities in patterns, translations and reflections. Since the ceinture fléchée is present in the students' own culture and experiences, it promotes the value of their own culture. This activity may also be presented in the context of a social studies or an art lesson.



Figure 3 : Ceinture fléchée

Source : http://www.canadiantapestry.ca/images/pla-img-T89_0158.jpg
(Accessed : May 12, 2008)

5. Conclusion

The activities created by the four participants indicate that it is possible for teachers to create activities that demonstrate the relationship between culture and mathematics. Joanne and Sandra created activities that would help their students understand an ancient culture and historical events whereas Christine

and Michelle created activities that involved the culture of their own students. The creation of such activities is essential due to the fact that the cultural diversity of Canadian classroom is constantly changing. The results of the 2006 Census indicate that more and more Canadians are listing a language other than English as their first langue. This is an indication that the students in Canadian classrooms come from diverse cultural backgrounds. Curriculum developers and mathematics educators should take advantage of this diversity to enhance the learning of mathematics through social and cultural activities. "The learning environment should value and respect the diversity of students' experiences and ways of thinking, so that children are comfortable taking intellectual risks, asking questions and posing conjectures" (Alberta Education, 2007, p1). Teachers must find ways to use students' differences and strengths to make mathematics meaningful to students and interesting to teach. Students should be actively involved in mathematics class by sharing cultural activities from which the teacher can create mathematical experiences that correspond to specific mathematical concepts. It is evident that different cultures have different traditions and different histories (Ascher, 2002) and that the discussion of mathematical ideas though the lens of our own culture can lead us to think about our culture as well as other cultures.

* All names have been changed to protect the identity of the participants.

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Rethinking School Experience: A Case Study

Geraldine Ditchburn

Murdoch University – Australia

G.Ditchburn@murdoch.edu.au

Abstract

This action research initiative proposes an alternative model of school experience to better prepare pre-service teachers for the changing realities and requirements of teachers' work. The ultimate objective of the research was to trial an alternative model of school experience that more closely aligned with the aims of the Bachelor of Education course and provided opportunities for pre-service teachers to engage in research of their practice in order to better understand teaching and learning in schools.

The research is broadly based on Ernest Boyer's (1990) notion of the 'scholarship of engagement' and Kincheloe's (2001) work on 'new ways of knowing and producing knowledge', as well as references to empirical work undertaken by Kruger and Cherednichenko (2005/6). These works provide the theoretical basis on which primary data, sourced from stakeholders, could be analysed using a qualitative approach.

The research indicated the capacity of pre-service teachers to theorise about teaching and learning and the results will be used not only to inform future models of school experience, but to investigate ways to facilitate greater collaboration between key stakeholders in the induction of teachers.

Keywords: scholarship of engagement – pre-service teacher education - school experience – action research

1. Introduction

The intention of this paper is to report on the outcome of a small-scale change in one unit of the school experience program for secondary Bachelor of Education pre-service teachers at Murdoch University. The original impetus for this change arose from a purely pragmatic concern that this cohort did not have a school experience unit in the second year of their four-year course. This resulted in a gap of over 18 months between school experiences, which, in effect, distanced their on-campus learning from the realities of teaching and schools. However, as the new unit began to take shape, it became apparent that a different type of school experience was needed, a unit that more closely tied with the aims of the pre-service course and with the current context of schooling in Australia.

The ultimate question that has driven the change in school experience and the research surrounding it has been: How can the new school experience unit more adequately provide opportunities for our pre-service teachers to be researchers of their own practice? The changes that ultimately emerged and subsequent research were informed by Boyer's notion of the scholarship of engagement (1990) and service learning as well as Kincheloe's (2001) perspectives on knowledge consumption and creation. It was also inspired by Kruger and

Cherednichenko's (2005/6) empirical work on praxis and communities of inquiry. An action research approach was considered to be the most valid way of interrogating this question in order to further understand our own assumptions and practices and enact appropriate change.

The results of this research, particularly regarding the demonstrated capacity of pre-service teachers to undertake small research projects and to theorise about teaching and learning, will be used to inform future innovations associated with school experience. Issues relating to stakeholder relationships and partnerships, not elaborated on in this paper, will provide additional questions for further research.

1.1. Background

Pre-service teachers enrolled in their first core unit in the School of Education at Murdoch University are reminded of the increasing complexity and diversity of roles that teachers undertake as part of their daily work. They are informed that the role of the teacher consists of far more than classroom instruction and that the learning process for themselves and their future students is a fundamental and on-going aspect of their professional development. There is an emphasis on the centrality of critical reflection (Schon, 1987) as a core and 'lived' component of their professional practice. Ultimately, we want our pre-service teachers to aspire to become creative and visionary, knowledgeable and student-centred in their pedagogy, collaborative in their approach, socially just and resilient teachers^x. At a minimum, this vision requires that there is an intentional realignment of a common community perception of 'the teacher as instructor/technician' with an alternative construction of 'the teacher as researcher' where 'research is a normal part of teaching practice' (Australian Council of Deans of Education, 2005: 10). As Kincheloe summarises, teachers need to be 'self-directed agents, sophisticated thinkers, active researchers in a never-static, ambiguous context' (Kincheloe, 1998: 40).

Within an increasingly complex political environment where policy shifts and changing requirements constantly demand more from them, it is crucial that teachers create opportunities to engage in research practices in order to maintain a degree of innovation and ownership over their work. These research practices may be about an analysis of simple changes to classroom procedures or curriculum construction, or changes in use of space or resources. Whatever the scale of change, the critical element is that there is an intentional and explicit approach to understanding the reality of their work and their capacity to be an agent of change (Tripp, 1993). Accessing knowledge in this way allows for a greater capacity for teachers to act as more autonomous agents within an increasingly controlled context. As Carr and Kemmis (1986) purport, the ultimate purpose of this model of understanding teachers' work is empowerment because such a perspective encourages teachers to interrogate their practices, question their assumptions and to fully understand the context of their own situations.

^x Unpublished. These attributes have been referred to as part of an on-going discussion and review of the aims of the Bachelor of Education programs

1.2. Issues

However, while the perspective of teacher as researcher may have informed many of our on-campus units, they were not always emphasized in school experience. A key imperative in constructing the new school experience unit was to ensure that the pre-service teachers were provided with opportunities to engage in research into real issues of teaching and learning in classrooms. We wanted them to appreciate that as researchers, teachers are required to constantly interrogate and question underlying assumptions about curriculum, pedagogy and their interactions with others and that in finding the 'right' answer, several alternative paths may need to be explored and analysed. Further, we wanted the schools and the teachers to 'be on the same page' in terms of the tasks and the approaches that the pre-service teachers were asked to complete. We wanted them and their mentor teachers to work in collaboration in trying to understand and accommodate the specific learning needs of school students. But, in achieving these goals, there were several issues that we needed to consider.

One issue related to the importance of relationships and power during the school experience. The common school experience structure used at Murdoch University is one where our pre-service teachers are placed in a school for a block of two weeks and teach in their curriculum specialism. Anecdotal evidence suggested that this structure tends to encourage a more hierarchical relationship between the pre-service teacher and the mentor teacher, exacerbated by the fact that the mentor teacher is also part assessor. While the inclusion of a university supervisor goes some way towards diminishing the potential tensions between mentor/assessor roles, many of our pre-service teachers may be reluctant to question, critique or in any way upset their mentors, thereby setting up a relationship is not always conducive to collaborative inquiry. This structure is more likely to create a dynamic where the pre-service teacher is regarded as the novice, rather than a partner, in a relationship that largely relies on the mentor teacher being the conduit of information about the school, the school students, the curriculum and pedagogy. Therefore we needed to ensure a flatter set of relationships was embedded into the new school experience unit.

Further, the common requirement that the pre-service teachers take charge of whole class groups almost from the outset of their courses, added another layer of concern that was ultimately considered in the construction of the new unit. It was believed that such a responsibility would not inspire the confidence of pre-service teachers to take risks and experiment with their pedagogies and resources. Rather, it was believed that the inclination to take risks and attempt new approaches is far easier in a more contained environment, working with fewer students, where the stakes are lower and the effects less likely to be irreparable if those approaches fail.

Thus, it was believed that opportunities for pre-service teachers to take 'risks' in a 'safe' environment and to make research a central and collaborative component of the experience needed to be factored into the new school experience unit.

At the same time as these issues were being recognized, broader government inquiries and reports were suggesting that not only should schools do more to raise educational standards and improve the quality of education but that university programs, including school experience, in teacher education should be scrutinised more fully.

2. Policy Context

Education in Australia is currently experiencing a surge of political attention. Firstly, there have been numerous reports and papers published as a result of parliamentary inquiries into education in general and into teacher education in particular, to try to identify the reasons why students are supposedly 'failing' (Down, 2006: 84). Teacher education is under the microscope, and the provision, structure and funding of school experience has been given particular attention. Australian Federal Government reports including *Top of the Class: Report on the inquiry into teacher education* (2007); *The Future of Schooling in Australia* (April 2007); government policy initiatives including *Teachers for the 21st Century – Making the Difference*; and the ACER's *Pre-service teacher education in Australia* (2004); and the earlier, *Preparing for a Profession* (1998) note the critical role of teacher education providers in raising 'standards' in education even though it is acknowledged that the system is not 'in crisis' (*Top of the Class*, 2007)

Secondly, over the last two years, issues about a national curriculum and teacher competence and accountability, attrition rates, registration and post compulsory schooling have all been the subject of directives from both state and federal departments of education^{xi}. There appears to be no shortage of advice about what teachers need to do to improve 'standards'. There's talk of performance based pay, curriculum audits, quality assurance, testing. While there is insufficient space to detail each of these requirements, (these have been described by others including Down 2006; Smyth 2001) the result is greater pressure to perform and conform. This 'heavy duty' accountability (Troman, quoted in Kruger, 2005/6: 1) and increasingly top down policy making demand that teachers reconstruct and reclaim their professional autonomy.

The point is that, according to Down (2007), in an Australian educational climate that is increasingly characterized by more intrusive government requirements especially regarding control over curriculum and assessment, it is clear that teachers will increasingly require the capacity to interrogate and critically reflect on the impact of top-down change on their work. A perspective such as this has the potential to enable teachers to understand and critique the range of elements that may impact on the profession and on teaching and learning in secondary schools. So, for our pre-service teachers, there is a need to ensure that critique and intentional engagement and a sense of autonomy are embedded in our programs, and especially in school experience.

^{xi} In the Australian context, the Federal Government is responsible for higher education; the states and territories are responsible for school education

3. Theoretical Orientations

Ernest Boyer's (1990) 'scholarship of engagement' provides a useful framework around which the process and outcome of the implementation of the new school experience unit can be situated. Boyer's central thesis is that university learning and research should be broadened to connect to real life situations and be utilized in ways that address everyday issues and concerns in local and immediate environments in order that they remain relevant and purposeful to contemporary society. Boyer's insistence that research target the things that matter for real people with a focus on 'service learning' or, action based activities, represents a shift from more traditional understandings about common university research orientations. He noted that there was 'a disturbing gap between the college and the larger world ... an intellectual and social isolation that reduces the effectiveness of the college and limits the vision of the students' (Boyer, 1990: 151).

In effect, his thesis suggests that a large part of universities' research work contributes to the creation of separate silos of knowledge with little explicit and intentional connections made between theory and reality. It seems that 'the sandstone and the fibro' remain as separate and exclusive entities unless we envision the notion of scholarship and research in different and mutually beneficial ways. As Down (2007) suggests, such a construction requires that we think about resources, challenges, dilemmas, problems and power in ways that overturn common assumptions about the research process and outcomes. It requires a level of engagement that flattens hierarchies and foregrounds participation, partnerships and inclusivity in order to provide opportunities for pre-service teachers (and others) to be 'treated as valuable resources, not just recipients of what the organizations were trying to teach' (Carver, 1997: 144). It is about giving a 'voice' to those who are not normally invited to participate in the conversation. In a practical sense it ultimately suggests that we question our sources of knowledge and acknowledge the capacity of pre-service and practicing teachers to generate theory from practice and to use theory to inform practice in a cycle of critical engagement.

The benefits of such approaches where knowledge is generated from 'below' and utilized in ways that inform and are applied to real situations, can include a range of cognitive and affective domains. 'Consciously integrating students' experiences', can encourage pre-service teachers to be 'more effective change agents' and develop a sense of belonging and competence (Carver 1997:143). Carver states, the process can involve cognitive and affective elements:

... facing challenges ... conquering fears, building strengths, overcoming weaknesses ... developing social skills including active listening ... making mistakes, struggling, reflecting on experiences and being exposed to constructive feedback (Carver, 1997: 146)

Further connections between Boyer's thesis may also be made with approaches to critical pedagogies that stress 'new ways of knowing and producing knowledge' (Kincheloe, 2001: 372). Characterised by inquiry, participation, dialogue, inclusivity, an appreciation of diversity and a commitment to reflection and empowerment, such pedagogies have the potential to open the way for pre-

service teachers to construct understandings of teaching and learning that have relevance and meaning for them. Kincheloe posits that teachers need to:

... construct their own views of their practice; they do not implement the constructs of others or act in response to officially-certified knowledge base. They discover asymmetries and contradictions ... (in)... the untidy world of learners and schools (Kincheloe, 1998: 40).

In a fundamental way, Kincheloe argues that 'Critical research is praxis. Praxis involves the inseparability of theory and practice – that is, informed practice ... in relationship with the real world, not simply as objects of abstract contemplation' (Kincheloe, 1998: 43).

In a similar tradition, Kruger and Cherednichenko (2005/6) have applied notions of praxis to their pre-service teacher education programs. 'Walking the talk' with pre-service teachers at Victoria University of Technology, their education programs feature demonstrable evidence of social utility and connections to praxis that resonate with the work we have done. Their project is characterised by the search for 'authentic' practices and contexts to enable all stakeholders to collectively reach an understanding of what effective teaching looks like while working in teams or 'communities of inquiry' (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 2001, quoted in Kruger et al, 2005/6:4).

It was this broad framework including the scholarship of engagement and service learning, action research and praxis that ultimately informed the changes that were made to school experience. It recognized that school experience should encourage pre-service teachers to undertake 'reality research' for practical and immediate purposes using methods that challenged common assumptions about learning, teaching, knowledge, power and relationships.

4. Action

Prior to 2007 there had been two School of Education initiatives that paved the way for more a radical change in the provision of school experience. The first of these was a small scale Partnerships for Professional Learning (PPL) program where Principals from a number of local schools would regularly meet with university staff to discuss common issues related to school experience. An important outcome of this initiative was the introduction of distributed days for some school experience units and, more importantly, the establishment of more effective and on-going relations with local schools. Another initiative was the establishment of a working party to review school experience. There were two important outcomes achieved by this working party. The first was the creation of an extended school experience that embedded theory units and school experience. The second was the creation of an entirely new school experience school experience unit for second year students that had a research focus.

The new unit was a core, required unit from 2007 and represented the only school experience unit in this year of their studies. Students were required to attend the school two days a week for five weeks (=10 days in the school). As per other school experience units, each student was allocated a mentor teacher

in the school and a university supervisor was assigned to liaise with and support them during the school experience. The unit was intended to 'extend the students' understanding of teaching and learning in secondary school classrooms ... and ... the complexities involved in identifying and responding to the needs of learners' (EDU 3163 Unit Guide, 2007: 1)

During their time in the school, the pre-service teachers' immediate focus was to assist four secondary school students. As part of the project, the pre-service teachers were asked to identify the learning needs of their assigned students, conduct research into the possible causes and manifestations of these needs and prepare teaching and learning strategies or resources to assist the students. Throughout their placement, they were required to collaborate with their mentor teacher and supervisor, maintain a critical reflective journal of their thoughts and actions, conundrums and dilemmas, undertake reading as required and to submit a small research report on their work. A major component of this report featured an analysis of what they learned about teaching and learning within the particular school and classroom context as well as their understandings of themselves as teachers and as learners.

The selection of secondary school students with whom the pre-service teachers worked was invariably determined by the mentor teachers who had understandably identified the needs of their students. It should be pointed out that not all the school students were under-achievers nor were they students with particular physical needs, although this was a common assumption held by many of the teachers in the early stages of the school experience. Some of the assigned school students were people who may have lacked motivation or who required extension and further challenge. It was stressed that the pre-service teachers were not to be considered as teacher assistants who were there to undertake the more menial tasks associated with teaching, such as photocopying. Their task was essentially to understand the students' learning needs, consider how they might go about addressing them and to evaluate and critically reflect on the experience.

In their final research report, the pre-service teachers were provided with a proforma to structure their responses. Following a similar model used by Kruger and Cherednichenko (2005/6: 5), the report was divided into four sections: The Context (school and classroom context); The Students (a description of the needs of their students and on what bases they ascertained this); The Action (a description of the literature that was consulted, the strategies used, their relative effectiveness and how they knew whether strategies were effective or ineffective); and The Learning (what they as teachers learned about effective teaching and learning and about themselves as learners and teachers). The tasks were intentionally broad in order to provide scope for the students to describe and validate their own experience.

5. Methodology

The introduction of the new unit was the focus of our research. The purpose of this research was to generate knowledge to inform and improve our future constructions of school experience units, or to 'research on the conditions and

effects of various forms of social action and research leading to social action' (Lewin, quoted in Showler, 2000: 2). As such our research followed the principles of action research as articulated by Lewin (1946) and incorporated the collection of valid data to make informed choices about ways to improve practices.

Using a 'process of exploration' (Hammersely & Atkinson, 1983: 10), the research methodology drew on the interpretations and realities of the participants. Data were generated from multiple sources including written feedback, the pre-service teachers' research reports and structured conversations with a sample of stakeholders (Patton, 2002: 9). It thereby used a process that was 'systematic [and] intentional' (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1993:7). For the purposes of this paper, the focus will be on the responses from the pre-service teachers.

In the initial briefing, a Unit Guide, which described the outcomes and requirements of the unit, was distributed to the students and supervisors and an explanatory presentation elaborated on the pragmatic and conceptual details. At this briefing, students and supervisors were encouraged to complete a feedback sheet at the end of the unit, about their response to the innovation and this was later used as a source of data to inform future manifestations of the unit.

Pre-service teachers and supervisors were also informed that a follow-up focus group meeting would be held after the school experience in order to debrief and share findings. (However, because of the timing of the meeting after the formal assessment period, this meeting did not take place). To replace the focus group meeting, audio taped structured conversations with voluntary respondents (mentor teachers, supervisors and pre-service teachers) were conducted several weeks after the school experience had finished and the students' research projects had been assessed. For the pre-service teachers, these conversations were designed to allow them to describe their experiences of the unit and to reflect on their learning about several key themes: identifying and catering for students' needs; student learning; their own learning; their sense of themselves as teachers.

6. Responses

As this new unit did not 'look' like any of the other school experience units, initially there was a degree of trepidation about doing things differently. The greatest obstacle for all people involved in the new unit was in coming to grips with its purposes and the tasks that were required. The unit required all stakeholders (pre-service teachers, mentor teachers and supervisors) to conceptualise the school experience in ways that were unfamiliar and for some, quite challenging. Despite the fact that concepts such as reflective practice were a part of the pre-service teachers' lexicon and undertaking research a familiar component of their studies, many were initially apprehensive about their ability to engage with this 'real life' example of research involving humans and real issues. In fact, a number of teachers and some of the supervisors commented that it would have been easier if the pre-service teachers had just been allowed to 'take a class'.

Also interesting was the way in which pragmatic considerations muddled the pre-service teachers' perceptions of the new unit. In the early part of the conversations, they were asked generally about their experience of the unit. Without prompting, many referred to the timing of the experience (fourth term and close to examinations) or that the distributed days over five weeks interrupted their study schedule. These practical issues tended to dominate the initial phase of the conversations with the pre-service teachers.

However, even more revealing was that in each case, all of the pre-service teachers, often without pause, were eventually able to go beyond these immediate and practical concerns and begin to theorise about the teaching and learning process. Their personal reflections described in interviews quite clearly demonstrated their ability to use their school experience to make sense of teaching and learning in ways that were meaningful and powerful for themselves. Even though much of the theorising that the pre-service teachers elucidated may be found in numerous texts in education, the point was that these pre-service teachers not only understood the theory but were able to make personal connections with it. In this way, their responses resonated with Kincheloe's thesis on knowledge creation and Cochrane-Smith and Lytle's work on the context specific nature of teaching and learning.

While a considerable amount of data was generated as a result of the formal feedback and conversations with stakeholders, the following snapshots provide a glimpse of the pre-service teachers' thinking.

The pre-service teachers spoke about the centrality of effective relationships a necessary pre-requisite for effective teaching and learning. One of the pre-service teachers insisted on the importance of *'building individual relationships and building a sense of trust [with the students] before trying to go further'*; and another ... *There are lots of hidden things [in teaching] and you have to get to know the students*. Others mentioned how their collaborative relationships with the mentor teacher enabled them to 'feel' like a teacher because *'[the mentor teacher] included me in a lot of the things that she was doing. I felt like a colleague rather than a teacher assistant ... I felt more confident that I can actually do this'*; and another said, *'the most beneficial aspect of this [school experience] was the interaction with teachers'*.

The pre-service teachers were also able to elaborate on the range and diversity of students' needs and the adjustments that teachers need to make in order to cater for them. One student commented that *'accommodating each student is a task in itself ... I understood them more towards the end when I could reflect on things more. My understandings changed after having been with them for a period of time'*. Another pre-service teacher described how the situation reminded her of how difficult it can be to learn new things: *'When I'm trying to learn something I forgot how long it actually takes to learn something new ... things happen at different rates for different people ...'*

They spoke about the dichotomies between theory they had learned on-campus and their experience of the practical realities of teaching: *At uni... there's been talk about student oriented teaching approaches ... but the teacher I was with ... was ...very teacher oriented ... and some students seemed to respond very well to that but it was really obvious that there were some students who seemed to*

be too ... intimidated to ask for assistance or to make comments ... and I found it very enlightening ...

Perhaps the final note belongs to the pre-service teacher who made a general comment about a 'problem' student with whom he was working and who would have been overlooked in the usual classroom context. The pre-service teacher noted that the experience of working with this student highlighted the folly of adopting pre-conceived notions of student abilities. By using the student's perspective as a starting point, the pre-service teacher was forced to reassess his own assumptions and implement strategies that more closely aligned with the reality of the student's needs.

7. Concluding comments

Our original pragmatic task to include a school experience unit for our second year pre-service teachers created an opportunity to imagine a different way of conceptualising school experience, one that has longer term implications for future directions in our program.

The ultimate task to investigate ways to more fully incorporate a research focus into school experience has provided a sense of the possible. Most importantly, it has vindicated the capacity of students to engage in theorizing about their practice in ways that are meaningful for them and appropriate in a school context. On a basic level, this one change has also shown that practical aspects of any innovation, such as timing and administration, can be used to support or undermine well-intentioned innovations. The project also demonstrated the key role mentor teachers and supervisors play in either supporting or challenging students and the tasks required of them.

More importantly however, the implementation of the new unit and reflective processes attached to the subsequent research, indicated that there is a real potential, far greater than first imagined, in creating spaces for students and mentor teachers and universities to work together in 'communities of inquiry' to further understand teaching and learning. Ultimately, the project has demonstrated the important learning that can occur when we rethink the purposes and organisation of school experience so that we provide pre-service teachers with a sense of themselves as autonomous agents of change who have the capacity, both individually and collectively, to critically engage in understanding teaching and learning in real contexts.

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The Dialogic Reading Inventory of Parent-Child Reading

Lisbeth Dixon-Krauss, Chan Chae

Florida International University – USA

kraussl@fiu.edu

Abstract

This study reports construction of the Dialogic Reading Inventory (DRI), a tool for assessing a parent's and child's book reading behaviors. The Adult-Child Interactive Reading Inventory (DeBruin-Parecki, 1999) items were grouped into four categories and revised. Twenty-three parent-child dyads were videotaped reading a storybook. The videotaped sessions were scored on the DRI by five graduate student raters (N=115). Internal consistency Coefficient alpha was .89, and the split-half coefficient was .97. Inter-rater reliability was satisfactory. Results of the factor analysis showed the print /phonological awareness factor accounted for 39.34% of the item variance, the comprehension/vocabulary factor accounted for 22.49%, and the attention factor accounted for 17.40%. The original DRI categories were maintained: (a) *Print Awareness/Alphabet Knowledge*, (b) *Phonological Awareness*, (c) *Comprehension/Vocabulary*, and (d) *Attention to Text*. Results support the conclusion that the DRI is a viable assessment for parent-child book reading.

Keywords: dialogic - reading – inventory – interactive - shared

1. Introduction

Emergent literacy refers to children's developing knowledge about reading that is acquired before formal schooling and will later influence their conventional forms of reading and writing (Bowman, Donovan & Burns, 2001; Teale & Sulzby, 1986). Typical preliterate skills influenced by families during the emergent literacy stage include enjoyment of reading, vocabulary development, knowledge of story structure, and phonemic awareness (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998), and these skills are primarily developed through reading storybooks to young children. This study reports the construction of the Dialogic Reading Inventory (DRI) for parent and child, a tool for assessing parent/child book reading behaviors. The DRI is a mediated assessment tool that measures literacy performance of children while they are engaged in an adult supported reading activity (Dixon-Krauss, 1996). Mediated assessments are dynamic because they project what children's future performance could be by analyzing what they can presently do with adult support.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Reading Aloud to Children

The relationships between preschool storybook reading and expressive vocabulary improvement (Arnold, Lonigan, Whitehurst & Epstein, 1994), and later school literacy performance, spelling, and IQ are well documented (Stevenson & Fredman, 1990; Wells, 1985). However, there are significant differences in quantity and quality of parent-child reading based on income level. Adams (1990) found that students from low-income families entered first grade with an average of 25 hours of picture book reading with their parents, whereas middle-income students had between 1,000-1,700 hours. When low-income parents read to their children, they generally read through the story with less dialogue or instructive behaviors (Ninio, 1980).

The influences of listening to stories on children's preliterate skill development are also documented. Wells (1985) found that the amount of story reading for one- to three-year-olds correlates with teacher ratings of oral language skills at age 5 and reading comprehension skills at age 7. Also, the number of books in a preschooler's house and the number of visits to a library correlated with phonological awareness (Raz and Bryant, 1990). Several studies addressed the use of dialogic reading to improve a child's expressive vocabulary (Arnold, Lonigan, Whitehurst & Epstein, 1994; Hargrave & Senechal, 2000; Whitehurst et al., 1988; Whitehurst, Arnold, Epstein, Angell, Smith & Fischel, 1994).

2.2. Dialogic Reading

Dialogic reading is a form of shared book reading that includes a high level of parent-child verbal interaction (Arnold & Whitehurst, 1994; Fielding-Barnsley & Purdie, 2003; Whitehurst et al., 1994; Zevenbergen & Whitehurst, 2003). In traditional storybook reading, the parent tells the story, but the goal in dialogic reading is for the child to tell the story. Dialogic reading consists of three principles: (a) evocative techniques, (b) parental feedback, and (c) progressive change (Arnold & Whitehurst, 1994). Examples of evocative techniques include asking the child questions or responding to a child's idea about the story. Parental feedback involves expanding, modeling, correcting, or praising what the child says. The idea of progressive change is based on Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1986). Progressive change requires the adult to provide activities that are just slightly more difficult than what the child could accomplish alone, but these activities can be done with adult support, (e.g., asking the child an object's function after the child recognizes the object's name).

Grover Whitehurst and a group of colleagues initially compared the dialogic reading technique to traditional storybook reading with middle income families (Whitehurst, Falco, Lonigan, Fischel, DeBaryshe, & Valdez-Menchaca, 1988). Parents in the experimental group were trained on how to read dialogically to their young children. Results showed children in the dialogic reading group scored significantly higher on tests of expressive language development, (i.e.,

mean length of utterances, frequency of phrases, and frequency of multiple words), when compared to students in the traditional storybook reading group. These studies on the dialogic book reading technique were expanded to include daycare teachers reading to small groups of five children from low-income families (Whitehurst et al., 1994), daycare settings with larger groups of eight students (Hargrave & Senechal, 2000), and the home plus school settings (Hargrave & Senechal, 2000; Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998; Whitehurst et al., 1994). Results of these studies revealed that dialogic reading had a greater effect on children's expressive language development than traditional book reading when done in the home and the school settings.

Arnold, Lonigan, Whitehurst, and Epstein (1994) tested the use of video presentation training with parents and two-year-olds from middle to higher income families. Results showed the video training to be the most cost-effective method of training parents to implement the dialogic reading techniques. Use of the dialogic reading video for parents was expanded to include community health centers that provide medical services to low income families (Blom-Hoffman, O'Neil,-Pirozzi & Cutting, 2006).

2.3. Adult and Child Interactive Reading Inventory

DeBruin-Parecki (1999) constructed an Adult and Child Interactive Reading Inventory (ACIRI) to measure storybook reading behaviors. The ACIRI monitored both parent and child literacy behaviors in three categories: (a) enhancing attention to text, (b) promoting reading and supporting comprehension, and (c) using literacy strategies. Each category contained four literacy behaviors for a total evaluation of 12 specific literacy behaviors recorded. The ACIRI was administered by an observer who watches a parent/child storybook reading episode and tallies the specific literacy behaviors observed. The instrument was field tested within an Even Start family literacy home visiting program. Even Start teachers administered the ACIRI in September and in May, and they used the September assessment to guide the instruction of the parents in shared book reading techniques. DeBruin-Parecki (1999) found the parent's ACIRI score significantly correlated to the child's ACIRI score, with significant relationships between the parent's and child's scores in the three ACIRI categories. A strong level of agreement of inter-rater reliability was also reported.

The ACIRI was used to measure the effects of training parents to use dialogic reading methods with their preschool children. Kelley (2003) trained the parents of 50 three- and four-year-old children in both group settings and during biweekly home visits. The ACIRI was used to assess parent-child storybook reading behaviors during the biweekly home visits, and the home visitors used these ACIRI scores to guide future training of the parents in dialogic techniques. Results of the study revealed that the parents noted frequent use of dialogic reading in their homes, and the children's language scores increased significantly.

Brickman (2003) examined the use of dialogic versus traditional book reading with three-, four-, and five-year-old Hispanic children in an Even Start family program. The parents read stories that contained both English and Spanish words on each page. Results from the concepts of print checklist revealed that

dialogic reading of the stories was superior to the traditional method for developing the children's emergent literacy behaviors. The mother's ACIRI scores were positively related to the children's mean length of utterances and to the length of time the families spent in the Even Start program. There was a strong positive correlation between the dialogic reading group mother's and child's ACIRI scores.

The DRI for parent/child book reading reported in the present study extended the ACIRI to include children's development of print awareness and phonological awareness. These two categories were included to reflect current emergent literacy practices that integrate the literacy components of shared book reading, vocabulary and comprehension development, and alphabet and phonological awareness (Hay & Fielding-Barnsley, 2007).

3. Method

3.1. Subjects

The study was conducted within an Even Start family literacy project in South Florida. Twenty-three parent/child dyads participated in the study. The children in the study ranged in ages from three- to five-years-old with 8 three-year-olds, 7 four-year-olds, and 8 five-year-olds. The participants in the study were 14 Hispanic, 2 White Non-Hispanic, 2 Asian, and 5 Black parents and 11 Hispanic, 6 White Non-Hispanic, 2 Asian, and 4 Black children (see Table 1).

Table 1
The Sample Size of Parents and Children by Ethnicity (N=46)

| Participants | Ethnicity | | | | Total |
|--------------|-----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | Hispanic | White | Asian | Black | |
| Parents | 14 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 23 |
| Children | 11 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 23 |
| Total | 25 | 8 | 4 | 9 | 46 |

3.2. Development of the DRI

Construction of the DRI began with initial item development by three professors and three doctoral students using the ACIRI (DeBruin-Parecki, 1999). First, the ACIRI items for parent reading behaviors were discussed and then grouped into four categories. Items were then revised, added, or deleted to reflect current reading content and terminology. Each parent behavior item was matched with a corresponding child reading behavior item (e.g., the parent's literacy behavior of asking the child to recall information from the book/story corresponds to the child's behavior of recalling information from the book/story). The DRI score sheet, shown in the Appendix, contains 17 items of adult-child literacy behaviors in four categories: (a) print/alphabet awareness, (b) comprehension/ vocabulary, (c) phonological awareness, and (d) attention to text.

To score the DRI, an observer watched a parent/child storybook reading episode and then tallied how many times a specific literacy behavior was observed. When the reading episode was completed, the observers converted the tallies in each item to a score as follows: (a) 1 = no tallies; (b) 2 = one or two tallies; and (c) 3 = three or more tallies.

3.3. Materials and Data Collection

The two picture books read by the parents contained either the repetitive language text pattern in *Wheels on the Bus* (Wickstrom, 1988) or the cumulative sequence text pattern in *Where Is Spot* (Hill, 1980). Each of the parent-child dyads was videotaped reading one of the storybooks together. Table 2 shows that nine parent-child dyads read *Wheels on the Bus* (Wickstrom, 1988), and fourteen dyads read *Where is Spot* (Hill, 1980). Each videotaped sessions lasted from five to ten minutes. There was a total of 23 videotaped sessions. The parents were not coached on how to read to the children, and all interaction during the reading sessions was spontaneous.

Table 2
Parent-Child Video Taped Dyads by Age and Book (N=23)

| Book Pattern | Age | | | Total |
|--------------|-------|------|------|-------|
| | Three | Four | Five | |
| Repetitive | 5 | 2 | 2 | 9 |
| Cumulative | 3 | 5 | 6 | 14 |
| Total | 8 | 7 | 8 | 23 |

4. Results

4.1. Reliability and Validity

The reliability and validity of the DRI was determined by analyzing the video data. The 23 videotaped sessions of parent-child dyads were scored on the DRI by five graduate student raters for a total of 115 scores. Also, three independent raters were used to check inter-rater reliability. Next, descriptive statistics were calculated to find the amounts of parent-child dialogic interactions during the story reading. All tapes were analyzed to determine the number of parent-child dialogic interactions that occurred beyond the reading of the printed story text.

Reliability and Validity

An internal consistency reliability test was used to find the homogeneity of the test items used in the measurement of the DRI. To assess the internal consistency of the DRI test items, Cronbach's coefficient alpha and the split-half coefficient were computed. Cronbach's coefficient alpha for all items was .89, adult reading behavior was .85, and child reading behavior was .87. The split-half coefficient corrected for the full length of the test was .97.

Inter-rater reliability was also examined to assess whether the raters gave consistent estimates in their ratings of responses. Three graduate students who

were familiar with the dependent measures independently observed the video and scored the responses. A Pearson correlation coefficient was used to determine the inter-rater reliability. The correlation coefficients among three raters for was satisfactory, $r = .60, .63, .74, p < .01$. Consideration of the reliability evidence suggests that the DRI provides a consistent measure that is relatively free of error.

Two types of validity were tested for the DRI. First, content validity was used to examine whether there was adequate representation of the adult and child reading behaviors for which the test was designed. Second, construct validity was used to examine how well the DRI measured these traits. Content validity was addressed by having experts in reading and early childhood review and develop each item and examine the entire instrument as explained above in the *Development of DRI section*.

For the construct validity, a factor analysis was conducted to discover the basic structure of dialogic reading behavior. Table 3 illustrates the outcome of rotation with a factor analysis of the 17 measures of dialogic reading behavior.

Table 3
Correlations between the Dialogic Reading Items and the Dialogic Reading Factors

| Items | Factors | | |
|---|------------------------------------|----------------------------|-------------------|
| | Print/ alphabetic and phonological | Comprehen-sion/ Vocabulary | Attention to Text |
| <i>int Awareness/Alphabet knowledge</i> | | | |
| Book parts | | | |
| Where the story begins | .76 | -.03 | .19 |
| A letter or a word | .88 | .16 | .01 |
| | .75 | .05 | .16 |
| <i>phonological Awareness</i> | | | |
| rhyming words in the story | .89 | .21 | -.03 |
| Syllables in words | .94 | .17 | .04 |
| Initial or ending sounds in words | .90 | .26 | .03 |
| Repeated words or phrases | .02 | .80 | -.07 |
| <i>Comprehension/Vocabulary</i> | | | |
| Open-ended questions or predictions | .19 | .32 | .77 |
| Points to pictures and words | .08 | .52 | .38 |
| Recall information from the story | .43 | .73 | .07 |
| Question | .38 | .80 | .26 |
| Elaborates on or rephrases ideas. | .09 | .89 | .13 |
| Relates the story to real life. | -.01 | .71 | .45 |
| <i>Attention to text</i> | | | |
| Bringing near together | -.07 | .09 | .77 |
| Storytelling voice/animation | .16 | .07 | .82 |
| Directs attention to the book | .28 | .36 | .59 |
| Hold book, touch book, or turn pages | .11 | -.30 | .81 |

Note. Loadings above .5 are in bold. It accounts for 25% or more of the item variance

Three factors were rotated using a Varimax rotation procedure. The rotated solution yielded three interpretable factors: (a) print/alphabet and phonological awareness, (b) comprehension/vocabulary, and (c) attention to text. The print awareness/phonological awareness factor accounted for 39.34% of the item variance, the comprehension/vocabulary factor accounted for 22.49% of the item variance, and the attention to text factor accounted for 17.40% of the item variance. The *repeated words or phrases* item loaded highly on the comprehension factor rather than the phonological awareness factor and the *open-ended questions or predictions* item loaded on both the comprehension and the attention factor.

4.2. Dialogic Interactions

Two graduate students reviewed the 23-videotaped sessions and tallied all interactions that took place beyond the reading of the actual story text (e.g., parent requests that child focuses on the story, child asks parent what animal is in a picture). All dialogic interactions were tallied as parent initiated, child initiated, and total by book. The tallies recording the dialogic responses are shown in Table 4. A total of 311 parent initiated responses and 101 child initiated responses were recorded for both books. As expected the dialogic interactions were considerably higher for parents than for children. Further examination reveals parents initiated more responses with *Where Is Spot* (173) than *Wheels on the Bus* (138), while children initiated more with *Wheels on the Bus* (62) than *Where Is Spot* (39).

Table 4
Dialogic Reading Responses by Book

| Initiated by | Book | | Total |
|--------------|----------------|-------------------|---------------|
| | Where is Spot? | Wheels on the Bus | |
| Child | 18.4% (39) | 31.0% (62) | 100% (101) |
| Parent | 81.6% (173) | 69.0% (138) | 100% (311) |
| Total | 100% (212) | 100% (200) | 100% (412) |

Note. Parenthesis represents the number of initiated responses.

5. Discussion and Implications

The DRI was adapted from the ACIRI (DeBruin-Parecki, 1999), and held to a higher standard of reliability and validity in this study. Results from the reliability calculations, content validity process, and factor analysis indicate that the Dialogic Reading Inventory is a viable tool for assessing adult and child reading behaviors during dialogic reading episodes.

The DRI contained four categories of adult and child reading behaviors. It is important to note that the factor analysis procedure yielded a total of three factors as the print awareness and phonological awareness items were actually combined into one factor. This seems justified because the underlying reading behavior measured by these items is performance in matching the spoken word to the printed word, an emergent literacy skill (Clay, 1967). The three factors obtained in the statistical analysis would reflect the three levels of reading comprehension processing: (a) word level processing, (b) text level processing, and (c) metacognitive processing. However, for scoring ease and current areas of emphasis for pre-reading instruction, we selected to keep the print awareness and phonological awareness items separated and maintain the four DRI behavior categories. These categories are consistent with typical pre-literate skills identified during the emergent literacy stage (Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998).

The four categories of the DRI also correspond to the four basic components of most reading instruction models as follows:

1. *Print Awareness/Alphabet Knowledge* – visual competence
2. *Phonological Awareness* - auditory competence
3. *Comprehension/ Vocabulary* - competence with the text message
4. *Attention to Text* - self-monitoring competence.

In the factor analysis, the *repeated words or phrases* item loaded highly on the comprehension factor rather than the phonological awareness factor. This could be explained by the fact that repeating words or phrases would aid the reader's memory and increase comprehension. This item was kept in the phonological awareness category because repeated words and phrases in young children's books usually highlight a phonemic or sound pattern within the words (rhymes, alliteration, etc.). The *open-ended questions or predictions* item loaded on both the comprehension and the attention factor. Since these techniques are usually associated with comprehension in pre-literate or early reading instruction, the item remained in the comprehension/vocabulary category.

The four item categories of DRI correspond to the common four components of most reading models, as well as the components recommended for pre-literacy instruction in family literacy programs (Hay & Fielding-Barnsley, 2007). This makes it an ideal instrument to use as a pretest, posttest, or monitoring tool for parent/child storybook reading. Studies similar to those using the ACIRI (Brickman, 2003; Kelley, 2003) are needed to further examine use of the DRI as a measure of the success of dialogic reading treatment in family literacy programs. In the present study, the DRI successfully detected a larger number of parent initiated responses for the book with a cumulative sequence text pattern than the repetitive language text pattern, but more research is needed to further clarify use of the DRI with young children and with books of various text patterns. Also, adaptations of the DRI need to be investigated for classroom use with teachers and groups of students during dialogic reading episodes.

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7. Appendix

Dialogic Reading Inventory Score Sheet Items

| Adult Behavior | Child Behavior |
|---|--|
| Print Awareness/Alphabet Knowledge | |
| Asks child to locate book parts (front, back, bottom, or top). | identifies book parts (front, back, bottom, or top). |
| Asks child where you begin to read the story. | identifies where the story begins. |
| Asks child to identify a letter or a word. | identifies a letter or word. |
| Comprehension/Vocabulary | |
| Asks open-ended questions or requests predictions about the story. | Responds to questions about the story. |
| Points to pictures and words to help the child understand the story. | Responds to parent's picture or word cues or identifies cues on his/her own. |
| Asks child to recall information from the book/story. | Recalls information from the book/story. |
| Pauses to answer child's question. | Asks questions. |
| Elaborates on or rephrases child's ideas. | Spontaneously offers ideas about the story. |
| Relates the story to real life. | Relates story to real life. |
| Phonemic Awareness | |
| Calls child's attention to rhyming words in the story. | identifies rhyming words in the story. |
| Directs child's attention to syllables in words. | Recognizes that words are made up of syllables. |
| Directs child's attention to initial or ending sounds in words (onset or rime). | identifies initial or ending sounds in words. |
| Directs child's attention to repeated words or phrases. | Tries to repeat the common words or phrases. |
| Attention to Text | |
| Has child sitting near or on parent's lap. | Sits near or on the parent's lap. |
| Uses storytelling voice/animation. | Responds to parent's voice tone by smiling, copying, gesturing, or paying close attention. |
| Redirects child's attention to the book or keeps child engaged in the story. | Redirects or maintains his/her own attention to the text. |
| Gives child opportunity to hold book, touch book, or turn pages. | Holds book or turns pages on his/her own or when directed. |

Implications of Federal Definitions of Teacher Quality for the Preparation of Secondary Special Education Teachers

Elizabeth R. Drame, Marleen Pugach

University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee – USA

erdrame@uwm.edu

mpugach@uwm.edu

Abstract

Students are less likely to achieve when they are taught by underqualified teachers (Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003; Salinas, Kritsonis & Herrington, 2006). The 2004 Individuals with Disabilities Act intersects with No Child Left Behind to address the quality of all special education teachers. This study focuses on one highly contested provision that allows states flexibility in how they define and evaluate the quality of teachers: the High Objective Uniform State Standards of Evaluation option (HOUSSE). A national survey of states was conducted to evaluate how states are interpreting and implementing HOUSSE specifically for secondary special education teachers. Implications for the upcoming reauthorization of NCLB and teacher preparation are discussed in light of the findings.

Keywords: teacher -quality - teacher preparation - special education - secondary education - urban

1. Introduction

The quality of PK-12 teachers is increasingly being recognized as a pivotal variable in the school experience of the nation's children and youth. The evidence is clear that students are less likely to achieve when they have underqualified, inexperienced teachers (Salinas, Kritsonis, & Herrington, 2006; Darling-Hammond & Sykes, 2003). The distribution of high quality teachers is also receiving attention. For example, Peske and Haycock (2006) examined the distribution of teachers in Ohio, Wisconsin, and Illinois and in large urban districts within these states as assessed by a number of quality measures. Not only were students in high-minority schools taught by significantly higher percentages of novice teachers; lower performing schools had significantly more novice teachers than higher performing schools. The staggering number of underqualified teachers educating a majority of low-income, minority students, including those with special needs (Boe, 2006) has led to a great outcry amongst educators, policymakers, politicians, state officials, and parents.

The 2001 Elementary and Secondary Education Act, No Child Left Behind (NCLB), set a national policy mandate to improve the quality of the teaching force and reduce such inequities, with a particular emphasis on the content preparation of teachers. NCLB provides broad parameters for what should be included in each state's definition of a highly qualified teacher. As part of NCLB, states were given

the discretion to develop evaluation systems for documenting the quality of subject matter or content knowledge possessed by veteran teachers (Blank, 2003).

According to NCLB, in order to be considered highly qualified, teachers must hold at least a bachelor's degree, be fully certified or licensed by the state (not waived on an emergency, temporary or provisional basis), and demonstrate content knowledge in each of the core subjects they teach – core academic subjects include English, reading or language arts, mathematics, science, foreign language, civics and government, economics, arts, history and geography). NCLB originally required states to ensure that 100% of all teachers, new and veteran alike, were highly qualified by the end of the 2005-2006 school year. Middle or high school teachers who are currently teaching have a number of options for documenting their subject matter competency in each of the subjects they teach, including passing a content knowledge test, completing coursework or using a high, objective, uniform state standard of evaluation (HOUSSE) process, a provision which affords the states flexibility related to subject matter competency.

The language regarding the qualifications of special education teachers was vague in the regulations of and guidance for NCLB. The 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA 2004) clarified the implications of NCLB teacher quality provisions for special educators. IDEA 2004 aligned personnel qualifications for special educators with the teacher qualifications guidelines in NCLB (Council for Exceptional Children, 2006), resulting in the requirement that new and veteran special educators must now meet the same criteria for teacher quality as general educators. Among other requirements, special education teachers must now demonstrate that they are highly qualified in all of the core academic subjects they teach. Specific to teaching students who have disabilities, only special education teachers who are delivering content instruction to students in the core academic subjects are required to demonstrate subject-matter competency.

1.1. Flexible Definitions of Teacher Quality: The Evolution of HOUSSE

New and veteran secondary special education teachers, particularly those who teach multiple subjects to students who have learning and emotional disabilities in self-contained settings are in a serious quandary. Though they may be fully certified in special education, according to NCLB's regulations many are not highly qualified to deliver instruction in core content areas. The HOUSSE process was developed to be a reasonable yet sufficiently rigorous method of ensuring that teachers, such as these secondary special educators, know the content they teach.

The HOUSSE evaluation provides flexibility in documenting veteran teachers' existing knowledge of and ability to teach a core academic subject. This evaluation can include multiple objective measures of subject matter competency, such as: evidence of satisfactory teaching performance, academic coursework, curriculum committee assignments, work on content standards development, work on content assessment, and service as a teacher mentor. This process allows states to develop evaluation systems that accept content-

specific teaching and professional training experiences as evidence towards becoming highly qualified.

Although stated federal criteria for HOUSSE embed requirements for alignment with state standards and objective measures of content knowledge, rigor is actually missing from the federal language. As a result, states have a great deal of flexibility in determining the nature and rigor of the HOUSSE process that allows practicing teachers of single or multiple subjects to demonstrate subject-matter competency in these core academic subjects. The primary focus of this study is an examination of the implications of the flexibility afforded states via the HOUSSE process, specifically with regard to secondary special education teachers. Though many stakeholders are concerned about the questionable rigor of the HOUSSE process, many others acknowledge the need for some kind of flexibility for teachers in particularly challenging circumstances. Any process for becoming highly qualified is necessarily more complex and difficult for rural teachers who often must be assigned multiple roles in schools, as well as for special educators who teach multiple subjects, multiple grades, and all disability and severity levels (McClure et. al., 2003).

Despite concerns about HOUSSE serving as a loophole, a number of researchers have in fact highlighted the need for a comprehensive, rigorous, yet reasonable process for allowing veteran and new special educators to become highly qualified in all the academic subjects they teach short of having them take a test and/or complete a degree in every subject area in which they teach (Coble & Azordegan, 2003; The Education Trust, 2003). In order to support teachers through this process, clear federal guidance regarding pathways to becoming "highly qualified" for special educators working with diverse children in diverse settings should be made available.

1.2. Teacher Quality Within the Special Education Context

Notwithstanding the current focus on improving the quality of teachers for all students, including students who have disabilities, tremendous variation continues to exist in the interpretation of federal definitions of teacher quality leading to differing levels of rigor in state definitions of teacher quality (Walsh and Snyder, 2004). Unclear and changing federal teacher quality guidelines have led to ongoing confusion at the state and district levels regarding the characteristics of a highly qualified teacher (The Commission on NCLB, 2007). This has spurred organizations such as the Education Trust (2003) to strongly encourage the U.S. Department of Education to provide clearer guidance and ongoing monitoring of the development and implementation of teacher quality processes in order to prevent states from creating loopholes that allow veteran and some new teachers from meeting the standard for strong core academic subject matter competency.

Over 45% of high school students with special needs are being taught multiple subjects by special education teachers with minimal expertise in high school academic subjects (Office of Postsecondary Education, 2004). In order to close the significant achievement gap for high school students with special needs so that they may successfully transition into the workforce (U.S. Department of Education, 2007), students who have disabilities must have access to content-

rich learning experiences based on academic standards. When special education teachers are the professionals with responsibilities for delivering content, special education teachers must be qualified to do so. However, the lack of clarity in the definition of a “highly qualified teacher” creates tremendous difficulties for school districts who are working in good faith to meet the provision of highly qualified special education teachers in high schools.

The specific purpose of this study was to investigate national interpretations of federal teacher quality regulations specifically as they related to HOSSE provisions for secondary special education teachers. The HOSSE option was selected as the focus of this study since the perception and controversy is that the flexibility in this option has produced significant state-by-state variation in rigor and quality.

The study addressed the following specific questions:

1. How are states defining “highly qualified” secondary special education teachers?
2. To what extent do states differ in their perception of the rigor of specific components of state content definitions of teacher quality for secondary special educators?
3. What challenges are states and districts experiencing in the implementation of federal teacher quality regulations?

2. Methods

This study utilized a national survey of states regarding challenges they face carrying out federal teacher quality directives relative to secondary special education teachers.

2.1. Survey Development

A semi-structured survey was developed based on the review of policy documents and a literature review. The survey included seven sections, each with a combination of closed items on a four-point Likert scale and open-ended questions. The sections specifically addressed a) background information for the respondent; b) state-specific interpretations of HOSSE provisions; c) state efforts to meet the dissemination and access requirements of the HOSSE provision; d) technical aspects of state-specific HOSSE processes; e) challenges districts and states faced implementing highly qualified requirements for secondary special education teachers; f) state perspectives on the federal directive to phase out the HOSSE option; and g) ratings of the level of objectivity and rigor of HOSSE components typically included in state HOSSE processes and plans.

In May 2006, the U. S. Department of Education requested that states describe strategies for phasing out the use of HOSSE except in very circumscribed instances. After the public outcry from this directive, the Secretary of the Department of Education delayed the phase out of HOSSE, stating that the final verdict on HOSSE would be decided during the reauthorization of NCLB (Keller,

2006). To address this issue, the survey also included questions addressing states' responses to this proposed phase out of HOUSSE.

2.2. Sample

The Council for Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) houses the Center for Improving Teacher Quality (CTQ), a project funded at the federal level by the Office of Special Education Programs. This project, which is housed under INTASC at CCSSO, organized teams of individuals from 42 states who had some level of active engagement with their state's teacher licensing system for general and special education teachers of students with disabilities. Team members had specific expertise in teacher licensing, special education, and teacher quality at both the state department and high education levels. These teams, representing 42 states, were considered the total population that was targeted for the National Teacher Quality Survey developed for this study.

A total of twenty individuals representing eighteen states completed the survey, corresponding to a 48% response rate. The final sample included states from the midwest, south, east, and the west and included two states with large populations. The respondents held a variety of positions representing a variety of perspectives, including teacher licensing or certification, special education, educational accountability, professional development, higher education (general and special education), and school districts. The majority of respondents were male (65%, $n = 13$) and Caucasian (95%, $n = 19$). Respondents had either extensive or some participation in the development of their state's HOUSSE plan (55%, $n = 11$) and the majority of respondents (90%, $n = 18$) had extensive or sufficient knowledge of their state's HOUSSE plan.

2.3. Survey Administration and Analysis

The director of the Center for Improving Teacher Quality was contacted regarding the study in the fall of 2006. Permission from the director was granted to request voluntary participation in the study from members of the 42 State CTQ teams via the CTQ listserv. A total of three email contacts were made to CTQ teams over a three month period, November 2006 through January 2007. Participants were given the option of responding anonymously to a web-based survey or to an emailed attachment of the survey. Seventeen of the twenty participants responded online.

Descriptive statistical analyses were conducted on all but the open-ended survey items. Brief responses to open-ended questions were assigned descriptive codes and grouped into specific categories. The items requiring respondents to rate HOUSSE components for their level of objectivity and rigor were analyzed using Chi-square tests.

3. Results

Questions regarding the availability of a multisubject HOUSSE process were included in the survey. Though the majority of respondents (74%, $n = 14$) indicated their state had a multisubject HOUSSE process, they varied in terms of who could access this multisubject option. For example, 20% indicated that the multisubject HOUSSE was available only to elementary teachers, 15% indicated that it was available only to special educators, and 15% indicated that it was available to all teachers except new teachers. Only 17% ($n = 3$) indicated that special educators in rural settings teaching students with mild and severe disabilities across a wide range of grade levels could access a multisubject HOUSSE process.

In order to investigate whether or not there were differences in the rigor of HOUSSE plans for secondary educators in special or general education, respondents were asked if there were differences in the core content knowledge requirements for these two teacher groups. Forty-seven percent of respondents ($n = 9$) indicated that either major or minor differences existed in requirements for demonstrating knowledge of core subjects. For example, in comparison to general educators, special educators were not required to complete a significant number of course credits during their preservice training. Another respondent indicated that special educators are able to access a multisubject HOUSSE process but general educators were not.

Several survey items inquired into respondents' perceptions of districts' experiences and challenges with implementing teacher quality requirements for secondary special educators. Nine respondents (45%) indicated that districts said they needed additional federal funding to assist their secondary special educators in becoming highly qualified in all subjects taught. Some respondents indicated that persistent teacher shortages and issues with teacher retention exacerbated districts' ability to ensure that poor and minority high school students had highly qualified special education teachers.

Several open-ended questions surfaced a broad range of other challenges experienced by school districts. Six respondents indicated that the lack of technical assistance and lack of clear guidance from the U.S. Department of Education led to significant levels of frustration amongst school district officials. Four respondents indicated that finding highly qualified special educators as defined by the federal government was a significant challenge. Ensuring that secondary special educators who teach multiple subjects across multiple levels, including rural educators, are highly qualified continues to be a real hardship, as reported by four respondents.

Respondents were also asked to describe the challenges the state experienced with districts being held accountable for having a highly qualified teacher in every classroom. Only three respondents (15%) indicated that they received extensive technical assistance from the federal government, while 55% ($n = 11$) indicated they received some assistance and 25% ($n = 5$) indicated receiving little to no technical assistance. Several challenges were described. Five respondents indicated that it was difficult to hold districts accountable to having every teacher be highly qualified when there was such a shortage of licensed

special educators. Five respondents indicated that it was difficult to collect accurate highly qualified teacher data at the classroom level. In addition, inconsistent, ever-changing federal guidance has caused difficulties as indicated by three respondents. Finally, two respondents indicated that it was difficult to monitor districts' highly qualified status due to limited staff capacity at the state level. These types of challenges call to question the accuracy, validity and reliability of state teacher quality data reported to the federal government.

Regarding the possible phase-out of the HOUSSE process, 67% of respondents indicated that the HOUSSE option was either very important or important to their state's ability to meet teacher quality requirements for veteran teachers. Underlying the rationale for the Department of Education's call to phase out HOUSSE was the assertion that HOUSSE was a watered down, non-rigorous means of demonstrating core content knowledge. Given this policy development, respondents were specifically asked the extent to which they agreed with this assertion and the directive to phase out HOUSSE. Sixty-seven percent (n = 12) of respondents either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the perspective that many states' HOUSSE plans were watered down. In addition, 77% (n = 13) either strongly disagreed or disagreed with the directive to phase out HOUSSE.

Many of the reasons cited for this disagreement related to the need to have multiple means of ensuring teacher quality to address particular individual teaching situations. One respondent illustrated this in the following statement: "Teachers change assignments and grade levels. Science teachers, special ed teachers, foreign language teachers will always be asked to teach an extra subject or more. Teachers may change levels and be required to demonstrate more content from middle school to high school." Another respondent qualified this further by stating: "There will always be situations other than these that create a need for flexibility, particularly in states with small, rural schools." Other respondents pointed out that many circumstances warrant the need for a HOUSSE process, such as teachers who have a break in service, teacher turnover, and changes in student demographics.

Respondents were asked to rate specific HOUSSE components for their level of rigor and objectivity as a measure of content knowledge. These HOUSSE components included: (a) certification/endorsement in content area, (b) content-related undergraduate or graduate degree (c) content-related course credits equivalent to a major, (d) content-related course credits equivalent to a minor, (e) years of teaching experience in content area, (f) professional development workshops in content area, (g) content area exam, (h) advanced certification (e.g., National Board Certification), (i) professional activities and service (curriculum committees, etc.), (j) awards/recognition, (k) portfolio, (l) professional development plan, (m) performance evaluation, and (o) student achievement gains. A majority of respondents indicated that certification, a content-related degree, and content-related course credits were either highly or adequately objective and rigorous measures of content knowledge. In contrast, a majority of respondents indicated that awards/recognition was a very nonobjective, non-rigorous measure of content knowledge. Respondents felt that professional development workshops in a specific content area were a somewhat objective and rigorous content measure.

4. Discussion and Policy Considerations

Using a semi-structured survey, this study attempted to reveal state-level interpretations of and challenges with implementing teacher quality guidelines for secondary general and special educators. Given the current controversy regarding one aspect of teacher quality provisions which is typically viewed as a loophole in the federal mandate, namely, the HOUSSE option, the study addresses an important policy issue regarding whether or not flexibility will—or should—be maintained for what are viewed as particularly difficult staffing circumstances for school districts. The HOUSSE option, which allows states to develop their own process to evaluate teacher quality for teachers who meet specific criteria, is at the center of a debate over the rigor of teacher quality provisions.

Taken together, the assumption underlying NCLB and IDEA as regards teacher quality is to assure that students who have disabilities are not shortchanged on the quality of teaching they receive in middle and high school. Implicit in the HOUSSE option is the recognition that enough teaching situations may exist where content preparation in all subject areas either does not seem to be practical or unduly limits the administrative options in a particular building or district to a degree that would appear to be highly problematic. Nevertheless, the question remains whether every teacher must have adequate content preparation in every subject he or she teaches. While content knowledge is not the sole criterion for good teaching and must be combined with knowledge of learners and their development, and knowledge of teaching (including content pedagogy, assessment, management and diverse learners) (Bransford, Darling-Hammond, & LePage, 2005), it is nevertheless a critical component of good teaching practice.

This study has attempted to shed light on variations in the rigor of national interpretations of teacher quality specifically with respect to what counts as evidence of content knowledge. These findings can guide current debates around the reauthorization of NCLB and potentially influence the preparation of effective secondary special education teachers. Building on these results, we identify two major policy issues that bear consideration with regard to teacher quality for secondary special educators.

4.1. Ensuring Rigor in Content Knowledge

In a letter to Chief State School Officers (U. S. Department of Education, 2006), Secretary Spellings indicated that "...the Department's recent monitoring of every State found that many of the HOUSSE procedures were substantially less rigorous than the other measures authorized in the statute for determining subject-matter competency." (p. 1). Such measures include content-specific degrees or majors. The value placed on content coursework as a valid measure of content knowledge and indirectly, of effective teaching, that surfaced in this study supports the results of a review of empirical research on the impact of specific teacher attributes on student achievement (Rice, 2003). The Rice review concluded that recent completion of content courses was related to gains in student achievement. However, consistent with the views of Bransford, Darling-

Hammond, and LePage (2005), a combination of pedagogical and content coursework more significantly and positively impacted student achievement than content courses alone (Rice, 2003).

Though value-added measures of teacher quality linking teachers to gains in student achievement have been receiving a great deal of attention in recent years (McCaffrey, Lockwood, Koretz, & Hamilton, 2003), states are slow to buy into this concept and whether this approach holds the answer to defining teacher quality is still contested. The Commission on NCLB (2007) included the use of student achievement gains as one aspect of a reconceptualized definition of a highly qualified teacher. In this study, however, respondents indicated that only five states included a teacher's demonstration of student achievement gains in their HOUSSE plans. And only one state increased the rigor of the teaching experience component of its HOUSSE plan by linking teaching experience with gains in student achievement.

Evidence of lower standards for content knowledge for special educators as compared with general educators also contributes to policy considerations regarding rigor. IDEA 2004 protects students' right to receive a free and appropriate public education, and also provides for individualized special education services to support student learning and development. Most students with special needs must be given access to grade-appropriate general education curriculum. If special educators are allowed to demonstrate a lower standard of subject matter knowledge than their general education teacher peers and still be deemed highly qualified in the content area, the implication is that students educated in self-contained special education settings continue to be more likely to have more limited access to general education content. Yet increasing access to the general education curriculum was prominent in the 1997 reauthorization of IDEA, and the goal of having students with disabilities learn the general education curriculum has been strengthened substantially with the emphasis on testing.

Other findings also relate to issues of rigor in the process of verification of HOUSSE plans and standards for different types of educators. HOUSSE plans completed by individual teachers must be evaluated and verified prior to approval. For since secondary special educators are able to complete a single HOUSSE plan for multiple subjects while their general education peers must complete a separate HOUSSE plan for each content area in which they wished to be deemed highly qualified, the results of the document analysis and survey suggest potentially more lax standards for secondary special education teachers. As the HOUSSE policy is now implemented, when special education students are taught academic subjects in segregated special education classrooms—whether they are in those classrooms for all or part of their school day—they conceivably continue to be taught by teachers whose expertise in the subjects they are teaching remains questionable. In other words, for secondary special education teachers, it does appear that the HOUSSE option can lessen the likelihood of adequate content preparation.

4.2. A Clash of Two Policies

As the highly qualified teacher policy reflected in both NCLB and IDEA is currently crafted, the expectation for adequate content preparation is at its most problematic for secondary special education teachers who teach all subjects in self-contained, segregated settings—whether or not they teach these subjects to the same level of depth as their general education peers. As such, they are expected to demonstrate a breadth and depth of content expertise far beyond what any other secondary teacher must demonstrate. For general education secondary teachers who are taking on only one additional content area as a stopgap or temporary measure in, for example, a rural school, the burden of becoming highly qualified per NCLB is far less onerous than it is for special education teachers.

Yet protecting students from teachers who do not know their content is a reasonable policy consideration, especially when the students have been deprived of deep content knowledge in the past, as has been the case with many students who have disabilities. Respondents in this study appear to value content knowledge and are willing to differentiate between more and less rigorous indicators of its presence. However, when policy is constructed in a manner that unduly burdens one class of teachers alone, that is, secondary special education teachers, it is also reasonable to ask whether there is another way to meet the expectation for content knowledge.

The emphasis on content preparation that has surfaced as a result of teacher quality policies continues to be useful insofar as it brings into the open questions regarding the capacity of students who have disabilities to learn the general education curriculum. Despite this contribution, however, the barriers to its implementation for secondary special education teachers may say more about the shortcomings of the policy with regard to this specific population of teachers than it does about the reluctance of special educators to figure out how to assure that all secondary teachers are highly qualified across the content areas. The reauthorization of NCLB is an opportunity to reconsider this specific aspect of teacher quality policy in relationship to IDEA 2004 and to the real question of whether students who have disabilities can be served alongside their general education peers in our nation's secondary schools.

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Venir d'ailleurs et enseigner ici : les conceptions de l'éducation d'étudiants étrangers inscrits dans un programme canadien de formation des maîtres

Claire Duchesne

Université d'Ottawa - Canada

Claire.duchese@uottawa.ca

Résumé

La Faculté d'éducation de l'Université d'Ottawa accueille chaque année, dans son programme de formation à l'enseignement, plusieurs étudiants étrangers. Ceux-ci constituent environ le quart du nombre total des étudiants inscrits, pourtant ils représentent plus de la moitié du groupe de ceux qui éprouvent des difficultés majeures lors du stage ou qui échouent celui-ci. Cet article présente les résultats d'une recherche qualitative qui avait pour but de comprendre et de décrire les conceptions de l'éducation d'étudiants étrangers inscrits dans un programme de formation à l'enseignement. Dix-sept étudiants ont participé à une entrevue individuelle. L'analyse des données recueillies a été effectuée selon les procédures associées à la théorisation ancrée. Les conceptions des participants à propos de l'enseignement, de l'apprentissage et du système d'éducation canadien seront discutées.

Mots clés : Étudiant étrangers - Formation à l'enseignement - Conceptions de l'éducation

1. Introduction

Le Canada accueille, chaque année, un nombre important d'immigrants. Selon des relevés récents de Statistique Canada (2007), ce groupe représente 18% de la population totale du pays. Ces nouveaux arrivants font face à divers obstacles à leur insertion professionnelle, dont les trois principaux sont l'absence d'expérience de travail en contexte canadien, les titres et qualifications obtenus à l'étranger qui ne leur sont pas reconnus et la méconnaissance de l'une ou l'autre des deux langues officielles (Deters, 2006).

Les étudiants étrangers que la Faculté d'éducation ont, eux aussi, éprouvé des difficultés à faire valoir les qualifications et l'expérience de travail acquises hors du Canada. Afin de remédier à cette situation, ils ont choisi de suivre une nouvelle formation dans une institution canadienne. Dès lors, le programme francophone de formation à l'enseignement au cycle primaire-moyen de l'Université d'Ottawa, d'une durée de huit mois, constituait pour plusieurs d'entre eux une solution à la fois intéressante et rapide au problème de leur insertion professionnelle.

Ce groupe d'individus, appelé ici *étudiants étrangers*^{xii}, est composé essentiellement d'immigrants, résidents permanents, provenant en majorité d'Afrique Centrale, d'Afrique du Nord, d'Haïti et de France. La moitié d'entre eux est âgée de 30 à 39 ans alors que près du tiers a plus de 40 ans. Ce sont essentiellement des adultes qui ont immigré au Canada dans le but d'offrir à leur famille et à eux-mêmes des conditions de vie et des perspectives d'avenir meilleures que celles que leur offrait leur pays d'origine. Ils ont fait de nombreux sacrifices pour atteindre leurs objectifs et selon plusieurs de leurs professeurs, ils se présentent à la Faculté d'éducation comme des candidats sérieux, désireux d'apprendre et de s'améliorer. S'ils réussissent habituellement bien la partie théorique de leur programme de formation, nombre d'entre eux rencontrent des difficultés lorsqu'ils intègrent leur premier stage en milieu scolaire.

2. Problème de recherche

Les étudiants étrangers inscrits au programme francophone de formation à l'enseignement de l'Université d'Ottawa méconnaissent les pratiques pédagogiques canadiennes. Pour certains d'entre eux, ce décalage culturel constitue un stress difficile à surmonter qui se solde parfois par une évaluation médiocre de leur stage et, dans certains cas, par l'échec de celui-ci. La documentation consultée à ce sujet de même que nos observations sur le terrain à titre de superviseur de stage nous ont indiqué la possibilité d'un lien entre les conceptions^{xiii} antérieures que ces étudiants étrangers ont construites à propos de l'éducation et la difficulté d'adaptation au stage ressentie par certains d'entre eux.

Nous croyons que l'écart entre les conceptions de ces étudiants et celles préconisées par le système scolaire canadien puisse être à l'origine de ce problème; en effet, les étudiants étrangers expérimentent un bouleversement de leurs conceptions, de leurs valeurs et de leurs croyances initiales à propos de l'éducation. Si la plupart d'entre eux surmontent ce défi avec succès, il n'en demeure pas moins que le processus de transformation auquel le stage les soumet occupe une place importante de leur courte formation pratique, soit deux stages de six semaines chacun. Pour quelques uns d'entre eux, ce défi demeure insurmontable. Par conséquent, au cours de la recherche^{xiv} dont cet article fera l'objet, nous avons tenté de répondre à la question suivante : quelles sont les conceptions de l'éducation des étudiants étrangers lorsqu'ils commencent leur programme de formation à l'enseignement?

^{xii} L'appellation *étudiants étrangers* réfère aux femmes et aux hommes ayant déclaré un statut de résident permanent ou de réfugié lors de leur inscription à l'Université d'Ottawa.

^{xiii} Le terme *conception* renvoie à la façon dont les étudiants étrangers voient la réalité (Encyclopédie Universalis, 2008), ou à leur point de vue, à leur façon de comprendre un objet (Le grand dictionnaire terminologique, 2008).

^{xiv} Cette recherche a été subventionnée par le Conseil canadien sur l'apprentissage.

3. Cadre théorique

Les étudiants étrangers de l'étude de Sabar (2004) ont affirmé que lors de leur formation pratique en enseignement, nombre d'entre eux se sont considérés doublement vulnérables. Certains se sont sentis « testés », tantôt par les élèves ou leurs parents, tantôt par les autres enseignants, en raison de leur ethnicité et de leur inexpérience. D'autres ayant toujours vécu dans un milieu pluriethnique ont ressenti le choc de se retrouver, pour la première fois de leur vie, à l'intérieur d'une communauté exclusivement blanche et chrétienne (Carrington et Tomlin, 2000). L'étude de Mawhinney et Xu (1998) et celle de Myles, Chang et Wang (2006) ont, pour leur part, révélé les frustrations ressenties par des enseignants immigrants qui se font régulièrement questionner à propos de leur accent, particulièrement lorsque ces questions sont posées par leurs collègues de travail, ce qui leur donne l'impression d'être jugés sur leur élocution plutôt que sur leur maîtrise de la grammaire ou sur leurs compétences professionnelles.

D'autres défis peuvent également se présenter lors de l'entrée en fonction des enseignants immigrants dans les écoles, tels que s'approprier la culture éducative du pays d'adoption, faire face au manque d'ouverture de certains collègues devant leurs différences ou recevoir peu de crédit pour leur expérience d'enseignement dans un autre pays (Phillion, 2003). De même, certains enseignants immigrants trouvent difficile de retourner aux études afin de mettre à jour leurs connaissances des courants pédagogiques en vigueur dans le pays d'adoption. Ils s'inquiètent à propos de leurs obligations financières et se demandent comment concilier le travail, la famille et les études. Ils se soucient également de leur méconnaissance de la langue dans laquelle ils devront enseigner et du système d'éducation qui leur est peu familier. Sacrifier quelques années à ces études sans garantie d'obtenir un emploi en retour constitue un risque non négligeable pour ces nouveaux arrivants (Cruickshank, 2004). Les enseignants immigrants qui ont collaboré à la recherche de Cruickshank ont en outre témoigné des différences importantes entre l'enseignement dans leur pays d'origine par rapport à celui dispensé en Australie où, comme au Canada, une approche constructiviste de l'apprentissage est favorisée. Ils ont noté que l'enseignement y était davantage centré sur les élèves et qu'il requérait un investissement plus important sur les plans de la planification et de la préparation, que les classes étaient davantage diversifiées en termes d'habiletés, de culture et de langage et que la gestion disciplinaire représentait un défi considérable.

Les difficultés rencontrées par les étudiants étrangers à réaliser avec succès leur insertion professionnelle dans l'enseignement pourraient s'expliquer par l'obligation à laquelle ils font face d'intégrer la culture éducative valorisée dans le pays d'adoption. Bascia (1996) précise qu'un nombre croissant de recherches portent sur l'influence de l'ethnicité et de la culture sur l'enseignement, à l'intérieur de la classe comme au sein de la communauté scolaire. De fait, chaque enseignant est un être unique, porteur de croyances et de conceptions qui lui sont propres et qui influencent sa vie, tant sur le plan personnel que professionnel. Les étudiants inscrits à un programme de formation à l'enseignement sont appelés à comparer leurs conceptions initiales de

l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage à celles préconisées à l'intérieur du programme. Devenir enseignant procède alors d'une transformation des croyances, des attitudes et des comportements de la personne; il s'agit d'un processus par lequel l'identité professionnelle se développe à mesure que se définit le rôle de l'enseignant (Peeler et Jane, 2005).

Par ailleurs, selon une perspective constructiviste, l'apprenant adulte aborde une nouvelle situation d'apprentissage par l'activation des connaissances antérieures qu'il a élaborées sur un sujet donné. La mise en relation de celles-ci avec les connaissances nouvelles qui lui sont présentées peut alors conduire à un conflit cognitif, à une réorganisation et à une transformation des structures conceptuelles initiales (Bourgeois et Nizet, 1997). Le déséquilibre qui résulte de cette expérience favorise l'apprentissage transformationnel; celui-ci consiste en un processus cognitif qui implique également des changements émotionnels et sociaux importants (Illeris, 2004). Les tenants de l'apprentissage par transformation allèguent que la personne possède la volonté de remettre en question ses conceptions comme ses points de vue et qu'elle comprend qu'elle sera transformée par cette expérience (Taylor, 2000). Cette forme d'apprentissage se produit lors de situations problématiques, lorsque les expériences vécues par l'individu lui posent des défis considérables. Il en va de même pour l'adulte en formation professionnelle et, dans le cas qui occupe cette recherche, pour l'étudiant qui s'engage dans un programme de formation à l'enseignement.

Cette recherche est fondée sur le postulat que les structures conceptuelles construites par les étudiants à propos de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage, avant leur entrée dans un programme de formation à l'enseignement, ont été élaborées à partir de leurs propres expériences antérieures d'élèves, mais aussi en fonction des croyances issues de leur culture d'origine. Dès lors, nous croyons que les étudiants étrangers, lorsqu'ils se présentent en stage, portent en eux des conceptions de l'éducation différentes de celles des étudiants ayant été scolarisés, depuis l'élémentaire, au Canada; nous pensons également que la transformation de ces conceptions s'avère essentielle à la réussite de leur formation.

4. Méthodologie

Le but de cette recherche était de comprendre et de décrire les conceptions de l'éducation d'étudiants étrangers inscrits dans un programme de formation à l'enseignement au cycle primaire-moyen. Nous poursuivions l'intention de découvrir les significations de ces conceptions pour les participants afin de mettre celles-ci en relation avec le contexte particulier du stage en milieu scolaire (Paillé et Mucchielli, 2005). Par ailleurs, nous désirions connaître le point de vue des participants à partir du récit de leurs expériences, de l'évocation de leurs perspectives personnelles ainsi que du langage, des mots ou des expressions qui leur sont propres (Creswell, 2007). Le recours aux méthodes et aux techniques associées à l'approche qualitative s'est donc imposé.

4.1 Collecte et traitement des données

L'ensemble du projet a reçu l'approbation du comité d'éthique de la recherche de l'Université d'Ottawa. Une invitation à participer à l'étude a été lancée aux étudiants étrangers lors de l'activité d'accueil du programme de formation à l'enseignement. Un schéma d'entrevue semi-dirigée a été élaboré puis présenté aux participants lors d'entretiens individuels d'une durée d'environ 60 minutes. Le schéma d'entrevue était constitué de quatre catégories de questions (Kvale, 1996), soit les questions de *type descriptif*, les questions de *type analytique*, les questions de *type positionnement* et les questions de *type théorique*.

Les entrevues ont eu lieu lors de la troisième et de la quatrième semaine de septembre, soit moins de vingt-cinq jours après le début du semestre, dans le but de contrer, autant que possible, l'influence des premiers cours suivis à la Faculté d'éducation sur les conceptions initiales des étudiants. Elles ont été enregistrées sur bande audio puis retranscrites intégralement, constituant l'ensemble des données. L'analyse a par la suite été effectuée au moyen des techniques associées à la théorisation ancrée telles que décrites par Strauss et Corbin (1990). Cette approche propose un ensemble de procédures systématiques afin de développer une théorie issue des données. Elle procède selon trois types de codages : ouvert, axial et sélectif; la logique inductive est ainsi privilégiée. Le recours au logiciel N'Vivo a grandement facilité le minutieux travail de traitement des données.

4.2 Profil des participants

Dix-sept étudiants étrangers, soit dix hommes et sept femmes, se sont portés volontaires pour participer à la recherche. L'âge des participants variait de 27 à 56 ans ($m = 41,5$). Six de ces étudiants ont immigré seuls, deux venaient rejoindre un conjoint alors que les neuf autres candidats sont arrivés au pays en compagnie de leur famille. Tous vivaient au Canada depuis une période relativement courte, soit en moyenne 3,5 années. Ils détenaient au moins un diplôme d'études universitaires équivalent au baccalauréat canadien, tel que requis pour leur admission à l'un ou l'autre des programmes de formation à l'enseignement dans une université ontarienne; six d'entre eux possédaient cependant deux titres universitaires ou plus. Par ailleurs, bien que onze des dix-sept candidats aient affirmé avoir connu des expériences de travail dans l'enseignement, seulement cinq participantes avaient eu l'occasion d'enseigner à l'école élémentaire. Les candidats provenaient des pays suivants : Albanie (1), Algérie (4), Burundi (1), Congo-Brazzaville (2), Congo-Kinshassa (3), France (1), Haïti (1), Liban (1), Maroc (2) et Sénégal (1).

5. Analyse des données et discussion

Lors des entrevues, les participants ont été invités à exprimer leurs conceptions de l'éducation. Ils ont eu l'occasion de partager les expériences qu'ils ont vécues, leurs observations, leurs présupposés et leurs idéaux en ce qui concerne l'enseignement et l'apprentissage à l'école élémentaire, dans leur pays d'origine comme au Canada. Plusieurs d'entre eux ont construit leurs conceptions du

système d'éducation canadien à partir des commentaires qu'ils ont entendus de la part des membres de leur communauté culturelle. D'autres ont évoqué leur propre expérience de parents d'élèves fréquentant l'école au Canada, comme c'est le cas de Luc : « *Mon point de vue favorable, je le tiens par rapport à mes enfants. Je vois à peu près l'évolution de mes enfants et je me dis que c'est pas mal.* »

5.1 Conceptions de l'enseignement

Plusieurs des étudiants qui ont contribué à l'étude ont constaté que l'enseignement, au Canada, était axé sur l'application pratique des éléments d'apprentissage alors que dans leur pays d'origine, c'est davantage l'appropriation des fondements théoriques qui est priorisée :

Chez nous, nous avons la chance d'avoir une nature abondante et luxuriante, mais on n'en profite pas beaucoup, même pour ce qui concerne les sciences de la nature. Ça vous étonne peut-être? Si on était en Afrique avec les élèves canadiens, je crois qu'on explorerait ce côté-là des sciences de la nature. La méthode pratico-pratique dont on parle [ici]? Chez nous, non! Tout le monde va dire «ce prof, qu'est-ce qu'il est en train de faire avec ses élèves?» (Renaud)

Les répondants ont décrit l'enseignement qu'ils ont reçu à l'élémentaire et qui, de l'avis de plusieurs, demeure le même aujourd'hui, comme étant centré sur la transmission des connaissances théoriques que l'élève devra mémoriser de même que sur les exercices qu'il aura à effectuer. Quelques uns ont décrit le déroulement d'une séquence d'enseignement, dans leur pays d'origine, comme essentiellement axée sur les décisions et sur les actions de l'enseignant : celui-ci écrit au tableau le plan de la leçon, il fait un retour sur les apprentissages antérieurs, il lit des textes, il dicte les notes de cours, il vérifie si ces dernières ont été correctement écrites par les élèves, il donne des exercices en classe et il les corrige, il pose des questions, il fait la synthèse du cours et finalement, il donne des devoirs à effectuer à la maison.

En outre, il arrive que l'enseignant privilégie une forme de contrôle physique sur l'élève. Hugo précise que « *le style est directif, on va jusqu'à donner des fessées. C'est encore comme ça, ça n'a pas changé. C'est cet enseignement là que j'ai suivi et qui existe encore dans mon pays.* » Ian confirme que chez lui aussi, de telles méthodes sont toujours utilisées : « *Autrefois, c'était le fouet dans les écoles, mais maintenant on a aboli. Mais il y a encore des écoles qui persistent à fouetter les enfants.* »

Certains des participants ont insisté sur le fait que mis à part le livre du maître et le tableau noir, aucun matériel didactique n'était disponible; l'application des concepts théoriques s'effectue alors par des exercices faits individuellement par les élèves, dans leurs cahiers ou sur une ardoise :

Il y a des écoles qui n'ont même pas de tableau pour écrire. Il y a des écoles qui n'ont même pas de bancs. Les élèves s'assoient par terre. Cela se retrouve particulièrement dans les endroits très reculés du pays, mais dans les villes, il y a des bancs qui sont disposés en rangées. Il y a le tableau, une armoire ou bien un placard. (Ian)

D'autres ont toutefois mentionné l'accès des élèves à une diversité d'outils de travail, tels que les manuels de référence ou les ordinateurs, spécialement dans les écoles privées financées par des parents fortunés ou dans les pays profitant d'une économie florissante. Dans ce dernier cas, encore faut-il que le gouvernement ait la volonté d'investir dans son système d'éducation, tel que le souligne Édith : « *Quand même, l'Algérie est un pays riche. L'argent est mal géré. C'est qu'on ne valorise pas les technologies. Il y a de l'argent car il y a le pétrole et le gaz. [Pour l'éducation] il n'y a aucun intérêt.* »

Les témoignages recueillis auprès des étudiants étrangers qui ont participé à a recherche ont mis au jour des *conceptions simples* de l'enseignement, orientées vers la transmission des connaissances, tel que le suggère le modèle de Fox (cité par Loiola et Tardif, 2001). La recherche effectuée par Loiola et Tardif porte sur les conceptions de l'enseignement des nouveaux professeurs d'université et s'appuie sur six conceptions regroupées sous deux catégories principales, soit les *conceptions simples* et les *conceptions développées*. Les *conceptions simples* renvoient exclusivement à un enseignement centré sur l'enseignant et sur ses actions. Le rôle de celui-ci consiste à présenter ou à transmettre des savoirs sans prendre en compte les processus d'apprentissage de l'élève. Les *conceptions développées*, quant à elles, sont associées à un enseignement davantage centré sur l'élève, sur le développement de ses connaissances et sur sa compétence à en effectuer le transfert.

Le portrait qui a été dressé par les participants rejoint également la catégorie *Transmission des connaissances* du modèle de Pratt et Collins (2007) selon lequel l'apprentissage dépend essentiellement des actions posées par l'enseignant. Celui-ci accompagne l'apprenant à travers des tâches qu'il a déterminées; il fixe des objectifs clairs, gère efficacement le temps de classe, clarifie les incompréhensions et corrige les erreurs; il répond aux questions, procure une rétroaction, dirige les étudiants vers des ressources appropriées, fixe des niveaux de réussite élevés et développe les critères d'évaluation des apprentissages effectués.

En outre, la description que les répondants ont faite du déroulement d'une leçon rappelle le modèle d'enseignement centré sur l'enseignant (« Characteristics of Learning-Centered Teaching and Traditional Teacher-Centered Instruction », 2008) Selon cette perspective, l'enseignant est directif : il décide seul des méthodes et des activités d'apprentissage privilégiées; il détermine les objectifs, les contenus d'apprentissage, les modes d'évaluation et le fonctionnement du cours; il est au centre de la classe, donne les instructions et reçoit peu d'input de la part des apprenants; il utilise les exercices qu'il a choisis, prépare les questions pour stimuler la discussion, conduit celle-ci à partir de son point de vue avant d'en effectuer lui-même la synthèse.

5.2 Conceptions de l'apprentissage

Les étudiants étrangers qui ont été interviewés ont décrit les attitudes et les comportements de l'élève qu'ils considèrent essentiels à son succès. L'élève qui écoute, fait ses devoirs, n'est pas turbulent; qui est attentif, assidu, poli, discipliné, appliqué, respectueux, travailleur; qui pose des questions, est habillé

correctement et qui collabore avec les autres est perçu comme un « bon élève » par la majorité des répondants.

Certains ont expliqué que dans leurs pays d'origine, la participation de l'élève à son processus d'apprentissage est réduite au minimum :

Tu es là pour écouter et c'est tout. Tu es là, tu ne parles pas, tu as les bras croisés. Tu es là pour recevoir, tu apprends. [...] C'était des cours, c'était de la théorie. Il n'y avait pas d'activités. [...] Il y avait surtout des récitations et des comptines à apprendre par cœur. Surtout de la mémorisation. (Édith)

Kim, pour sa part, a rappelé que l'élève est peu encouragé à s'exprimer, à questionner : « *L'élève avait peur de poser une question. Autrement, il allait être vu par l'enseignant avec un œil critique, c'est-à-dire : tu es bête, tu n'as pas compris, tu n'es pas attentif peut-être* ».

Même s'ils décrivent l'apprentissage à l'école élémentaire dans leur pays d'origine comme un processus au cours duquel l'élève joue un rôle passif, prend peu d'initiative et est peu encouragé à communiquer ce qu'il sait et ce qu'il comprend, plusieurs des étudiants qui ont collaboré à l'étude ont exprimé, lors des entrevues, une conception plutôt dynamique de ce même processus. Ils ont dépeint le portrait d'un élève actif dans ses apprentissages : il expérimente, observe, explore, et demande la contribution de ses parents; il participe à des jeux éducatifs, collabore avec les autres et fait de l'humour; il partage ses connaissances, pose des questions, exprime ce qu'il pense et ce qu'il ressent; il développe ses talents et se considère responsable de son apprentissage; il apprend à l'aide d'une diversité de moyens, manifeste le souci de s'améliorer, demande de l'aide lorsqu'il rencontre des difficultés, essaie de comprendre, démontre son ouverture et poursuit ses apprentissages au-delà de la classe.

Il nous semble intéressant de souligner que ces derniers participants ont exprimé des conceptions de l'apprentissage très différentes de celles auxquelles ils ont été exposés dans leur enfance ou même de celles qui sont toujours actuellement préconisées dans certains des pays d'où ils sont originaires. Ces conceptions renvoient à un enseignement centré sur l'élève et favorisant une perspective constructiviste de l'apprentissage (Cartier et Viau, 2008; McCombs, 2001; Schuh, 2003).

5.3 Conceptions du système d'éducation canadien

Plusieurs des participants à cette étude ont observé que le système d'éducation canadien privilégie des méthodes d'apprentissage pratiques et concrètes, qu'il encourage l'usage de la technologie dès les premières années de la scolarisation, qu'il favorise la participation de l'élève et les interactions avec ses camarades, qu'il se soucie du bien-être de celui-ci et qu'il est accessible à tous, mêmes aux élèves qui rencontrent d'importantes difficultés.

Certains des répondants ont cependant exprimé que les connaissances générales des élèves canadiens sont moins étendues que celles des élèves de leurs pays d'origine :

J'ai été stupéfié d'apprendre que, lorsque je dis aux étudiants de l'université que je suis d'Algérie, ils ne savent pas où est située l'Algérie. Ils ne savent pas si c'est en Europe ou en Asie. Ils n'arrivent pas à situer l'Algérie sur une carte. C'est surtout une ouverture sur le monde, la culture générale. J'ai connu un système [d'éducation] français qui est basé énormément sur la culture générale. Quand j'étais au lycée, je connaissais par coeur toutes les capitales du monde, les monnaies, les superficies, les pays les plus grands. (Francis)

De plus, quelques uns ont signalé que l'éducation, au Canada, valorise fortement le respect des droits et des libertés des élèves, tout en accordant trop peu de crédit aux devoirs et aux responsabilités qui en découlent, ce qui, comme l'exprime Renaud « *donne cette impression de désordre, surtout à l'école secondaire* ».

Les conceptions du système d'éducation canadien des étudiants étrangers que nous avons rencontrés correspondent relativement bien aux politiques qui sont en vigueur actuellement. En effet, un enseignement centré sur l'élève au cours duquel on encourage la participation active de celui-ci à son apprentissage est privilégié dans plusieurs provinces (Delaney, 1999; Ministère de l'Apprentissage de la Saskatchewan, 1993; Ministère de l'Éducation du Québec, 2006). Comme c'est le cas dans d'autres pays, le Canada s'inspire également de la théorie constructiviste de l'apprentissage dans le cadre de l'enseignement aux enfants et aux adolescents (Deaudelin et collab., 2005; Diallo, 2005; Proulx, 2006).

Par ailleurs, les commentaires que les participants ont émis à propos des connaissances générales limitées des jeunes canadiens de même que sur les droits et les libertés qui leur sont largement accordées en classe nous semblent cohérents avec les propos tenus lors des entrevues. En effet, des conceptions associées à un enseignement privilégiant un mode transmissif des connaissances, à la mémorisation comme première stratégie d'apprentissage ainsi qu'à l'élève attentif, discipliné et respectueux ont été évoqués par plusieurs des répondants.

6. Conclusion

L'analyse des données a permis de comprendre et de décrire les conceptions des étudiants étrangers qui ont participé à notre étude à propos de l'enseignement, de l'apprentissage et du système d'éducation canadien. À la lumière des éléments exposés dans cet article, nous croyons que le programme de formation à l'enseignement de la Faculté d'éducation de l'Université d'Ottawa présentera pour eux de grands défis.

Nous sommes d'avis qu'ils devront développer une vision de l'enseignement davantage centré sur l'élève et une perspective de l'apprentissage correspondant à l'approche d'orientation constructiviste qu'ils seront invités à mettre en pratique lors de leurs stages. Ils feront également face à l'obligation de recourir à des ressources matérielles et didactiques stimulantes et diversifiées qui favoriseront une participation active de leurs élèves. De plus, ils se retrouveront dans l'obligation d'adopter un point de vue de même que des méthodes pédagogiques qui inciteront les élèves à prendre en charge leurs processus

d'apprentissage. Cela signifie, pour plusieurs d'entre eux, la probabilité de faire face à une remise en question de leurs conceptions initiales puis d'adopter de nouvelles conceptions mieux adaptées aux politiques et aux contextes pédagogiques qui prévalent au Canada. À notre avis, pour que les étudiants étrangers expérimentent une telle transformation de leurs conceptions lors de leur formation à l'enseignement, il leur faudra d'abord se montrer ouverts et réceptifs à cette sorte d'expérience. Il leur faudra, de surcroît, en comprendre la nécessité et être en mesure d'effectuer les liens avec la composante pratique de la formation, soit le stage en milieu scolaire.

Nous croyons finalement que la transformation des structures conceptuelles de ces étudiants ne pourra s'effectuer sans le soutien d'accompagnateurs informés de l'existence d'un tel processus et soucieux d'offrir un encadrement, en contexte de formation théorique et pratique, répondant aux besoins spécifiques des étudiants étrangers. Les professeurs de la Faculté d'éducation, les superviseurs de stage et les enseignants-associés qui reçoivent ces stagiaires dans leur classe ont, selon nous, la responsabilité de bien connaître les étudiants étrangers qu'ils accompagnent, d'être attentifs aux bouleversements que certains d'entre eux vivront et de les soutenir tout au long de ce processus de transformation afin d'augmenter les chances de réussite de ces derniers dans leurs stages comme dans leur éventuelle insertion professionnelle.

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Citizens' Political Education and Its Role in Development of Democracy and Good Governance

Eesuola, Olukayode `Segun

Department of Political Science, University of Lagos, Nigeria.

foomoterribly@yahoo.com

Abstract

This paper identifies citizen's political education as a special type of learning which all citizens must have, in addition to formal, classroom education, to be able to play their roles as full political members of a state. Using Systems Theory as a framework of analysis, it sees the state as an interrelated system in which the qualities of demand, processing and feedback made by the polity are determined by the level of citizen's political education which also determines the development of democracy and entrenchment of good governance. With extensive analysis of academic literature and the use of Ifa theoretical postulations, the paper discovers that a state is as democratic and well governed as the level of political education of her citizens. It then suggests ways through which a state can achieve this type of education as a strategy for development of democracy and good governance.

Keywords : Citizens - Political Education – Democracy - Good Governance

1. Introduction

The generality of the citizens of a state, to a very large extent, determine how the polity of the state runs. This is true of monarchy, oligarchy and aristocracy, as well as any system of government at all. It is more strikingly true of a democracy, which is popularly known as *government of the people, for the people and by the people*; where the people can be perfectly referred to as *citizens*. Practically, then, the scenario is symbiotic. For a government to be run by citizens, it must make implicit and explicit policies that will educate as well as further enhance suitable environment for continuous political education of its citizens. For the citizens too, to be able to *run* the government that is 'for them and of them', they must make deliberate efforts to have political education. In any case both government officials and the governed are citizens, and they equally need political education to play their roles. Only in this circular flow can a polity achieve good governance, whether as a democracy which is analyzed in the foregoing, or as any other system for that matter. Where there is good citizens' political education, there is every tendency that civility all grow, vices will be minimal, and the entire polity will be stable; suggesting why "Aristotle, following Plato, pleads for responsible and effective forms of education for citizens. This they consider as a cure for corruption and political instability." (Romaswamy, 2005:226)

The critical questions asked by the paper are: What is political education, and how is it different from formal education? How is political education important to the development of democracy and good governance? What can a state do to achieve political education?

However, citizen's political education may not, on its own, produce democracy, but a democracy cannot exist without it. It is so relevant that it can decorate a bad system, making it, for instance, a benevolent dictatorship. In a state where political education is deep among the citizens, tax payment, and other responsibilities are respected, and then the task and burden of governance becomes light. Where such education is lacking among the citizens in government, which this paper calls the *in citizens*, bad policies are made, corruption, and what Fela calls *Authority Stealing*^{xv} are institutionalized, democracy becomes doomed and good governance becomes difficult. If the other citizens, which this paper calls the *out citizens*, have political education, they may react to the situation in civil way. But whether or not their civil reaction will attract civil or repressive solution from the state also depends on the political education of the policy makers, the *in citizens*. Indeed, some of the best that citizen's political education can produce are stable democratic polity and good governance, while the perversion produces the worst: state failure, civil and even international war.

The foregoing analysis explains why this paper attempts an intellectual exploration of political education and the role it plays in development and fine-tuning of democracy and good governance which is related to, but much wider than it is.

The paper does all these in five parts. This first part is **introduction**, followed by **clarification of major concepts**, as well as the framework of citizens' political education. It then goes further to the three other parts: the **theoretical framework**, the **role of citizens' political education in development of democracy and good governance**, then, **recommendation** of how citizens' political education can be entrenched in a polity. The paper has a brief summary at its end.

2. Conceptual Clarifications

The paper intends to clarify some concepts, especially because of the *in* and *out* citizens dichotomy, as well as other obvious reasons.

^{xv} **Authority Stealing** is the term used by that Nigerian political Musician and social critic, Fela Anikulapo Kuti (1938-1997) to describe theft and political corruption among Nigerian and indeed, most African leaders. See (1) **Olaniyan Tejumola (2004:134)**, *Arrest the Music, Fela and His Rebel Art and Politics, U S A, Indiana*. (11) **Veal, Michael E, (2000:4)** *Fela, the Life and Time of an Africa Musical Icon, Philadelphia, Temple University Press*.

2.1 Citizens

Citizens are the special members of the state, among whom government is formed for the moderation of the affairs of both the rest citizens, as well as non citizens. They are the first major elements of all the structures of the state. In fact, considering the fact that there may be many non citizens in a state, citizens are the only members that are complete and enduring, and they have higher stake compared to others. The issue of citizens as special stake holders among other inhabitants of the state is well captured in the philosophical words of Orunmila, an African systematic divinity, that

| | |
|--|--|
| B'onile ba jeun tan a fowo nuri, | When a stakeholder finishes meal, he rubs his hand on his head |
| Ajoji jeka tan fese pale, | When a stranger does, he cleans hand on his legs |
| Adie okoko nii fese tule fenu tuuku, | The mother chicken scatters the ground with leg and beak |
| Adifa fun tuupu tin sawo rode agbe. | These three oracles divined for the wild pig, when he sojourns to the farmers' |
| Adifa fun gbogbo agbe tio gbalejo eranko | As well as all farmers who host him |
| Ebo ni won ni won o se, | They were asked to make sacrifice |
| Tuupu nikan nimbe leyin tin tubo, | Only the wild pig did, the farmers did not, this |
| Nje afaigbo o, afai mo, | Except in ignorance and innocence, |
| A kii sajoji ka bawon tunle won se. | One cannot be a guest and partake in development. |

(Ogbe Ate)^{xvi}

2.2 The In Citizens

These are citizens that control the institutions of government: executive, legislature and judiciary. They are saddled with the responsibility of processing political demands and sending them out in form of policies for the other citizen outside the government cabinet.

^{xvi} *The Odu Ifa, **Ogbe Ate**, explains the stake of citizens as different from that of non citizens. The literal interpretation is the story of the wild pig's visit to the land of farmers, at a time when farmers just concluded their plantings, expecting germination. In the night, while the farmers were asleep, the wild pig began to search for food and survival, scattering the ground with its mouth, in its own tradition. In the process, it discovered all the seeds and yam heads planted by the farmers. He harvested them and ran away. The farmers arrested him and delivered him to the king, but contrary to expectation, the judgment came in favor of the pig. The king declared that the pig was only a non citizen survivalist, and should not be liable to the sustenance of another man's land. He stressed that it was the farmers who were suppose to till and protect their land because they were permanent stake holders. So, when a stakeholder finishes his meal, he cleans his hands on the head, indicating that whatever happens will be endured and resolved. But in the case of the stranger, he rubs his hand on the leg, indicating that when odd things happen, he runs away. That, in the philosophy of Ifa, explains the citizens-settler dichotomy.*

2.3 The Out Citizens

These are citizens who do not participate directly in processing of political demands and policies. They receive policies made, test run them, and feed back the in citizens of the effectiveness or otherwise, of such policies. They also make political demands and inputs, and pass same to the in citizens.

The in and out citizens dichotomy comes against David Easton's political system model, which this paper adopts as its theoretical framework. In the processing box of a political system are government officials and policy makers who receive demands from the system, process same and pass out as outputs. So, those in the box are in citizens, and those outside are out citizens.

2.4 Political Education

Political Education is a less formal, societal impacted type of knowledge that makes citizens to be watchful of and involved in the local and international politics of their environments, so as to enable them perform their obligations as well as get their rights. It is an unending type of education that is acquired not for self reasons, but for the continuity of the entire human political environment. It is a combination of socialization, information and participation which raises the consciousness of the individual about the larger society of which he is member.

2.5 Formal Education

This refers to the process of being taught something important or essential, often within a formal classroom setting, and with eventual variety of individually preferred disciplinary purposes such as Medicine, Engineering, Law, History, Political Science and Education itself as a discipline. Because it is formal, it often leads to certification.

2.6 Democracy

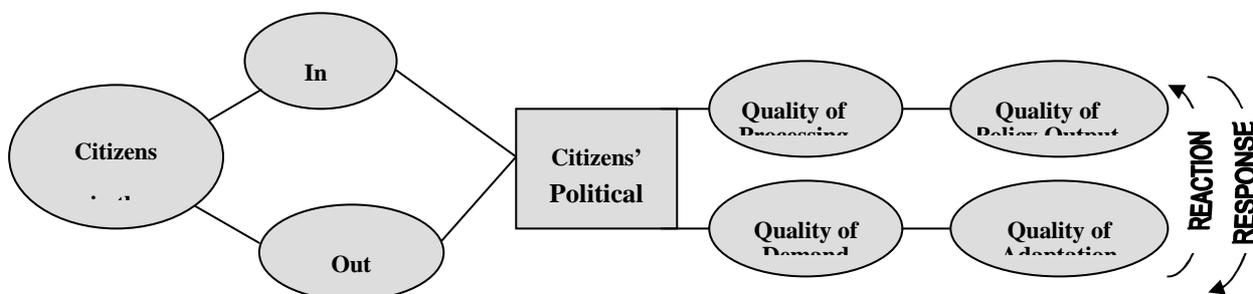
This paper defines democracy as the on going process of distributing governing power among citizen, with the aim of achieving an egalitarian system where the majority have their way, and minority also have their say. The paper's conception is that however advanced it is, democracy is never a cut and dried success. It keeps getting better, (or worse), as it is practised.

2.7 Good Governance

The statutory role of government is governance, and the governance should be for public good. This is because, in the first place, good governance is what individuals want when they surrender their rights to the state, so they can, through the state, attain what as individuals, and they cannot. Good governance then refers to a situation in which the state performs its role of delivering public good, not to an absolute level, as that may be difficult to achieve, but to such a level that will stabilize the polity.

2. 8 Citizens’ Political Education: A Theoretical Analysis

This paper has, right from the outset, defined formal education as the general classroom type that is subject to preferences of individual inhabitants, not necessarily citizens, of a state. But the education that citizens need to develop democracy and enjoy good governance goes beyond formal schooling in the institutions and classrooms. It involves an all encompassing environment in which they are trained and socialized. Some citizens can attain tertiary formal education while others prefer to end at the elementary. Others may choose to be illiterate and take to subsistence farming. It is all about individual’s choice which will not prevent them from playing their economic role. But political education is different. It is what every citizen must have to be qualified as a political person, since citizenship is political and not natural status. This paper is aware of the use of political socialization in this type of discourse, but it is too wide for the focus of this paper. One major distinction is that citizens’ political education is for citizens alone, who **Onyeoziri, (2005:76)** describes as “basic structural elements of the state, owing loyalty to, and entitled by birth or naturalization, to the protection of a given state” But political socialization is for all in the society, alien and settlers included. Another one is that what is social is different from, and wider than what is political. Citizens’ political education is an aspect of political socialization. It is therefore the totality of political consciousness of citizens, based on their political environment, such that make them ready to understand, appreciate, analyze and interpret reasonably, the internal and international issues around them.



It should be stressed again, that formal education for citizens, at least to some level, is a pre-condition for their political education. It allows them access to full local and international information, making it easy for them to participate in their own polity without contempt. This is recognized in what follows that “Formal schooling also has a civic purpose. By facilitating the sharing of values throughout a society, formal schooling plays a role in preparing citizens for political participations.” **(Boyle, 1999:4)**

This does not mean however, that those who do not have formal education cannot have political education; only that they may be confronted with some challenges, especially in their ability to analyze issues with broad perspectives.

Above all, citizens’ political education is considered in this paper, in a broad and all encompassing sense. It is the totality of societal administered knowledge which makes a political individual become a citizen, and consequently play his role – in terms rights and responsibilities – as member of the modern state. In what follows, a figure is created to further illustrate the systemic nature of Citizens’ Political Education.

3. Theoretical Framework

An intellectual inquiry into the role of citizens’ political education in development of democracy and good governance is a systemic one. It primarily assumes that citizens are a part of political system, so the quality of their contributions and reactions to the system depends on the types of education they have.

David Easton’s political system theory then becomes relevant here, as a framework of analysis. The main assumption of political system theory has been summarized thus: “Expectations and support approach the political system – by the citizens – before being processed within the political system during the so-called conversion process, and made into binding decisions for all members of society in the form of laws and provisions. These laws and provisions, in-turn, create reactions within society and feedback, and again to demand and, or support”. **Muller and Schumann (2008:1)**

Thus, in line with political system theory, the entire state or society is a system which has input – processing and output. The quality of what goes in as input determines the quality of what comes out as output, like the computer cliché, ‘garbage in, garbage out.’

The out citizens of any state have expectations which they put forward to government as demand. The types of demand they put forward here – frivolous or focused, self centered or populist - depend on their political education. At the centre of governance are the in citizens who will process, sift and sieve the demands of other citizens, in the so called conversion process. A high level of political education is also required among them so that they can distinguish their personal emotions and preferences, from that which is national. When they eventually make decisions in form of output, such go back to the out citizens. They are the testing ground of policies made in their behalves. Here, political education is also needed to be able to test and operate the policy, especially when it is accompanied with some unintended pains, or outright failure. The

method of reaction of the citizens – whether through the court or cutlass, words of war, will, to a large extent be determined by the level of political education. It is therefore a system that comprises of several interdependent parts in which each part plays its own complementary roles.

3.1 Role of Political Education in Democracy

Although “it may be impossible to say of any particular condition that is either necessary or sufficient for either the establishment or maintenance of a democratic regime”(Pennock, 1979:207) it is quite doubtful if democracy, either in its procedural, liberal, developmental or any form for that matter, can survive and function well without citizens’ political education. Even in dictatorship, the in citizens need to be politically educated enough to be able to make such policies than will make their government gain legitimacy, while the out citizens too must have enough education that will make them operate successfully within the polity, or change it.

This is why most observers find strong support for democracy in population with high level of education, and, “If we cannot say that a high level of education is a sufficient condition for democracy, the available evidence suggests that it comes close to being a necessary one. At the root of this claim is the belief that literate citizens place more demands on the political system that is, they seek more influence over governmental decisions.” Boyle (1999:5)

Pennock, J Roland (1979 206-222) makes painstaking attempt to identify the circumstances that are favorable for the formation and survival of democratic regimes. He identifies factors such as nation building, institutions, and competition amongst citizens, yet, after a balanced theoretical analysis, cannot but confess that his submission is that all these factors notwithstanding, the success or otherwise of democracy really depends on the quality of political education of the governing elite, as well as the level of information and participation found among the citizens. Needless to say therefore, that all pro democracy characteristics such as national consciousness, participation in voting, interpretation of manifesto among others, are only well attained where there is good citizen’s education.

Apart from creating a good ground for democracy to germinate, citizen’s political education also sustains democracy as well as the entire polity through the culture of tolerance of plurality, ethnicity and diversified religions. It promotes good policy outputs and culture of dialogue, especially where there is problem. It appears apparent that most crisis ridden states of Africa got into their quagmire due to lack of political education amongst the in citizens, such that they make unpopular policies and misrule their people, and same with the out citizens who often under or over react to political occurrences.

3.2 Role of Citizens Political Education in Good Governance

If there is any issue at all that recently began to capture scholarly attention, especially in developmental studies, it is that of good governance. In fact, it appears to be contending scholarly attention with democracy. The reason for this

is obvious: good governance seems to be the end itself of all government, whether democratic or otherwise. Thus there may be democracy without good governance, even though scholars still differ on whether good governance can exist without democracy.

The opinion of this paper is that citizen's political education enhances not only democracy as discussed above, but also good governance. But to understand how this is done, we need to understand the basic characteristics of good governance which citizens' political education enhances.

According to **UNESCO, 2008**, there are eight basic characteristics of good governance: political participation, respect for the rule of law, transparency, responsiveness, consensus orientation, equity and inclusiveness, effectiveness and efficiency, and accountability. Some of these characteristics concern the government, the in citizens, while the rest concern the governed, the out citizens. For a government to be responsive, transparent, effective and accountable for instance, there must be, among other factors, high level of political education among the in citizens. They need to have more than formal education that trains them to be lawyers and doctors, they need that all encompassing type of education that make them act not for their self purposes as earlier mentioned, but for the sake of their status as citizens, and the sake of their nation state. It is when they have such education that they minimize corruption, responsive to the yearnings and aspirations of citizens, turn out effective policies, and are transparent in their deeds.

On the part of the citizens, the other features of good governance- participation, respect for law and order, as well as inclusiveness- also depend on the level of political education .It is commonsense that it takes a politically well educated citizen to respect the laws of the state as well as participate fully in local and international politics. It takes political education for both a consultant surgeon and a pig farmer to leave their time consuming works and join a long queue to vote in a polling boot or, engage their constituency parliament members in political discourse.

We can perceive good governance in two forms. First is the effective management of state resources, such that citizens do not have material deprivation. This materialist conception of good governance follows the tradition of the world bank whose aim "is to discipline the state and its institutions for economic progress" **Adejumobi,(2004:14)**

We can also look at good governance in its general form of economic, political and social progress. In this case, the entire system is appraised, focusing on "the urge to steer state and society according to defined rules and procedures, and ensuring that governance in all its ramifications serves the interest of the greatest number of people dim the society through a collective participatory endeavor" **Adejumobi, (2004:15)**

While, in conclusion, one must appreciate that these characteristics of good governance may be difficult to completely achieve in any state, it is very clear that the level of their achievement depends largely on the level of political education, in conjunction with other factors, among the citizens.

4. Conclusion

What this paper has highlighted is that citizens' political education can make or mar democracy, depending on its availability and degree. It is also a major determinant of whether or not a state will achieve good governance in its polity. The concept of citizen is in two folds: citizens in government positions who formulate policies for the rest citizens.

They are, in this paper, referred to as in citizens, then the rest, out citizens. Where there is political education among the in citizens, good, pro- people policies are made, and corruption and other social vices are minimized. The out citizens too, if they have political education, will receive and react to policies in civil ways, even when there are bitter unintended consequences. With this a democracy keeps developing, good governance is entrenched and the whole polity is stable, as there will be very remote possibility of crisis and war. Thus, indeed, citizens' political education plays vital roles in development of democracy and good governance.

5. Recommendation

How then can this all important citizens' political education be entrenched in a polity, so as to ensure development of democracy and good governance?

First, since we have recognized that minimal formal education is a pre-condition for citizenship political education, governments should make elementary education compulsory for all citizens, and as well criminalize its deviance. They should also ensure same, if not higher standard, among the in citizens in government. However, in a 'natural polity', where the First Language is the official language of politics, a six year primary schooling is enough substructure for getting citizenship political education. In others, especially states of Africa where the Mother Tongues and first languages are different from the Lingua Franca, minimum formal education should be extended to secondary school. This is so because of the language barrier. In other words, the level of formal education needed to achieve political education among citizens differ, it is a function of the societal structure. This is why "in the United States today, education (formal) is compulsory (usually till age sixteen) and literacy rate is relatively high... so, American citizens can obtain information from a variety of daily and weekly news publications. They keep abreast of national and international affairs..." **Janda, Berry and Goldman (1992:178)**. Emphasis original.

Second, every government should create an avenue in which all citizens will be exposed to their rights and obligations in the state. If this is done, the ruling class will be able to maintain a hegemony that will hold the polity together, such that uncultured intruders and opportunists will find it difficult to penetrate, as in the 2007 case of Nigeria where a hair stylist, absolutely devoid of both required formal and political education, emerged as Speaker of House of Representatives. Thus, if government makes policies that will enhance political education of the citizens, political recruitment will also be easily and qualitatively done, such that

and masons who even lack political education will not prevail upon the affairs of a nation.

Third, political leaders, the in citizens, should make politics eventful and interesting, rather than boring and dubious. Commenting on the dispositions of the United States citizens to the politics of the state, Janda, Berry and Goldman liken political education- which he calls *sophistication* – to “a spiral process – a gradual process in which interest breeds knowledge which in turn breeds further interest and knowledge over time. Political events and actions of political leaders can contribute to that spiraling process. **(1992:179)**

Indeed, when political events are characterized by ideological discussion, exhibition of positive skills, as well as analysis of issues, citizens get interested in politics, and this interest, according to the foregoing declaration, will breed political knowledge, or if you like , political education. But when politics is characterized by thuggery, theft and assassination, it has a way of repelling citizens.

Fourth, all agents of socialization in a state should be made to disseminate political information. Such agents as school, family and churches should not isolate their activities from politics which eventually allocates values over them. As earlier discussed in this paper that politics and governance are not, and cannot be government’s affair alone, if all agents of education and socialization refuse to be apolitical, political education will spread among citizens.

Student’s union activities in colleges and universities are one sure way of receiving citizen’s political education. It is one important training ground for the future in and out citizens. There have been instances where students’ politics caused major policy changes or even revolution in some parts of the world. In fact, “In Germany and Russia, students politics gave much animation to the movement for national renewal and progress in the 19th century”, consequently by doing this, “university students do not just prepare themselves for future roles in public life; they play a significant role in the political life of their country, even during student period” **(Lipset, 1967:5)**

Thus, encouragement of students’ union activities in colleges and universities will go a long way in providing political education for citizen graduates, especially those in medical sciences, engineering and others whose formal education may be very far from the humanities, and who as a result of that may not necessarily be attracted to politics.

Finally, information dissemination in a polity, if well and seriously handled, create political education in citizens. Government should then encourage as well as provide conducive environment for the print and electronic media, for the purpose of information dissemination.

6. Summary

This paper began with an introduction which gives a general overview to the central thesis, the issue of why citizens must have sound political education in a

bid to be real political and gregarious animals which they are. This is followed by conceptual framework where the essay gives deep theorization of the term citizens' political education, what it is and what it is not, how it is different from as well as symbiotically related to formal classroom education. This second part also explains why the concept adopts *citizens'*, and not just *political education*, clarifying that citizens are permanent and unique kind of stakeholders in the state. After all this, other concepts such as formal education, citizens, democracy, good governance and political education were also stipulated. The paper divides citizen into two: the *in citizens*, that is, those who govern, and the *out citizens* who are governed. Then follows the theoretical framework where Systems Theory was used to explain why the quality of political education of citizens determines the input they make into the political system, the quality of processing that takes place in the government circle, and the level of civility with which outputs are received and adapted, even in the face of unintended negative consequences. Reference was made to most of the crisis ridden states of Africa which are in bad political situations because their citizens, still in minority, have only formal education, but tend to be far from political education. Thus, they either under react or over react to political issues, which may lead to destruction of democratic practices, bad governance and even war.

The forth part goes into how citizen's political education can assist the ever developing world of democracy. This is based on the assumption that democracy everywhere is a developing process, and that what distinguishes most western countries from the states of Africa, is the level of democratic advancement. Good governance was also mentioned, especially for states not practicing democracy but what may called 'benevolent dictatorship'. The argument is that every system of government needs citizenship political education to succeed.

The last part then gives conclusion and recommendations, highlighting various ways in which a state can achieve citizens' political education, as a means of developing its democracy and ensuring good governance.

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Exploring the Link Between Eclectic Leadership and Just Educational Practices

Benedicta Egbo

University of Windsor - Canada

begbo@uwindsor.ca

Abstract

This paper explores the concept of eclectic leadership. In particular, it examines the ways through which educational leaders can foster just educational practices through the adoption of the model. A central argument in the paper is that within the context of the 21st century in which rapid change is the only predictable social phenomenon, there is no justifiable rationale for educational leaders to continue leading schools in orthodox ways that reify unjust teaching and learning practices for some groups of students. Rather, they should adopt an eclectic approach- an amalgam of democratic, humanistic and socially just perspectives and strategies that fundamentally aim to develop a contextualized theory of practice but is, at the same time, cognizant of the broader needs of the learning community.

Keywords: Leadership - Schools - Diversity - Social justice - Social transformation

1. Introduction

In an era of globalization in which rapid change is the only predictable social phenomenon, educational leaders cannot justifiably continue to lead schools in orthodox ways that are impervious to current global realities that include unprecedented intra- and international migration along with its attendant implications for educational systems. Also cognizant of the significant power and privilege that accrue to educational leaders, the paper explores the ways that educational leaders can make a difference in the lives of their students through the practices they adopt within their own "spheres of control". In effect, prevailing social arrangements mandate that educational leaders re-think their practices in ways that enable them to promote social justice in the schools they lead. This remains a critical aspect of attempts to improve the educational experiences of all students. As Brown, (2004) argues, despite the hair splitting in prevailing scholarship about what constitutes social justice, the sources of injustices in contemporary schools and society, and the nature and extent of educators' role in changing the status quo, the fact remains that in much of the Western world, certain groups of students continue to experience negative and unfair treatment that relegates them to the unenviable position of the "other" on the basis of their backgrounds which carry with them, cultural *capital* (knowledge and attitude needed to succeed in formal educational settings) that is less valued in schools (Bourdieu, 1991). There is indeed compelling evidence that show that minority students for instance have a tenuous relationship with schools as a function of systemic racism, exclusionary educational practices and ideologies that negates their identities.

Thus, affirming identities should be a moral agenda that guides the practices of all educators including educational leaders. One way of doing this is by embracing eclectic leadership practices.

1.1. Theoretical Framework

Conceptually, the paper is grounded in critical theory which recognizing how power and privilege operate to sustain domination in society, advocates the transformation of oppressive social structures including dominant ideologies, values, policies and institutional practices (see Peters, Lankshear & Olssen 2003). Also, critical theory offers a framework that is germane to the discussion here because it simultaneously critiques undesirable practices, addressing the nature of, and possibility of change through the deconstruction and reconstruction of taken-for-granted educational knowledge and ideologies including leadership practices. In their account of praxis, critical theorists argue for transformative practices that would allow educational stakeholders to interrogate entrenched assumptions, re-align their perspectives and evoke a commitment to change from them.

2. What is Eclectic Leadership?

Just as changing demographics and increasing diversity among the clientele of school systems mandate new ways of teaching and learning, orthodox or conventional conceptions of school leadership are no longer viable. As a consequence, new conceptions are beginning to emerge in leadership discourse. It must however be emphasized that the advocacy for transformative leadership practices in education has its roots in some seminal works (e.g. Greenfield, 1986; Foster, 1986). For example, in making a case for a transformative turn in educational administration, William Foster, proposed a framework that is "oriented to the idea of change, change accomplished through a critical and educative dimension (p. 90)". However, while the humane approach to doing leadership proposed in these works continue to serve as a springboard for understanding democratic leadership practices, more recent works by scholars and practitioners in the field explicitly converge around discussions of how schools (including their structural features and practices) are complicit in replicating positions of marginality in society.

In general, emerging understandings of educational leadership cohere around inclusive, ameliorative and facilitative approaches. For example, Corson (2000) proposes emancipatory leadership which would shift administrators' focus away from protecting sectional interests to a participatory and power-sharing model. Brown (2004) proposes a transformative agenda through "leadership for social justice and equity", while Shields (2004) advocates dialogic leadership. Finally, Egbo (2005) urges the adoption of research agenda that challenge orthodoxy in the discipline while Gunter (2005) maps a future course for researchers and practitioners in educational leadership. By advocating a shift from traditional understandings of educational leadership to more political, activist and contested interpretations, these writers are promoting leadership practices that identify deconstruct and challenge attitudes, values, ideologies and discursive practices

in 21st century schools that contribute to unsatisfactory schooling experiences for some students.

That being said, the emergence of disparate conceptions of leadership suggests the need for a more embracing and coherent model that subsumes other progressive models such as those cited above. Eclectic leadership offers such a possibility. What then is eclectic leadership? It is a leadership model that draws on aspects of various empowering leadership models to develop a contextualized model that is cognizant of both the specific and broad needs of a pertinent learning community (Egbo, 2009). By critically examining and integrating different models of leadership into their practice, eclectic leaders not only embrace the idea of a hybridized model, they are also simultaneously reject approaches to leadership that are least likely to engender social praxis in schools and society. Like most leadership models, there are several determinants or components of eclectic leadership all of which converge to create learning organizations that are social justice oriented. In what follows, I briefly sketch the constituents of eclectic leadership.

2.1. Components of Eclectic Leadership

Inclusion: Eclectic leadership is inclusive in that it values and respects the voices of all stakeholders in the educational enterprise. In particular, it aims to include the voices of students from marginalized communities. It also embraces inclusive leadership which Ryan (2006: 16, 17) describes as “a collective process in which everyone is included or fairly represented... [it is] an array of practices, understandings, and values that persist over time... inclusive leadership relies on many individuals who contribute in their own often humble way...to make things happen”. Indeed, leadership involves the exercise of power where typically, one individual is able to influence decision-making processes to achieve organizational goals- a situation that confers significant power that can be put to either positive use or lead to injustices against the less powerful (Corson, 2000). Eclectic leaders put such power to positive use by ensuring that everyone within the school community has a voice in the decision-making process. But, in order to make a difference in the lives of students from marginalized communities, school leaders and other educational decisions makers must move beyond orthodox ideologies that sustain existing power structures and exclude the powerless especially those who come from cultures that are not highly valued in mainstream society. Thus, school leaders in urban settings should understand that while they can make decisions arbitrarily, the best results can only be achieved through collaboration all stakeholders.

Transformation: For the purposes of this analysis, transformation is conceived of in terms of a profound change in consciousness in the sense it is used by Freire, 1970 and Mezirow, 1990. Such a change would of necessity, involve critical reflection, probing, questioning and finally a shifting of paradigms or perspectives which should, in turn, act as a mediating force to social praxis. However, before transformation or change can occur, leaders must first critique existing practices. As Furman and Shields (2005) assert, injustices have to be identified before praxis can occur.

Emancipatory Component: Along the lines of Freire's (1970) idea of "conscientization", this dimension of eclectic leadership has as its major goal, the task of raising critical awareness and consciousness among those who have been marginalized. It therefore involves developing agency which in turn, involves critical interrogation of subjects' lives, their status in society, the social spaces they occupy as well as how structural forces empower or disempower them. This process then facilitates their ability to change oppressive social structures such as those that are embedded in educational practices. Eclectic leaders who are committed to making a difference can initiate strategies that enable both teachers and students to see structures and issues in a different light than they ordinarily would. As Reyes and Wagstaff (2005) appropriately point out, leadership is a most powerful intervening variable and can be the determining factor for whether schools are successful or not with their students especially those from diverse backgrounds. Emancipatory practices enable school leaders to transcend mundane and technical responsibilities for the purposes of promoting fair and equitable micro-level practices.

Modelling "Care": This component involves the ability to empathise with and understand other people who in one way or the other, are different from them. It enables educators including school leaders, to act as advocates of their students beyond a state of simple understanding. Here, I am referring to the concept of the ethic of care which all educators including leaders at all levels of the educational system are morally bound to not only extend to their students but also, to model. In her exploration of the trajectories between interpersonal relationships and positive educational outcomes, Noddings (2005) puts "caring" at the centre of any meaningful educational change in contemporary educational contexts. Arguing in reference to teachers and by extension educational leaders, she asserts that "teachers not only have to create caring relationships in which they are the carers, ... they also have the responsibility to help their students develop the capacity to care" (p. 18). Similarly, Marshall and Oliva (2006) in their discussion of strategies for building the capacities of social justice-oriented leaders, underscore the centrality of caring leaders, arguing that while "bureaucratic structures and leadership ... prohibit loving, nurturing relationships in schooling... [s]ocial justice leadership reconnects with emotional and idealistic stances ... supports leaders' impulses to transgress, to throw aside the traditional bureaucratic rationality and the limiting conceptualization of leadership" (pp. 7, 8). Moreover, seeing their students as co- participants in a given space will increase interpersonal bonds between eclectic leaders and their students that not only transcend static sympathy but, will make them more committed to working towards change both within and outside the school.

Building Community Partnerships: This is an essential component of eclectic leadership. Firestone and Riehl (2005) identify three communities with which educational leaders ought to develop critical connections- the student community, the professional community and the neighbourhood community. The bulk of the discussion in this paper understandably, centres on strategies for empowering the student community. However, the professional community which includes teachers without whose empowerment positive learning outcomes for all students will remain an illusory goal, is equally important. Encouraging teacher leadership is consequently an important dimension of eclectic leadership. The other community which is not often accorded the recognition it deserves, is the parent of family community. As many writers have argued (e.g. Cummins,

2000; Delpit, 2006; Ryan 2006) the communities from which students come to school (especially those from diverse backgrounds) can only be empowered to the extent that schools initiate and nurture collaborations with them. It is extremely difficult to make a difference in the lives of students without forging partnerships with their families and communities. Community outreach and participation are therefore important indices of eclectic leadership. For example, school leaders can send home news letters on a regular basis. Community outreach also involves inviting parents and community members to come into the classroom to participate in anyway that they can. Parents can either help or observe their children at work. Even those who lack language skills can be encouraged to support their children by their very presence in the classroom. The point I am making here is that encouraging parent/community participation sends the important signal that leaders (and schools) are open to power sharing as well as willing to work collaboratively with them.

Critical Language Use: The adoption of participatory discourse norms is an important aspect of maintaining a culture of inclusion in schools. Researchers have gathered overwhelming evidence that shows that collaborative dialogue in the classroom contributes significantly to students' learning (Shor, 1992; Cummins, 2000). Unfortunately research also shows that discursive practices tend to be exclusionary at all levels of education thus limiting the participation of some groups of students. At the same time, few would query the central role of language and discursive practices in maintaining uneven power relations in society. This relationship becomes even more significant when one considers the fact that language mediates our experiences although it is worth pointing out that it is the way language is organized and used rather than language itself that excludes some groups of students from fully engaging the educational process (Corson, 2000). This has significant implication for language use especially in socially contested milieus such as schools. Thus, school leaders who subscribe to the principles of eclectic leadership will promote language sensitivity in the schools they lead. In order to do this successfully, eclectic leaders should:

- use language critically, i.e., use non-racist, non-sexist language, anti-bias and inclusive language
- adopt participatory and democratic discursive practices
- discourage the use of materials that reinforce stereotypes, e.g., prevailing stereotypes of women, minorities and other marginalized groups
- encourage positive teacher - student and student -peer interactions
- encourage the adoption of inclusive teaching and learning strategies among teachers
- Overall, model sensitive and critical language use within their school environments

3. Connecting the Dots

So how do eclectic and just educational practices intersect? One obvious trajectory involves equitable learning outcomes for all students. However, in order for eclectic leaders to succeed in their project of student empowerment, they must as a necessity engage in critical self-analysis including regular examinations of their own practices. By problematizing their own practices on an

on-going basis, they will develop critical consciousness which is a necessary condition for empowering all students. As Brown (2004) puts it:

If ...educational leaders have engaged in self-directed learning, critical reflection, and rational discourse concerning their underlying assumptions about practice, the next logical step is to integrate these assumptions into an informed theory of practice (i.e., social action) (P. 97).

Effective self-analysis also involves values and attitudes appraisal since supporting a socially just educational environment cannot occur without understanding the values that inform leaders' practices. Leadership practices do not happen in a vacuum- they are embedded in the practitioner's values and philosophical orientations. An effective values appraisal and understanding of the values that foreground their practices therefore, will result in perspective re-alignment which also leads to the development of critical awareness and consciousness- seeing things differently and making conscious efforts to shift paradigms wherever such is warranted.

Beyond engaging in critical self-appraisal, eclectic leaders must also conduct regular diversity and equity audits (Skrla et al., 2004). This involves several processes including systematic diversity readiness audits in several areas. An effective school diversity audit must however begin with an "*environmental scan*". I use this term to describe the process of appraising the student composition of the school beginning with a simple but often ignored question, "who are the students in the school?" Research shows that educators, in this case school leaders who know their students are better able to initiate the requisite action for change. The results of environmental scans not only help eclectic leaders to make informed decisions regarding appropriate pedagogical strategies, materials, language support, community partnerships etc., they also put such leaders in a "proactive mode" for promoting just educational practices.

Eclectic leadership is a leadership model that draws on an amalgam of progressive perspectives and strategies to develop a contextualized theory of practice. While arguably it is emergent and therefore has room for further and more robust discussions and conceptualization, it holds the promise resolving the tension between competing views of what constitutes socially just leadership practices in contemporary school. Although it critiques the ways orthodox leadership practices marginalize some students and their lived experiences while privileging others, it does so pragmatically without sidelining the importance of core leadership responsibilities. Perhaps more importantly, it emphasizes the need for balancing leadership practices with the realities of the wider social context within which schools exist in the 21st century. But, in embracing an eclectic leadership model, it should not be construed that educational leaders are subscribing to a relativistic approach in which anything goes nor should the processes involved be interpreted as a constant state of vacillation between several leadership models. Far from being the case, the adoption of an eclectic approach to leading schools means that critically inclined educational leaders must clinically deconstruct existing frameworks in order to develop their own theory of practice. Only in this way can they contribute positively to the success all students especially those whose social positioning and identities have been unfairly used as markers of reduced social privilege.

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Life in Middle Schools: a Cross-cultural Perspective on Hidden Curriculum

Cennet Engin-Demir

Middle East Technical University –Turkey

cennet@metu.edu.tr

Abstract

Going to school is part of socialization process; schools, both overtly and covertly, transmit skills, aspirations norms, values, behavior patterns that assist the assumption of specific roles. These covert learnings have been named as hidden, tacit, or implicit curriculum. This paper focuses on hidden curriculum in selected Turkish and American middle schools drawing particularly on students' and teachers' experiences and perceptions. The emphasis is on social environment of the schools. Interviews and observations were used to collect data from a variety of school contexts. A total of 18 American and 24 Turkish students, 10 American and nine Turkish teachers were interviewed. The data collected from schools in each country were content- analyzed. Results revealed that in both countries, students are presented with existing social order in their schools and learn how to deal with and relate to the structures of authority.

Keywords: Sociology of Education - Curriculum Research - Hidden Curriculum

1. Introduction

As part of socialization process, schools, both overtly and covertly, transmit skills, aspirations norms, values, behavior patterns that assist the assumption of specific roles. Some of those norms and values are fairly explicit while the others are implicit. These implicit learnings have been named as hidden, tacit, or implicit curriculum (Martin, 1976). Hidden curriculum is defined in various ways by various authors: "unofficial expectations of the school conveyed by implicit messages (Jackson, 1968:17); "unintended learning outcomes or messages" (Gordon, 1982:188); "the 'implicit' curriculum which is made up of values and expectations that are generally not included in the formal curriculum but are learned by students during their school experience" (Eisner (1985:74). Giroux (1983) explained that hidden curriculum is explored primarily through the social norms and moral beliefs tacitly transmitted through the socialization process that structure classroom social relationship.

Different perspectives on the hidden curriculum have been articulated since 1970s. The 'functionalist' perspective focused on how schools played their part in maintaining social order and stability. According to this view students learn the social norms, values and skills they require to function and contribute to the existing society (Dreeben, 1968; Jackson, 1968). Dreeben (1968) for example identified four specific norms which are transmitted through schooling namely: independence, achievement, universalism and specificity. He argued that those norms and characteristics are both necessary and fundamental within the adult public life. Jackson (1968) is also concerned about the school's role in

maintaining social order. He argued that hidden curriculum emphasized specific skills: "learning to wait quietly, exercising restraint, trying, completing work, keeping busy, cooperating, showing allegiance to both teachers and peers, being neat and punctual, and conducting oneself courteously"(pp. 10-13). The works of functionalists provided foundation for the general definition of hidden curriculum as the elements of socialization that take place in school but are not part of formal curricular content.

The liberal perspective considers the hidden curriculum to be those taken-for-granted assumptions and practices of school life which although being created by various actors within the school. They questioned the hidden aspects of school life such as school rules and codes of discipline and teacher-student relationship and interactions (Skelton, 1997). Hargreaves (1978) for example studied the role of space and time in classrooms. He found that the implicit aspects of school life were a symbolic expression and reproducer of the power-relation between teachers and students. Compared with the functionalist perspective, liberal perspective takes a different view of people in relation to society. They perceive teachers and students not as passive receivers of social norms and values but as active, purposeful creators of meaning. Therefore, the hidden assumptions and effects of school practices are reproduced by teachers and students through their interaction patterns (Scarth, 1987; Skelton, 1997).

From the perspective of critical education theorists the curriculum represents the introduction to a particular form of life; it serves in part to prepare students for dominant and subordinate positions in the existing society (McLaren, 2005). The key question of critical research into hidden curriculum is to address how schooling functions to reproduce various inequalities (race, gender, social class etc.) in society (Apple, 2004; Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Giroux, 1983). Critical perspective recognizes that schools shape students both through standardized learning practices, and through other agendas including rules of conduct, classroom organization, the informal pedagogical procedures used by teachers, governance structures, teacher expectations, grading procedures and the total physical and instructional environment. For example, Bowles and Gintis, (1976) argue that social relations (e.g. teacher-student interaction) of schooling reproduces the consciousness necessary to work relations such as hierarchical division of labour between teachers and students. Some critical researchers such as Bourdieu & Passeron (1977), sought to demonstrate how schools recreated the forms of consciousness necessary for social control and how cultural factors may play their part in reproducing social relations.

Although, not specifically focused on the hidden curriculum, Foucault's writings have some implications for the issues of the role of education in social control; student resistance; the exercise of power and the relationship between power and knowledge. According to Foucault, power relations are inscribed in discourses which are made up of discursive practices referring to the "*rules by which discourses are formed, rules that govern what can be said and what must remain unsaid, who can speak with authority and who must listen*" (Cited in McLaren, 2005, p.411). Foucault (1981) argued that as other disciplinary institutions, schools, organize physical space and time in which desired behavior is reinforced by techniques of surveillance, such as testing, observing, documenting aspects of students' personal dispositions and feelings.

The review of literature indicates that every student encounters each day at least three different aspects of his/her school environment: The physical environment, the social environment, the symbolic/cognitive environment. Each of these three aspects of the school environment is associated with a hidden curriculum (Gordon, 1982). This cross-cultural study focuses on hidden curriculum in selected Turkish and American middle schools drawing particularly on students' and teachers' experiences and perceptions. The emphasis is on the nature of norms and values conveyed through social environment of observed schools and how they create a power relationship between teachers and students.

2. Methodology

2.1. Sample Schools

Two public schools in the United States and two public schools in Turkey were selected by considering the socio-economic status as determined by neighborhood. *School A* is an American 6-8 public school with about 800 students. The neighbourhood in which the school is located known as white middle -class with many of university graduate parents. The average class size is 25 in the school. *School B* is an American K-8, public school with approximately 700 students. Most of the parents are high school graduates. It was reported by the principal that many of the student live in single-parent families who were below the poverty level. The average class size is 25. *School C* is a Turkish K-8 (called as primary schools) public school located in lower SES neighbourhood in Ankara. Almost all of the parents are elementary school graduates (elementary school was 5 year before 1997 in Turkey) who were migrated from rural to urban Ankara. They live in squatter houses which are called as "gecekondu". The school employs double shift. The average class size is 45 in this school. *School D* is Turkish K-8 primary school located in the middle SES neighbourhood. Most of the parents are university graduates with professional occupations. The school does not employ double-shift. The average class size is 30.

2.2. Data Collection Methods and Procedures

Wilcox (1982) advocates the use of ethnographic techniques to study a school's implicit or hidden curriculum. Hidden curriculum can be organized by observing and interpreting the everyday commonplace events in classroom and school. Therefore, qualitative methods - unstructured observation and interview - were employed to collect data from teachers and students. A total of 18 American and 24 Turkish students, 10 American and nine Turkish teachers, were interviewed.

An interview schedule was prepared and questions were asked to understand how students' perceived social environment in their school and their classrooms such as teacher-student relationship, rules and daily routines. Selected teachers were interviewed and their class sessions were observed to understand the nature of teacher-student interaction, teaching strategies used and decision-making processes.

Observations took place in a variety of school contexts including classrooms, suspension rooms, hallways, cafeteria, playground, gym, assemblies etc. Classroom observations were conducted to examine the nature of teacher-student interaction, teaching methods used and teachers' use of space and time during the classes. It was decided not to begin with a behavior coding system developed in advance of observation, since the intent of the study was to enumerate and codify as broad a range of teacher-student behavior as possible. It was sought to preserve as much of the variety of teacher-student behavior as possible but minimal inference from the observer. Each teacher's class was observed twice.

2.3. Data Analysis

Interviews were transcribed and observation notes taken by the researcher were compiled. The data collected from schools in each country were content-analyzed, similar opinions and observations were grouped and presented according to themes, and interpreted by the researcher. Then the differences and similarities between schools of two countries in terms of the social environment and covert learnings communicated by them were emphasized.

3. Results and Discussion

In order to understand the learner's experience of schooling, researchers need to document features of hidden curriculum such as rules, routines and relations of educational processes which are implicit but important in other words school social environment. The school social environment is considered as a combination of the relationships between staff, between students, and between staff and students (Ryan & Patrick, 2001).

3.1. Teacher- Student Relationships

As part of school social environment, the nature of the exchange between teachers and students is one of the main interactions through which values are defined and communicated. The teachers' expectations from students, use of space and time in the classroom (e.g. teaching strategies used) and the decision making process are factors that determine the nature of relationship between teachers and students.

3.1.1. Teachers' Expectations and Attitudes

The teachers' values, attitudes and expectations influence the nature of interpersonal relations they engage with their students, their school and classroom practices (Ryan & Patrick, 2001). In order to understand teachers' expectations from students their responses for two questions were analyzed and summarized below: "What do you expect from your students?"; "Who is a successful student for you?"

The most frequently stated expectations by Turkish teachers from their students are working hard, studying on time, being planned and organized, having a sense of responsibility, following directions and respecting teachers and other students.

I expect my students to study hard. I expect them to talk when they are given permission... I expect them to listen to the teacher.

I expect my student to be planned and orderly individuals who are aware of their responsibilities.

Two of Turkish teachers mentioned that they expect their students to be reflective, curious, open-minded, and enthusiastic about learning and self-confident individuals. One of them mentioned:

I like to have students who think. Students must have a problem in their minds to solve all the time.... I expect my students feel that they study.

The most frequently stated expectations of American teachers from their students are doing homework everyday, paying attention to their work, following directions, trying to do best, trying to success, behaving, being respectful to teachers and peers and getting involved in class activities.

I expect them to come into class on time, everyday unless they are sick, I expect them to take their notes and follow my directions and try to do their best on the math.

I expect that they try. Try to succeed. Try to follow directions, try to experiment stuff that we put out there. If we tell them that keep their lockers clean. I expect my students behave, respect other students.

Some other desired student characteristics mentioned by one American teacher are being responsible, being curious, communicating, co-operating in class, being critical and creative.

I like students that are creative, challenge themselves, one that take responsibility for their own learning. Students are better if they are independent and creative.

3.1.2. Students' Perceptions of Teacher Expectations

For the purpose of understanding students' perceptions related to their teachers' expectations from students they were asked to respond two questions: "What does a teacher expect from his/her students in general?" ; "Who are successful students?"

Turkish students' perceptions of teachers' expectation from students are summarized as follows: Well-behaving, being respectful, hard-working, being successful, listening, being a good person and being docile.

First of all, a teacher expects respect and love...he/she wants to see that students learn something...wants his/hers students being successful.

Teachers expect students to be very good people, work hard, be successful and be a good citizen for the country.

The American students' perceptions of teachers' expectations from students can be summarized as follows: Doing homework, listening directions, being class on time, following the rules and directions, being a good person, working hard and being respectful.

They should expect us to get our work done, like to do our homework each day, to expect us to be there to learn rather than just sitting there not even paying attention.

I think teachers expect respect from their students. If they give them respect and expect students to get their work in, work which is reasonable not too much. Just not over react, goof around.

She expects us to be responsible, homework done, take care of ourselves so that she doesn't need to be watching us. Be nice to her and classmates... not cheating.

Regarding students descriptions of a successful student the most frequently stated characteristics of a successful student by Turkish students are being hard worker, well-mannered, respectful to teachers, and being clean and tidy. Similarly American students described the characteristics of successful students as having good grades, well-behaving, being nice to people and following rules. It can be concluded from the results that students of both countries quite aware of the fact that teachers do not only evaluate them on the basis of achievement test, but also on the basis of their conduct.

3.1.3. Teachers' Organization of Time and Space

The way that space is organized in schools produces particular social relations (McGregor, 2003). Teachers' choice about time and space and materials and the choice of instructional methods are all contribute to the construction of classroom power relationship (Hargreaves, 1978). In almost any classroom one can observe teachers engaged in direct interaction with students that is intended to control student behavior and promote student learning.

Teachers were asked to state the teaching strategies that they use most in classroom. For the majority of Turkish teachers, the most frequently used teaching strategies are teacher-directed questioning and lecturing. Some of the teachers mentioned that they sometimes use students' presentation and teacher-led discussion to encourage students to participate in the lesson. One of the Turkish teachers stated that she sometimes used group work and drama.

Results of the student interview and observations more or less verified the teachers' statements about teaching strategies they use most. That is almost all of the teachers observed mainly used teacher-directed questioning and lecturing.

In a typical lesson teacher presents and explains information and then ask some questions to students to check their level of understanding topic or to encourage students to participate. Teacher-centered and textbook-centered instruction is dominant in Turkish classes. Observation results showed that all of the Turkish classes are organized in rows which provide little opportunity for using participatory teaching strategies and convey a hierarchical view of the teacher-student relationship.

American teachers are more likely to use variety of teaching strategies in their classroom. Independent study, lecture, small group work, questioning and teacher-led discussion are among the most frequently reported teaching strategies used in the classroom. All of American teachers emphasized that they tried to keep lecturing short. Parallel with their teaching strategies American teachers tend to organize their classroom environment in a flexible way.

Another aspect of school and classroom social environment is the decision-making process. Teachers were asked to describe the way they make decisions in their classes. Majority of Turkish teachers have reported that they make their decisions considering students needs. Some of them mentioned that they involve students in decision-making process in a democratic manner in the classroom. However, observation results indicated that these teachers' practices in the classroom were not conducive to participative decision-making. On the other hand, most of the American teachers do not tend to include students in decision-making process in the classroom; however they still try to take needs and interest of the students into consideration.

The teachers' movements in the classroom demonstrate the nature of social interaction they have with their students (McGregor, 2003). The results of the classroom observation demonstrated that both Turkish and American teachers spent more than 80% of class time in front of the classroom which may convey a message that they prefer to maintain particular power relations. One of the teachers, who mostly used group projects as teaching method allowed students to use classroom physical space in a flexible way and preferred to have more contact with students during the class.

Many school rules and practices are connected to the spatiality and embodiment determining the use of space by students and regulating their movement and expected actions in particular space and times. Teachers and school staff draw upon this production of space to demonstrate their authority and maintain particular power relations (McGregor, 2003). Observation in playground, cafeteria, suspension room and hallways in American schools showed that the behaviors of students were always monitored and controlled by an adult such as a guardian and a teacher in all spaces. For example students who misbehave in cafeteria are forced to eat alone on an isolated table. In addition, a student should carry a hall pass given by teacher in order to move from one place to another in the school. In Turkish schools, after every class hour, students could have 5 or 10 minutes break and played in schoolyard under the control of a teacher. There was also one teacher at each stage was responsible for monitoring and controlling students' behaviors in hallways during the break and making them wait their teachers silently in their classroom. Therefore, students' movements in different parts of the school are predetermined and controlled by an adult.

3.2. Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of Informal Learning

Students may learn a great deal that is not overtly set forth as part of official school philosophy and instructional content. Such learning is comprised of the rules, ways of interacting, beliefs and knowledge that are pervasive, though not explicitly stated and is attributable to implicit curricula presented in schools (Gordon, 1983). Portelli (1993) argues that students are aware of the hidden curriculum and in fact participate in its construction. Considering this, the students were asked to respond to the question: "What do you learn in school other than you learn in classes such as math, social studies etc.?"

Turkish students' statements on what they learn in school other than in classes are as follows: How to make friends, co-operation, being clean, communication skills, knowing other people, rules that should be obeyed in a community, swearing, getting ready for life, social skills, moral rules, manner, respect other people, respect teachers and other adults, how to get along with people, love each other, being docile, being a good person, difficulties in life, how to treat adults and how to be ill-mannered and fighting.

American students reported that they learn, getting along with other people even if they do not like them, working with other people, how to make friends, communication skills, how to achieve their goals, respecting everyone, social skills with people of all ages, being a good friend and good student, new style of clothes, jokes, caring other people, responsibility in their schools.

Teachers were also asked to answer: "What kind of messages must be conveyed by school environment to students in your school?" American teachers' statements are summarized as follows: Respect, education is good thing overall, gang behavior is not allowed, don't put down other students, be honest, respect diversity, respect authority; care about each other, how to work with others, help each other, punctuality, to follow directions, responsibility, trying their best. According to teachers students also learn when and how far they can push limit, learn trick, learn just to behave and shut up, learn that mistreatment has consequences, learn that success is earned and learn snobbishness.

One of the teachers believed that schools generally favor social over individual concerns:

They get dead rock of the white European culture. Work hard; don't be overly emotional about things. I don't think we honor to express emotions. Because, it is not part of this culture. I think not so good value recently is that kids have a lot of power in the school. I think one thing that you hear a lot of teachers that they use behavior tickets on they say if you want to stay here concentrate on your work if you don't you will go to the discipline room. It is illusion of choice actually kids do not have choice here and they know that.

Turkish teachers tended to answer the same questions by mentioning the family background rather than school environment. They perceived that, especially negative behaviors such as swearing, stealing, vandalism were learned from families rather than from school. On the other hand, they still had difficulty in

thinking about positive behaviors that are learned by students from school environment. One of the Turkish teachers tended to consider school environment as an influencing factor in teaching some negative values and attitudes:

Because of physical facilities such as an iron gate the school sends a message that school is like a prison. Moreover, teachers' attitudes are ... like when a student comes to the teacher lounge most teachers say "go now and come later". What happens than the student try to solve his/her own behavior by himself/herself. Lots of fighting occurs in this school. Because students receive the message that nobody cares for them"

Another teacher mentioned that students learn how to treat people in their workplace in the future because they try to live in a crowd.

Overall, Turkish and American students' and teachers' responses demonstrated that the informal learning that occur in schools were more or less similar. It is obvious from the findings that students learn to respect authority, to get along with others well, to obey the rules, to co-operate, to work hard and to be docile, responsible and punctual. Findings are consistent with the research on the hidden curriculum in schools, that suggested what students learn revolves around negotiating relationships with others, meeting expectations, dealing with authority, and how to simply 'get through the day' (Bowles & Gintis, 1976; Martin, 1976). Jackson (1968) also argued that hidden curriculum emphasized specific skills such as "learning to wait quietly, exercising restraint, trying, completing work, keeping busy, cooperating, showing allegiance to both teachers and peers, being neat and punctual, and conducting oneself courteously" (pp.10-13).

3.3. Students' Perceptions of School Rules

Schools are organizations in which rules are very pervasive. School and classroom rules, procedures and rituals teach students powerful lessons about what behavior is proper in social life. For the purpose of understanding the subjective meaning students attach to rules and procedures, thereby, the nature of messages that are conveyed through rules and their consequences, students were asked to state the rule or rules they would have changed in their school most and explain the reason.

Most of the American students criticized the rules such as getting a check when they don't complete their homework and graduation standards they have to meet, not being allowed to talk in the classroom and having limited time between two classes. Two students' statements gave a clear idea about how each student might get different messages from the same rule and its consequences:

The person who kicks the wall gets more punishment than the person who bring cigarette to school. I don't like this rule... Not really... because, it means the wall is more important than students' health.

This is not really rule. I have noticed that these kids sometimes disruptive in everything and then if they behave they get like more treats and

everything...while students behaving just don't get anything. I think they should change ... like if the kids are behaving give the complements.

One student criticized a rule which regulated the type of physical and social contact that students have with their peers.

Rule is ... in the halls you should not touch your friends... you want to hug your friends or just talk to them I don't like that rule because, I hug all of my friends. Then, I know I want to touch someone's head on the back to get their attention.

In Turkish schools majority of the students stated that the rules in their schools are good and besides they are necessary to regulate the school life. Only few students complained about rules such as not being allowed talk in the classroom, not being allowed to play football in schoolyard and having dress-code. It is worth to note that almost all of the students from low SES school were happy with the rules; however, students from middle SES school criticized some of the school rules and suggested changes. The finding seemed to support the findings of Anyon's (1980) study that showed working class schools teach children to follow the procedures mechanically, by rote, and with little decision-making.

Overall, compared to Turkish students more American students are critical about school rules. This finding is consistent with the findings of another study which analyzed the school metaphors of Turkish and American students. It was observed that compared to Turkish students most of the American students tended to criticize the limited autonomy and freedom in their schools (Engin-Demir, 2007).

4. Conclusions and Implications

The present small-scale qualitative study attempted to understand hidden curriculum in selected Turkish and American middle schools drawing particularly on students' and teachers' perceptions and experiences.

Results revealed that in both countries, students are presented with existing social order in their schools and learn how to deal with and relate to the structures of authority. That is to say, both interview and observation results suggested that the learning states of neatness, punctuality, docility and obedience to authority which are attributed to the hidden curriculum for schools were well-evident in both Turkish and American middle schools. The finding is interesting with regard to how schools as institutions function similarly in two different cultures and teach similar norms and values.

Because of the pervasiveness of the hidden curriculum in schools, education will be more effective when the hidden curriculum is better understood and the issues related to it clearer. It is obvious from the findings that Turkish teachers are not much aware of implicit messages conveyed to students by school social environment including their behaviors. As their students, Turkish teachers in this study have a tendency of not criticizing the school practices because of the values Turkish society assigned to education (Engin-Demir, 2007). Moreover, as

school teaches obedience to authority, it may be that Turkish teachers and students internalize the norms and values.

Understanding the nature of hidden curriculum and how it manifest itself as part of hegemonic forces at work in the culture is critical for both Turkish and American societies. Especially in Turkish schools if the teachers at the classroom level are interested in being fair and truly understanding the implications of their work, then understanding of hidden curriculum is essential for them. Moreover, knowledge of hidden curriculum in Turkish context may help educators to be aware of the gap and inconsistencies exist between stated and actualized goals of educational system. In one of the aims of Turkish education being creative and constructive individuals, capability of reasoning freely and rationally, respecting human rights and valuing individuality are mentioned as desired characteristics of a Turkish citizen. However, the findings of this study showed that, the social environment of Turkish schools convey the messages that imply being docile, respecting authority, punctuality and conformity are socially accepted behaviors. Therefore, it can be argued that the social environments of Turkish schools are not conducive to develop the free-minded, rational and critical individuals who can contribute to the improvement of democratic system.

The findings capture a particular time period in the school life of Turkish and American middle school students, but would need to be replicated over time and in other schools in both countries to get a broader picture how hidden curriculum operates in producing a power relationship in schools.

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Life Satisfaction Depending On Socio Economic Status And Gender Among Turkish Students

Susran Erkan Erođlu¹ , Hasan Bozgeyikli² , Vahit alıřır³

¹Selcuk University– Turkey

seroglu@selcuk.edu.tr

²Selcuk University – Turkey

hbozgeyikli@selcuk.edu.tr

³Ceyhan Municipality – Turkey

vahitcalisir@gmail.com

Abstract

This research was carried on by Survey method and it was tried to find out the relationship between life satisfaction and socio economic status (SES) of adolescents. The research was conducted to 275 Turkish young people chosen by random sampling method. The research findings determined that there was a significant difference between life satisfaction and socio economic status of the respondent students. On the other hand there was not significant difference according to gender variable on the contrary of the expectations. This situation can be interpreted as significant in sociological point of view because the expectations could not be fulfilled.

Keywords: Life Satisfaction – Gender - Socioeconomic Status

1. Introduction

The endeavour for happiness has been considered one of the primary human drives. However, it is only in recent years that the positive aspects of welfare and mental health have been emphasized and measured by psychologists. Researchers have argued that traditional conceptualizations of well-being, which focus only on the absence of disease, may not provide a full picture of a person's well-being (Diener, 1994). Life satisfaction (LS) which is an individual's cognitive appraisal of his or her life is one aspect of positive subjective well-being (SWB) (Diener & Diener, 1995). Research has documented many benefits for individuals with high LS. Such benefits include physical health, mental health, good interpersonal relationships, and educational and vocational success (Frisch, 2000; Park, 2003, 2004; Veenhoven, 1989). A recent longitudinal study of adolescents found that high LS functions as a buffer against the impact of stressful life events on developing psychopathology (Suldo & Huebner, 2004).

Studies of life satisfaction (and related constructs such as quality of life and subjective well-being) have been useful in making clear how individuals react to different life circumstances, especially stressful ones. It is not surprising that a great deal of research on life satisfaction has been done with adults given that the willingness to act in productive ways as regards the primary goals of

adulthood (e.g., relationships, being parent, work, involvement in community) is linked to one's satisfaction in those areas of life (Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999). According to some theories, happiness emerges as basic needs are satisfied. However, in modern, individualistic societies where basic needs are met for the majority of citizens, life satisfaction becomes increasingly connected to the attainment of goals beyond basic needs (Veenhoven, 1999). Cummins and Nistico (2002) argued that in more politically and economically advantaged circumstances life satisfaction "must involve some comparative processes between current experience and internalized standards" (p. 41). Life satisfaction reflects both the extent to which basic needs are fulfilled and the extent to which a variety of other goals are viewed as achievable, with basic needs fulfillment being more central for individuals living in less advantaged circumstances. There is reason to believe that life satisfaction becomes a significant psychological variable prior to adulthood, most particularly during adolescence. Adolescence is generally considered a sensible period of life, a time when goals are reformed and ideas regarding the pursuit of goals are re-evaluated, a time when there is increased possibility of transition-linked turning points in the life course, a time when more cognitively complex judgments are being made regarding one's current status and one's newly emerging desires and goals (Eccles & Gootman, 2001; Graber & Brooks-Gunn, 1996). Because life satisfaction is constituted of one's commitment to their goals and beliefs concerning the attainability of those goals (Diener et al., 1999), the emerging strength of goals having connection to relationships, work, and community involvement during adolescence is likely to inspire life satisfaction with considerable psychological meaning. In addition, life satisfaction is likely to be revealed as meaningful during adolescence as advancing cognitive abilities make possible adolescents to more accurately assess and predict how well their basic needs will be fulfilled (Cummins & Nistico, 2002). A research (Diener et al., 1999) concluded that demographic factors account for very little variance in subjective well-being for adults. Particularly, in another research (Lyubomirsky, 2001) it was stated that "objective circumstances, demography variables, and life events . . . account for no more than 8% to 15% of the variance in happiness" (p. 240). The evidence indicates that more wealthy adults are generally happier than less wealthy adults. Yet, the influence of income appears small; because income provides access to resources and resources may enable adolescents to both fulfil basic needs and strive for their goals, it seems likely that life satisfaction for most groups of adolescents would be associated with level of family income (Granzin & Haggard, 2000). Dew and Huebner (1994) found that life satisfaction was moderately related to family socioeconomic status for adolescents, but other research shows conflicting results with respect to family demographics generally (Hagerty, 2000; Huebner, Drane, & Valois, 2000). Thus, the relation between family income and adolescent life satisfaction may well be reduced in groups that enjoy a relatively high standard of living (Grob et al. 1996; Huebner, 1991).

Research on the perceived levels and correlates of LS among children and youth should lead to a more comprehensive understanding of their psychological well-being and better intervention efforts to promote their optimal development when a link was given between high LS and important adaptive benefits.

According to Frisch (2000), quality of life concentrated upon "excellence or goodness in aspects of life that go beyond mere subsistence, survival, and longevity" (p. 208). Although early work in the field focused on objective

indicators of quality of life (e.g., income, access to health, educational, and recreational resources), researchers have turned their attention to other indicators, including subjective well-being (SWB). The importance of SWB is emphasized by Csikszentmihalyi (1990) who asserts that "subjective experience is not just one of the dimensions of life, it *is* life itself" (p. 192). SWB is generally considered to be included three domains of experience: positive affect (the frequency of positive emotions, such as joy and pride), negative affect (the frequency of negative emotions, such as anger or sadness) and PQOL (perceived quality of life). According to Frisch (2000), PQOL refers to "a person's subjective evaluations of the degree to which his or her most important needs, goals, and wishes have been fulfilled" (p. 220). PQOL has been studied both with respect to an overall or global evaluation of quality of life as well as evaluations of specific life domains (e.g., family, peers, and school).

1.1. Purpose of the Present Study

It is seemingly important that socio economic level affects life satisfaction when previous researches which are about socio economic levels are considered. This research's aim is to determine the effect of socio economic level on this variable by considering character qualities of Turkish adolescents who are at different socio economic status.

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

Participants for this study were 275 eight-grade students (162 male, 113 female) in central Konya. The mean age for participants was 13.5 years. Despite there is few consortium on measuring socio economic level the small numbers of researches used the strategy of clustering the participants' occupations, income and educational levels into lower, middle and upper socio economic groups. In this research socio economic levels of the participants were stratified by considering the variables such as educational levels of parents, occupational situations of parents and income which were gathered by questions in the participant information form. According to this 41% of the participant adolescents (113 persons) are in lower socio economic level, 35,3% of them (97 persons) are in middle socio economic level and 23,7% of them (65 persons) are in upper socio economic level.

2.2. Procedure

The research was conducted in 2007-2008 education period. Data collection process was made by the researchers. Data gathering instruments were conducted to 280 eight-grade students who are trained in primary school in Konya province. After conducting forms belong to 5 participants were eliminated because of information absence. Statistical analyses were made on data gathered from remaining 275 participants.

2.3. Instruments

Participant Information Form and Multi Dimensional Student Life Satisfaction Scale were used in order to collect necessary data in this study.

2.3.1. Participant Information Form:

Respondents indicated their age, sex, parents' educational level, parents' occupation, family's total income and persons living in the household (mother, father, stepmother, stepfather, grandparents, and brothers). Parent educational level was assessed by asking students to check the highest level of education each parent had completed.

2.3.2. Multidimensional Student Life Satisfaction Scale:

In the research "Multi Dimensional Student Life Satisfaction Scale" (MSLSS) which was developed by Huebner (1994) and was determined validity and reliability on elementary school students by Çivitçi (2007) was used. The original scale was constituted of five different sub dimensions which are "family, friend, school, self and environment". Scale items are answered on four degree options. (1) Never, (2) sometimes, (3) often, (4) always. Besides there are 40 items 10 of which are graded reversely. Item numbers were reduced to 36 because of cultural differences when it was adapted to Turkey. Factor quantity was determined 5 as in the original scale. MSLS scales' Cronbach's alpha was .87 for the total scale, .85 for the friends sub dimension, .76 for the school sub dimension, .75 for the environment sub dimension, .74 for the family sub dimension and .70 for the self sub dimension. For the current sample, a Cronbach's alpha of .85 for the MSLS total scale, .87 for the friends sub dimension, .72 for the school sub dimension, .74 for the environment sub dimension, .77 for the family sub dimension and .71 for the self sub dimension was obtained.

3. Findings

This section presents the results of the collected data derived from the test that participants took on Participant Information Form and Multidimensional Student Life Satisfaction Scale. A total of two analyses conducted in order to investigate the previously mentioned aim.

3.1. Analysis 1: Independent sample t test using gender, life satisfaction

In order to examine whether or not there were significant differences between males and females on the multidimensional student life satisfaction scale (Çivitçi, 2007) an independent sample t test was conducted.

Table 1 displays the means, standard deviations and t test scores males and female on the MSLSS.

Table 1: t test results of students' life satisfaction according to gender.

| MSLSS | Gender | n | \bar{X} | S.d. | t | p |
|--------------------|---------------|----------|-----------|-------------|----------------|----------|
| FRIEND | Female | 113 | 28,84 | 4,27 | 2,969* | 0,003 |
| | Male | 162 | 27,31 | 4,17 | | |
| SCHOOL | Female | 113 | 28,29 | 5,05 | 3,347* | 0,001 |
| | Male | 162 | 26,36 | 4,43 | | |
| ENVIRONMENT | Female | 113 | 23,95 | 4,89 | -3,232* | 0,001 |
| | Male | 162 | 25,72 | 4,16 | | |
| FAMILY | Female | 113 | 22,51 | 4,48 | -1,544 | 0,124 |
| | Male | 162 | 23,30 | 3,99 | | |
| SELF | Female | 113 | 18,06 | 3,14 | ,014 | -,9998 |
| | Male | 162 | 19,06 | 3,41660 | | |

* $p < .05$

Life satisfaction level of adolescents in "Friend" sub dimension was found 28,84 in female gender average score and 27,31 in male gender average score. The t value between two groups was estimated as 2,969 ($p < 0.05$). This result showed that there was a significant difference between these two groups at 0.05 level. Life satisfaction level of adolescents in "School" sub dimension was found 28,29 in female gender average score and 26,36 in male gender average score. The t value between two groups was estimated as 3,347 ($p < 0.05$). This result showed that there was a significant difference between these two groups at 0.05 level.

Life satisfaction level of adolescents in "Environment" sub dimension was found 23,95 in female gender average score and 25,72 in male gender average score. The t value between two groups was estimated as 3,232 ($p < 0.05$). This result showed that there was a significant difference between these two groups at 0.05 level. Life satisfaction level of adolescents in "Family" sub dimension was found 22,51 in female gender average score and 23,30 in male gender average score. The t value between two groups was estimated as 1,544 ($p < 0.05$). This result showed that there was not a significant difference between these two groups at 0.05 level.

Life satisfaction level of adolescents in "Self" sub dimension was found 18,06 in female gender average score and 19,06 in male gender average score. The t value between two groups was estimated as 0,014 ($p < 0.05$). This result showed that there was not a significant difference between these two groups at 0.05 level.

According to these results while there were not significant differences between groups according to gender in "Family and Self" sub dimensions and at total, there were significant differences between groups according to gender in "Friend, School and Environment" sub dimensions. When the sources of the differences in the sub dimensions are considered females had higher life satisfaction levels than males did in "Friend and School" sub dimensions. However in the

“Environment” sub dimension males had higher life satisfaction levels than females did.

3.2. Analysis 2: ANOVA using socio-economic status on the students’ life satisfaction.

In order to examine whether or not there were significant differences between lower, middle and upper groups on the multidimensional student life satisfaction scale (Çivitci, 2007) a univariate analyses of variance were conducted.

Table 2 displays the means standard deviations for low, middle and high socio-economic status on the MSLSS and ANOVA results.

In ANOVA, significant differences were found between students’ socioeconomic status and three of the sub dimensions (school (F=5.393, p<.05), environment (F=4.473, p<.05), family (F=12.089, p<.05)), whereas no significant difference was found in friend (F=1.886, p>.05) and self (F=,890, p>.05) sub dimension.

Table 2: ANOVA results, Frequencies, Means and standard deviations of students’ Life satisfaction according to socioeconomic status.

| MSLSS | SES | n | \bar{X} | Sd | F | p |
|-------------------------|---------------|----------|-----------------------------|-----------|---------------|----------|
| FRIEND | Low | 113 | 28,53 | 4,18 | 1,886 | 0,154 |
| | Middle | 97 | 27,58 | 4,34 | | |
| | High | 65 | 27,44 | 4,26 | | |
| SCHOOL | Low | 113 | 28,25 | 4,73 | 5,393* | 0,005 |
| | Middle | 97 | 26,21 | 4,77 | | |
| | High | 65 | 26,64 | 4,56 | | |
| ENVIRONMEN T | Low | 113 | 24,04 | 4,67 | 4,473* | 0,012 |
| | Middle | 97 | 25,51 | 4,34 | | |
| | High | 65 | 25,89 | 4,39 | | |
| FAMILY | Low | 113 | 22,24 | 4,56 | 12,089 | 0,001 |
| | Middle | 97 | 22,39 | 4,17 | | |
| | High | 65 | 25,13 | 2,67 | | |
| SELF | Low | 113 | 18,60 | 3,33 | ,890 | 0,412 |
| | Middle | 97 | 18,40 | 3,27 | | |
| | High | 65 | 19,10 | 3,43 | | |

* p<.05

Follow-up Tukey test were conducted to identify specific group differences. Table 3 displays the Tukey test results of students’ socioeconomic status according to sub dimensions of MSLSS.

Table 3: Tukey Results of Students' socioeconomic status According to Multi Dimensional Student Life Satisfaction Scores Average Comparisons

| MSLS | SES (I) | SES (J) | Mean Differences (I-J) | p |
|--------------------|----------------|----------------|-------------------------------|----------|
| SCHOOL | Low | Middle | 2,0401* | 0,006 |
| ENVIRONMENT | Low | Middle | -1,4712* | 0,049 |
| | | High | -1,8481* | 0,024 |
| FAMILY | Low | High | -2,8907* | 0,000 |
| | Middle | High | -2,7467* | 0,000 |

* p<.05

When Table 3 is examined it is seen that the difference occurred in "School" sub dimension originated from the average scores of adolescents in lower socio economic group and middle socio economic group. According to this result the life satisfaction average scores of lower socio economic level adolescents in school atmosphere are higher when compared with the scores of middle socio economic level adolescents. The difference occurred in "Environment" sub dimension originated from the average scores of adolescents in lower socio economic group and middle and upper socio economic groups. According to this result middle and upper socio economic levels adolescents' life satisfaction towards their environment are higher when compared with the lower socio economic level adolescents. The difference occurred in "Family" sub dimension firstly originated from the average scores of adolescents in lower socio economic group and upper socio economic groups. According to this result life satisfaction average scores of upper socio economic level adolescents in family atmosphere are higher when compared with lower socio economic level adolescents. Besides the other difference in the same sub dimension occurred from the average scores of middle socio economic group and upper socio economic group adolescents. In other words upper socio economic level adolescents are more satisfied from their family atmosphere when compared with middle socio economic level adolescents.

4. Discussion

The results determine that there is a relation between life satisfaction levels of Turkish adolescents and gender and SES when findings are assessed generally in this research which observed the life satisfaction levels of Turkish adolescents in several environments. Overall, such findings are consistent with studies of adults (Andrews & Robinson, 1991; Diener, 1994) and children (Huebner, 1997), and adolescents (Huebner, Gilman & Laughlin 1999).

First of all in the research the differentiation situations of Turkish adolescents in several environments according to their genders were considered. When the

results are examined it was found that the life satisfaction levels of the female adolescents were higher in "Friend and School" sub dimensions than male adolescents in significant level. On the other hand the life satisfaction levels of male adolescents show more significant difference than female adolescents in "Environment" sub dimension. There is no significant difference between genders in "Family and Self" sub dimensions. Consistent with previous studies of adolescents (Dew, 1996; Epstein & McPartlan, 1976) and elementary school age students (Heubner, 1994), noted gender differences in satisfaction with school experiences were revealed, with girls reporting greater satisfaction. Gender differences were also noted on friends' scale, with females reporting greater satisfaction with peer relationships. However this finding has consistent nature with the findings of Gilman, et al. (2000)'s research in which they test MLSSS psychometric properties. In Gilman, Heubner & Laughlin (2000)'s research it was found that the life satisfaction levels of female adolescents were significantly higher than male adolescents' life satisfaction levels in "Friend" sub dimension. In another research different from previous one it was found that the life satisfaction levels of male adolescents were significantly higher than female ones in "Environment" sub dimension. This result can be explained by the socio cultural structure in Turkey. In other words the attitudes which are presented in nurturing boys and girls are shaped like that the girls are controlled strictly whereas boys are nurtured liberally. In the light of this situation girls face relatively less family, school and close friend social environments. It can be natural that boys have higher life satisfaction levels in "Environment" sub dimension because they experience much social environment access.

In the research secondly the life satisfactions of adolescents in different SES were observed. While there is no significant difference according to SES in "Friend and Self" sub dimensions, there is a significant difference in "Environment and Family" sub dimensions in the favour of upper level SES adolescents. On the other hand it was observed that the life satisfaction levels of lower SES adolescents were significantly higher than life satisfaction levels of upper SES adolescents in "School" sub dimension. In "Friend and Self" sub dimensions there was no significant difference. According to these findings SES is believed to be a predictive variable for life satisfaction levels of Turkish adolescents. Previous investigators found that individuals who are raised in higher SES families have greater access to various attainment resources (e.g. finances for advanced education) and tend to be more likely to experience greater overall well-being than persons from more modest circumstances (Douthitt, MacDonalds & Mullins, 1992). Besides this finding is consistent with the findings of Seligson, Huebner & Valois (2003)'s research in which they tested the life satisfaction levels of adolescents and adults in a comparative way. Seligson et al. (2003) reported that the lower SES adolescents had lower life satisfaction levels than upper SES adolescents. In our research it is incredibly significant that the results are in favour of the lower SES adolescents in "School" sub dimension because they try to fix their relative deprivation by being motivated in the school environment. SES affects the life satisfaction levels of the adolescents, because there are several results about being satisfied from life. For instance when SES is higher the life satisfaction of the participants also increases. A prediction can be made here such as the higher SES is, the higher the life satisfaction level of the adolescents is. A purpose is to examine relations between personality and contextual factors and adolescent life satisfaction in different socio cultural groups, with the view that the eco cultural niche tends to

help shape patterns of relations between personality and situational factors (Harkness & Super, 2003).

Future progress in the study of adolescent life satisfaction would particularly benefit from cross-national research efforts. To date, cross-national studies involving adolescents have been sparse in the quality of life literature. Studies of adults have identified important differences in levels and correlates of life satisfaction across countries (Diener & Diener, 1995; Suh, Diener, Oishi & Triandis, 1998). It is likely that similar differences operate with children and youth.

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When There Is No State: Categorization, Tracking And “School Readiness” – Towards A New Political Anthropology of Education

Gábor Eröss¹

¹ *Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Institute of Sociology (MTA SzKI), Károli Gáspár University, Institute of Psychology (KGRE PI)*
egabor@socio.mta.hu

Abstract

More and more school systems across Europe can be described as increasingly decentralized. A major theoretical question arises from this situation: How does it happen that social and school inequalities are still as strong, or even stronger than earlier, and decisions made independently by municipalities on their own incentives still converge into the same direction.

The Hungarian case –studied by both quantitative and qualitative methods, incl. participant observation– shows that this situation has two main reasons. The first one comes from the high autonomy of local governments who surrender to the local “lower elite” (i.e. the local middle class). The second reason is early tracking and the growing tendency to categorize and select young children (school aptitude tests, psycho-medical diagnostics, admission exams) at a very early age, thus provoking segregation.

But the anthropological approach also shows that there is a multidimensional system of categories and distinctions, a different one in every single local context. These multidimensional classificatory systems don’t result in a single hierarchy; rather, they are the effect of the cultural, social and political construction and interpretation of locally embedded meanings. They open the way for local contingency, however without repressing overall inequalities.

Keywords: special educational needs - learning disabilities - local governments - educational policy - segregation

1. Introduction. Inequalities and early selection

In our researches^{xvii} –using survey methods, interviews and participant observation– we witnessed the growing importance of institutions and processes aiming at categorizing, classifying, selecting and tracking pupils.

^{xvii} (1) The “Reguleduc” project (5th framework program of the European Union; the Consortium was lead by Christian Maroy, from the Louvain-la-Neuve University, Belgium, the Hungarian Research Team by Iván Bajomi, from the Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest; see details at: www.girsef.ucl.ac.be/europeanproject.htm), (2) Government sponsored researches (“OTKA” and “OKTK”) and (3) the ongoing “KNOWandPOL” research (6th framework program of the EU; the Consortium is lead by Bernard Delvaux, from the Louvain-la-Neuve University, Belgium, the two Hungarian research teams by Iván Bajomi, from the Eötvös Loránd University, and myself, at the Institute of Sociology of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences (see details at: www.knowandpol.eu).

At the same time, PISA data revealed, as a consequence of ability tracking, the highly unequal character of Hungarian school system: "On average across OECD countries, around one-third of all variation in student performance (33%) was between schools, but this varied widely from one country to another. In Germany and Bulgaria performance variation between schools was about twice the OECD average. It was over one and a half times the average in the Czech Republic, Austria, Hungary, the Netherlands, Belgium [...]. In most of these countries, the grouping or tracking of students affected this result" (OECD 2007). The age of first selection in the Hungarian education system is 6. This often leads to the segregation of Roma (Kende, Neményi 2006), underclass and also working class pupils. Anti-exclusion policies are not sufficient to preserve the Roma pupils' equal chances^{xviii}, although no direct link was proved by the researchers between racial prejudice and segregation (Eröss, Gárdos 2007); rather, institutional racism, structural discrimination and the categorising mechanisms (see below) are responsible for this situation.

Admitting^{xix}, selecting, and grouping goes hand by hand. These are the aspects of a threefold categorising process, leading to the classification of students into various legal and non legal, explicit and implicit categories. I would like to show here the multiplicity of categorising processes and explain the reasons why this phenomenon seems to develop all around Europe.

In order to do so, I adopt the perspective of *political anthropology* and of *performative* analysis. A political anthropology of education shows that the interpretation of educational taxonomies in use by various regulatory bodies from State to street level bureaucracy is context-dependent; it also shows that even the global discourses and policies are locally embedded, depending on local power relations, globalizing trends and policies (such as standardized testing, or teacher autonomy) are appropriated and incorporated into the lived lives of schooling (Anderson-Levitt 2003). An analysis in terms of "performativity" demonstrates that categories and meanings are not only locally interpreted, but also locally constructed, and permanently reflected, re-presented, exposed, hidden and challenged and reinvented (Wulf, Zirfas 2001).

2. Educational regulation by the local school market and the local authorities

The Hungarian educational system has become very decentralised throughout the last two decades. At the elementary level (6-14 years), an overwhelming majority of schools are public schools; regulation, planning, control is the duty of the local government (this means, in the case of Budapest, the local authorities of each district). The sector is characterised by the "co-autonomy" of three major

^{xviii} In the field of *antidiscrimination*, the tasks and objectives were determined –among others– in the governmental verdict 68/2007. (VI. 28.) concerning the Decade of Roma Inclusion Program Strategic Plan, aiming at the integration of the poor – among them, in great proportion, the Roma. It sets as its main goal the development and further improvement of anti-discriminational elements in public education.

^{xix} There are entrance exams – formally forbidden by law, but still used under different pseudonyms by most of the schools.

actors: the parents, the schools and, last but not least, the municipalities as the schools' trusteeship authorities (Halász 1993, 1998; Bajomi, Berényi, Neumann 2007). One of the most efficient weapons in the competition is to offer a wide range of specialized classes needing additional financing; as a matter of fact, funding usually supports the middle class tracks.

In a previous study, we have shown that the question of school choice is of central importance in this context (Berényi, Eröss 2004) and leads to ability tracking and school segregation indirectly based on social and ethnic status. Let us insist on three novelties of the present approach.

First of all, the high autonomy of local governments means that they are too close to "the field" to be able to resist to the "middle class pressure"; they surrender to the "local elite", especially as it delegates both elected and co-opted members into the local decision making bodies (Bajomi *et alii* 2006). However, the "elite" is indeed a relative term: it cannot be understood as simply the middle and upper class, i.e. people above a given social status; it is a result of the local power relations, different from one local space to another. A political anthropology can describe the emergence and lobbying of the local elite in each context.

Moreover, even researchers and experts greatly committed to the case of the Roma children acknowledge that "somewhat over one third (32,600 from the total 93,000) of Roma pupils, constituting 10% of the total elementary school population of the country, attend classes with a Roma majority" (Havas 2002: 102), meaning that two third *do not*. Although the segregation of Roma is a very well established scientific fact (Kertesi, Kézdi 2006; Hermann *et alii* 2003), a dichotomic understanding of this issue is inaccurate. There are multidimensional classificatory systems, which don't result in a single hierarchy, based on the exclusion of all Roma on a pure ethnic basis; rather, multidimensional taxonomies are the effect of the cultural, social and political construction and interpretation of locally embedded meanings related to the field of education. They open the way for local contingency, however without repressing overall inequalities and segregation.

Local actors often don't know who "is" Roma and how "is" not. The boundary of any single ethnicity is "fuzzy": who is "inside" and who is "outside" this boundary will vary depending who does the classification, where and why (Ladányi, Szelényi 2001). In our researches we were constantly told, on the one hand, about "Mestizos", "half-Gypsies", "different Gypsies" by the interviewees (teachers, parents, etc.), and, on the other about (non-Roma) underclass, alcoholic parents, neglecting their children, etc. Notwithstanding the predominantly "ethnic" composition of the segregated group, we must insist on the fact that the low class pupils don't get all excluded from mainstream schooling and that the working class and middle class children are as much concerned by the multiple and never ending categorising, classifying and grouping processes as others. In one word, this is not (only) about labelling the poor in order to exclude them.

School choice and "school market" have been, especially in the Anglo-Saxon tradition, considered to contribute to equity and efficiency more than the more bureaucratic system of educational planning, where not only parents, but also

schools have less autonomy. Many studies say, however, that this is not the case: that school choice in fact can increase social segregation. The model of school systems as a market seems to be adapted to middle and upper middle class parents' habitus (with the terminology of Bourdieu and other social critiques): only the dominant classes have the cultural and social capital that is necessary for this kind of reflexive decision process and choice. The perception of time and space (the "right" time to choose a secondary school; the present investment in the future of the child; the distance to the school, etc), the importance attributed to school choice, are status-related elements of the parents' habitus that shape the children's social mobility career, and thus can contribute to the more general social categorising processes.

However, the situation is much more complicated than a simplistic interpretation of Bourdieu would suggest. An anthropological perspective is needed, since the cultural capital of the families cannot be seen as expressed by the only education level (diploma) of the parents: one's position in the social field is linked to class-specific conceptions of space, time, authority, achievement, etc., but it is also a matter of local context and contingent factors. The school choice is a mutual, dynamic and performative process: in a way, schools and parents choose *each other*, and their choice can only be predicted to a certain degree. What is "more" middle class: a class specialised in maths or in English? It depends. Are lower status pupils welcome into "good" schools? In some cases: yes. Van Zanten explains the adequate approach in qualitative educational sociology, or anthropology: the study of "contrasting sites" shows "the degree to which local reinterpretation of policy can vary depending on local social class configurations", ethnic configurations and other contextual variables (van Zanten 2002: 290). Furthermore: "local realities can be very different according to social geographies and institutional configurations, policy terms such as marketization, management or accountability may take different and sometimes very contrasting meanings. In turn, local recontextualizations of policies, in variable ways according to the emblematic character of each location, will alter national and global policies." (van Zanten 2002: 302).

In the present Hungarian system the first and very important decision is the choice of school and class that has to be made at the age of 6-7, before the elementary school. While in many countries, due to the system of school districts, parents have very weak autonomy regarding the choice of their children's school (unless they choose a private school), in Hungary, through the last couple of decades, parental autonomy has increased a lot. This, in turn, has increased competition among schools. Competition has led to the phenomenon that specialized classes have appeared almost in every school –some of them are clearly "elitists", some of them trying to become elitist, some of them offering specific treatment for those who have special educational needs or "learning disabilities", etc.

In many schools, very different sorts of classes can be found next to each other. We called for example "bipolar" schools those that have one clearly elitist class or track together with a class that more or less groups together those children whose learning abilities and results are well under the average (Berényi, Eröss 2004; Bajomi *et alii* 2006). Segregation within the schools is very high. Amid these circumstances, nowadays choosing a class is as important as choosing a school. Parents and street level bureaucrats interact.

3. The twofold measuring paradigm: assessing the institutions and the individuals

In this part of the paper, we shall overview the two major ways of classifying pupils: the summative assessment of performance as a regulation tool and the individual diagnosis of pupils' abilities as a psycho-medical tool. Before starting, let us recall that aside from classifications based on actual performance or on abilities to be developed, on social status, or on ethnicity, other major nomenclatures coexist in this field, such as age (Kende, Illés 2008), or gender (our research results show that two third of the SEN children are boys). Inequalities and differences cut across mainstream education, and, as we will show, the SEN (special educational need) category itself has a complex pattern, with multiple inner dividing lines.

3.1. Evaluation as a post-bureaucratic regulation tool

Following international tendencies, the State strives to conduct a new kind of educational policy (if any), characterised by "multilevel governance" and "post-bureaucratic regulation": financial incentives, evaluation, calls, diffusion of good practices, etc. (Maroy 2004). In the course of the 1990s, supranational knowledges, measures and policy objectives promoted by the EU and international organisms (WHO, OECD) have been, also in Hungary, translated into this terrain.

By opting for "post-bureaucratic regulation" forms, the State acknowledges implicitly that it has no direct influence on what happens on the local level: not only are municipalities (local governments) autonomous, not only is there everywhere a local school market, not only is each school itself autonomous, but the central Government's will is often ignored or neglected, policies are not implemented, offences against the law are recurrent, they even constitute an everyday practice, especially concerning the admission exams (Eröss 2006), and furthermore, as the former Commissioner for Integration of Disadvantaged and Roma Children (presently member of EP and human rights activists) states: one "quarter of all Hungarian primary schools are functioning illegally" (Mohácsi – CFCF 2007). This also has implications for us as researchers: the anthropological perspective seems to be the most relevant one in a country where legal norms don't mean much, we shall dare to say.^{xx}

When a State has (almost) no role to play, it wants to know, at least, what the tendencies are: it strives to measure the schools' performance (the institutions) and school performance (the pupils) on a comparative and longitudinal basis.

^{xx} However, this is not a specific Hungarian phenomenon: "Decentralization and accountability take very specific forms in poor, 'disqualified' areas. On the one hand, given the weight of educational and social problems, local educational administrators and inspectors tend [...] to delegate unofficially to the schools themselves the work of finding 'solutions'. Deviance from official norms in terms of internal organization, curriculum or disciplinary sanctions is tolerated, if not encouraged." (Van Zanten 2002: 298)

This assessing fervour is supported by the international tendencies both in Governance and in knowledge production in the educational field (Delvaux, Mangez *et alii* 2007).

In the Hungarian context, the most important target group of State-initiated educational policies are the Roma, whereas the most important indicator of the targeting's efficiency is not this ethnic category (no official statistics about ethnic origin are allowed), but the proportion of socially disadvantaged, most of the Roma belonging to this category. In order to transform targeting into an effective instrument, the State tries to combine it with two other post-bureaucratic regulation tools: financial incentives and the diffusion of good practices. This is how it works concretely: the Government created the *National Network of Educational Integration* [OOIH] a few years ago. It aims to give equal access to education of higher quality for Roma, establishing a network of educational institutions –diffusing *good practices* in desegregation and pedagogical methods adapted to the socially disadvantaged– working for the educational integration of socially disadvantaged/ Roma pupils. The programme aims at significantly decreasing the segregation of the target group in schools, promoting their successful further education, through additional *financial support* for schools implementing integration policy, i.e. the social mix rule in the classroom: the proportion of the disadvantaged pupils should not exceed a given threshold. The per capita financial support aims to help the integration of children into the mainstream schools and classes (although there also are segregated villages where no mainstreaming is possible, unless school buses are used). The dilemma is the following: how to overcome labelling in school by using a set of indicators based precisely on group belonging. In addition, again, the implementation is very contingent: it varies from one school to another, from one town to another (Németh, Papp Z 2006).

A number of different programmes and policies have been adopted to address issues relevant to Roma children. The target group is always that of the “socially disadvantaged” as defined in Act No. 79 of 1993 on Public Education (PEA).^{xxi} The definitions are based on two criteria: the diploma level of the parents (cultural capital) and the family's income. These indicators, more or less valid on the national level, cause problems in the urban areas where many of the Roma and the marginalised do not fit this criteria (for. ex.: they are skilled workers, even though they have been unemployed for decades).

Finally, let us insist on the fact that evaluation and targeting are themselves multiple: the combination of multi-regulation and multi-evaluation has been described as an emerging phenomenon (Dutercq 2000). Especially in decentralised systems, such as Hungary, multi-evaluation (and multi-targeting) is the everyday reality of the local school systems (De Grauwe 2006).

^{xxi} “Children taken into protection by the notary on the basis of their family conditions or social status and/or children whom the notary declares eligible for regular child protection benefits. Multiple disadvantage results from the educational level of the parents not exceeding eight grades – including unsuccessful further education – and also from the practice of long-term State care.”

3.2. Applied humanities: school psychology and special education

As we have seen, decision-making in this decentralised system does not, or only partially belong to State actors; rather, decisions are made, processes are influenced by the (1) school market (the parents' choice), (2) local authorities (as the financial & administrative supervisors of schools), (3) street level bureaucrats (the schools and teachers themselves), and, last but not least (4) representatives of the "school-sciences" (psychologists, special and remedial education specialists, speech therapists). I shall now summarise how those experts and "educational counsellors" act.

As a starting point, we may recall, that segregation is illegal in Hungary; however, researches indicate that the practice for separating Roma children into segregated schools and classes has strengthened over the past 15 years: "Roma are overrepresented in schools and classes for children with intellectual disabilities, and this is largely due to flaws in assessment procedures; Roma children are also frequently assumed into segregated classes at otherwise mixed schools, where they are likely to study a remedial or 'catch-up' curriculum" (Hungarian Government 2008). Both Government and researchers argue that more strict regulations could counteract these trends and could contribute to a more equal apportion of children from disadvantaged backgrounds and those with special needs. As a matter of fact, the legal conditions assuring the adequate quality of these special classes are lacking. For example, three out of four of the teachers teaching in special classes don't have a degree in special education, and in three out of ten schools there is no teacher holding a degree in special education (Ministry of Education, 2005). The category of "pupils with special needs" or "students with special education needs", as a scientific-administrative basis for tracking exists, but the "therapy" that is supposed to lead to integration into mainstream education cannot be conducted in these conditions and no inclusive education can be offered. Despite the good will of almost all actors involved (the belief in remedial pedagogy is widespread), the fact is that pupils from auxiliary schools and classes almost never join the mainstream education (see: the "From the Last Desk" initiative below), and those attending remedial classes once in a blue moon (at least in many local areas – but again: it depends on the local context).

School readiness is conceptualised in terms of specific skills and competencies that could be measured and assessed against established norms and standards. There are two problems with this: on the one hand, these standards are far from being consensual or even established, on the other hand, despite their controversial character and use, they are widespread and lead to early selection and tracking. In addition, this process is based on the medicalisation and "psychologisation" of "learning disabilities" and "behavioural disorders" (attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder – ADHD). This is how –despite the experts' and specialists' obvious good will– they contribute to reproducing social inequalities within the school system, by legitimating tracking and segregation as early as at the age of 6.

Local diagnostic service providers, who deal with the diagnosis, classification and treatment of students with special education needs do not only treat officially classified SEN (special educational needs) children, but children with other types of emotional and learning difficulties as well, such as milder learning disabilities

not included in the legal SEN-category. The policies discussed here are primarily concerned with the activities of the Placement Authorities [or *expert committee*, szakértői bizottság] and Medico-Psycho-Pedagogic Centres [or *educational counsellors*, nevelési tanácsadó]. We should nevertheless mention other street level specialists as well: school psychologists, school speech therapists, special education professionals, school doctors and nurses, etc.

There are 32 Placement Authorities in Hungary, five in the capital itself, and usually one or two in each county. The system of these authorities is just as much decentralised as the rest of the educational system. They are financed by the county authorities and have a wide autonomy. There are about one hundred Medico-psycho-pedagogic centres, subsidized and supervised by local governments. They can proceed in a very autonomous way as well, only their chief is appointed by the local government, once in every 5 years (Oblath, Berkovits, Eröss 2007). The practice of both the different Medico-psycho-pedagogic centres and Placement Authorities varies very much indeed. The meaning of the various categories is interpreted and the children are diagnosed in the light of the local school offer, the municipality's or county's priorities, the committee's or centre's own understanding of the context and the scientific background of special educational needs.

That is why the Ministry of Education initiated the "*From the last desk*" program in 2003 with the main purpose to review the skills of approximately 5000 pupils who are defined as having mild mental disabilities (diagnosed by the Placement authorities/expert committees) and to support the integration of children with no real disabilities among them. The core of the overrepresentation and misdiagnosis problem, according to the perception of the most authoritative decision makers in the ministry is that (1) behind diagnosed "mild mental retardation" figures, most often social or ethnic origin is the cause, (2) the committees (placement authorities, see below) do not respect the limit of 70 IQ points, and (3) too many Roma pupils are diagnosed with "mild mental retardation", only in order to (3a) segregate them in classes for "special education" (3b) to find enough students for a school, in order to avoid the closing of it, despite the demographic decline. But the policy's implementation remains very problematic since the State has no direct means to impose it. New programs and "calls" have been recently launched, with the help of EU-funds, aiming at improving the conditions under which expert committees function and to set standards.

The Medico-psycho-pedagogic centres (Educational counsellors) can take different decisions, which are more or less compulsory, after measuring the child's "fitness for school" (Kende, Illés 2008): (1) label them "normal" (can go to any school), (2) decide to defer school entry (one more year to stay in the kindergarten), (3) label them as having a learning disability or behavioural disturbance (this resulted traditionally in directing them toward special/remedial classes within the normal education system; nowadays, it is supposed to simply help them to get more support –from psychologists and remedial educationists– and to learn in smaller but integrated classes, (4) to direct them to the Placement authorities (expert committees) in order to establish there a diagnosis whether or not they belong to the category of children with Special Educational Needs.

There is a constant struggle between the medical-psychological tendency to categorise, and the State level policies trying to diminish segregation caused by categorisation (whereas the State itself uses *other* categories –the socially disadvantaged, etc.– to counterbalance medico-psychological nomenclatures). The overall SEN-field in Hungary is thus regulated through a set of scientific tools and a smaller set of policy instruments. Scientific tools, supported by authoritative scientific knowledge of psychology, medicine and remedial pedagogy, tend to medicalize and “psychologize” pupils. These are knowledge-based classifications, means to interpret, to predict and to improve school achievement, while they are most often shaped by discourses presupposing the normal-pathological divide as self-evident (Oblath, Berkovits, Eröss 2007).

Last but not least, let us evoke two major dividing lines within the scope of psycho-medical diagnoses (without going here into the details of the dozens of sub-categories and their social use). The first one separates the special educational needs of supposedly organic origin from those with non-organic causes (such as psychological trauma, social status, bilinguism, etc.), also called SEN category “a” for the former and “b” (and “c”) for the latter. Scientific and policy debates focus on the necessary but impossible differentiation between the two. Another analytical distinction can be made between pupils with various learning disabilities (from dyslexia to blindness) and children with difficulties in complying with school order, who are often labelled as ADHD (Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder) and are the most likely to become victims of school dropout.

4. Conclusions

We have shown that multi-evaluation of schools and multi-diagnosis of pupils is accelerated by the decentralized character of the educational system and the diffusion of the so-called “school sciences”, as well as that of international surveys and the tendency toward a new form of Governance: the post-bureaucratic age of calls and indicators replacing laws and school-inspectors; new public management and multiple assessment replacing direct political directives.

The analysis of a highly decentralised school system such as the Hungarian one shows that there is a need in education research for a *political anthropology* that attempts to explain the various processes reproducing, in the end, school inequalities after the age of (Nation) States, in somehow different ways from one local context to another. This anthropology has to be political, because decision-making bodies don’t disappear: they change and become more and more local and or transnational. It has to be an anthropology, because the signification in a given context of the various categories that coexist results from a social and cultural, dynamic and performative construction process; the categories and their meanings are reinterpreted at the moments of school rituals (such as entrance exams) and in the process of everyday interaction between street level bureaucrats, the parents, the pupils and other stakeholders. The constant and contradictory categorising of pupils is a never ending, locally embedded process and seems to emerge as the key phenomenon of post-national school systems.

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« Cours des Cours de Lettres : Quelle transformation est celle-ci? » (Français/Anglais)

Maria-Inês Vasconcelos-Felice

Université Fédérale d'Uberlandia- Minas Gerais - Brésil
minesfelice@gmail.com

Résumé

L'objectif de cette étude est d'exposer et de discuter critiquement une analyse à propos du dessin des cours de Lettres – Licence -, avant et après les modifications à partir de la réforme du cursus, selon la législation brésilienne pour les Cours de Lettres. L'étude, réalisée ayant comme fondement la recherche narrative (Clandini & Connelly, 2000 ; Clandini, 2007), voudrait répondre à deux questions : 1. quelles disciplines éliminer, maintenir ou insérer dans le nouveau cursus ? 2. comment adapter l'insertion de nouvelles disciplines, en considérant la charge horaire obligatoire, selon les normes du Ministère de l'Éducation brésilien? Les résultats nous ont montré la possibilité de diversification dans les disciplines du dessin du cours de formation de professeurs de Langue Étrangère (Celani, 2003). Les résultats ont montré aussi le besoin de transformation des conceptions d'enseignement et d'apprentissage du corps enseignant dans le cours universitaire analysé.

Mots clés : Cours de Lettres – Formation des maîtres – Enseignement – Apprentissage – Langues étrangères

1. Introduction

On propose dans cette étude l'exposition et la discussion critique d'une analyse du dessin des cours de Lettres – Licence - avant et après les modifications faites à partir de la réforme proposée et de l'élaboration du nouveau cursus, selon la législation brésilienne pour les Cours de Lettres.

L'étude a été réalisée ayant comme fondement la recherche narrative (CLANDINI & CONNELLY, 2000 ; CLANDINI, 2007), qui est utilisée comme un moyen de donner du contour à des expériences et à la vie, de conceptualiser et de préserver des mémoires, transmettre de l'expérience, de la tradition et des valeurs aux futures générations. L'étude voudrait répondre à deux questions : 1. quelles disciplines éliminer, maintenir ou insérer dans le nouveau cursus ? 2. comment adapter l'insertion de nouvelles disciplines, en considérant la charge horaire obligatoire, selon les normes du Ministère de l'Éducation brésilien?

Pour cela, il fallait aussi proposer un nouveau Projet Politique Pédagogique pour les licences en Lettres (Anglais, Français et Portugais et les littératures concernantes à chaque langue), et un nouveau cursus, à partir des exigences du Conseil National de l'Éducation et de nouvelles lois du Ministère de l'Éducation du Brésil, dorénavant appelé MEC.

Ces lois ont augmenté le nombre d'heures des Pratiques Éducatives de 300h du cursus antérieur à 400h de Stages Supervisés de Pratique d'Enseignement à partir de la seconde moitié du cours et, en plus, 200h de Pratiques Éducatives à partir du début du cours. Cette augmentation montrait que le MEC voudrait, pour la licence en Lettres, que l'étudiant aurait une excellente formation et qu'il aurait été bien préparé pour l'exercice de sa profession à la fin de son cours.

La préoccupation du Conseil du Cours, responsable d'élaborer le nouveau cursus, était de ne pas augmenter la durée du cours, car il était remarquable que les étudiants, surtout du cours nocturne (une autre exigence du MEC, pour atteindre ceux qui travaillent toute la journée) avaient besoin d'être insérés dans leur nouvelle profession le plus vite possible.

En dépit de la bonne évaluation qui lui a été accordée par le MEC dans les examens nationaux d'évaluation des cours de tout le pays (cinq fois concept A, dans les six évaluations faites par le Ministère), le cursus antérieur avait beaucoup de pré-requis et de nombreuses disciplines obligatoires, ce qui rendait difficile l'intégralisation du cours par l'étudiant qui, pour n'importe quelle raison, avait dû suspendre son inscription dans le cours, ou avait doublé une discipline considérée pré-requis d'une autre de niveau plus avancé.

Un autre souci du Conseil du Cours était la compétence linguistique des étudiants à la fin du cours. S'ils commençaient le cours avec une bonne connaissance des langues étrangères proposées, il y avait une chance d'avoir une performance plus remarquable ; mais la grande différence entre la performance des étudiants venus de l'enseignement public, qui n'avaient qu'une heure de classe de langue anglaise par semaine avant de venir à l'université, par rapport à ceux qui avaient eu l'opportunité de fréquenter l'enseignement privé, rendait difficile l'apprentissage à cause de l'hétérogénéité des connaissances linguistiques. Il fallait, donc, une approche méthodologique et des stratégies pour éliminer, ou au moins, diminuer, ce décalage.

Pour la langue française, la situation est encore plus difficile : dans l'enseignement public il n'y a pas de cours de français, et il n'y a que les écoles de langues privés qui en ministrent des cours. Pour les couches sociales moins aisées, y suivre un cours de langue est presque impossible, sauf dans des cas exceptionnels, quand ils sont offerts volontairement par nos étudiants pour accomplir leurs Pratiques d'Enseignement, dans des associations communautaires, églises, écoles du système officiel ou privé, par exemple. Par contre, au moins, la classe est plus homogène, car personne ne connaît la langue française et il faut partir du zéro.

2. Description du cursus antérieur (réforme de 1998)

La dernière réforme curriculaire, en 1998, avait défini le nombre d'étudiants pour l'entrée semestrel et la nouvelle durée du cours : cent soixante étudiants/an (160) et quatre (4) années pour l'intégralisation régulière. La double licence (Portugais/Anglais et Portugais/Français) continuait à exister, mais on l'avait réduite à quatre ans de durée (auparavant elle en comptait cinq). La réduction a été possible car on a éliminé une grande partie des disciplines

obligatoires et un certain nombre de disciplines optionnelles, pour adapter le cours à la nouvelle charge horaire (300h) de Pratique d'enseignement. Il y a eu donc une homogénéisation des heures en toutes les licences en Lettres, même les doubles.

Dans le cursus de 1998, il y avait, donc :

1. Licence en Portugais/Français et littératures ;
2. Licence en Portugais /Anglais et littératures ;
3. Licence en Portugais et littératures ;
4. Licence en Anglais ou en Français et respectives littératures,

qui comptaient, chacune, 2.400 (deux mille quatre cents) heures, distribuées de la forme suivante :

| Licences Áreas | Double: | Simple: | Simple: |
|---|--|-------------------|------------------|
| | Langue Portugaise et une Langue Étrangère | Langue Portugaise | Langue Étrangère |
| Langue Portugaise | 420 heures | 480 heures | 240 heures |
| Langue Latine | 60 heures | 120 heures | 60 heures |
| Langue Étrangère | 420 heures | 120 heures | 780 heures |
| Linguistique | 180 heures | 180 heures | 120 heures |
| Littérature (ci-inclus les étrangères) | 600 heures | 780 heures | 600 heures |
| Éducation (ci-inclus Philosophie) | 180 heures | 240 heures | 240 heures |
| Pratique d'enseignement (ci-inclus les didactiques de langue) | 450 heures | 360 heures | 300 heures |
| Disciplines Optionnelles | 90 heures | 120 heures | 60 heures |
| TOTAL | 2400 horas | 2400 horas | 2400 horas |

Tableau 1

Presque toutes les disciplines avaient d'autres disciplines comme pré-requis. C'est ainsi qu'il y avait Langue Anglaise ou Langue Française 1, 2, 3 et 4. Il va sans dire que, pour s'inscrire à la discipline Langue Anglaise 4, il fallait en avoir suivi toutes les autres antérieures (1, 2 et 3). Pour accomplir son cours, l'étudiant devrait avoir suivi 2 disciplines de littératures de langue étrangère, mais, avant, dans les trois premières périodes, il lui fallait suivre les trois disciplines de Théorie de la Littérature et ainsi de suite.

Le Tableau 2 montre la licence en Anglais et littératures d'expression anglaise :

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------|---|------------------|
| 1 ^{ère} pér. | L.Portugaise | Linguistique | L. Anglaise 1 | L.Française 1 | Th. Littéraire 1 |
| 2 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | Psyc.Educat. | L. Anglaise 2 | L. Latine 1 | Th.Littéraire 2 |
| 3 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | L.Portugaise | L. Anglaise 3 | Struc.fonct. | Th.Littéraire 3 |
| 4 ^{ème} pér. | Litt. Brésilienne | Litt. Portugaise | L. Anglaise 4 | L.Anglaise Instr.1 | optionnelle |
| 5 ^{ème} pér. | Philosophie | Methodo.LE 1 | L. Anglaise 5 | Morphosint. L. Anglaise | Didactique |
| 6 ^{ème} pér. | Litt.Nord-Amér.1 | Litt.Anglaise 1 | L. Anglaise 6 | Lingt.Appl. et enseignement de LE | Litt.Anglaise 2 |
| 7 ^{ème} pér. | Litt.Nord-Amér. 2 | Methodo.LE 2 | L. Anglaise - Rédaction 1 | L. Anglaise - Conversation 1 | Litt.Anglaise3 |
| 8 ^{ème} pér. | Pratique d'ens. de L. Anglaise 1 | Pratique d'ens. de L. Anglaise 2 | L. Anglaise - Rédaction 2 | L. Anglaise - Conversation | XXXXXXXXXX |

Tableau 2

Le tableau 3 montre la licence en Français et littératures d'expression française :

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|-------------------|
| 1 ^{ère} Pér. | L.Portugaise | Linguistique | L. Française 1 | L. Anglaise 1 | Th. Littéraire 1 |
| 2 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | Psyc.Educat. | L. Française 2 | L. Latine 1 | Th.Littéraire 2 |
| 3 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | L.Portugaise | L. Française 3 | Struc.fonct. | Th.Littéraire 3 |
| 4 ^{ème} pér. | Litt. Brésilienne | Litt. Portugaise | L. Française 4 | L.Anglaise Instr.1 | optionnelle |
| 5 ^{ème} pér. | Philosophie | Methodo.LE 1 | L. Française 5 | Morphosint. L. Anglaise | Didactique |
| 6 ^{ème} pér. | Litt.Francophone 1 | Litt.Française 1 | L. Française 6 | Lingt.Appl. et enseignement de LE | Litt.Française 2 |
| 7 ^{ème} pér. | Litt.Francophone 2 | Litt. Française 1 | L. Française - Rédaction 1 | L. Française - Conversation 1 | Litt. Française 3 |
| 8 ^{ème} pér. | Pratique d'ens. de L.Française 1 | Pratique d'ens. de L.Française 2 | L. Française - Rédaction 2 | L. Française - Conversation | XXXXXXXXXX |

Tableau 3

Le tableau 4 montre la licence double (Portugais et Anglais et respectives littératures :

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|---|
| 1 ^{ère} Pér. | L.Portugaise | Linguistique | L. Anglaise 1 | L.Française 1 | Th. Littéraire 1 |
| 2 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | Psyc.Educat. | L. Anglaise 2 | L. Latine 1 | Th.Littéraire 2 |
| 3 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | L.Portugaise | L. Anglaise 3 | Struc.fonct. | Th.Littéraire 3 |
| 4 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | Litt. Portugaise 1 | L. Anglaise 4 | Litt. Brésilienne 1 | Lingt.Appl. et enseignement de L.Portugaise |
| 5 ^{ème} pér. | Methodo.L.Port. | Methodo.LE | Litt. Portugaise2 | Litt. Brésilienne 2 | Didactique |
| 6 ^{ème} pér. | Litt.Nord-Amér. (1 ou 2) | Methodo.Littér. | Litt. Brésilienne (3) | Lingt.Appl. et enseignement de LE | Litt.Anglaise 1, 2 ou 3 |
| 7 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | L.Portugaise | L. Anglaise Rédaction 1 ou 2 | L. Anglaise - Conversation 1 ou 2 | optionnelle |
| 8 ^{ème} pér. | Pratique d'ens. de L. Anglaise | Pratique d'ens. de L. Portugaise | Pratique d'ens. de Littérature | optionnelle | XXXXXXXXXX |

Tableau 4

Le tableau 5 montre la licence double (Portugais et Français et respectives littératures) :

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------------|---|
| 1 ^{ère} pér. | L.Portugaise | Linguistique | L. Française 1 | L. Anglaise 1 | Th. Littéraire 1 |
| 2 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | Psyc.Educat. | L. Française 2 | L. Latine 1 | Th.Littéraire 2 |
| 3 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | L.Portugaise | L. Française 3 | Struc. et fonct. de l'enseignement | Th.Littéraire 3 |
| 4 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | Litt. Portugaise 1 | L. Française 4 | Litt. Brésilienne 1 | Lingt.Appl. et enseignement de L.Portugaise |
| 5 ^{ème} pér. | Methodo.L.Port. | Methodo.LE | Litt. Portugaise2 | Litt. Brésilienne 2 | Didactique |
| 6 ^{ème} pér. | Litt.Francophone (1 ou 2) | Methodo.Littér. | Litt. Brésilienne (3) | Lingt.Appl. et enseignement de LE | Litt. Française 1, 2 ou 3 |
| 7 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise | L.Portugaise | L. Française Rédaction 1 ou 2 | L. Française – Conversation 1 ou 2 | optionnelle |
| 8 ^{ème} pér. | Pratique d'ens. de L. Française | Pratique d'ens. de L. Portugaise | Pratique d'ens. de Littérature | optionnelle | XXXXXXXXXX |

Tableau 5

À la fin de la première période, les étudiants faisaient leur option, en choisissant une des licences. Le caractère stable de la Langue Portugaise dans les cursus de l'enseignement fondamental e moyen, ainsi que le besoin de la connaissance plus approfondie d'une langue étrangère par le professionnel en Lettres, sont les facteurs qui donnaient à la double licence la première place dans le choix des étudiants qui faisaient leur option de cours.

3. Description du nouveau cursus (2008)

Dès 2002, le Ministère de l'Éducation brésilien exigeait que les licences aient un Projet Pédagogique pour les cours, ainsi qu'une augmentation du nombre d'heures de pratique d'enseignement et de pratiques éducatives.

Dû à une série de facteurs opérationnels, l'élaboration du nouveau projet pédagogique a entraîné de longues années et ce n'est qu'au début 2008 que l'on a pu l'approuver dans les Conseils supérieurs de l'Université, pour répondre aux exigences du Conseil National de l'Éducation, disposées dans les résolutions CNE/CP-27/2001 de 02/10/2001, CNE/CP-1 de 18/02/2002 et CNE/CP2 de 19/02/2002, CNE/CP9 de 02/10/2001 et dans les « Diretrizes Curriculares Nacionais para os Cursos de Letras » (CNE/CES 7 de 11/03/2002).

Encore une fois, le cursus devrait être modifié puisque les Stages Supervisionnés de Pratique d'enseignement devraient atteindre 400 heures, et il y aurait une augmentation de 200 heures de Pratiques éducatives, dès la première période et tout au long du cours. Ce qui veut dire, 800 heures de pratiques, d'enseignement et éducatives. Quelques autres contraintes ont été imposées par le Projet Politique Pédagogique institutionnel : 1/5 du cours devrait être dédié à la dimension pédagogique ; trois disciplines obligatoires du domaine de l'éducation (Politiques et gestion de l'éducation, Didactique générale et Psychologie de l'éducation), du cursus antérieur, devraient être maintenues dans le nouveau. Le MEC brésilien exigeait, aussi, une réduction de la durée maximale pour l'accomplissement de la licence, mais exigeait aussi un nombre d'heures minimal de contenu spécifique et l'augmentation des heures des pratiques éducatives et les stages supervisés. Le plus difficile de mettre au point dans les licences en

Lettres a été, donc, faire les comptes pour ajuster la charge d'heures. Une autre demande, cette fois, difficile de respecter pour le contrôle numérique des disciplines, était la flexibilité, car le système informatisé de contrôle, très récemment installé, n'avait pas été prévu pour cette flexibilisation. Comme la direction du contrôle académique^{xxii} avait eu une grande difficulté d'assimiler les diverses disciplines communes pour les licences simples et les doubles licences, le Conseil du Cours a subi une grande pression pour n'offrir que les licences simples, en éliminant les doubles licences (Portugais et une langue étrangère, qui avaient le plus grand nombre d'options – plus de 70% dans le cours de Lettres de notre institution). Pour ne plus attarder le début du nouveau cursus étant donné que, cette année, il y aurait une évaluation externe du Ministère de l'Éducation, le Conseil du Cours a décidé d'accepter dans un premier moment, et préparer les doubles licences (Portugais/Français et Portugais/Anglais) plus tard, puisque le Conseil sait que la demande du public va exiger leur retour.

Le nouveau cursus propose, a partir du premier semestre de 2008 :

1. Licence en Anglais et littératures;
2. Licence en Français et littératures;
3. Licence en Portugais et littératures,

qui comptent, chacune, 2.930 (deux mille neuf cents trente) heures, distribuées, en quatre ans, de la forme suivante :

| Licences Domaines | Simples: Langue Anglaise | Simples: Langue Française | Simples: Langue Portugaise |
|---|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Langue Portugaise | 120 heures | 120 heures | 480 heures |
| Etudes Classiques | 120 heures | 120 heures | 240 heures |
| Langue Anglaise | 720 heures | 120 heures | 120 heures |
| Langue Française | 120 heures | 720 heures | 120 heures |
| Linguistique | 60 heures | 60 heures | 60 heures |
| Littérature (ci-inclus les étrangères) | 360 heures | 360 heures | 480 heures |
| Disciplines libres | 180 heures | 180 heures | 180 heures |
| Methodologie de recherche en Lettres | 60 heures | 60 heures | 60 heures |
| Didactiques de langue | 180 heures | 180 heures | 180 heures |
| Éducation | 180 heures | 180 heures | 180 heures |
| Pratiques d'enseignement | 405 heures | 405 heures | 405 heures |
| Projet Intégré de Pratiques Educatives (PIPE) | 225 heures | 225 heures | 225 heures |
| Activités scientifiques-culturelles complémentaires | 200 heures | 200 heures | 200 heures |
| TOTAL | 2930 heures | 2930 horas | 2930 horas |

Tableau 6

^{xxii} DICOA (Divisão de Controle Acadêmico da UFU)

Le contenu spécifique de langue étrangère est, à l'heure actuelle, 1920 (mille neuf cent vingt) heures et la dimension pédagogique atteint 990 (neuf cent quatre-vingt-dix) heures, les didactiques de langue faisant partie des deux dimensions.

Les trois premiers semestres du cours sont communs et obligatoires pour tous les étudiants, qui font leur option pour une des trois langues à la fin du troisième semestre. Ce cycle obligatoire (Cycle I) comprend 120h de Langue Portugaise et Linguistique, 120h de Théorie de la Littérature, 120h d'Études Classiques, 120h de Langue Anglaise, 120h de Langue Française, 180h des trois disciplines pédagogiques (Didactique Générale, Politique et Gestion de l'Éducation et Psychologie de l'Éducation), Linguistique Appliquée et Enseignement de langues (60h – 30h pour la Langue Étrangère et 30h pour la Langue Portugaise), et Méthodologie de recherche en Lettres). À partir du quatrième semestre, les étudiants, ayant déjà fait leur option, n'auront que des disciplines spécifiques et du domaine de formation de professeur.

Ils auront, donc, dans les deux licences de langue et littératures étrangères, les disciplines du Cycle II (module 2) qui sont spécifiques pour développer les habilités orales et écrites ; dans le quatrième semestre, il y a aussi la Méthodologie du Portugais comme langue étrangère, qui donne une dimension internationale à leur profession, car ils pourront enseigner la Langue Portugaise à l'étranger et à des étrangers.

Le Cycle II comprend aussi les disciplines du module 3, comme Études de Traduction et les pratiques discursives, celles du quotidien et celles de l'Académie. Ce n'est qu'au sixième semestre que les étudiants auront le contact avec les littératures étrangères, quand ils ont déjà à peu près 480h de pratique de langue étrangère contre les 240h qu'ils avaient au cursus antérieur.

Au Cycle III, ils auront les disciplines du module 4, parmi lesquelles ils sont libres de choisir 180h, comme les disciplines de Langue étrangère et les nouvelles technologies, Langue étrangère dans le contexte des entreprises, Langue Étrangère aux objectifs spécifiques, Analyse et élaboration de matériel didactique en langue étrangère, Évaluation de l'apprentissage de langue étrangère, parmi d'autres. À cette étape du cours, ils ont déjà passé par les méthodologies spécifiques, et commencent les stages supervisés – stage supervisé en langue étrangère (165h), stage supervisé en langue étrangère aux objectifs spécifiques (75h), stage supervisé en Portugais comme langue étrangère et stage supervisé de pratiques de traduction.

Pour la comparaison avec l'ancien cursus, le tableau 7 montre la licence en Anglais et littératures d'expression anglaise ou Français et Littératures d'expression française du nouveau cursus, introduite au 1^{er}. Semestre 2008 :

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|--|--|--|--|--|
| 1 ^{ère} pér. | L.Portugaise et Linguistique (module 1) | Études Classiques (module 1) | L. Anglaise : (module 1) | L.Française 1 : (module 1) | Th. Littéraire (module 1) |
| 2 ^{ème} pér. | L.Portugaise et Linguistique (module 1) | Politique et gestion de l'éducation | L. Anglaise : (module 1) | L.Française 1 : (module 1) | Th. Littéraire (module 1) |
| 3 ^{ème} pér. | Lingt.Appl. et enseignement de langues (LE et Port.) | Études Classiques (module 1) | Psychologie de l'éducation | Didactique | Methodo. de recherche en Lettres |
| 4 ^{ème} pér. | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 2) | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 2) | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 2) | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 2) | Methodo. de Portugais comme LE |
| 5 ^{ème} pér. | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 3) | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 3) | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 3) | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 4) | Methodo. d'Anglais ou de Français |
| 6 ^{ème} pér. | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 4) | L. Anglaise ou L. Française (module 4) | Littérature Anglaise ou Nord-Amér. Ou Littérature Française ou Francophone | Littérature Anglaise ou Nord-Amér. Ou Littérature Française ou Francophone | Methodo. ESP ou de FOS |
| 7 ^{ème} pér. | Discipline libre | Discipline libre | Stage Supervisé en Portugais LE | Stage Supervisé en L. Anglaise 1 Ou en L. Française 1 | Littérature Anglaise ou Nord-Amér. Ou Littérature Française ou Francophone |
| 8 ^{ème} pér. | Discipline libre | Stage Supervisé de Pratiques de Traduction | Stage Supervisé en ESP ou FOS | Stage Supervisé en L. Anglaise 2 Ou En L. Française 2 | Littérature Anglaise ou Nord-Amér. Ou Littérature Française ou Francophone |

Tableau 7

L'étudiant a l'option de choisir une autre licence, dès qu'il ne dépasse la durée maximale de permanence dans le cours (6 ans e demi). Il peut faire des combinaisons à partir du Cycle I, obligatoire, en suivant, le matin, par exemple, la licence d'Anglais et littératures d'expression anglaise et le soir, la licence de Portugais ou de Français et respectives littératures. Mais il pourra aussi suivre seulement une licence le matin ou le soir, selon son option et après, il aura encore deux ans et demi pour en finir l'autre.

On peut dire que la plus remarquable différence entre les deux cursus est la flexibilité dans l'offre de disciplines, car, à partir du quatrième semestre, l'étudiant peut choisir son parcours, et aussi la mise en relief de la formation du futur professeur dès le début du cours, soit par le moyen des pratiques éducatives (PIPE) qui commencent au premier semestre, soit par le moyen des disciplines de contenus spécifiques qui renforcent constamment le caractère formateur du cursus.

4. La formation de professeur en évidence

L'aspect le plus important de ce cursus actuel est, donc, la mise en relief de la formation de professeur, dès le premier semestre. Et les langues étrangères ont pris à leur charge et sous leur responsabilité dans les deux premiers semestres les projets de pratiques éducatives. Ces projets ont 30 heures à chaque semestre et ces heures ont été partagés entre les deux langues étrangères (français et anglais), et intégrées aux disciplines *Langue Française : Apprentissage critique-réflexive* et *Langue Anglaise : Apprentissage critique-réflexive*, qui sont des disciplines obligatoires dans les trois licences ; de même, aux disciplines obligatoires de langue étrangère du deuxième semestre (*Langue Française : Fondements linguistiques* et *Langue Anglaise : Fondements linguistiques*) sont aussi intégrées les heures du projet de pratiques éducatives. Dans ces quatre disciplines, les étudiants commencent déjà à observer l'école de laquelle il venait de sortir avec un regard de futur professeur qu'il deviendra.

L'objectif des disciplines du premier semestre, comme leur nom annonce, est apprendre aux étudiants à réfléchir sur le processus d'enseignement, d'apprentissage et d'évaluation. En tant que professeur en formation, il leur faut découvrir comment ils apprennent, quelle est la meilleure façon d'apprendre, ce qui veut dire, quel est leur profil d'apprenant. De même, il leur faut réfléchir sur les objectifs de chaque classe, si ces objectifs ont été atteints à la fin de chaque cours et raconter tout cela sous la forme d'un carnet de bord ou journal réflexif hebdomadaire. Les activités écrites sont recueillies dans un dossier, appelé Dossier d'apprentissage, ou Portfolio, qui leur montrera leur développement tout au long du semestre. Selon FREIRE (FREIRE et SHOR, 1986), la réflexion peut éclairer la réalité, ce qui facilitera, sans doute, la construction des connaissances nécessaires à la formation du professeur.

Le projet intégré de pratique éducative du premier semestre de Langue Française est une recherche sur la Francophonie et le marché de travail du futur professeur de langue française ; les étudiants sont demandés d'avoir un regard critique sur les politiques éducationnelles pour l'enseignement des langues, surtout celles qui concernent la langue française, en vérifiant avec les directeurs ou coordinateurs des écoles la raison de l'absence de la langue française dans la formation fondamentale.

Pour la langue anglaise, le projet prévoit une recherche sur l'enseignement de langues et l'inclusion des étudiants handicapés au contexte éducatif de l'enseignement fondamental du système officiel et privé et des cours de langues ; les étudiants sont demandés d'avoir un regard critique sur les politiques éducationnelles pour l'enseignement des langues, surtout celles qui concernent l'inclusion, soit des handicapés, soit des élèves d'une couche social moins aisée.

Dans les deux cas, les étudiants doivent présenter oralement les résultats de leur travail en salle de classe, par le moyen de séminaires, pour les camarades et le professeur, et dans des événements spécifiques (Semaine de Lettres et/ou Semaine Académique de l'université) en exposant la recherche par le moyen de panneaux ou d'affiches du genre académique. L'objectif de cette pratique éducative envisage, non seulement la familiarisation avec le contexte de l'école,

qui est le but de leur formation, mais aussi la formation du professeur réflexif, chercheur de sa propre action, agent de transformation du contexte social de l'école publique (CELANI, 2002).

Après ces deux premiers semestres, les PIPE sont intégrés aux disciplines de formation, les didactiques de langue et de littérature, ainsi qu'à la discipline Linguistique Appliquée et Enseignement de Langues (étrangères et maternelle), jusqu'au septième semestre, quand il y aura une semaine de Séminaires, dédiée à la divulgation des résultats de leurs recherches. Les thèmes de chaque semestre sont toujours liés à la formation du futur professionnel des Lettres.

5. Considérations finales

Il est trop tôt pour prévoir les résultats de ce cursus, mais son *design* a été le fruit des réflexions du groupe de professeurs de langues étrangères - anglais et français - pendant de longues années, et montre une prise de conscience sur l'état actuel de l'enseignement de langues étrangères. Ceux-là ont décidé de montrer à leurs étudiants qu'il n'y a pas besoin d'avoir une école avec beaucoup de ressources, financières et technologiques, pour enseigner les langues. Ils peuvent, eux-mêmes, créer et élaborer leur propre matériel didactique, adapté au contexte de l'école où ils vont enseigner.

Le projet pédagogique institutionnel et celui du cours de Lettres prévoient l'évaluation constante du cursus par les professeurs, par les étudiants et par le Conseil du Cours de Lettres, qui pourra le remodeler dans deux ans. Pendant ce temps, des recherches seront menées par des étudiants d'initiation scientifique, pour percevoir s'il y aura des différences entre les étudiants du cursus antérieur et ceux du cursus actuel, en ce qui concerne l'autonomie dans l'apprentissage et le processus d'évaluation dans ce nouveau modèle.

On sait que la question de l'évaluation est délicate et qu'une attention spéciale lui doit être accordée. La plupart des enseignants évalue en reproduisant les pratiques traditionalistes de leurs maîtres (FELICE, 2005). Pour eux, l'évaluation veut dire « examens » et une note. Quelquefois, même les professeurs plus jeunes montrent un certain conservadorisme par rapport à l'évaluation, n'admettant jamais la possibilité de laisser aux étudiants la responsabilité de savoir ce qu'ils ont appris. (HADJI, 2001) La Coordination du Cours de Lettres développe, dès le début du nouveau cursus, un projet de recherche envisageant l'évaluation. Ce projet prévoit une série de débats sur les activités d'évaluation prévues dans les Projet Politique Pédagogique Institutionnel et du Cours de Lettres, ainsi que sur la nouvelle approche méthodologique adoptée dorénavant et la cohérence qui devrait avoir entre elles.

Évidemment, il faut absolument que tout le corps enseignant soit convaincu de l'efficacité de cette nouvelle approche pour que cette réforme du cursus commence à montrer ses résultats. Tout ce qui est nouveau est un défi et bouleverse l'état des choses, et les doutes sont constantes. L'incertitude de ces nouvelles idées apportent de l'insécurité surtout pour ceux qui ont transformé leur quotidien de salle de classe en routine, pour ceux qui trouvent plus facile

prendre le livre didactique et le suivre comme l'on suivrait une Bible, sans un regard critique, sans aucune réflexion.

Le nouveau cursus peut apporter des questions encore sans réponses, des critiques peut-être, mais toutes les réactions seront importantes pour le mettre de plus en plus au point. Ce qui ne va plus continuer, certes, c'est un cours qui est toujours le même, sans créativité ou sans réflexion, d'où le licencié sort sans avoir rien modifié dans sa façon de penser et de voir l'éducation.

Le plus important, selon la Coordination du Cours, c'est la possibilité de donner au professeur en formation un nouveau projet de vie, capable de promouvoir un changement, une transformation en lui-même et dans son environnement et peut-être même son émancipation.

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The support of novice teachers in Portugal: theoretical and empirical perspectives

Fernando Ilídio Ferreira¹, Nelson Cardoso²

¹*University of Minho – Portugal*

filidio@iec.uminho.pt

²*PhD Student, University of Minho – Portugal*

nelsocardoso@hotmail.com

Abstract

In this paper, theoretical and empirical perspectives concerning teacher induction are discussed, particularly considering a research project developed in a biographical perspective which includes a novice teacher's diary, a master's dissertation and a PhD research presently being developed, which also includes biographical interviews of experienced teachers in their role of supporters. In addition, a document analysis of new legislation implemented by the Ministry of Education in 2007 is carried out. Investigations in this area have been addressing the importance of teacher induction, however there is still no organized accompanying and support programs for novice teachers in Portugal. This paper describes some existing experiences and analyses the perspectives of both novice and experienced teachers, however it concludes that the kind of support provided has no systematic character orientated to professional teacher development and in some cases where support is provided it originates from individual initiatives and not from a school-based perspective.

Keywords: teacher induction – novice teachers – biographical perspective

1. Introduction

The process of becoming a teacher has been studied in different theoretical and methodological perspectives; however research findings converge on the complexity and the importance of this process for the socialization, identity and teacher learning and development. In this process the context and concrete circumstances in which novice professional experiences occur assume a great relevance, as well as the kind of support provided in the workplace. In effect it is there where novice teachers encounter real difficulties, confront dilemmas, assume challenges, take decisions and develop strategies in order to cope with problems, either in the pedagogical ambit, namely classroom management and the relationship with children, or in the institutional domain, for instance the relationship with other teachers, parents and school boards.

The findings presented in this paper are based on a research project which includes a novice teacher's diary, a master's dissertation and a PhD research currently being developed. This project was commenced in 2003 at the University of Minho and is aimed at supporting the induction process of newly qualified primary teachers. In that year, some trainees were invited to write a diary regarding their first year of work, but only one, called Eva, carried out this task to the end, which was later published (Santos, 2005). In 2006 this project

was developed through a master's dissertation based on qualitative research, incorporating document analysis and biographical interviews of five novice teachers (Cardoso, 2007). Finally, this master's dissertation led to a PhD research which is presently in progress with the objective of studying personal and professional teacher induction experiences based on biographical interviews of both novice and experienced teachers.

This paper also includes the analysis of legal documents which have recently introduced alterations in the placement and career progression system as well as teacher evaluation, including the probationary year. This new legislation attributes responsibility to senior teachers with more than 18 year of experience, who are now obliged to accompany and provide support to novice teachers in didactic, pedagogical and scientific terms.

In this sense, perspectives and expectations concerning teacher induction are analysed, namely:

- i) Novice teachers: work conditions, principal difficulties, dilemmas and strategies applied to professional development;
- ii) Experienced teachers: the kind of school-based support they provide;
- iii) Educational policies: present situation and recent changes in legislation, namely the probationary year and the role and responsibilities of senior teachers.

2. The issue of teacher induction in Portugal

In Portugal, the question of support for novice teachers has not yet been given much value, both at the national policies level and at the organisational school level. Being a traditionally centralized and bureaucratic educational system, the recruitment of teachers is carried out at the national level and not at the individual school level, resulting in a great mobility and instability, affecting especially novice teachers.

Besides that, organisational and professional cultures are influenced by the idea that each teacher, experienced or a beginner, is a sovereign in his/her own classroom and, consequently, the support to novice teachers is only carried out in informal and in specific situations when it is personally desired and requested, depending solely on the will of each teacher.

Although there are some exceptions, schools neither generally develop strategies of support for novice teachers, nor do experienced teachers understand this matter as an important part of their role and responsibilities. As a consequence, the entrance of newly qualified teachers in the school system is sudden and abrupt (Flores, 2000). On the contrary which occurs in other professions where newly qualified professionals assume progressively more complex and demanding tasks with the accompanying of the more experienced peers, in the case of the teaching profession, novice teachers must assume the same responsibilities as the more experienced ones and, frequently more ungrateful tasks. In this sense, the beginning of teaching can be, on one hand, a period of discovery and adventure and, on the other generate doubts, difficulties, tension, conflicts and frustration.

Existing studies in this area have been developed principally in the academic ambit, although some include collaborative action-research, training activities and other kinds of support (Rosário, 1989; Cavaco, 1990; Silva, 1994, 1997; Machado 1996; Couto, 1998; Alves, 2001; Braga, 2001; Flores 2000, 2004a, 2004b, 2007; Oliveira, 2004; Esteves, 2006; Faria, 2006; Pereira, 2006; Cardoso, 2007). These studies have focused on several themes and reached various results such as: the relevance of the initial training; the “reality shock” concerning the transition from idealism to the realization of the demands of teaching; difficulties and dilemmas which teachers are confronted with in their first years as well as the resolution strategies and decision-taking to deal with conflicts, worries and difficulties; the impact of school culture and leadership in teacher’s learning and development; reasons and motivation for their choice, performance and continuity in teaching; the process of socialization and constructing/ transforming professional identity over time and in the workplace; and the necessity of investing more in the induction period.

There also exist some concrete experiences of supporting novice teachers, principally linked with higher education institutions which aim to support their recent graduates at the initial stage of their teaching career, provided by either university boards or ex-students or even between themselves and their university teachers. These experiences include, for example: i) the creation of a “first year induction support centre” from the initiative of an association formed by ex-pre-school education university students which divulge employment opportunities, provide information and promote training activities and other cultural actions, by way of an internet site; ii) the development of a project named “first steps” carried out by ex-primary school university students in collaboration with their teachers with the aim of exchanging information regarding training programs and encounters, availing didactic resources, sharing information, doubts, experiences and suggestions by way of an internet forum; iii) and the utilization of a blog by a PhD student in order to create an online novice teacher community to share their experiences.

In general, both academic research and concrete experiences of supporting novice teachers have emphasised the relevance of personal and contextual factors in the process of teachers’ learning and development and the necessity of training and support; however teacher induction is still not understood as a relevant issue in schools.

3. Perspectives from novice and experienced teachers

According to the methodology above mentioned, the perspectives of novice and experienced teachers are analysed in this section in connection with the following themes: integration of novice teachers in the school; classroom management; meetings with teachers and parents; methodologies and teaching practices; continuous training and professional development; and expectations concerning the probationary year.

Besides Eva, who wrote the diary, five other novice teachers were interviewed, each of whom belonging to the one of the first five years of teaching after initial training: Carina, a graduate in Pre-school teacher education; Anita, a graduate in

Portuguese and English language; Carlota, a graduate in Maths and Sciences; Cristela, a graduate in Portuguese language; and Maria, a graduate in primary school teaching. All were teaching at the level of teaching corresponding to their specific degrees, with the exception of Anita, who was employed in an administrative area of a computer company.

None of these novice teachers mentioned were ever involved in any systematic induction programs in schools where they worked. However, all confessed to various concerns and difficulties which confronted them soon after arriving at their schools and expressed their low expectations related to their personal future, due to the unstable and precarious situation provoked by the existing bureaucratic placement system

3.1. Integration of novice teachers in the school

The experienced teachers express some concerns regarding the integration of novice teachers in the school, in aspects such their personal and social integration; information about the school functioning; existing projects and materials; and information about pupils. In a general way, the support provided consists of mainly giving information but in some cases no information is given. Relating to other aspects, experienced teachers provided support only when requested by novice teachers.

“The initial care which I had when she came to our school, apart from talking about the general aspects of school organization, was to talk with her about the pupils she would be working with in her class. I was trying to present her with the reality of her class as quickly as possible and avail her to the existing didactic materials”. (Experienced teacher)

“Sometimes she would ask me things and I gave her some work sheets. To another, I lent a file with worksheets, tests, etc”. (Experienced teacher)

“I arrived and went straight to my classroom where I was met by the pupils and the Principal who showed me the installations. Later, the Principal explained to me how the classroom was organized, how the work by the other pre-school teacher was developed, and the usual routines. During this time, the pupils helped in familiarizing me with the school. The Principal gave me a copy of the internal regulations for my consultation”. (Carina, Pre-school teacher)

“I was not provided with additional information about the school or the pupils. Basically, I was left to fend for myself. It was the pupils who provided me with information like adopted manuals. I started to feel very lonely, lost and insecure”. (Eva’s Diary, Primary school teacher)

In the same way that experienced teachers provide support only when they are asked to, novice teachers feel less at ease in presenting their doubts.

“I understand that experienced teacher would have difficulty understanding my situation, because for them, these problems would be

considered too simple. Maybe because of this I felt embarrassed asking for help regarding the issues I couldn't understand". (Eva's Diary, Primary school teacher)

Experienced teachers argue that they do not have time to provide continuous support, due to the fact that they have their own classes to deal with. On the other hand, novice teachers regret the fact that there are no opportunities to discuss school matters with their more experienced colleagues.

"We didn't meet very often. Because she started at 10 am and her break was at 10:30, I had my break but she and her pupils stayed in the classroom during her break. Therefore, we rarely saw each other". (Experienced teacher)

"In the first few days, when I presented myself to the school, the school coordinator was not there. There was a experienced teacher who was at the end her career who didn't show me the entire school, but only my classroom. The first days were very complicated. I felt abandoned and alone". (Maria, Primary school teacher).

3.2. Classroom management

Both experienced and novice teachers agree about the following difficulties and insecurities regarding class management: managing conflicts with and between pupils; discipline; pupils' learning difficulties; pupils' heterogeneity; and curriculum management.

"Upon entering my class, I felt apathetic and apprehensive because some pupils, who, in the year before, were identified with learning and behaviour problems, were concentrated in my class". (Eva's Diary, Primary school teacher)

"I walked into her classroom and said: sorry, but I must tell you something! [aspects concerning the pupils' behaviour and the novice teacher's difficulties in dealing with the situation]". (Experienced teacher)

"I had a 7th year class which was very problematic and which at one time, made me leave the class very disturbed... but this was an episode which I never want to remember again". (Anita, Lower secondary school teacher)

"Another difficulty is finding time to accompany those pupils who understand the material and simultaneously accompany those who are experiencing difficulties". (Carlota, Lower secondary school teacher)

Novice teachers emphasize several aspects, such as bureaucracy; ignorance of legislation; the high level of performance required; pupil evaluation and planning.

"I waste lot of time dealing with bureaucracy when things could be simpler and quicker, allowing me more time to spend on the needs of

pupils. Even at the bureaucratic level, I felt a bit lost". (Maria, Primary school teacher)

Experienced teachers refer mainly to the personal and professional difficulties of novice teachers, such as short term contract, substitution obligations, the carrying out of activities of which they had not been prepared for, anxiety, pupils' relationships in situations requiring empathy, the capacity to adapt and be flexible, and pedagogical strategies and leadership. The kind of support provided by experienced teachers consists principally of dialogue, describing episodes and their own experiences, and direct intervention in the classroom in cases of indiscipline.

"I have often spoken with her to provide help. If I were her, I would also welcome a helping hand". (Experienced teacher)

"I was outside. I think she was suffering and so was I, because they were my pupils also. I walked into the classroom and yelled!" (Experienced teacher)

"I listen to her and tell her that it is not necessary to be like that [novice teacher anxiety before the 4th year pupil's national examinations] because I had gone through the same experience". (Experienced teacher)

3.3. Meetings with teachers and parents

The relationship between novice teachers and parents is characterized by insecurity and the lack of confidence on each part. Therefore, this is an area in which novice teachers feel a great need for support. However, they consider that their work is not recognized by either experienced colleagues or by parents and also that teachers' meetings are not fully taken advantage of in order to help solve their difficulties.

"At that time I felt out of place, isolated and disillusioned, because none of my colleagues asked about me or for my name, or I wasn't informed about what they were talking about. And I wasn't the only one who was there for the first time. When the teachers' meeting ended I felt very disappointed; nobody even talked about each one's classes (...)" (Eva's Diary, Primary school teacher)

"At the end of the meeting, because very few of my pupils' parents had attended, I felt let down and sad, because the few who were there left without saying a word to me! Only the mothers of some gypsy children came to speak to me when everyone else had left the room! As they were leaving, I felt a feeling of emptiness and concluded that some of my ambitions were only illusions". (Eva's Diary, Primary school teacher)

"When I started in the school, I was appointed homeroom teacher and some parents seemed to have some concern regarding this situation because of my age. It was the first year I was teaching, but parents never stopped coming to the school to talk to me". (Carlota, Lower secondary school teacher)

"In the teachers meetings it would have been logical to share experiences in order to try to over pass the difficulties. When I have a problem with a class, nobody wants to hear about it or offer any help". (Maria, Primary school teacher)

3.4. Methodologies and teaching practices

Novice teachers value their pre-service teacher training in pedagogical, didactic and scientific terms. However, they do not feel secure about their utilization and motivation of pupils in using the best strategies possible in order for pupils to overcome their difficulties.

"At the end of another day of classes, I feel afraid. 'Am I doing everything wrong?' 'Am I using the most adequate methodologies possible with my pupils?' Sometimes it seems that they know nothing". (Eva's Diary, Primary school teacher)

"I don't know what I am going to do! Should I help each pupil individually or should I follow the 3rd year program set out by the Ministry? I have no doubts about what is best for my pupils, but I am afraid I might not have time to complete the program and later be criticised by my colleagues and the children's parents. [...] Sometimes, I think about what I would like to do with my pupils in order to motivate them, above all because I am very afraid of feeling that they don't like the school". (Eva's Diary, Primary school teacher)

When required by their new colleagues, experienced teachers provide support by giving materials, clarifying concepts and suggesting strategies.

"She asked me something about Mathematics and so I went to her classroom to explain this to her pupils. Later I explained it to her". (Experienced teacher)

"I gave her an explanation about "decimals" telling her how she should teach this material". (Experienced teacher)

3.5. Continuous training and professional development

When facing difficulties, novice teachers feel the need for continuous training to correspond with their needs and interests. In the same way, experienced teachers also feel that novice teachers should have access to training activities, namely to help them to deal with relationships with student, parents and colleagues. However, schools do not organize training activities and other institutions do not always offer adequate training.

For this reason, novice teachers frequently ask their university teachers to become involved in research projects or carry out postgraduate studies.

"Today I woke up with the desire to do something more than just work in the school with my pupils. I miss the contacts with my university teachers and the continuous learning of new theories and teaching practices. I feel like looking for new training courses, involve myself in projects, confront opinions and ideas... 'I don't know, I just want more!'" (Eva's Diary, Primary school teacher)

"Today, at the request of my training supervisor, I went to the University to relate my professional experience with 3rd year students of my course in a class of Primary School Organisation. It was very enjoyable. I spoke about the victories and defeats which I have encountered and, principally the way I over came them. It did me good to return to my University. I like being there, specially talking about my course, because I enjoyed everything I learnt there". (Eva's Diary, Primary school teacher)

"At the invitation of my initial training supervisor, I went to Lisbon to participate in the Conference 'Training teachers for what type of school?' There I presented a paper about my first year experiences as a teacher. At the beginning I felt a little inhibited, but the more I spoke the more I noticed the enthusiasm of the participants and I felt much more at ease. It was a very enriching experience because in speaking about my particular experiences, I realised how much I had grown in both a personal and professional way". (Eva's Diary, Primary school teacher)

3.6. Expectations concerning the probationary year

Recently, alterations were introduced regarding teachers' careers, changing the rules of access to the profession and introducing a teacher evaluation system. In what concerns novice teachers, a master's degree is now required, as well as the approval in a national written exam and a probationary period aimed at evaluating the performance of the newly qualified teacher.

During this period, the novice teacher will be accompanied and supervised by a senior teacher who should have specialized training in areas such as educational organization, curriculum development or pedagogical supervision and teacher training. This senior teacher has the role of: i) accompanying the novice teacher in his/her elaboration of an individual work plan including the scientific, pedagogical and didactic components; ii) providing support in the preparation and planning of classes, as well as the reflection regarding the respective pedagogical practices with the aim of improving the performance of the novice teacher; iii) elaborating a report based on observation of his/her activities and evaluating the performance of the novice teacher. During his/her first year, the novice teacher should participate in training activities, assist classes of more senior teachers and carry out group work indicated by the accompanying senior teacher.

There are various expectations regarding the recent implementation of the probationary period by both experienced teacher and novice teachers. The novice teachers see the national exam for the access to their profession as insufficient and narrow and because of this, they consider it inadequate to evaluate the competencies for their profession. They demonstrate apprehension related to the

implementation of the support process in the school, taking into consideration various aspects such as time management, training and competences of the experienced teachers and even the results of the evaluation.

"I see few advantages in the probationary period because I had already been accompanied for three years in my in-service training in schools and I have already been evaluated". (Carlota, Lower secondary school teacher)

"The older teachers have little free time available. I think that it is very difficult for them as supervisors to find sufficient time to accompany and assist classes". (Carlota, Lower secondary school teacher)

"Because there is a lot of rivalry, there are teachers who like to help but there are those who don't". (Anita, Lower secondary school teacher)

"How do we know if the teacher who is evaluating us has the necessary capacities to carry out this evaluation? We could be good teachers but because he/she might not be impartial, he/she could give us a poor mark". (Maria, Primary school teacher)

"It is complicated to put a senior teacher in the position of accompanying and evaluating without specific training in this area". (Carlota, Lower secondary school teacher)

On the part of experienced teachers, they see this opportunity of providing support incorporated in the probationary period in a more positive perspective, hoping that this period will provide more confidence in the decision taking of the novice teacher. They also consider that the new responsibilities attributed to them will bring about other demands regarding their training, but on the other hand they feel this will increase the bureaucracy they will eventually have to deal with.

4. Conclusion

The perspectives of novice and experienced teachers demonstrate that, at present, the kind of support provided consists mainly in supplying information to novice teachers. Due to the fact that there does not exist opportunities to discuss school matters with more experienced colleagues, novice teachers experience great difficulties in their integration in the school, class management, pedagogical methodologies and other aspects. In some cases, novice teachers turn to more experienced colleagues for support in certain aspects related to strategies in pedagogical and scientific terms. Besides, both experienced and novice teachers refer to the necessity for specific training as a support strategy in order to overcome difficulties. However, as was previously mentioned, institutions do not always provide adequate training courses and therefore, novice teachers frequently turn to their university professors for support and guidance.

The new rules regarding teaching careers generate expectations and concerns from novice and experienced teachers, but besides the legal aspects there are internal obstacles in schools regarding teacher induction, both in organizational and cultural terms. Therefore, endogenous changes in schools are necessary, of which leadership plays an essential role. As referred to by Flores (2004b), the quality of school leadership emerges as a key factor in determining the nature and process of learning in the workplace and this has important implications for the role of school leaders in creating and sustaining professional learning communities. These changes are fundamental for the development of a school culture orientated towards novice teacher support in a school-based perspective. In this way it is necessary to simultaneously provide support to novice and experienced teachers in their role as mentors not only in the ambit of the probationary period but also in the support of all novice teachers in the various areas of their work in the sense of their continuing professional development.

Finally methodological implications can be extracted, taking into consideration the biographical approach used. The above mentioned diary was written by a novice primary school teacher in her first year of teaching, during which she worked in the same primary school where she had completed her initial teacher training. On the one hand, this situation provided her with greater security in the integration process, but on the other hand generated a feeling of apprehension due to the change in her role from trainee to teacher. This primary school is located next to a social welfare neighbourhood, with cultural and ethnic diversity, mainly gypsies, and as she had already known the pupils and teachers, immediately realized that her class was, in a great part, constituted by pupils with a high failure level and behaviour problems.

Writing a diary implies a great deal of dedication and persistence. As this usually takes a long time, this kind of work is subject to moments of discouragement and, because of this, demands intense discipline. Eva confessed that, at times, she felt that she had nothing more to write in the diary because she was used to sharing her episodes, emotions and feelings with whom she was intimate, immediately after the classes. During the academic year she was confronted with difficulties, doubts, enthusiasm and disillusion. Her diary reflects several professional and personal dilemmas which refer to her first contacts with the school, her class, her colleagues, her relationship with parents and teacher in school meetings. It expresses her disillusion and joys; the feeling of abandonment but also, the support she encountered from some colleagues. The school appeared hostile or indifferent yet at times even welcoming. In various moments she looked with great wonder at the different aspects of the school, its daily routines, episodes which occurred in relationship to teachers, parents and pupils, in situations which she considered quite different to those she had imagined in her teaching course at the University.

Therefore, a biographical approach is essential in order to fully comprehend the process of becoming a teacher, taking into account that the professional development of teachers is closely related to life and the experiences of novice and experienced teachers. However, these processes are complex and it is necessary to recognize the relevance of the contextual factors. In this investigation, although significant experiences of teacher support were identified, it can be concluded that these factors have not genuinely been taken into consideration, especially since teacher support is not have a systematic character

orientated to teacher development. Moreover, in cases where support is provided, it originates from individual initiatives and not from a school-based perspective.

In conclusion, professional induction has been internationally recognized as an important issue in the process of professional development. In the induction processes, biographical factors linked to novice teachers' support experiences assume great relevance, as well as the contextual factors of each school which can inhibit or stimulate the development of professional learning communities. In this sense, a contextualized professional induction perspective is fundamental, considering school culture, leadership and projects and also the support which higher education teaching institutions can provide to novice teachers and also to experienced teachers in their role of mentors. This importance was recently highlighted in a conference organized in the ambit of the Portuguese Presidency of the Council of the European Union which took place in Lisbon on the 27th and 28th of September, 2007, in which the importance of training, supervision and professional teacher development was emphasised with special attention attributed to the necessity of integrating continuous teacher training in the daily management of schools and of the institutionalization of the induction period.

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Learning and Change: The Experience of First and Second-year Teachers

Maria Assunção Flores ¹,

¹*University of Minho – Portugal*

aflores@iep.uminho.pt

Abstract

This paper explores the ways in which a cohort of novice teachers developed and changed over a two-year period. It examines the interplay of personal and contextual influences on their development as first- and second-year teachers. A combination of methods was used, including semi-structured interviews, reports and essays. While in the case of the vast majority of the participants (10 out of 14), the widespread loss of idealism and increasing compliance, which much of the literature on new teachers describes, does apply, four teachers revealed a sustained commitment to teaching and learning. Problems in dealing with classroom management effectively, along with issues of teacher socialization in the workplace, explained this trend. Student motivation and achievement, alongside a greater knowledge of the context and of the students, which was made possible by a supportive atmosphere at school, accounted for their commitment. Implications of the findings for induction and mentoring are discussed.

Keywords: New teachers - induction - change - mentoring - development

1. Introduction

Much of the research on beginning teachers has focused on the nature of the problems they encounter during the first years of teaching (Vonk, 1983; Cooke and Pang, 1991; Thomas and Kiley, 1994; Charnock and Kiley, 1995), on the factors influencing their socialization process (e.g. Jordell, 1987; Rust, 1994; Kelchtermans and Ballet, 2002) and on their professional development over time (Vonk and Schras, 1987; Levin and Ammon, 1992; Carderhead and Shorrock, 1997; Bullough with Baughman, 1993, 1995, 1997). Findings suggest that the interactive arena of the decision-making process is the most problematic one for new teachers, namely motivating students, dealing with individual differences, disciplinary problems, assessing students' work, and classroom and time management (Vonk, 1983; Veenman, 1984, 1988; Marcelo, 1991; Cooke and Pang, 1991; Charnock and Kiley, 1995). The idiosyncratic way in which new teachers handle the novelty and variety of tasks and roles they are expected to perform is widely discussed in the literature, much of which draws attention to the 'sink or swim' approach and to the existence of 'painful beginnings' (Huberman, 1989; Alves, 2001). The mismatch between (unrealistic) expectations and school and classroom realities is said to be the hallmark of the transition from student to teacher. Literature has also argued that new teachers strive for personal and professional acceptance from pupils, colleagues and school administration and they tend to develop a 'survival kit' and a set of 'coping strategies' (Vonk, 1993) in order to deal with the complex tasks inherent in being a teacher with full professional responsibilities.

Research has also focused on the preferred assistance strategies for beginning teachers, amongst which emotional support, the existence of a mentor and the opportunity to share experiences with other colleagues are the most popular (Charnock and Kiley, 1995; Barrett and Davis, 1995). In this respect, a growing body of literature highlights the uniqueness and the complexity of the induction phase and stresses the need for adequate support and guidance during the early years in the profession (see, for instance, Tickle, 1994, 2000; Hardy, 1999).

Despite the recognition of the peculiar traits of the initial phase of the teacher's career, which is believed to have long-term implications for continuing professional development, little attention has been given to new teachers, especially in the Portuguese context. Although recent research has demonstrated the relevance of formal induction, new teachers are left alone with handling all the tasks and duties required of them as full-time teachers, most of the time in isolation and in changing educational settings (Silva, 1997; Flores, 2004a, 2006a, 2007; Couto, 1998; Alves, 2001; Braga, 2001, Oliveira, 2004; Faria, 2006). Also the support and guidance provided by school leaders in the workplace is far from being responsive to new teachers' needs, as evidence from research has emphasized (Flores, 2004b, 2006b, in press). Furthermore, research has demonstrated the effects of workplace conditions and school culture on the induction of beginning teachers (Cole, 1991; Williams, Prestage and Bedward, 2001) and the importance of school leadership in creating and maintaining the conditions necessary for the building of professional learning communities within schools (Fernandez, 2000).

It is clear that workplace conditions play a key role in (re)shaping teachers' understanding of teaching, in facilitating or hindering their professional learning and development. Gaining deeper insights into the professional world of new teachers may contribute to better understanding of their needs, their expectations, and their commitment, and to provide them with relevant opportunities for their continuing professional development.

2. Methods

Understanding the ways in which beginning teachers develop professionally implies the consideration of the ways in which they learn (and have learned) to teach and the analysis of the complex personal and contextual factors influencing their professional growth. Three research questions were central in this study:

- How, what, and under which circumstances do new teachers learn at work?
- How do novice teachers develop professionally over time and what are the factors that hinder or facilitate their professional growth?
- How and when do new teachers change (or do not change) over time and what are the factors influencing this process?

In order to capture the processual and dynamic nature of professional learning, development and change over time, a longitudinal approach over a two-year period was selected. The study was carried out in 1999-2000 and 2000-2001, in northern Portugal. A total of 14 new teachers participated in the study. The teachers taught a variety of subjects: physics and chemistry (7 teachers), languages (3 teachers), math (1 teacher), biology (1 teacher), physical

education (1 teacher) and music (1 teacher). Nine were female teachers and five were male teachers. Their ages ranged between 22 and 28 years of age. All of them were followed during their first two years of teaching to examine the processes of professional learning, development, and change.

Data were gathered twice a year through semi-structured interviews. All the interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Transcriptions were returned to participants to be checked for accuracy and to have comments and/or supplementary information added. Data about the schools (such as school culture and leadership) were gathered through semi-structured interviews with the principals at the beginning of each academic year and through the administration of a questionnaire to all staff in each of the schools in which the new teachers taught. Pupils' essays were also used to elicit further information on the process of teacher change. Apart from their (formal) annual report (which is compulsory for one-year contract teachers), new teachers were also asked to write a final report on their participation in the study (at the end of their second year of teaching).

The process of data analysis was undertaken according to two phases: (a) a vertical analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994) according to which each of the respondents' interviews was analyzed separately, and (b) a comparative or horizontal analysis, also called cross-case analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In this second phase, a constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) was used to look for common patterns and differences. This process was undertaken iteratively and adjustments in the coding process were made where necessary.

3. Findings

3.1. Challenging Taken-for-granted Assumptions and Beliefs: Adapting to a new context

Two main issues emerged in new teachers' accounts as they described their experience at the beginning of their first year: teaching was more demanding and complex than they thought it would be, and they lacked the knowledge to undertake their new roles at school. They stressed the bureaucratic dimension of teaching, the amount and variety of work that teachers are expected to do, and the external (Ministry of Education) and internal (school) norms regulating the profession. The following quotations illustrate this:

Everything is new I couldn't imagine that teachers were supposed to be involved in so many activities in a school: you have the meetings, the roles to be performed, the minutes, and so on. I had no idea whatsoever ... (NT14, Beginning of Year 1)

It's just too much paperwork. I think as a teacher you have to do loads of unnecessary tasks. And you have to act according to loads of regulations. I think this is not good for the profession I mean, there is too much control, too many regulations and teachers do not have a choice but to follow them ... As a teacher you are not as autonomous as you think you are. (NT8, Beginning of Year 1)

By and large, teachers did not feel well-prepared to undertake all the roles expected from them as full-time teachers. After having undertaken a teaching degree, inclusive of one year of practicum at school, new teachers were expecting to be prepared to assume all the duties required of them. However, the school reality was to bring about a different picture:

Well, I had very idealistic expectations about being a teacher. I thought that teaching wouldn't involve so much work. I thought that you would have a peaceful life, because you wouldn't be expected to do the lesson planning in detail as you are supposed to do during the practicum And I realized that it was the other way round after all! (NT3, Beginning of Year 1)

As a student I thought (and actually it's a common sense idea too) that as a teacher you don't have much to do! I also thought that I would complete my Initial Training knowing everything that I was supposed to teach and I wouldn't need to investigate and study anymore I was wrong, because if I want everything to work, it isn't only about having ideas and mastering the topics, but it's also about organizing things. So, it has been a surprise and a challenge for me There are things that I didn't realize as a student and now as a teacher you realize that they actually make sense. (NT5, Beginning of Year 1)

Implicit in this view is the distinction between 'communities of practice' and 'communities of explanation' drawn by Freeman (1999). He argues that, although teachers participate in a 'community of practice', they belong to different 'communities of explanation'. In other words, what they actually do in the workplace may be interpreted and explained by different frames of reference, a set of shared beliefs and values within a given community (e.g., the former Initial Teacher Training, their prior experiences as students, their social background, and so on).

Added to this was the unexpected lack of teamwork among teachers. Most of them emphasized the distant working relationships among staff, which, once again, related to the discrepancy between 'ideals' and 'real world'; in short, the gap between the student and the teacher perspective. To quote one of them:

I thought that it would be very different, you know You notice a sort of ... distance among teachers ... and this is also the case with the teachers teaching the same subject. And I thought it would be different. I mean, the group of teachers teaching Physics and Chemistry doesn't work as a team. I think that the group could have a different dynamic in terms of work. For instance, at the beginning of the academic year, you could do the planning together ... When I was younger I thought that teachers would have fun in the staff room, and that they would talk to one another all the time, but the reality is quite different. (NT8, Beginning of Year 1)

Overall, the realization of the mismatch between the idealistic expectations of the professional-to-be – developed during the 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975) and the preservice teacher education – and the reality of teaching, has led to a process of challenging personal beliefs, and consequently, of re-learning from practice and/or 'unlearning' the 'unreal theories' acquired at university. Therefore, the need to adapt to the 'real school' was salient in new teachers' accounts as they faced the complex and changing nature of teaching.

Over the last two years I tried to adapt what I learned at university. However, as I stressed several times during the interviews, most of what I have learned does not apply to the school reality. Therefore, I became aware of the need to adapt everything to the 'real school.' (NT6, Final Report, October 2001)

I think that as a teacher you are always changing. I mean, you have to change, there is always something that makes you change... For instance, the meaning of being a teacher is always changing. I mean your idea about what being a teacher is all about is always changing, as there is always something happening in the classroom, and sometimes little things that you don't know how to cope with... and that as a student you don't even think of I mean, you have to relearn in practice. (NT9, End of Year 1)

In other words, starting teaching entails, for new teachers, the process of (re)constructing their professional identities. Not only does it relate to their making sense of their new role at school, which is tied to their own beliefs about teaching and being a teacher, but it is also a context-bound and socially-located process, as earlier work has also demonstrated (Maclure, 1993; Coldron & Smith, 1999). To put it another way, professional identity is shaped by personal biography in so far as it determines the idiosyncratic way in which teachers cope with and respond to the institutional and situational constraints of the profession, as well as to their responsibilities and challenges in the workplace.

3.2. Retreat from idealism versus commitment to teaching and learning

The confrontation with the unexpected complexity of teaching and with the dynamics of schools and classrooms led new teachers to revisit and challenge their initial beliefs about the profession and about being a teacher with implications for their professional identities. By and large, according to teachers' own perceptions, over the two-year period a more inductive and student-centered approach to teaching gave way to a more traditional and teacher-centered one. Most of the new teachers admitted that they adopted a more formal style of teaching as time went on. A recurring pattern was found: lecturing/explaining new topics, students working on their own and assessing their own work, leaving behind issues of flexibility, individuality, and responsiveness which were key elements in their depictions of good teaching at the beginning of their first year of teaching. This trend lends support to earlier work on beginning teachers' instructional practices (see, for instance, Vonk & Schras, 1987; Powell, 1997). As two teachers put it:

I feel a bit frustrated. I think that I am now a more traditional teacher, a teacher who lectures the kids. There are a few moments where I am able to try some experiments and make them reflect on things, but those moments are not very frequent. Basically I lecture them, I make them do some exercises and I assess their work. (NT10, Beginning of Year 2)

Sometimes I forget that I am an educator and I focus on the content to be covered and on the syllabus... Students do not respond to my teaching... and I start to work according to a set of routines and I become a boring teacher... (NT5, Beginning of Year 2)

Problems in dealing with classroom management effectively, along with issues of teacher socialization in the workplace, explained this trend. Most of the new teachers adopted a role of greater leadership and a more traditional approach to teaching owing to their need for 'being in control' of classroom events. The dilemma between providing students with a pleasant learning environment, which was associated with issues of flexibility and responsiveness to their needs, versus keeping order in the classroom, was at the forefront of the teachers' responses:

You have to be very careful with the students, otherwise they go too far. The more you are flexible, the more they cause problems inside the classroom. (NT2, Beginning of Year 2)

I think that sometimes classes go wrong ... because of my trying hard to have a better relationship with them [students]; sometimes they go too far and I get upset for letting them go that far. (NT10, Beginning of Year 1)

It is worth noting that, in addition to classroom management issues, the emergence of a more teacher-centered approach to teaching was also associated with situational constraints in the workplace (such as lack of equipment and scarcity of resources) and structural factors affecting the teaching profession (long syllabi, time pressure to complete them and national requirements in terms of curriculum delivery and assessment). The shift from a more 'constructivist' towards a more traditional way of teaching was also accompanied by an increased focus on the output rather than on the process.

'I now think that students' outcomes are very important in defining the goodness of my teaching. My goal is that my students are able to learn in order to achieve better marks'. (NT13, Beginning of Year 2)

Overall, teachers held clear ideas and firm beliefs about who they wanted to become as teachers, and what kind of teaching they wanted to provide to their students. By and large, the metaphors of the teacher as an educator, a facilitator, a model, a guide and a friend were reiterated throughout their accounts of their (ideal) role as teachers. Similarly, good teaching related to student motivation and engagement in classroom activities. These images were pretty similar to those depicted at the beginning of their first year of teaching. The reasons for the enduring effect of these beliefs are to be found in a number of factors. However, the importance of the 'anticipatory socialization' (Zeichner & Gore, 1990) should not be underestimated. Indeed, they were strong about the influence of their prior experiences as pupils, and especially of former teachers, on their understanding of teaching and who they wanted to be as teachers. This provides support to research on biography as an important factor in shaping teachers' thinking and practices and, consequently, in defining teacher role identity (see, for instance, Knowles, 1992). To quote one teacher:

'When you are teaching you always remember your own experience as a student. You remember that you used to be there where your students are now.' (NT14, Beginning of Year 1).

Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that some of them reported on the way in which their beliefs and views of teaching and being a teacher were challenged and revisited as a consequence of their making sense of the 'real world' of teaching in two different contexts. In fact, it is possible to identify a contradiction between what it is and what it should be. When they described the teacher's role and good teaching, issues of flexibility, care, responsiveness to students' learning needs, and the use of a variety of methods were recurring features. However, according to teachers themselves, the way they taught went against the ideal beliefs they initially held. Embedded in their practices and in their understanding of their job was a dilemma, which is clearly highlighted by one teacher:

Sometimes I am not what I want to be as a teacher or what I think I want to be as a teacher (NT5, Beginning of Year 2)

Implicit in this tension is what Keddie (1971) terms the educationist and the teacher contexts, the former being related to 'how things ought to be', the latter being described as 'the world of is' (p. 135, original emphasis). In other words, teachers' views as educationists may be contradicted in their practices as teachers. The following extracts provide evidence of the conflict between one's own image of good teaching and actual practice:

In ideological terms, I still keep my initial ideas about teaching, but I start realizing that if I try to put them into practice, they don't work, and I end up doing what works in practice (NT5, End of Year 2)

When I was a student teacher I had a positive view of teaching and that things could be improved. Now I start understanding and getting used to ... the system so to speak. I mean, teachers have loads of work to do, especially when it comes to marking and assessing students ... and they don't want to fill in loads of forms and other paperwork You can have a different way of seeing things but you end up carrying on like most of them [teachers]; you think 'Other people do that—why shouldn't I do that as well? Why should I bother? Why should I have to do loads of work?' I know that this is wrong, but consciously or unconsciously you start thinking the same way, or at least you start acting the same way (NT14, End of Year 2)

It seems that teachers compromised their beliefs about what they saw as good teaching and they started to do 'what works' in practice. In addition, they became socialized into the ethos of teaching, and consequently, they started to comply with the 'ways of doing things' at school. The shift from more innovative approaches to teaching toward more teacher-centered ones was also accompanied by a growing focus on outcomes as a result of teacher socialization in the workplace. Most of the teachers reported on the way in which they became socialized into the school culture by adopting its norms and values. Conservatism and compliance emerged in their accounts, replacing their initial enthusiasm and, in a sense, their proactive attitude. This shift was described as a gradual process as they got to know the way in which schools, and their colleagues, operated. Individualism, low morale, and the excessive bureaucracy within teaching were recurring themes referred to by teachers to account for the loss of idealism, the emergence of routines, and the sense of 'giving up':

Maybe I am getting a bit more used to the system I mean, now I don't try to change anything; there is no point in doing that. The school is the way it is, you have to get used to it ... (NT8, End of Year 2)

An increasingly negative depiction of teaching as a profession was emphasized in most cases, giving rise to feelings of frustration and disappointment. Teachers reiterated issues such as the complexity, diversity, and demanding nature of teaching and its bureaucratic and changing dimension.

The discouragement is getting greater I have never thought that teaching would involve so much bureaucracy; you are always caught in the middle of something that you don't know ... (NT10, Final Report, October, 2001)

As this teacher clearly stated, issues of accountability, public scrutiny and control over teachers and teaching were key elements in the process of changing, or at least challenging, their views of the profession and of themselves as teachers. This view was corroborated by other participants who also stressed the pressure and high demands placed upon teachers and, therefore, the complexity of their work:

'I have never thought that teaching would be so demanding. I think people expect too much from teachers. They are a sort of scapegoat for what goes wrong in schools. Whenever something doesn't work, it is the teacher's fault, and this comes especially from your own school and from the community. Teachers are expected to do more and more...' (NT3, Final Report, October 2001)

However, not all of the teachers followed these patterns. Two of them – in one case despite the negative perception of school culture and leadership – maintained their enthusiasm and optimism. Interestingly, both had given intrinsic motivations for entering teaching: a strong personal choice to become a teacher and the willingness to work with children. They stated that they were still committed to teaching as a career in which they assumed they could make a positive contribution, especially for the benefit of their students. The need to adapt to different contexts and to become more flexible in teaching according to the students' own pace and learning needs were key issues in their accounts:

Despite everything, my self-motivation is still there, although I experience more and more difficulties. But I think that improvement is possible; you can't create an idealistic idea and stick to that idea for good. I mean, you have to adapt to different contexts I would like to give my best, but I realize that it doesn't depend only on myself wanting that change to happen. But I know that I can change something for my students and I can see the result of my trying hard... there are good things in teaching, ... there is a positive perspective in teaching despite the huge number of things that work against you That's what I usually say: 'I came to this profession because I wanted to become a teacher' (NT11, End of Year 2)

Interestingly, two other teachers seem to have 'recovered' their lost idealism and optimism during their second year of teaching. They emphasized that the less positive experience of their first year of teaching (and of their practicum) led them to feelings of disenchantment and disappointment. Teaching in a different context, however, was a very positive and rewarding experience, due especially

to student motivation, commitment, and achievement, along with positive perceptions of school culture:

The idea that I had before entering teaching has changed. During practicum and last year, I got this idea that all students lack motivation and commitment to learning. But this year I had a different experience. I came across students who were keen on learning and this has a positive influence on the way I worked They make you act in a certain way. You have such and such an attitude because of your students, because of the way they react in the classroom (NT13, End of Year 2)

And later on she stated:

My second year of teaching was a very positive experience The supportive atmosphere existing in the school (among teachers, between teachers and support staff, and between students and teachers) was also very important and made me believe again in teaching as a very rewarding job. (NT13, Final Report, October 2001).

These findings corroborate Zeichner and Tabachnick's (1985) study, which demonstrated that induction into teaching does not necessarily lead to a loss of idealism. This was the case of four teachers, two of whom, although they admitted having experienced a less positive first year, referred to a 'recovery' of their original ideals. While in the case of the vast majority of the participants (10 out of 14), the widespread loss of idealism and increasing compliance, which much of the literature on new teachers describes (Veenman, 1984; Olson & Osborne, 1991; Huberman, 1991; Silva, 1997; Alves, 2001), does apply, four teachers revealed a sustained commitment to teaching and learning. Personal and contextual factors may account for this, such as intrinsic motivation to become a teacher (stressed by two teachers), high morale (referred to by two teachers), commitment and willingness to 'make a difference' in students' lives (emphasized by two teachers), and supportive school cultures and encouraging leadership (stressed by three teachers). As they highlighted in their accounts, they were still enthusiastic about being a teacher at the end of their second year of teaching.

4. Conclusions and Implications

This study has demonstrated that the process whereby teachers altered their attitudes to, and their practices and views of teaching was complex and dependent upon the interplay of idiosyncratic and contextual factors. Alongside the mediating influence of school culture and leadership was the effect of personal biographies, which accounted for both similarities and differences among teachers who were enthusiastic and committed to teaching and learning, and those who adopted a more compliant and 'giving up' attitude.

By and large, over the two-year period a more inductive and student-centered approach to teaching gave way to a more traditional and teacher-centered one. Most of the new teachers admitted that they adopted a more formal style of teaching as time went on. Most of them adopted a role of greater leadership and

a more traditional approach to teaching owing to their need for 'being in control' of classroom events. The increase of written work, blackboard and textbook use, alongside the decrease in the variety of activities (such as experiments, games or group work) reflected this general pattern. However, four teachers (out of 14) seemed to have become more flexible in their teaching and more responsive to students' learning needs and to have displayed a more caring attitude towards them. Student motivation and achievement, along with a greater knowledge of the context and of the students, which was made possible by a supportive atmosphere at school, accounted for their commitment and positive attitude. Issues of responsiveness to students' learning needs, care, flexibility, and the use of a variety of teaching methods were stressed. While in the case of the vast majority of the participants (10 out of 14), the widespread loss of idealism and increasing compliance, which much of the literature on new teachers describes, does apply, four teachers revealed a sustained commitment to teaching and learning. Personal and contextual factors may account for this, such as intrinsic motivation to become a teacher (stressed by two teachers), high morale (referred to by two teachers), commitment and willingness to 'make a difference' in students' lives (emphasized by two teachers), and supportive school cultures and encouraging leadership (stressed by three teachers).

How teachers learn and what they learn may affect what and how they change with implications for their professional development. How they change (or do not change) and in what way they do so may influence their learning and professional growth throughout their careers. This is even more crucial during the early years of teaching for, as Fullan (1993) states, 'learning is critical for the beginning teacher because of its formative timing' (p. 15). Schools, therefore, need to provide new entrants to the profession with a kind of systematic assistance and guidance which help them to deal with day-to-day difficulties inherent in teaching, fostering at the same time their professional growth through reflection. As for the strategies being put into place to provide new teachers with support and guidance, they vary and may include workshops, classroom observation, seminars, regular meetings with mentors, or provision of teaching material (Marcelo, 1988; Wilson and D'Arcy, 1987; Wubbels, Créton and Hooymayers, 1987). However, a central element in induction programs is the existence of a teacher-mentor at the school where new teachers work (Huling-Austin, 1990). Regardless of the broader or narrower view of the definition, mentors are usually more experienced colleagues who are responsible for providing help, directly or indirectly, to beginning teachers (Bolam, 1995). Their role may include giving general information, observe classrooms and feedback, promoting and engaging in discussion groups, providing liaison with other staff, Local Education Authorities or university, evaluating new teachers' performance, and locating materials (Huling-Austin, 1990; Marcelo, 1994; Bolam, 1995). Personal and moral support is also identified as being an important element in mentors' work (Ballantyne, Hansford and Packer, 1995). Without any guidance new teachers may enter a process of unlearn or relearn in practice affecting their sense of professional identity most of the times towards a more traditional and conservative perspective (Flores, 2005; Flores and Day, 2006). Fullan (1993, p. 106) also contends that 'induction programs to support beginning teachers are still very much in the minority, and good ones are rare, despite our very clear knowledge of needs of beginning teachers'.

Although it has been recognized as an important phase of the teacher's career, with long-term implications for teacher learning and professional development (see the Ministry of Education regulations about Teacher Education), neither the institutions of Higher Education nor the Teachers' Centers have organized specific activities for beginning teachers so far in the Portuguese context. In other words, induction has not been a priority both at a political and at an institutional level. Schools and teachers also do not recognize the importance and the intense formative process beginning teachers go through when they enter the teaching profession (Flores, 2004b). Indeed, school leaders and teachers do not see support and guidance of new teachers as being part of their role at the workplace (this is particularly the case of teachers playing a coordinating role). Such views are however valued in the context of supervision (e.g. teaching practice and internship) of trainees (which have specific purposes different from induction). Apart from this, support to new teachers is rather scarce depending on the initiative of the new entrant to the profession in looking for help and assistance at school or elsewhere (see Flores, 2000, 2004a).

In Portugal, references to induction do exist in policy documents. Overall, it has been recognized as a key element in linking Initial Teacher Training and In-service Teacher Education by promoting collaborative professional learning opportunities in the workplace (Campos, 1995; Pacheco and Flores, 1999) within a career-long view of professional development (Flores, 2000). For instance, in the legal document regulating teacher education, issued in 1989, induction is already mentioned. Induction is also subject of attention in the Teacher Career Statute issued in 1990, but so far it has not been a priority of the government in terms of its regulation.

In a recent review of the Teacher Career Statute, issued in 2007, profound changes are introduced with implications for the teaching career, namely the existence of a "probationary year" (in order to verify the abilities of the new teacher regarding the requirements of the profession). New entrants are to be accompanied by a senior teacher with specialized training in educational organization and curriculum development, pedagogical supervision and teacher training.

However (and in clear contrast with evidence from empirical work), up until now, induction programs have not yet been put into practice in Portugal. Campos (1995) stresses the geographical distance between teachers' workplaces and corresponding teacher education institution as one of the main obstacles. Added to this are issues related to the training of mentors and the financial support that such programs would involve.

A collaborative strategy, through partnerships, between universities and schools appears as a way of overcoming the practical and situational constraints related to the implementation of induction programs. Nevertheless, a political decision also needs to be made through the formal recognition of an induction program for all entrants to teaching. As Esteves (2006, p.155) stresses: 'After Initial Teacher Training, the career entry needs to be supported by an induction period which needs to be organized in a formative way. Being established in the law, the induction period has never been put into practice, although the wide number of empirical studies which have emphasized its relevance'.

Evidence from existing research points to a number of key issues which need to be taken into account if meaningful induction programs are to be provided with implications for school leaders, teacher educators, policy makers and mentors. Flores (2006a) identifies, among others, the following: i) the need to give more attention to the training of mentors and school leaders. Different needs for different teachers in different contexts exist with implications for the type of support strategies and professional development opportunities provided to teachers, especially in the early years of teaching, and ii) the need to invest more in the induction period and to rethink the role of teacher educators and universities in the preparation of teachers (the first phase of their career-long professional development) and in fostering the kinds of partnerships with schools conducive to a collaborative engagement to enhance the potential of both institutions, through reflection and research bringing together teacher educators, mentors, and teachers. Other suggestions may be added: iii) a need for policymakers, teacher educators, in-service courses providers and school leaders to recognize the intense and crucial process of learning occurring in the early years of teaching (especially if new entrants to teaching have to move from one school to another, as in the case of Portuguese newly qualified teachers) and to provide support and meaningful opportunities for professional growth. Induction may be indeed the bridge linking Initial Teacher Training and In-service Teacher Education; iv) the idea that induction and mentoring are complex and broad processes. They need to reflect the personal and professional needs of the participants but also the contexts in which they work. Thus diversity and adequacy are key issues in defining the strategies within the induction period and in defining the role of the mentor; v) the need to overcome the paradox of recognizing the importance of the teachers for enhancing the quality of teaching and learning and, at the same time, the lack of interest (especially from a political and institutional point of view) in investing in them (in their continuing professional development, including the induction period). Thus informed (and clear) decisions need to be made in this sense in order to articulate policy, research and practice as far as induction is concerned.

Overall, an induction policy needs to be framed and organized within a broad perspective of professional development of teachers (Day, 1999) for the mentoring relationship contributes to the professional development of both the mentor and the beginning teacher, as it boosts the quality of their professional practice (Vonk, 1993). It needs to go beyond the mere practical advice and socialization process whereby new entrants become members of a given professional culture, to include opportunities for self-questioning and reflection not only upon teachers' own practice, but also upon the values and norms underlying the educational settings in which they work. Importantly, Tickle (2000) argues for a 're-conceptualization' of induction. He advocates a perspective of induction which acknowledges the potential of new teachers in making a contribution to the education of students if they are empowered themselves. Ignoring that the beginning teacher faces difficulties when he/she assumes full responsibility as a teacher and that he/she is in a crucial learning period of his/her career may be seen as an unrealistic optimism (Huling-Austin, 1992) from those who have responsibilities in teacher education.

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Vers un nouveau modèle de littératie des politiques linguistiques (PL)^{xxiii} pour les communautés linguistiques minoritaires

Dr Sylvie Gagnon¹

¹Université de Canterbury – Nouvelle-Zélande
Sylvie.gagnon@canterbury.ac.nz

Résumé

Un nouveau modèle de littératie pour l'enseignement des politiques linguistiques (PL) s'impose alors que la question de la vitalité linguistique des langues minoritaires se pose dans le contexte de la compréhension des modèles relationnels entre langues majoritaires et minoritaires. La solution au problème de la vitalité s'articule en deux étapes : a) comprendre les problèmes soulevés par une approche sociolinguistique des PL ne tenant pas compte des idéologies et attitudes linguistiques caractérisant les communautés ; b) dévoiler les idéologies et attitudes linguistiques sous-tendant les rapports entre les langues. Les langues minoritaires européennes seront examinées suivant la méthodologie de l'écologie linguistique définie et théorisée par Haugen (1972), Garner (2005) et Mühlausser (1997, 2000, 2006), ainsi que le prisme des idéologies linguistiques analysées par Silverstein (1979) et Dorian (1993, 1994, 1998). Cette analyse permettra de proposer un modèle de littératie des PL tenant compte du phénomène de décalage des attitudes et idéologies.

Mots clés : langues minoritaires – langues majoritaires – planification linguistique – attitudes linguistiques.

1. Introduction

L'enseignement des politiques linguistiques (PL) dans un contexte où la vitalité des minorités linguistiques est le centre des préoccupations^{xxiv} met particulièrement en évidence le besoin d'une réflexion sur les modèles de littératie en vigueur dans ce domaine, car la vitalité des langues est intimement liée à leur environnement et les PL, partie prenante de cet environnement, revêtent une valeur symbolique particulière; il ne faut donc pas négliger l'importance de leur influence sur les attitudes linguistiques des communautés où les langues sont en minorité ou en déclin, surtout que la sociolinguistique et la psychologie sociale ont établi l'impact des attitudes linguistiques sur cette vitalité. Pourtant, bien que l'importance de ce facteur ait été établie, le lien entre

^{xxiii} Les politiques linguistiques sont constituées « par un ensemble de décisions qui peuvent se prendre à plusieurs niveaux de l'organisation sociale : Etat, entreprise, organisation, groupe, etc. Elle se réfère à l'ensemble des orientations, implicites ou explicites, prises par une autorité politique, ou par d'autres acteurs sociaux ayant pour but ou pour effet de régir l'usage des langues au sein d'espace social donné ». (Loubier 2008)

^{xxiv} C'est notamment le cas des politiques linguistiques les plus récentes mises de l'avant par l'UE dans la Charte des langues régionales et minoritaires européennes.

attitudes linguistiques et PL n'a pas encore été examiné et reste de ce fait, incompris. Le développement d'un modèle de littératie des PL tenant compte de cette interdépendance est donc nécessaire pour engendrer l'effet souhaité sur la vitalité linguistique des langues visées.

Le développement d'un tel modèle est ardu car il remet en question des attitudes profondément ancrées dans la psyché des populations et s'attaque aux types de relations habituellement entretenues entre langues majoritaires et minoritaires. Il en suppose également une redéfinition et cet exercice de remodelage de la littératie des PL exige cadre de référence différent et, surtout, élargi. L'écologie linguistique développée par Haugen (1972) et Mühlhauser (1997, 2000, 2006), satisfait aux exigences de renouveau de ces modèles. Elle permet en effet d'étudier l'interaction des idéologies (Silverstein 1972, Dorian 1994, 1998), attitudes linguistiques et PL, et contribue à préciser les mécanismes de la vitalité des langues. Dans ce cadre interactif, seront donc posés les fondements d'une littératie des PL, dont le cœur sera la promotion de la diversité linguistique plutôt que la hiérarchisation des langues.

2. Enseigner les PL dans le cadre sociolinguistique

Les modèles de politiques linguistiques (PL) sont généralement enseignés dans le cadre d'une sociolinguistique présupposant l'existence inévitable de la compétition entre les langues^{xxv} là où le multilinguisme existe (Leclerc 2001)^{xxvi}. Cette conception de l'interaction linguistique sert de base aux PL qui permettent, soit de rétablir l'équilibre entre les langues, soit de confirmer la domination d'une langue sur les autres. Dans ce cadre d'analyse, les sociolinguistes sont la plupart du temps confinés à un rôle d'observation de l'évolution ou des effets des PL sur les langues visés, et les PL sont revues ou critiquées, seulement lorsque les PL visent l'assimilation active ou violente (dans le cas de la Turquie contre le kurde, par exemple)^{xxvii}.

2.1 Enseigner les PL dans l'UE

La conception de la cohabitation compétitive des langues et de leur étude, évoquée ci-dessus, convient à la vision hiérarchisée de l'interaction entre les langues qui a été privilégiée en Europe, à partir du XVIIIe siècle et a entraîné l'uniformisation linguistique de nombreux pays européens et, par le fait même, la minorisation et le déclin de nombreuses langues. Ce modèle de contact linguistique n'est cependant pas le seul possible : la France pré-révolutionnaire

^{xxv} Une des conséquences principales de la compétition linguistique est la constitution de langues dominantes et de langues dominées, mais aussi de langues minorisées ou minoritaires, un statut qui, à long terme, signifie, pour de nombreuses langues, la disparition.

^{xxvi} « Dans la plupart des pays ou États, existent des tensions linguistiques, des luttes de préséance et un climat de compétition permanente entre les langues » (Leclerc 2001).

^{xxvii} On parlera alors d'interventionnisme sociolinguistique.

était caractérisée par la cohabitation de nombreuses langues et dialectes^{xxviii}, tandis que d'autres régions du monde vivent encore aujourd'hui au rythme d'un multilinguisme que les Européens auraient du mal à imaginer (les centaines de langues mélanésiennes, par exemple).

L'Europe, cependant, après une longue période axée sur l'unification linguistique, a amorcé un changement d'attitude à l'égard des minorités linguistiques, d'abord par la *Déclaration universelle des droits de l'homme* de 1948. Le texte le plus important à cet égard est celui de la résolution n° 9 du *Pacte international relatif aux droits civils et politiques* de 1966, stipulant que :

Article 25

Dans les États où il existe des minorités ethniques, religieuses ou linguistiques, les personnes appartenant à ces minorités ne peuvent être privées du droit d'avoir, en commun avec les autres membres de leur groupe, leur propre vie culturelle, de professer et de pratiquer leur propre religion ou d'employer leur propre langue. (Leclerc, 2006)

Ce pacte a mené au développement du droit linguistique et des revendications des minorités linguistiques, mais c'est surtout l'adoption de la Charte européenne, le 16 mars 1988, qui établit une série de principes communs pour la reconnaissance des langues régionales visant leur respect et la prohibition de toute forme de discrimination linguistique, de même que l'affirmation des obligations positives des États à leur égard en matière d'enseignement et d'échanges culturels. Sa portée demeure limitée car aucun mécanisme international de sanction n'existe en cas de violation, mais ce texte marque tout de même une modification notable de la manière de voir les relations entre langues minoritaires, régionales ou majoritaires et nationales ou officielles (Leclerc 2006).

De nombreux pays européens ont salué l'avènement de la Charte mais peu ont pris toute la mesure du bouleversement de la conception des contacts entre les langues et des effets sur les PL qu'elle présume. Son application suppose en fait une transformation profonde de la conception des rapports entre les langues, exigeant l'adaptation des PL européennes aux buts de préservation de la Charte. Cet ajustement des PL exige que soit substituée aux politiques explicites ou implicites de valorisation d'une langue dominante la promotion de la vitalité linguistique des langues régionales et minoritaires. Ce changement dans la vision des PL, qui semble mineur en apparence, nécessite en fait un nouveau cadre d'analyse, que fournit l'écologie linguistique, conçue par Haugen (1972), théorisée par Garner (2005) et développée par Mühläusler (1997, 2000, 2006), car elle place la protection de la diversité et l'étude de l'interaction linguistique au cœur de ses préoccupations.

^{xxviii} D'ailleurs, le terme « dialecte » était souvent lui-même utilisé pour minimiser l'importance du statut d'une langue.

3. Écologie et environnement linguistiques

Haugen (1972) définit l'écologie linguistique comme « the study of interaction of any given language and its environment »^{xxix} (cité dans Garner, 2005 : p. 91) pour pouvoir tenir compte d'un plus grand nombre de facteurs interagissant avec la langue^{xxx}. Les idées de Haugen sur l'interaction de la langue et de son environnement ont été théorisées par Garner (2005), qui résume ainsi les quatre principes de l'écologie linguistique s'inspirant de la pensée écologique moderne : a) elle a trait à des phénomènes holistiques ; b) elle s'intéresse aux phénomènes dynamiques ; c) elle se penche sur des phénomènes interactifs et d) des phénomènes ancrés, afin de favoriser l'étude de l'interaction de nombreux facteurs environnementaux. Cet élargissement du cadre de référence permet à Mühlhäusler (2006) d'attirer l'attention sur les modèles d'interaction linguistique de nombreuses sociétés traditionnelles, où langues minoritaires et langues majoritaires coexistent pacifiquement (1997 : p. 6), ce qui lui permet de remettre la diversité linguistique au cœur des préoccupations de l'écologie linguistique et, par le fait même, la protection et la promotion des langues minoritaires (Mühlhäusler 2000 : p.306). Aussitôt que la diversité linguistique devient la priorité de l'étude des langues en contact, il devient évident que la compréhension des facteurs ayant un effet sur le maintien de cette diversité (ibid. : p. 306) est loin d'être satisfaisante. C'est notamment le cas de l'influence des PL, qui font partie de l'environnement linguistique des langues minoritaires, mais dont le rôle (ibid. : 2000 : 306) n'a pas encore été établi avec certitude. Les sections suivantes tenteront de le saisir, en relation avec les attitudes et idéologies linguistiques.

3.1 Comprendre les attitudes linguistiques dans un contexte écologique

Un des facteurs environnementaux d'importance pour le maintien des langues, les attitudes linguistiques, a déjà été identifié par la sociolinguistique et la psychologie sociale, qui ont déjà remarqué que le processus de déclin d'une langue peut devenir irréversible en raison des attitudes négatives des héritiers de l'idiome, qui refusent d'apprendre la langue ancestrale (attitude négative). Noter et décrire ces attitudes, ainsi que le font les sociolinguistes la plupart du temps, ne permet cependant pas de renverser le processus de déclin. Pour y arriver, la compréhension des attitudes linguistiques^{xxxi} et de leur interaction

^{xxix} Il ne sera pas inutile d'y ajouter la nuance de Calvet (1999), pour qui l'écologie des langues étudie non seulement les « rapports entre les langues et leur milieu, [mais aussi] les rapports entre les langues elles-mêmes, puis entre ces langues et la société » (p. 17).

^{xxx} En sociolinguistique, les paramètres d'étude privilégiés sont l'âge, le sexe et la classe sociale.

^{xxxi} Edwards (1984 : p. 295) a une vision différente du rôle de l'attitude linguistique dans le déclin des langues, qui ne peut être traitée dans le cadre de cet article. Le point de vue exprimé dans ce texte sur les attitudes linguistiques s'inspire des découvertes des années soixante en psychologie sociale, notamment l'étude de Lambert et al. (1960), qui en est sans doute l'exemple le plus célèbre. En effet, cette étude et sa méthodologie, répétée et raffinée par ses continuateurs, ont établi, par exemple, que:

avec les idéologies linguistiques (IL) est nécessaire. Elle permet en outre de mieux cerner comment les PL peuvent jouer un rôle plus important dans le maintien des langues en déclin.

3.1.1 Idéologies et attitudes linguistiques

Le recours à l'idéologie linguistique (IL) pour comprendre l'attitude linguistique et son influence sur la vigueur d'une langue minoritaire et ses rapports avec une langue dominante est d'origine très récente. Ce concept combine les idées de l'ethnographie linguistique ainsi que de la perspective socio scientifique (Blommaert 2006), et son influence sur la linguistique est de plus en plus marquée en dépit de la variété des acceptions accolées au terme *idéologie*, dont l'ambiguïté sémantique n'est plus à démontrer^{xxxii}. En relation avec la vitalité linguistique l'idéologie est généralement définie comme la couche la plus profonde de la culture d'une société^{xxxiii} et elle permet de poser un regard plus nuancé sur les attitudes linguistiques et la vitalité des langues en relation avec les PL.

Comme beaucoup d'autres idéologies, les IL se caractérisent par un ancrage si profond dans la psyché des individus qu'elles sont vues comme « allant de soi », naturelles et rationnelles. Silverstein (1979), qui est largement responsable du développement de ce champ d'étude en domaine d'intérêt indépendant, en propose la définition suivante, largement utilisée, selon laquelle les idéologies seraient des « sets of beliefs about languages articulated by users as a rationalisation or justification of perceived language structure and use » (1979 : p. 193). Cette définition des IL permet d'inclure les attitudes linguistiques dans un schéma explicatif tenant compte de l'évolution des croyances à l'égard des langues^{xxxiv} et donne ainsi tout leur sens aux attitudes linguistiques relevées dans les communautés linguistiques. Dorian (1998), par exemple, note le comportement des membres de communautés linguistiques minoritaires qui se distancient souvent de leur langue ancestrale :

[I]t's fairly common for a language [...] that its own potential speakers prefer to distance themselves from it and adopt some other languages. (1998: p. 3).

formal and informal attitudes studies carried out in language contact situations over the past forty years have shown a recurrent pattern [...] of the social and linguistic evaluations by and of speakers and their linguistic varieties : the majority language/variety and its speakers tend to evoke [...] negative institutional reactions, (e.g., 'poor, uneducated') to the minority variety. (Wölck 2004)

^{xxxii} Lorsqu'associée au marxisme, l'idéologie sera considérée comme une perception distordue de la réalité existant dans un contexte de lutte pour la domination politique. L'idéologie de Bourdieu insiste quant à elle sur la normalisation des idéologies hégémoniques (habitus)

^{xxxiii} Schiffman (1997), par exemple, préfère le terme plus neutre de « culture linguistique ».

^{xxxiv} Au contraire de la sociolinguistique, où la situation des langues en déclin est décrite (parfois avec perplexité, parfois avec une irritation proche de l'exaspération) comme un comportement paradoxal : les membres des communautés où une langue est en déclin reconnaissent ouvertement la valeur culturelle de leur langue, tout en refusant de l'apprendre ou de la faire apprendre à leurs enfants (Hoare 1998).

La linguiste va cependant plus loin que la simple description et cherche dans l'influence séculaire des idéologies linguistiques à l'égard des langues non-dominantes, une explication aux attitudes linguistiques qu'elle a remarquées. Ainsi, en Europe, après plusieurs siècles de diversité linguistique, l'auteur explique que la montée des nationalismes a coïncidé avec l'apparition d'attitudes linguistiques moins tolérantes à l'égard des langues « subordonnées » (Dorian 1998 : p.5). L'industrialisation a eu un effet semblable :

In industrial societies, [...] conditions are quite different. Industrial means of production require universal literacy and numerical skills such that individuals can communicate immediately and effectively with people previously unknown to them. Forms of communication must therefore be standardized and able to operate free of local or personal context. (ibid., p. 6)

Elle s'attache ensuite à identifier les idéologies linguistiques ayant eu un effet néfaste sur la diversité linguistique européenne, soit a) la croyance en la supériorité de certaines langues (ibid., p.8) ; b) l'existence d'un darwinisme linguistique voulant que les langues les plus « faibles » soient éliminées par les langues les plus fortes (ibid., p.10) ; c) la condamnation du bilinguisme en raison de ses coûts^{xxxv} (surtout dans les pays anglo-saxons)^{xxxvi}. L'influence combinée de ces facteurs, conclut-elle, « are heavy weights for small populations in particular to cast off, and few have so far been able to do so » (ibid., p. 12).

Ces idéologies se nourrissent des convictions de l'époque voulant que certaines langues soient plus à même d'exprimer des pensées sophistiquées, un schéma de pensée perpétuant jusqu'à un certain point les croyances en l'origine divine de certaines langues, qui n'ont pas survécu à la découverte de la filiation linguistique ainsi que de la capacité de toutes les langues à exprimer adéquatement toutes les finesses de la pensée humaine (Trudgill 1983 : p. 205, dans Grillo 1989 : p. 173). Cette idéologie de la supériorité de certaines langues sur d'autres, dont les linguistes ont démontré la fausseté, reste cependant ancrée dans l'esprit de nombreux locuteurs de langues dominantes et dominées.

Le darwinisme linguistique est quant à lui particulièrement commode quand il s'agit de blâmer le déclin des langues subordonnées sur leurs propres faiblesses, car il permet aussi aux locuteurs des langues dominantes d'avoir la conscience tranquille. Finalement, l'argument économique, simpliste, rejetant le bilinguisme, doit se mesurer à l'aune des découvertes récentes montrant les nombreux bienfaits sociaux et psychologiques du bilinguisme, qui ne reçoivent peut-être pas toute l'attention qu'elles devraient.

^{xxxv} Particulièrement si le bilinguisme inclut une langue minoritaire. Le bilinguisme permettant d'acquérir une langue « internationale » est généralement mieux vu.

^{xxxvi} Edwards en est un bon exemple : « Historically, the evidence shows little tolerance or concern for minority matters at all and as we should expect, such a stance is still prevalent in many quarters. » (1984 : p. 295)

4. L'idéologie linguistique dans les PL

Les idéologies linguistiques d'une époque révolue se repèrent facilement dans les PL. Ainsi, l'idéologie ayant causé la quasi-disparition du gallois de la Grande-Bretagne saute aux yeux dans les propos de Leclerc (2007) :

Au pays de Galles, les autorités britanniques comprirent qu'il leur fallait intervenir énergiquement pour faire disparaître le gallois, source du nationalisme indigène. Or, au moins 88 % de la population du pays de Galles s'exprimait en gallois, ce qui empêchait les Anglais d'en faire de «bons sujets loyaux de Sa Majestés». Le gouvernement envoya des commissaires unilingues anglais dans les régions galloises, qui devaient trouver des «preuves» au primitivisme et à l'ignorance des «indigènes». L'une des conclusions du rapport révélait que la langue galloise constituait une «barrière» au progrès social du peuple gallois:

Le langue galloise dessert considérablement le pays de Galles et constitue une barrière complexe au progrès moral et à la prospérité commerciale du peuple [...]. À cause de sa langue, la masse du peuple gallois est inférieure au peuple anglais dans tous les domaines du savoir pratique et technique.

Le rapport permit aux autorités de trouver les motifs qu'elles cherchaient pour élaborer **une politique d'enseignement obligatoire de l'anglais**, afin d'assimiler entièrement la société galloise. **En fonction de cette politique, la langue galloise fut interdite dans les écoles, et les enfants surpris à parler leur langue maternelle furent systématiquement punis et humiliés. Ces mesures furent appliquées durant de nombreuses générations en même temps que l'immigration massive d'Anglais venait minoriser les Gallois dans leur propre pays**^{xxxvii}

Tel que prévu, la perte de la langue galloise conduisit à la quasi-disparition de la conscience nationale, alors que des groupes entiers de la société, surtout bourgeoise, changèrent d'allégeance pour adopter la langue et les coutumes anglaises. (Leclerc 2007)

En Italie, les langues locales issues du latin (comme l'italien standard) se sont développées en dehors de toute intervention politique pendant longtemps: le piémontais, le sicilien, le vénitien, le lombard, l'émilien, le napolitain, le romagnol, l'istriien, le toscan, le corse (en Corse), le calabrien, le lucanien, l'abruzzien, etc. L'unification de l'Italie a ensuite été marquée par un changement de perception de ces langues, étiquetées péjorativement de «dialectes» à partir de ce moment-là, c'est-à-dire de parlers inférieurs, indignes d'être employés et transmis par une grande nation comme l'Italie. Ces parlers ayant la même origine que les langues romanes officielles (italien, espagnol, portugais, français, etc.), ils ne peuvent pourtant être plus corrompus que la langue de l'État. Les campagnes de dépréciation de ces langues ont tout de même eu l'effet de subordonner ces langues à la langue officielle (Ibid.).

Les cas mentionnés ci-dessus illustrent l'idéologie linguistique ayant dominé l'Europe pendant des siècles, dont on s'accorde à dire qu'elle est maintenant révolue. Son héritage, cependant, se fait encore douloureusement sentir dans sa perpétuation plus ou moins consciente dans les PL, qui n'ont pas encore pris toute la mesure de leur rôle et de leur influence sur les langues minoritaires, dont plusieurs sont maintenant dans une situation critique.

^{xxxvii} Les caractères gras sont de nous.

5. Résultats : Le phénomène de décalage dans les attitudes et les idéologies linguistiques et ses conséquences sur les PL

L'établissement de la Charte européenne des langues régionales et minoritaires illustre le désir de l'Europe de concevoir des rapports différents entre les langues de son territoire en exprimant une sympathie certaine pour les langues minoritaires et régionales. Cette volonté affirmée de l'Europe s'est traduite avec plus ou moins d'enthousiasme dans les PL des États, mais les enjeux de la survie de ces langues n'ayant pas encore été pleinement saisis, les PL ne peuvent toujours pas porter fruit. Cette incompréhension est sans doute liée à plusieurs facteurs, dont l'un d'entre eux, le phénomène de décalage, particulièrement méconnu et incompris, semble particulièrement important pour les PL et la vitalité linguistique des langues en déclin.

Les PL ne tiennent en effet pas suffisamment compte du phénomène de décalage associé tant au phénomène d'unification linguistique qu'à celui de déclin et de revitalisation. Ce phénomène explique, par exemple, que la volonté d'unification linguistique d'un pays ne se traduit pas par une transformation immédiate des habitudes linguistiques des communautés visées. L'unification ne devient réalité que plusieurs générations après la mise en place des PL la promouvant^{xxxviii}. Au Pays de Galles, par exemple, la promulgation de l'enseignement obligatoire de l'anglais au dix-neuvième siècle n'a obtenu les effets désirés qu'au milieu du vingtième siècle. En effet, en 1891, le gallois était toujours parlé par 54,4% des Gallois, dont la langue semblait toujours promise à un bel avenir. Il fallut attendre jusqu'en 1961 pour constater un déclin inquiétant de la langue, qui n'était plus parlée que par 26% de la population (656 000 locuteurs). C'est alors que l'Association de la langue galloise, la Cymdeithas Yr Iaith Gymraeg, fut fondée (en 1962), pour renverser le processus de déclin. Elle est devenue l'un des groupes les plus dynamiques pour l'avancement des droits de ses locuteurs, et sa détermination a mené à une reconnaissance sans précédent du gallois en Grande-Bretagne. Tous ces efforts de promotion n'ont cependant pas empêché le déclin continu de la langue, qui s'est stabilisée autour de 19% de locuteurs en 1981 (environ un demi million). Le maintien de ce pourcentage jusqu'à ce jour (Leclerc 2007) dépend de la promotion vigoureuse de la langue, qui doit continuer de lutter contre les attitudes négatives, notamment la conviction que le gallois est une langue inutile, n'est pas une véritable langue ou, pire encore, qu'elle peut constituer un handicap à l'avancement social.

L'exemple gallois illustre la transformation très lente des idéologies et attitudes linguistiques envers une langue dans un sens ou dans l'autre. En effet, ainsi que les statistiques sur le gallois le démontrent, il a fallu tout d'abord les efforts continus et concertés de plusieurs générations pour ancrer dans l'esprit de la communauté galloise que sa langue était un handicap à son progrès. De la même façon, une fois le déclin amorcé, il a fallu de nombreuses années de promotion vigoureuse pour convaincre la population que le gallois était une langue qui valait la peine d'être étudiée et utilisée dans la vie quotidienne ou l'enseignement et ce message n'a sans doute pas atteint l'ensemble de la population galloise.

^{xxxviii} Sauf dans le cas où les PL sont imposées de manière violente.

Le cas du gallois illustre que lorsqu'une langue a atteint un seuil critique où sa survie est menacée, les PL doivent être particulièrement dynamiques pour renverser le processus de déclin. Cette prise de conscience est particulièrement importante lorsque le nombre absolu de locuteurs est faible. Les PL ne peuvent se contenter d'exprimer la tolérance à l'égard de ces langues ou de les reconnaître timidement. Les PL conçues dans le cadre étatique ou institutionnel doivent donner un statut social et du prestige à la langue qu'elles veulent protéger. C'est le cas de l'Espagne, par exemple, où l'on a octroyé un statut de langue officielle au catalan et au basque^{xxxix} dans la constitution, où l'on reconnaît l'obligation de protection et de respect de ces langues :

Article 3

- 1) Le castillan est la langue espagnole officielle de l'État. Tous les Espagnols ont le devoir de le connaître et le droit de l'utiliser.
- 2) Les autres langues espagnoles seront également officielles dans les différentes Communautés autonomes en accord avec leurs Statuts.
- 3) La richesse des diverses modalités linguistiques de l'Espagne est un patrimoine culturel qui doit être l'objet d'une protection et d'un respect particuliers. (Leclerc 2007)

Dans ce pays, le problème du maintien de ces langues ne se pose pas, alors qu'en Italie, qui ne reconnaît que l'italien comme langue officielle, il semblerait que 85 % de la population ait abandonné son « dialecte » (Leclerc 2008)^{xi}.

Le phénomène de décalage peut également contribuer à expliquer des attitudes linguistiques paradoxales qui laissent de nombreux linguistes perplexes. C'est le cas de l'Irlande, où la langue irlandaise est devenue la première langue officielle du pays en 1948^{xii} et où, en dépit de ce statut, l'emploi de l'irlandais n'a toujours pas réussi à s'imposer.

Les attitudes positives envers la langue se manifestent par une affection certaine pour la langue ancestrale et la reconnaissance que la langue a une valeur culturelle importante. Cette attitude positive découle à n'en pas douter des PL irlandaises mises en place depuis soixante ans pour redonner du lustre à la langue et redonner à ses locuteurs la fierté de l'utiliser. Cette perception positive de la langue contraste singulièrement avec le peu d'intérêt que les Irlandais manifestent pour son apprentissage. Après plus de soixante ans de promotion de la langue, l'irlandais est toujours utilisé par seulement 1,1 % de la population. Cette absence de progrès peut s'expliquer par l'effet décalé des attitudes négatives à l'égard de la langue irlandaise que la communauté a intériorisée^{xiii}. Les PL vigoureuses de l'Irlande ont réussi à développer une perception positive de la langue, mais ont échoué à en encourager l'apprentissage. Dorian (1993) explique cette attitude par l'oppression linguistique exercée à tous les niveaux

^{xxxix} La comparaison entre la vitalité de la langue basque en Espagne où elle a le statut de langue officielle, et en France où elle n'a aucun statut officiel tend à confirmer cette corrélation.

^{xi} L'État a donné une certaine indépendance administrative à cinq régions seulement en vue de leur permettre de protéger leur langue.

^{xii} L'Irlande est d'ailleurs le seul état européen ayant une langue minoritaire comme langue officielle (parlé par 1,1 % de la population). (Leclerc 2006)

^{xiii} Selon la terminologie utilisée en psychologie (sociale).

sur cette langue pendant des siècles et suggère donc à ceux qui se demandent pourquoi les Irlandais résistent toujours autant à l'utilisation de leur langue ancestrale, de ne plus imposer le fardeau de la preuve aux communautés linguistiques minoritaires en leur demandant toujours de se justifier, mais de chercher à savoir non pas pourquoi si peu d'Irlandais parlent toujours leur langue ancestrale, mais bien à savoir pourquoi, après avoir subi une oppression linguistique sauvage pendant des siècles^{xliii}, certains Irlandais s'obstinent toujours à parler l'irlandais. Les attitudes paradoxales des Irlandais reflètent tout simplement le paradoxe de leur situation linguistique et non pas une faiblesse de volonté.

6. Conclusion.

Comprendre et élaborer des PL dans le cadre de l'écologie linguistique comporte de nombreux avantages. Ce cadre permet d'abord de mettre la diversité linguistique au cœur des préoccupations des concepteurs de PL et de les adapter aux objectifs de diversité que s'est fixé l'Europe. Il permet en outre d'élargir le cadre explicatif du déclin des langues et de s'y attaquer avec plus de vigueur. En effet, une fois que les PL sont comprises dans un contexte interactif où idéologies et attitudes peuvent être analysées, les langues minoritaires sont libérées du devoir de justification qui leur incombe sans raison depuis trop longtemps. Une fois cette situation comprise, il ne sera plus difficile pour les concepteurs de PL de voir leur responsabilité accrue à l'égard des langues minoritaires et de saisir les faiblesses des PL qui accordent au compte-goutte des droits limités aux langues minoritaires. La reconnaissance timide sera également condamnée car il sera facile de se rendre compte que le statut des langues dominantes est un statut construit, au même titre que le statut de langue dominée. On comprendra aussi qu'aussi longtemps que l'idéologie de la hiérarchisation des langues n'aura pas été effacée de la psyché des locuteurs des langues dominantes et dominées, les PL devront s'attacher à la promotion vigoureuse des langues régionales et minoritaires pour combattre leur déclin et établir un environnement où les langues en contact ne sont plus en compétition mais permettent tout simplement d'exprimer la diversité culturelle.

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^{xliii} On peut faire l'hypothèse que plus la répression aura été sévère, plus l'intériorisation négative sera incrustée dans la psyché des locuteurs.

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The Meaning of Service Learning for Pre-service Special Education Teachers and Teacher Preparation Programs

Diane Casale-Giannola Ed.D., Assistant Professor II

Rider University

2083 Lawrenceville, New Jersey 08648

dgiannola@rider.edu

Abstract

Service learning is an effective teaching approach that integrates reflection, community work, and theory to support student academic and personal growth. It has become increasingly popular on college campuses, but few studies have been done in special education teacher education. In a study using qualitative research methods, teacher education faculty designed a service learning course to support students in typically first time field experiences with individuals with developmental disabilities.

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of service learning on the intellectual, personal and professional development of pre-service special education teachers. The meaning-making experience for pre-service teachers and their instructors were explored by examining the outcomes of this study. Outcomes include the following themes: finding more likenesses than differences among pre-service teachers and typical counterparts, increased content and pedagogical knowledge, increased confidence, awareness and advocacy and perspective building. Benefits and challenges for pre-service teachers and university faculty members are presented and implications for special education teacher education programs are discussed.

Keywords: teacher education - service learning - developmental disabilities - special education

1. Introduction

The Service learning model is hailed as an effective approach to expand student learning in the areas of personal and academic growth when content knowledge is connected to community service experiences (Brigman & Molina, 1999; Strage, 2004). It is becoming increasingly popular on secondary and postsecondary campuses (Eyler & Giles, 1999). Service learning is a pedagogical tool that combines academic learning with community service, and enhances the benefits of each (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Steffes, 2004; Strage, 2004). The most effective service learning models mediate the field experience by incorporating specific strategies including experiential research, directed reflection, personal journals, discussion groups, directed readings and ethical case studies (Hatcher & Bringle, 1997; Howard, 2001).

A review of the literature indicates many student learning and personal growth outcomes are clearly linked to service learning. It is described as an experientially based pedagogy that is ideally suited to educating teachers (Erikson & Anderson, 1997). Service learning attempts to involve learning in

community service experiences that are meaningfully interrelated to particular learning goals, and enhances student learning by giving them opportunities to explore, study, acquire and apply skills as well as examine problems and issues in a reflective way (Rowls & Swik, 2000). While service learning goals for teacher educators include career exploration, enriching educational contexts, acquiring and practicing methods and strategies and increased learning related to diverse populations (Rowls and Swik, 2000), very few studies have been conducted at the higher education level in the field of Teacher Education to examine these beliefs.

Adopting the service learning model into a new field based course for special education pre-service teachers aligned instruction and course content with the university mission statement and teacher education conceptual framework. This mission statement requires instructors to foster the personal and social development of each student. The teacher education program seeks to develop students as committed, knowledgeable and reflective, valuing service and ethical behavior to improve one's self and profession.

In a new special education field based course, Society and Individuals with Disabilities, pre-service special education teachers interacted with individuals with severe cognitive and physical disabilities. For many students, this was their first or most intense experience with this type of population and they were personally and professionally affected. In this course students spent one and a half hours in the classroom discussing readings, listening to guest speakers, such as parents of individuals with disabilities or local special education agency workers as well as sharing experiences from the field. On another weekday, they spent at least 3 hours in their perspective field sites. Instructors supported students with lessons related to characteristics of individuals with disabilities and topics such as assistive technology and transition. Professors intermittently assigned guided reflection questions. Students also chose an inquiry topic related to their service learning experience and completed a research paper which was shared with the class at the end of the course.

The purpose of this qualitative study was to determine what meaning a service learning experience has on the development of pre-service special education teachers and how such meaning effects the development of a teacher education program. The following research questions were explored:

1. What were the benefits and challenges of a service learning experience for pre-service special education teachers in the areas of intellectual, personal and professional development?
2. What was the impact of service learning on pre-service teacher acquisition of special education knowledge?
3. Which specific service learning strategies, i.e. reflective writings, facilitated discussion and experimental research, were the most and least effective?
4. What were the benefits and challenges of implementing service learning instruction for faculty?
5. What was the impact of service learning on teacher education programs?

2. Methodology

Qualitative methods were selected to collect and analyze data in this research project. Qualitative research is an inquiry process that builds a complex, holistic picture, analyzes words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting to explore the meaning making process of individuals in the different constructs (Creswell, 1998). In this project participants shared experiences from the field through discussion, journal writing, guided reflections and individual research inquiry papers. Simultaneously, professors facilitated instruction through selected readings, peer discussion, guest speakers and field consultation.

2.1. Participants

There were thirty four student participants (pre-service special education teachers), working toward dual certification in special and elementary education, in the service learning project. They were all female undergraduate students pursuing a double major in psychology. Twenty six were sophomores and eight were juniors. Five were non-traditional undergraduate students, women who were raising families and returned to school to complete their bachelor's degree. There were three professors who implemented the service learning approach in the classroom and in the field. Two of these professors designed the study, conducted the focus interviews and analyzed data. One of the two acted as the main researcher of this project.

2.2. Setting

There were three field sites where students completed service learning observations and activities. The first was a community agency that supported individuals with developmental disabilities in preschool and adult settings. Agency services included preschool, catering services, adult resource centers, occupational training centers and residential sites. All agency centers were non-inclusive except for the preschool.

The second placement was a public high school program for individuals with disabilities ranging from 14 to 21 years old. Students in this program spent most of their day in a self-contained classroom. Some were mainstreamed for academic classes and some were job sampling on the high school grounds or in the community.

The third setting was a private school for children with severe autism. Student ages range from three to 21. School programs included intense speech therapy, academics and vocational and life skills training. Each student spent 35-55 contact hours with individuals with disabilities at one of the service learning sites. In addition, they all visited the one another's placements and shared experiences in group discussion. Students were also expected to visit a residential site and participate in a social activity with individuals with disabilities.

2.3. Data collection

Data sources included: (a) student field journal entries, (b) guided reflections, (c) field supervision and instructor notes and (d) focus group interviews with participants and instructors. Field journal entries were written by students each time they worked at their site. Site visits were made to all sites on a bi-weekly basis and at least two meetings per semester were conducted between university professors and cooperating personnel from each site. Supervisor meetings typically reviewed individual pre-service teacher performance and administrative details. Reflective journal entries were related to student experience and curriculum content. For example, "Has your philosophy on inclusion changed since you've worked with this population? How do the articles on autism affect your perspective about people with autism and other disabilities?" Focus group interviews were conducted by two professors at the end of the course. Each professor met with four student volunteers to discuss the effects and outcomes of this experience in an effort to evaluate student learning and modify future service learning experiences to enhance student learning. All interview questions were open-ended and students were able to comment and build on one another's thoughts.

2.4. Data analysis

Interviews were transcribed and all data sources were reviewed and coded to find themes. Once these themes were determined, data were reviewed and color-coded and data displays were created to develop patterns and responses related to research questions (Miles and Huberman, 1988). Using data displays, data was triangulated between data sources. In order to enhance the trustworthiness of the data, a participating professor and two student participants reviewed preliminary and final analyses from the study (Merriam, 1988).

3. Results

While students didn't always share the same service learning experience in the field, all themes were developed when the majority of pre-service teachers from all field sites reported similar responses. Sometimes themes from students at a particular site had specific outcomes directly related to their experience at that site. These themes are subsets of the overarching theme categories. These overarching emergent themes include: Finding more likeness than differences among individuals with disabilities and their typical functioning peers, raising ethical questions and dilemmas, increased content and pedagogical knowledge, increased confidence/career decisions, awareness and advocacy, and perspective building.

3.1. Emergent Themes

3.1.1. Finding more likenesses than differences among individuals with disabilities and typical functioning peers.

At the beginning of this study, the professors who designed and integrated the service learning model into a new field course, believed that the university students, pre-service teachers, would have an impact on the performance of individuals with disabilities in the field. While intermittent successes were recorded, the evidence more overwhelmingly supported the notion that it was the pre-service teachers that learned most from the individuals with disabilities! The greatest lesson learned was that individuals with disabilities were more alike than different to typical peers. This theme was repeated across all field sites and all data sources. When reflecting on her experience at the high school, one participant wrote, I am amazed at how they [teens with developmental disabilities] are just like everyone else. They wear Uggs, have boyfriends, and are extremely social with the general ed. students." At the occupational training site, students worked with adult populations and reported that individuals from the field had similar conversations to their own discussing dating, boyfriends and sex. During lunch, one student reported that she forgot where she was, "They talk at lunch about what they are doing later, what TV shows are on tonight or what TV shows were on last night. It makes you forget you are talking to individuals with disabilities!" One student working at the school for autism stated that her philosophy on inclusion became even stronger as she realized that even individuals with severe autism "have more likenesses and interests as regular students than different ones."

3.1.2. Raising ethical questions and dilemmas

All students raised ethical questions related to their experiences and some were faced with dilemmas that led to serious decision making. Ethical issues, moral, just or principled concerns, repeatedly included: appropriate staffing for individuals with developmental disabilities, questionable use of aversives, making friends or "using" individuals with disabilities in the field for training purposes and sex education and practices among this population. While all students reported working with kind and knowledgeable people in the field and many developed relationships where they could engage in serious professional discourse on an on-going basis, students at all sites reported that some personnel had poor dispositions and attitudes that negatively affected individuals with developmental disabilities. In three cases, students were challenged with the dilemma of whether or not they should report staff members to superiors. They were afraid that if they did they would no longer be welcomed at the field site and the individuals at those sites would lose the extra quality attention that their presence created. Some feared that repercussions of "whistle blowing" could also result in escalated mistreatment of individuals with developmental needs. Professors investigated each situation and explained to pre-service teachers that they did have a legal and ethical responsibility to the individuals in the field and that as teachers they are "mandatory reporters" of abusive behavior, physical or verbal. In two instances, the students reported maltreatment from staff members and upon further investigation, both sites

acted swiftly and fired staff members in question. One termination resulted from a paraprofessional making derogatory comments about the student he was assigned to work with one on one and the other was from excessive and forceful use of aversives.

While these cases were extreme, other reports and questions about the quality of staff members remained disturbing to pre-service students. They shared comments in reflections and discussions such as "Are the consumers [individuals with developmental disabilities] *supposed* to be yelled at all day?" Students also wrote and discussed issues related to the limited training of personnel, the abrupt tones and short patience of many staff members. One student was disheartened to find that adult Individual Rehabilitation Plans were poorly written with misspelled words and weak grammar. She evaluated this as another sign of people being unprofessionally treated and uncared for. Students learned first hand that the training of staff members in local agencies for adults with disabilities is minimal to none and the wages are barely above minimum. While everyone reported they had personally rewarding experiences with these adults, only a few said they would ever consider working with this population professionally – helping us realize those with skill and great intention leave the older severe population alone.

Other ethical questions surfaced as students had trouble defining a professional role with individuals in the field. While all pre-service students were charged with assisting activities and instruction with on site supervisors, this meant building relationships with individuals with special needs. So many of these individuals appreciated the new attention of pre-service teachers and naturally began to develop relationships with them. Many of the individuals in the field wanted student phone numbers and looked forward to seeing them often. This led to reports and discussions about "using" individuals with developmental disabilities to meet pre-service needs and then "leaving and forgetting" about them after the project was over. Some comments from pre-service teachers related to using clients to suite their own professional needs selfishly are: "These people think we are their friends, I feel like we are using them. What will happen when the class is over? We used them to learn and then they will be looking for us. It's not fair to them," and "You feel bad going. When you leave, everyone asks when are you coming back and you had to say I am not. You don't want to lie to them, but then you don't want to make them feel bad either." Building relationships was important for individuals especially when pre-service teachers were similar age groups. Pre-service teachers enhanced their understanding of the similarities among individuals with and without disabilities as they spoke about common experiences and interests including socializing and sexual experience. One individual from an adult site was recently engaged and spoke about her decision to become sterilized before the wedding. This led to many inquiries about the legal and ethical concerns related to sex education and sterilization. One student said it made her realize that while mentally these individuals are lower functioning, you forget physically they are the same as you and I." Overall, ethical issues remained unanswered questions and areas of inquiry, but professors and students were able to discuss the importance of addressing or accepting such issues that will come up repeatedly throughout their careers.

3.1.3. Increased content and pedagogical knowledge

As the literature reports, service learning, an experiential and reflective approach to constructing knowledge, is an effective measure of instruction. In journal writings and reflections students repeatedly reported, "they could have never learned this much with a text!" Specifically for this course for special education pre-service teachers, inquiry papers, reflections, and discussions provided evidence that students gained knowledge in the areas of disability classification, strategies to work with individuals with specific needs, and social and legal problems related to individuals with developmental disabilities. Students were able to do in-depth research papers on specific issues of interest from the field such as Prater Willy, Rhett Syndrome, Aspergers Syndrome, Down Syndrome, Transition and housing for adults with developmental disabilities, Use of aversives etc. Teaching strategies used successfully in the field were behavior modifications, including discreet trials, instituting replacement behaviors, use of timers and check sheets for pre and post data recording of target behaviors. Students also reviewed transition plans, IEP and IHP goals, had the opportunity to participate in job coaching and often designed or implemented life skills or academic lessons to individuals or small groups. Students also had the opportunity to integrate sign into learning and use communication boards and other assistive technology. Although students were not allowed to use aversives, they learned about the use of aversives and the legal and ethical issues around them. In all instances students were expected to compare and contrast theory and practice and develop conclusions first hand.

3.1.4. Increased confidence/ career decisions

Prior to this experience, only three participants had experience with individuals with developmentally disabled adults or teens. An obvious outcome of this service learning course was that pre-service teacher participants gained comfort and confidence working with this population. Many students reported being nervous and apprehensive about working with individuals with severe cognitive disabilities at first. Then they learned to appreciate these individuals and feel more comfortable and confident in their field sites. One student commented, "I think that this experience gave me more confidence in the sense that I could do something like this. I feel like now I know I made the right decision [going into special ed]."

With gained confidence and knowledge, all students felt more comfortable with this population, yet only a minority of students actually felt they would choose this work as a full time career choice. "I discovered that I know where I want to teach. I always knew I wanted to teach autistic students, but now I know the group and type of individual I really want to teach: The non verbal and the older kids is really where I want to be!" Even when they complained about the quality of workers that were with adults with the most severe cognitive disabilities, none felt they would choose this as a full time career opportunity. "I realize how hard of a job it is to care for older individuals with a disability. After spending some time at this site, I know that I could never see myself working here full time... I give the people [who work here] so much credit and respect." Two students did find they wanted to work with this population on a full time basis and got jobs from direct contacts from their service learning experience. Three students

became certified substitutes for the adult population and one has been working in that area intermittently for one year.

3.1.4. Awareness and Advocacy

Pre-service teachers reported a greater awareness from first hand experience with the developmentally disabled population in areas such as adult concerns, parental issues, community access and integration. In addition to awareness about the things students had never thought about before such as aging and housing for the cognitively impaired, pre-service teachers, even if they didn't choose to work with this population in the future, they became advocates for individuals. One student reported, "I never thought about where people with disabilities go when they get old. It's like they just disappeared!" After visiting residential settings, many students found it sad that families had not visited residents in years and years and sometimes these residents were waiting and waiting. Some residents were older than 60 and students discussed whether they even had any family left. Students spoke first hand to family members and agency representatives about the red tape and long waiting lists, sometimes twenty years, to get into residential housing.

Awareness and advocacy are part of increased citizenship often associated with service learning experiences. Pre-service teachers may not choose to work professionally with this population, but students proclaimed they would always be strong advocates for the population. Many students were shocked to find how unaccepting the local community could be to such individuals. On a field trip to a local bank, one pre-service teacher commented on the patience of other bank patrons, "It's a real eye-opener ! I hated how people reacted to them in public! Why were we stared at in the bank? They have just as much of a right to be there as anyone else does!" On local trips to the supermarket with teens with autism, another student stated, "I never realized how attached I was going to get to them, and now when we take them shopping, I get very defensive when people give them a sideways glance."

3.1.5. Perspective building

All pre-service-teacher participants broadened perspectives. Perspective building was attributed to a variety of experiences in the service learning process. It was not solely contact hours in the field with individuals with developmental disabilities, but guest speakers such as parents and related service providers. The actual instruction and socialization of individuals with developmental disabilities is only one dimension of the struggle they face throughout their lives. Their family concerns and access to services were important parts of the puzzle. It seemed to many students that the lives of these individuals were compounded by multiple problems unrelated to the physical or cognitive disability itself. All students were impressed with the abilities rather than the disabilities of the individuals they worked with. They were impressed with reading levels, social skills and how much individuals could learn and progress. They often discussed how much they had taken for granted! One adult in the occupational training center "was so happy just to be alive." Apparently the woman had learned she was born blue at birth and modern medicine they saved her. She repeated this

story many times and university students were amazed that with all her shortcomings how grateful she was to be alive. Students also reported how proud individuals in the field were to work! They felt so grateful to have jobs. It made students feel ashamed of themselves for being so picky and choosy. One student said, "People take working for granted. Americans want the better job and the better money. I feel like typical people take working for granted. Why can't we be happy with the small jobs people with disabilities have Why do we feel like those jobs are below us or menial." Another new perspective related to positive attitudes was that individuals with disabilities did not have prejudices. Pre-service teachers often commented that individuals they worked with did not look at their peers or typical counterparts differently even when disabilities physically changed the appearance of one another. Students reported that individuals with disabilities are not prejudice, "they accept everyone as individuals." Another student wrote, "People with disabilities can bring so much joy into anyone's life. Society can learn not to take their lives and abilities for granted. They can learn [from individuals with disabilities] not to have biases and to be open minded."

Some students learned what it was like first hand to be at a disadvantage and feel disabled themselves. One student was working with people who were deaf and blind and had this to share, "The students who are deaf and blind could do so much more than I ever imagined. Since I was the only person who couldn't sign, I was the person with the disadvantage. It gave me a little perspective to be in a world where you can't communicate with other people around you. It really must be frustrating and lonely at times." Overall, pre-service teachers learned to look at situations from different places and from different perspectives. Broadening perspectives is important for teaching all diverse groups as pre-service students learn to problem solve seeking deeper and broader understanding and solutions to issues.

4. Discussion

The results of this study provided valuable information related to the preparation of pre-service teachers as they learn to work with diverse populations. Aligned with existing research, outcomes of this study indicated that service learning can lead to: an increased sense of citizenship, social awareness and tolerance, commitment to social responsibility, stronger analytical and problem solving skills, increased leadership skills and improved interpersonal skills. (Brigman & Molina, 1999; Fennick & Royal, 2003; Miller & Meese, 1997; Morgan, 2001; Rows & Swik, 2000; Scheuermann, Weber, Boutot & Goodwin, 2003). Research questions asked for information related to three specific growth areas: intellectual, personal and professional. Intellectual growth included increased content knowledge in pedagogy and special education curriculum content. Students learned and used special education strategies to improve academic and social performance of individuals in the field. Examples include ABA, discrete trials, assistive technology and job coaching. While these strategies are specific to special education, the majority of students reported learning that teaching individuals with developmental disabilities is "just like teaching anyone else." Common strategies from the field included providing clear directions, task

analysis, developing routines, consistency and working with individual strengths and providing positive feedback.

Personal growth outcomes included awareness and broadening perspectives, increased empathy and advocacy for individuals with developmental disabilities from different age groups and functioning levels. Confidence and comfort were also personal growth areas reported by all pre-service teacher participants.

Professionally, students were able to make more informed career choices, increase professional experience, improve their own teaching skills and become more competitive in the job market. In some areas such as inclusion and use of aversives, students were able to use theory and practice to strengthen or modify philosophies related to inclusion and treatment of individuals with special needs. Students also learned the importance of collaboration and relationship building with parents and other related-service providers in the field. They reported that observation was a critical factor in learning both "what to do and what not to do!" All of these results provide information related to the knowledge acquisition from this study. In individual reflections, journal writings and focus interviews, pre-service teachers attributed increased learning and knowledge to the service learning experience. Unanimously, students believed they would not have learned as much as they did without the field based component of this course.

Challenges reported at the student level typically included ethical questions and dilemmas, discussed in the thematic analysis, and logistics. Students had difficulty organizing placement hours and aligning different agency and school calendars with the university. Spring breaks and holidays were scheduled at all different times and students had difficulty making up hours and juggling their own work or athletic schedules. In addition to day time hours in one setting, students were required to visit a residence home in the evening or on the weekend, participate in a field trip and participate in a social activity. It was difficult to organize schedules and complete all field requirements in a short period of time (12 weeks).

In evaluative reflections and focus interviews, students were asked to determine which service learning strategies, daily journal writing, guided reflections, class discussion, reading, guest speakers or research papers, were the most and least helpful in their learning process. While the field provided the greatest learning resource, students felt that all assignments and activities from the course contributed to their growth. The only assignment that had mixed reviews was the daily journal writing after each field visit. One student said, "It was difficult to stay honest." Sometimes she put the journal writing aside and had to catch up, making the entry less meaningful. Others disagreed saying at first they didn't think journal writing was that important but later changed their minds. As one student put it, "Sometimes when I went to the field site I felt like I wasn't helping or learning anything but when I would come back and sit down and write about it I realized that I learned, even for being there a short time. I learned a lot more than I thought, so they were helpful." Overall, the students liked the balance of splitting course hours, to the field one day and returning to the classroom the other day during the week.

From the faculty perspectives, it was clear the greatest benefit of the service learning experience was the depth and breadth of knowledge learned throughout

the course. Other benefits included implementing a student centered method that helped students make meaningful connections to their personal and professional experiences. Certainly students constructed knowledge from the field and other resources provided by professors, but a key learning instrument was one another. "Maybe the students didn't notice it, but class discussion and support were enlightening. One day a student reported going to a residential site for three hours, doing nothing but sitting around and watching TV. She said she wasted her time and had no impact on the individuals in the home. Immediately following her comments, another student jumped up and said she had worked with those same residents in the training center the next day and they talked all about her!" Sharing information and experiences in a supportive environment was a critical part of the service learning experience. Another benefit was how much the faculty actually learned from the students. They increased their knowledge and understanding of current practice and challenges in the field. One professor said, "I've increased my own repertoire of experience and knowledge and will be able to share them and incorporate them in other classes to enhance instruction. My own perspective is broadened and my own ethical questions are rising."

Challenges for faculty were also similar to those of students. Organizing any field experience is difficult, but placements with developmentally disabled individuals required more orientation and acclimation for students and availability was sometimes difficult to find. When challenges arose faculty said they had to be "fast and flexible!" Because students were in so many sites at different times. It was difficult to see all of them even once. Scheduling review meetings with site supervisors was helpful to review individual student progress during the course when they could be arranged. Clearly written expectations were critical to the success of the program for students and for field site supervisors. Finally, ethical dilemmas among faculty remain problematic. If a student witnessed inappropriate behavior of a site staff member, faculty followed up immediately, but ethical questions such as legal use of aversives and building relationships with individuals in the field are still debated.

4.1. Implications for Teacher Education

Service learning is a viable framework for developing field based courses in teacher education. Benefits for pre-service special education teachers include increased knowledge, perspectives and experience. Using a service learning framework also builds perspective for faculty. Faculty reported concentrating on field based assignments and contact hours in the field. In the case of service learning, faculty have a systemic approach to enhancing student centered learning by implementing guided reflections, readings and shared experiences. It creates a student centered constructivist experience that can be monitored and evaluated with course objectives. Additionally, it creates a learning experience for faculty themselves as it provides insight into individual student learning process enabling faculty to address and meet learning needs more effectively.

Service learning helps professors differentiate instruction. All student experiences are individual. Based on the skills of the pre-service student, activity and inquiry expectations are adjusted to fit their specific circumstance. Service learning also allows professors to meet the learning styles of their students and motivate

students to explore specific interests. Many of the support discussion sessions came directly out of student input from reflections. Inquiry projects were designed to allow students to choose an individual meaningful and motivating topic that incorporated their field site experience and content knowledge. Students were also placed with interests and abilities whenever possible.

Difficulties surrounding a service learning approach are the time and flexibility needed to address field site organization and issues. Field based courses often require more time to develop and incorporate than typical lecture classes. Additional compensation should be considered where possible. To trouble shoot the question of too much or too little journal writing, faculty have provided students with guided and open-ended reflections (wild cards) to utilize during the service learning course. This has eliminated daily journal entries but still allows students time to write about topics of their choice when they feel it is important.

Overall, service learning, specifically in this case, helped teacher education staff introduce pre-service students to working with a population with developmental disabilities well. Most students had never had any experiences with individuals who were adults with severe cognitive disabilities and for many it was a frightening, challenging and sensitive experience that warranted extra guidance and support. Guidance and support were certainly an outcome of implementing the service learning model. Faculty would recommend it for other experiences where students encounter new and diverse populations who might make them feel uncomfortable.

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The (Re)production of Heteronormativity and the Negotiation of LGBT Teachers' Public and Private Worlds

Emily Gray

Lancaster University, United Kingdom

gray.em@gmail.com

Abstract

This paper examines the discourse of heteronormativity and the way in which it dominates schools in Britain. The experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) teachers have been put under analysis to illustrate how their profession as educators can impact upon their subjectivities. Queer theory is deployed as a lens through which to evaluate processes that constitute schools as heterosexist institutions and result in the reproduction of a dominant discourse of heteronormativity. Research has shown that social understandings of gender are key to the construction and performance of sexualities within social institutions such as schools. This is illustrated by drawing upon data generated by interviews with LGBT teachers. This paper offers an analysis of the effects of heteronormativity at a micro level as experienced by participants in a range of social contexts including coming out at work, the use of homophobic language in school and reflections on social changes towards LGBT lives.

Keywords: Heteronormativity – British schools – Queer theory – LGBT teachers

1. Introduction

This paper outlines my ongoing PhD research into the way in which heteronormativity impacts upon the experiences of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) teachers. The paper is split into three parts; firstly I will give an overview of previous research in the field. I will then move on to discuss the theoretical and methodological frameworks that underpin my thesis. Finally I will discuss some of the preliminary findings from the data I am in the process of gathering.

Schools, as institutional spaces, are subject to the influence of social and political trends. They are regulated politically and legally as well as from within by a hierarchical network of staff and governors. This research is concerned with the way in which the discourse of heteronormativity pervades and dominates school as institutions and the effect this has upon the experiences of LGBT teachers.

Heteronormativity encompasses the notion that heterosexuality is the politically reified and preferred sexual orientation. It (re)produces dichotomous understandings of gender and sexual identity categories and reinforces them through homophobia, sexism and the dominance of heterosexual (male) masculinity. Berlant and Warner (1998) argue that heteronormativity has

achieved dominance over any other way of thinking about sexuality because it has no opposite and therefore is not itself operating within a dichotomy,

[Heteronormativity is] a concept distinct from heterosexuality. One of the most conspicuous differences is that it has no parallel, unlike heterosexuality which organises homosexuality as its opposite. Because homosexuality can never have the invisible, tacit, society-founding rightness that heterosexuality has, it would not be possible to speak of 'homonormativity' in the same sense (Berlant & Warner, 1998).

The existence of these oppositional boundaries is central to the way in which we understand gender and sexuality and is constantly (re)produced through social and cultural media. It can be argued that this begins at birth and is further reinforced at school where male heterosexual masculinity dominates women, girls and 'other' boys through sexism and homophobia (Chambers et al 2004, Epstein & Johnson, 1998, Ferfolja, 1998, Haywood & Mac an Ghail, 1996, Renold, 2003).

Tania Ferfolja (1998) argues that the inequalities (re)produced by heteronormativity makes teaching a difficult career for LGBT people. She states that the presence of queer teachers can act to disrupt the carefully constructed heterosexist nature of schools and that this is the reason for much of the hostility displayed to LGBT teachers from colleagues and pupils. She argues that,

Homosexual teachers feel more vulnerable than their heterosexual colleagues because their stigmatised lifestyle does not represent the heterosexist societal norm. The heterosexist norms and hegemonic male power of the dominant culture are carefully guarded and perpetuated. Harassment and abuse is a method of attempting to impose and maintain traditional social structures and gender norms (Ferfolja 1998: 407).

Epstein & Johnson (1998) state that the relationship between teacher and pupil is one of power. This relationship of power is fragile, and can be reversed by signs of vulnerability in staff. Lesbian and gay teachers, argues Sedgwick (2004) are particularly vulnerable to injury,

The space for simply existing as a gay person who is a teacher is in fact bayoneted through and through, from both sides, by the vectors of a disclosure at once compulsory and forbidden (Sedgwick cited Sykes, 2004: 83).

In my research I have found that teachers' ability to be out at work and open about their sexuality is fraught with complex issues about support, the perceptions of other staff, pupils or parents and the need to be honest about who they are.

Queer Theory is used in this research as a lens through which to offer an analysis of the experiences of LGBT teachers. Queer Theory came into being in the 1990's and is inspired by poststructuralist discourses, particularly the work of Foucault and Derrida. Queer Theory articulates and offers a critique of the way in which binary and hierarchical categories of classification dominate the way in which we understand ourselves as human subjects.

Judith Butler (1990), for example, suggests that a 'heterosexual matrix', a network of beliefs, ideas and understandings, places heterosexuality as the dominant, normalised version of sexuality which is framed as compulsory (ibid., Dunne, 1997, Rich, 1984). Therefore we must, argues Butler, examine the nature of genders and sexualities within this context in order to develop an analysis of their workings and to challenge the way in which they are (re)produced.

2. Methodology

In order to engage with Queer Theory at a methodological level, it is important to acknowledge the subjective and multi-dimensional nature of identities. What Adrienne Rich (1984) refers to as 'the politics of location' and Butler (1990) deems 'regulatory regimes' are the intersections between experiences of gender, sexuality, history, location, ethnicity, class and so on, that narrate a persons' subjectivity. In order to deconstruct hierarchical categories of identity it is important to engage with them, to understand the way in which they impact upon our lives.

In light of this have employed a tiered framework. 20 participants will be interviewed twice. The first interview is a semi-structured life-history interview. Following transcription and analysis the participants will then be interviewed again. However the format of the interview will be less structured and we will discuss both general and specific themes and try to make sense together of the emergent issues. This approach is inspired by Derrida's notion of deconstruction which offers a way to analyse and challenge the discursive production of identity. It encourages the collection and analysis of data as a co-constructive act and posits that this is a good thing because it breaks down the researcher/informant binary often preset within research (Adams St. Pierre, 2000).

Participants were approached in the following ways. Firstly, I put a posting on two e-mail lists for LGBT teachers, secondly I had a letter published in the UK lesbian lifestyle magazine DIVA calling for participants. I also posted a request for interview on an e-mail list for transgender activism but received no replies. Therefore, though I will engage with transgender issues from a theoretical perspective in my thesis, in the next section the experiences I will discuss are in terms of lesbian, gay and bisexual participants. In this paper I focus upon the experiences of three LGB teachers, John, Kate and Dee.

3. Research Themes

3.1. Coming Out

Coming out is part of the LGB experience and is a continual process of decision making. It is indicative of the way in which a heteronormative discourse pervades the lives of LGB people – one has to declare oneself, an act that posits LGB sexualities as 'out of the ordinary'. It is also a tiered process. Coming out to oneself and to family was looked upon as a defining moment by participants, a

moment which precipitated feelings of self-affirmation and relief at no longer having to 'live a lie'. John stated that his initial coming out was followed by feelings of,

Liberation, liberating, I didn't feel quite as repressed, erm, a sense of relief, and I think quite short soon after that, kind of I had my first gay or male partner in my late teens and at that point everybody within my social circle of friends in London knew. [It was a process of] self-discovery and feel[ing] more confident.

For Kate who had been married at 20 coming out was a matter of sexual self-discovery,

I mean I was married [...] an' obviously realised that for many reasons this was not a very good idea [...] I was about 24 and I started thinking 'okay I need to do something for me' and I sorted out this mess that I'd created [laughs]. I moved out into a flat that I liked, I've got a job that I enjoy doing and now, okay, I need to sort out me an' so I made the call that whatever happened that year, I was gonna sleep with a woman [...] So yeah, I'd achieved the New Year's resolution by about the 25th or something [...] an' then it was quite easy from there on, 'cause the group of friends that I had were, you know, pretty open minded so it wasn't a big issue.

The positive way in which these participants view their coming out experience act as contradiction to the Foucauldian notion that coming out is an enforced act. However this was not the case for all participants. Dee, who is bisexual, had her first relationship with a woman when she was at university. This, in her words,

Caused an awful lot of trouble erm [...] Because some weird bloke, erm in her year [...] then wrote an article that was published [...] So everyone found out about my sexuality, about coming out, all in one go because it was published and delivered to every single person in my college. And the article was basically saying that she [...] she was a skirt bandit and she'd nicked me off this guy.

For most participants coming out and living an open life wherever possible is a conscious and deliberate process and one which has positive effects on their mental health. Several participants talked about having previously lived a lie and feeling that they were 'cracking up' under the pressure of doing so. Many came out to family once a support network was in place and so having other LGBT people in their lives was something participants felt is important.

Coming out in the workplace was a more complex process. For some, like Kate, this was bound up with a feeling of political responsibility. Kate experienced resistance from the management at her school and so her experience is framed in terms of embodying the lone political voice. At one point she stated that, "I am the only one. I am *the only* out member of staff to the kids". She recounted an incident during which she suggested to the head at her school that they should tackle homophobia,

I've always been out to the staff, always, er but I wasn't out to the kids. And I'd gone into the headteacher and I said, "Right I want us to do a gay pride assembly, failing that I want to do an anti-homophobia assembly, failing that I want to do AIDS day or something, yeah?" So, and they refused they said that

they didn't want me to do it because it would become my issue [...] So we had a straight member of staff do um something about homophobia [...] But there was no element of pride or no element of, "Okay kids if you're questioning it, it's okay".

The participants' feeling that coming out to pupils was a personal struggle is further illustrated by the following section,

So I campaigned and I campaigned an' every year I made a big fuss an' about 2 years ago [...] they said that I could do it but I couldn't do it on my own, I had to have an outside agency do it so that was fine so I went and found one, erm and they came in and did an assembly but I was very very clever in that I was around there. So the kids kind of got a sense that I wasn't ashamed of it, 'cause I didn't want it to have the reverse effect [...] Because that would be even worse I felt than not doing it at all.

Despite these difficulties, Kate's coming out has been a positive experience and one which, she feels, has strengthened her relationship with the pupils,

I don't think you can have a relationship with the kids unless you are honest with them. And [...] after we had the gay assembly, [in] one of the classes [...] one of the brave kids said, "Miss, would you mind if we asked, are you proud to be gay?" And I thought what a sensible, mature very sensitively put question. [And] we went through all the questions like when did you know? When did you come out? And all this and I thought 'that's okay that's really, really sensible'. So, I think, yeah there's that relationship that's built with the kids and if you pretend to be something that you're not, and the kids say, "Are you?" and you have to pretend that you're not, then that's [...] I think that's wrong, basically.

For the other two participants, the issue of coming out to pupils was fraught with difficulty. John is out to staff and, in common with most participants who are out at work to staff, does this consciously and through conversation,

I think on a couple of occasions somebody's said, "Oh your partner, is she..?" and I've said, "Oh no my partner's male" or [...] so there's been a couple of occasions where I've had to kind of out myself, but generally I guess it's just word of mouth that [...] or just through how I present who I am and my identity [...] or I might, you know, I might have made reference to the fact or [...] yeah.

Being open about his life with colleagues is something that's very important to John,

It's who I am, and because it's something that I'm not ashamed about, there's nothing dirty about who I am and there's no reason why I should have to hide it.

However John feels unable to come out to pupils and this is something which causes internal conflict. On one hand, being out and open about his life with staff is something that is part of John's strategy of self-affirmation; on the other he feels that his sexuality, if he makes too much of it, could be used against him,

I'm not ashamed of being gay, and it's a completely natural thing for me to be, erm [...] I guess there's kind of 2 sides to the argument. One is whether I'm just

kind of a good role model, I do what I do and people find out and, "Oh, he's gay" [...] I think sometimes by going out of your way to force an issue, there's then more opportunities for people to pick up on [...] and criticise, "Because he's gay, it's because he's gay" [...] Part of me would love to be in a job where I could just be me. I do feel that on occasion, I'm in school, and I'm not allowed to [...] 'Not allowed' perhaps is the wrong er phrase but I feel that I shouldn't share the fact that I live with a man, share my life with a man, that I like having sex with men.

The idea of not making 'too much' of their sexuality was something common to several participants. This ties in with a discourse around what it is to be 'acceptably gay' in a particular context. Indeed Kate felt, although she was proud to be out, that this decision had gone against her opportunities for professional development,

I'm not sure whether the fact that I'm not where I want to be in that school is because I'm gay or because I'm out, I can't prove it [...] Okay this woman's bin on the panel for 3 of the last interviews I've had and I've not got it. You know. And the comments when we were doing the gay assembly such as, "Oh what's all this then?" Disdainfully done [...] But you know I can't prove one way or the other.

For Dee, since her outing at university, coming out has not been a positive experience. I asked her if she had experienced coming out as self affirmation and she stated that,

I don't think I've really experienced much of that. Sadly. I mean you know with individual people it's been nice but not [...] I come from a pretty homophobic family, see, like my uncle was pretty cool about it, my parents were very very ambivalent. I wouldn't say it's a particularly happy ending, I don't think it ended at all. And I still work with it, you know. I mean I suppose the happiest one was when I was with this woman I was with for a long period of time.

For her, coming out at school to staff or pupils is not something that she feels comfortable about. She recounted an incident where pupils had directly asked her if she is gay,

Well I had a very interesting conversation with some really difficult boys who I would never ever come out to [...] the conversation got to be about [the deputy who] was leaving [...] and they were like, "Oh he's gay". And I of course was not out to him or them so I was like, "Oh is he? That's interesting. Is that what you think? I don't know". And then they said, "So's Miss blah blah blah". And I was like, "Oh that's interesting". Now I have seen her in a gay pub, so I know she's a total dyke. She hasn't outed herself to me but it's fair to assume she is. An' er I was like, "Oh that's interesting, oh right, okay. What do you think?" And they said to me, it's the first time I've been asked directly, "Are you gay Miss?" You know we went through various teachers, so I wasn't, I didn't feel that it was threatening. And I was like, 'what am I gonna say here?' For my own sense of, if I felt that I was gay and I said 'no' I'd find that really difficult. Being bisexual I feel I can sort of sidestep it a bit [...] But then I would say there's no way that I would ever say 'yes' to those, well any kids really. 'Cause they're not really trustworthy at that age.

Dee's sexual identity was troubling to her, and sharing this with people she doesn't know well or feels she couldn't fully trust is problematic for her. This was, as with other participants, bound up with appearances and 'looking' gay or bisexual,

I mean [...] my experience is generally that that's hard for me. I'm not, I don't present as bi. Some people might go, "Oh I wonder..." But I don't present as that and also there's that I sometimes have sexual relationships, generally short ones, with men, it's gonna make it [...] I don't really wanna go into the ins and outs of my love life because it's complicated enough for me. And [...] I don't know how I would, oh actually, you know, "I have relationships with women", or, "Oh actually the person who broke my heart was a woman". You know I don't quite know where to go with that.

Coming out then is a complex, multi-layered and constant process and one which is one of the central issues to my thesis. It illustrates the way in which the binary and hierarchical categories of sexualities are kept in tact and (re)produced.

3.2. 'That's SO Gay !'

All participants were aware of the current trend for young people in the UK using the word 'gay' as a generic put down for anything that doesn't work properly, isn't cool or that they don't like. This again is illustration of the way in which the heteronormative discourse that dominates schools reinforces the heterosexual/homosexual binary by positioning 'gay' as something deviant.

In John's school the use of the word gay as a generic term of abuse is endemic. Previous research has argued that it is largely boys who use homophobic language as a way to assert 'normal' masculinity. John's experience contradicted this,

[Pupils say] anything from, "I don't wanna sit on that chair it's gay", to [...] this is kind of children to children to, "You look like a poof", erm, but mostly "That's gay", "you're gay", "this is gay", just as a derogatory term, not necessarily in terms of sexuality [...] I don't think there is a particular type of pupil, I mean I've heard 6th form girls, I've heard 12 year-old boys.

'Gay' appears to have shifted meaning from something that boys or male pupils use exclusively in order to reinforce hegemonic heterosexual masculinity and is now used by both boys and girls as a generic pejorative.

Most participants felt wounded in some way by the liberal use of the word gay and their abilities to challenge this were varied. One strategy was to liken this kind of casual homophobia to racism. For example John stated that,

I would always challenge it, but trying to think along the lines of personalisation and perhaps how I would deal with individual students. I would tell [the student] that it is unacceptable to use that kind of language in that context, I would ask them why they were using it, erm [...] I would kind of out bullying into another context and say, you know, just like with some racist abuse that they were giving I would also let them know that it wasn't appropriate.

Kate recounted an incident where this tactic had proved successful. She had been the victim of a graffiti campaign when she had started at the school and told me that,

Oh yeah the kids'd yell, "Lezza" at me. I had 'Miss_____ is a lesbian' printed all over the toilets [...] Er you know they wrote all over the desks and all this kind of business like, you know.

Kate knew who had started this campaign and used an incidence of racism in order to challenge the pupil in question,

I had a kid who was, a black girl and she was really quite homophobic. In fact she was the one that started printing all the graffiti [...] we were doing a book that has a racist element in it, and one of the kids said something racist so she retaliated, she was nearest the door so I said, "Right, you go out I'll deal with you later". And I had her outside the door and I said, "Right how did it make you feel that this kid was being racist?" And she went into one about how it's really upset her and I said er, "Okay well obviously I'm gonna deal with it and I'll deal with this kid and I'll get his parents in and la di da, I'm not accepting racism in any way, but just as an aside" I said um, "How do you think I felt when you printed that all over the toilets?" And she just crumpled in a heap and I thought 'okay, now I think we've got through'. You know and it's that kind of challenging rather than just saying, "That's wrong, you can't say that". It's that level of understanding [...]

Kate felt that this strategy, coupled with the assemblies her school now does has almost stopped pupils using 'gay' as a generic term of abuse.

Participants felt that the meaning of the word gay as used by pupils is complex. Most felt that it trod the line between homophobia and a word that is en vogue with young people. Some participants felt that though it might not be used as a direct insult to another persons sexuality, it is still reinforcing the notion of 'normal' sexuality and highlighting its opposite. Dee felt that,

I don't think that kids are so innately homophobic unless it comes from their parents. I think they use the word 'gay' because that's the word that's used as a pejorative. And I think they're fascinated by their own sexuality. And they're really worried if they're gay and they're not quite [...] you know they're more open than we think they are.

John had similar feelings to Dee and also felt that challenging pupils on this topic is something that could potentially open a discussion about the power of language,

I think language is incredibly powerful and I think children often use language without too much prior thought, erm, and I think when questioned and challenged those pupils will say, "Oh but sir I didn't mean anything against anyone gay", and so I would then continue to challenge and say, "Well why use that word because language is powerful and you need to be careful what kind of language you use, whether it's around, y'know, gay people and homophobia or whether it's around race or whatever" [...] I think it's become a commonly used

derogatory term, which children have grasped onto, and I think it's wrong because language is powerful and shouldn't be used in that way but I think quite often children aren't using it with hate.

All participants felt that this was an important issue in schools and that although calling a computer gay may not necessarily be a statement of hate towards LGBT people, it is still not acceptable language for the classroom and is similar to casual racist abuse. Participants' ability to challenge homophobia effectively was bound up with issues of support, their own ability to come out and the demographics of the school population.

3.3. Changes

All participants felt that there had been significant changes to the way that LGBT people are perceived and understood both within the education system and within society as a whole since they were at school. Dee stated that she felt that LGBT lives are more visible now and that for her has both positive and negative connotations. On one hand she feels able to live a generally more open life; however she is aware that this isn't always reflected in school,

I don't think it's quite so 'Notes on a Scandal'. I think [...] they've got lives. That's what worries me, I think I mean if I feel like I can't have a life, then I'll drop it and I'll say goodbye to my job. And I think that's what I used to feel. And I sort of think that [...] that probably was more the case [...] in days gone by [...] I'd get twisted up inside.

Participants' general feelings about the reason for these changes were that a combination of political changes and media representations of LGBT lives had helped to empower the LGBT community and to enable the living of more open and liveable lives. For example Dee stated that,

I think, you know, images in the media, um having to talk about it in PSE, you know, the big debate with the Christian church. I think those are all really important things. The legislation, European legislation brought in, those are all really important things. You know and art and plays and films and art that's come about, you know, people've been brave.

Kate felt that even if media representations were negative, they potentially could be used as a starting point for discussion,

I think the media has helped an' it breeds discussion. You know, the kids come in and go, "God, did you see Sonia on EastEnders?!"^{xliv} You know, great you know, homewrecker, lovely. Erm you know but the fact that it's out there and it causes that discussion is great. An' then, you know, hopefully teachers or people in general will be able to then open that discussion an' talk about it. And so it, it makes life easier I think. 'Cause already they've got a point of reference you know and can start discussing. An' even if it's completely wrong an' even if it's

^{xliv} 'EastEnders is a long-running BBC soap opera; the character Sonia Jackson had a brief lesbian relationship in 2007.

really stereotypical and hideous at least you then, have got the opportunity to dispel that, you know. "Well actually..." you know, so that's quite nice I think that really helps.

Many participants felt that there had been broad political changes that were positive. The repeal of Section 28^{xlv} in 2003 was largely viewed as a positive but symbolic move by the government. Law changes that have had more direct effect upon LGB lives such as the Civil Partnership Act 2005^{xlvi} and the Sexual Orientations Regulations of 2006^{xlvii} were seen as positive but not enough to change hearts and minds and to stop the negativity with which much of society still views LGB lives.

4. Conclusion

The data generated by the first round of interviews illustrates the complexities of both the professional and personal lives of LGB teachers. Issues such as coming out, challenging homophobia and political and social change were multi-layered issues for participants who often saw themselves as lone voices in an institutional setting that does not support or understand the issues that are important to them. Often participants felt as Kate did, that their presence as LGB within their workplace made these issues theirs and that without them LGB issues would disappear from the agenda. Others like John felt that though they should come out to pupils, the decision to do so is fraught with difficulties around perceived importance of doing so and pupil and parent reaction. Others like Dee felt that coming out was a personal safety issue and something that may not be safe to do in their present situation and within the present social climate. My research so far shows that heteronormativity as a set of understandings about gender and sexuality and as a discourse pervades and dominates the institution of school and impacts upon the lives of LGB teachers working within it.

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^{xlv} Section 28 of the Local Government Act 1986 was introduced by the Thatcher administration and stated that a Local Authority must not : Intentionally promote homosexuality or public material with the intention of promoting homosexuality; promote the teaching in any maintained school the acceptability of homosexuality as a pretended family relationship.

^{xlvi} The Civil Partnership Act 2005 grants same sex couples in the UK the similar rights, in all but name, as heterosexual married couples.

^{xlvii} The Sexual Orientations Regulations Act 2006 renders it illegal to deny the provision of goods and services on the grounds of sexual orientation.

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