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Can you be Prejudiced Against your own Students? Teacher's Unconscious Bias in the Classroom

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Keywords: implicit attitudes, prejudice, Implicit Association Test, unconscious motivation



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Most teachers would like to be neutral and treat their students fairly. However, as the saying goes, easier said than done. Psychological research shows that what people intend to do constitutes the conscious level, while the unconscious level can operate without the person's permission or even awareness. For example, a person might declare that males and females are equal in their intellectual abilities, but in actual behavior that person might prefer to work with a male partner in a challenging task. This might imply that the individual has an unconscious bias toward males in terms of intellectual ability. This is an example of a situation in which ideals are not borne out in actual reality.

Psychologists have examined this conscious–unconscious dissociation. At the extreme level, it has been described as “a split in consciousness, such as mutually unaware person systems occupying the same brain” (Greenwald & Nosek, 2009, p. 65). Researchers have found that this dissociation occurs in many contexts. This is how the typical experiment is done. The participant is first given a questionnaire to solicit their preferences, e.g. male vs. females or White vs. Black. Most people state that they are neutral and that these categories do not matter to them. This constitutes the conscious level. Afterward, the participant is asked to complete a psychological test of their unconscious attitudes such as the Implicit Association Test (IAT, Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998). This test will give the participant a score, which may or may not be equivalent to that from the questionnaire. In the last phase of experiment, the participant is asked to engage in a task. The behavior in this task is analyzed by the researchers in order to determine whether it shows any signs of bias, and whether it is better predicted by the conscious or the unconscious measures.

An experiment by Glaser and Knowles (2008) illustrates this idea well. The researchers used ‘the shooter task’, which was originally developed by Correll, Park, Judd, and Wittenbrink (2002). In this task, the participant sees a series of pictures of individuals on a computer screen. They are required to ‘shoot’ criminals that are holding hostile objections (e.g., a gun or a knife) and refrain from shooting civilians that are holding benign objects (e.g., a flashlight or a camera). The individuals shown in the picture are White or Black people, and the task requires the participant to respond as fast as possible. Obviously, the skin color of the individual in the pictures should have no effect on the decision to shoot, because it is a matter of whether the individual is holding a hostile or a benign object. Surprisingly, the participants whose scores on the implicit test showed that they were biased against Blacks also tended to misidentify Blacks as criminals and shoot them erroneously. This study gives a clear example of the effect of implicit biases on spontaneous behavior.

On a more positive note, Glaser and Knowles (2008) also found an interesting result. That is, the above results were moderated by level of attitudes toward prejudice. More specifically, those who had a negative attitude toward prejudice were able to neutralize the effect of their implicit biases on their behavior in the shooter task. These results suggest that having an implicit bias is not the end of the world, as these biases can be counteracted.

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English as a Co-Language: Perspectives by the Foreign Language Learner

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Abstract

This research examines the language learning attitudes of English at three universities in one Japanese prefecture. All four universities have different requirements for the amount of English coursework necessary to earn an undergraduate degree. The purpose was to investigate whether attitudes about English might have changed today compared to a decade and a half ago, when then Prime Minister, Keizo Obuchi was objurgated for proposing that English be a second official language in Japan. Consequently, it compares the cross-disciplinary attitudes of 315 students and elicited questions about the role of English in Japan including whether or not English should become an official language. Based on percentage positive response ratings, the results showed that students believe English education would increase their chances of finding a good job. Students also favor making English compulsory in Japan. However, many of the respondents were dissatisfied with their level of English proficiency despite a desire to learn the language. Paradoxically, students disfavor changes to the foreign language curriculum, and the vast majority oppose adopting English as a co-language in Japan.

Keywords: English attitudes, English as official language, language policy, university students

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Introduction

For a country known for institutional rigidity and its reluctance to change, few could have predicted the late Prime Minister's 21st-century vision for Japan. In 1999, Keizo Obuchi recommended that English be adopted as a second official language as Japan transitions into the next 21st century.

That never developed, but Obuchi's vision resuscitated the debate about the role of English in his country. A parents' only option, at that time, was to send their child to an eikawa or a privately operated English conversation school. As a consequence, public schools began introducing English education. In 2002, Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) established Eigo ga tsukaeru Nihonjin (Japanese with English abilities), a strategy to improve oral communication ability of students. MEXT set goals for students to reach 550 on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and for adults to score 730 on the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) (Wakita, 2013). With scores far below expectations, additional changes were to come in 2011. English would become compulsory beginning in grade five (Wakita, et al, 2013).

Despite students receiving eight years of English education after completing high school, TOEFL iBT scores still rank among the lowest compared to other Asian countries. According to ets.org, Japan only surpassed Afghanistan, Cambodia, and Laos in overall scores in 2014 (ets.org, 2014).

Fifteen years after the Prime Minister's goals for Japan, have attitudes remained unyielding about adopting English as a second official language? This research seeks to determine the learning attitudes of English from the perspective of students from four separate universities that offer undergraduate degrees in various disciplines to gather an accurate sampling of English attitudes across disciplines.

Literature Review

Teach the Japanese to read and speak English or face continued economic stagnation and be marginalized in this global economy. That was the conclusion made by the late Prime Minister of Japan, Keizo Obuchi in 1999. Others have warned without a solid perspicacity of English, Japanese citizens will lack the ability to digest the latest technological advances around the world nor will they be able to effectively communicate their advances.

Despite these dire prognostications, both the political and educational establishment have been largely unsuccessful in improving the oral proficiency skills of Japanese citizens, a goal established by MEXT in 2002. The government introduced Eigo ga tsukaeru Nihonjin (Japanese with English abilities) to improve the speaking skills of Japanese. However, it lacked the commitment, avoiding the teaching of English as a required subject in the elementary school curriculum. Japan was also unprepared to fund such a program with well-trained teachers (Wakita, 2013). Additional changes took place in 2011 when the Ministry of Education made English compulsory in the 5th grade with 35 teaching hours to be set aside per academic year (Wakita, et al, 2013).

The focus for all public fifth and sixth graders (10 and 11-year-olds) was on Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS), with Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) to be taught in Junior High School (JHS) and in Senior High School (SHS). In 2013, SHS saw additional revisions as English I & II and Oral Communication I & II were replaced by Communication English I-III, classes aimed at fostering CALP integrated language skills (Mondejar, Laurier, Valdivia, Mboutsiadis, Sanchez, 2012).

These changes have done little to meet the goals set by MEXT, a goal to have citizens with a “working knowledge” of English. It can be argued that one reason they have difficulty mastering English is due to the habitual use of the learning strategy known as yakudoku. With yakudoku, teachers explain the meaning of translations in Japanese. Students are then given translation options and correct their work. Parsing of sentences and reordering them into the Japanese language system may help in the development of reading. However, as a foreign language teaching concept, yakudoku is not a technique based in pedagogy (Richards & Rogers, 2011).

Another reason Japan lags behind is because English is taught with "resistance" on the part of the public in devoting efforts to fund English education (Sakamoto, 2012). Japan lacks adequate teacher training programs and certification for English language teaching. Additionally, immersion programs are virtually non-existent in a homogenous country that requires an immersive bilingual teaching and learning environment (Sakamoto, et al, 2012).

Working conditions for teachers have also had a tremendous, negative impact on English education practices. As explained by O'Donnell (2005), teachers are burdened with extra-curricular workload and administrative duties limiting the time allotted for lesson planning and communicative methodologies in the classroom. There also exists a disproportionate ratio between teacher and student and lack of curricular time, resulting from the need to prepare students for their national entrance examinations known as *juken* (Cook, 2009). Many Japanese students study English only to pass this high-stakes examination (Butler & Iino, 2005). The result, teachers compromise their educational beliefs and conform to the accepted teaching approach that best prepares students for the success of this exam (Underwood, 2010).

Higher education is also attempting to adapt as schools are changing its education paradigm by teaching coursework in English. International Christian University (ICU) was recently mired in curricular reform leading to the change of its English program from ELP or English Language Program to ELA or English for Liberal Arts. ELA classes are taught in English in which about 18-percent come from overseas.

Akita International University (AIU) is the only higher education institute in Japan in which all degree-seeking coursework is taught in English. The school is modeled on an American liberal arts program, in which about half the faculty come from overseas. In an attempt to immerse Japanese students in an English-speaking environment, about 25-percent attend AIU on an exchange program. Degree-seeking students at AIU are also required to study one year abroad at one of its 174 partner universities all throughout the world.

Most recently, Yamanashi Gakuin University became the latest liberal arts school in Japan to gain approval from the Ministry of Education to teach coursework in English. It launched its liberal arts department in spring 2015. Degree-seeking students, much like AIU, must also study

one year abroad at one of its partner universities. Additionally, 85-percent of its faculty are non-Japanese, the highest foreign faculty ratio in Japan.

Changes are slowly taking place in the corporate sector as well. In the summer of 2010, Rakuten, an online shopping marketplace, and Fast Retailing (UNIQLO), a clothing retail company, have made English the company's official language (Ino, M., n.d.). Bridgestone, the Tokyo-based tire company, also adopted English as its official language in 2013 telling its employees English proficiency will be necessary if Bridgestone employees want to move up the corporate ladder (Japan Daily Press, Oct. 21, 2013).

In spite of these changes, TOEFL iBT scores remain abysmal as the country ranks near the bottom among Asian countries. In 2000, Japan and South Korea had the lowest overall TOEFL scores at 498 (ets.org, 2000). In 2014, scores in Japan ranked far below its neighboring countries of Taiwan, China, and South Korea (ets.org, 2014).

South Korea has subsequently emphasized the placing of native speakers of English in both primary and secondary schools (Seongja, 2008). It also rewards its citizens proficient at English as they play an important role in society. They also gain an economic advantage as one component to getting promoted in the workforce is determined by the employee's ability to speak English well (Seo, 2010). This "English Fever" mentality has helped South Korea since 2014 results show the country tied for sixth highest in TOEFL iBT scores. Among 35 Asian countries, Japan ranked 32nd out of 35 countries (ets.org, 2014).

It's no wonder why contentious debates remain about where English belongs in Japanese education. Japanese citizens understand English is the international language of commerce, travel, and education (Baskin & Shitai, 1996). Many of them attend jukus, yobikos, and eikaiwas, various types of supplementary and private language schools in Japan as they want to interact in this world. Japan also understands the development of English is necessary to strengthen the nation's economic competitiveness (Hirt, 2009).

Hence, fifteen years after Obuchi's educational vision for Japan, the country continues to berate itself as linguistic dunces. The purpose of this research is to examine the following attitudes of young adults: 1) Are they motivated to learn English; 2) Are they happy with the foreign language education received; 3) Do they believe English benefits their future goals 4) Are changes needed to improve the oral proficiency of Japanese citizens; 5) Do they believe, à la Obuchi, that English should become a second official language.

Participants

Students at four universities that offer undergraduate degrees in the Akita Prefecture were surveyed in spring 2015 as shown in Figure 1.

Akita Prefectural University	Prefectural University Akita City, Japan
Akita University	National University Akita City, Japan
Akita International University	Prefectural University Akita, Japan
Akita University of Art	Public University, Akita Japan

Figure 1

A cross-sectional survey was conducted in an attempt to get an accurate sampling as the research attempted to get results from students seeking degrees from a variety of disciplines as shown below:

- Akita International University (AIU) – Modeled on American liberal arts colleges, AIU is a public, prefectural university where all degree-seeking course is taught in English.
- Akita Prefectural University (APU) – APU is a prefectural university offering degrees in Systems Science and Technology and Biological and Environmental Science. Twelve credits of English courses out of 124 must be taken to earn an undergraduate degree.
- Akita University (AU) - AU is a national university initially offering degrees in Liberal Arts and Sciences when first established in 1949. The university has since established a Department of Education, a School of Medicine, and Engineering. Students are required to take an English course in the first three semesters at AU.
- Akita University of Art (AUA) – Once a two-year college, Akita University of Art became a four-year university in April 2013. Students are required to take one 3-credit English course at AUA.

Twelve quantitative questions were asked on a five-point scale (5-Strongly Agree, 4-Agree, 3-Neutral, 2-Disagree, 1-Strongly Disagree) in an attempt to examine the learning attitudes and perceptions about English as shown in Appendix A. Mode average calculations were conducted. Even though this calculation is not capable of further mathematical treatment, it was considered for the purpose of the discrete frequency distribution.

All of the questions were written in both English and Japanese. Figure 2 shows the number of respondents from each university.

University:	Akita Prefectural University	Akita University	Akita International University	Akita University of Art
Total:	66	80	55	104

Figure 2

Results

As aforementioned, the questionnaire was given in spring 2015 to students from four universities with different educational disciplines in the Akita Prefecture in Japan. For the first question, the researcher sought to determine whether or not English should be a compulsory subject in Japan. An overwhelming majority of students at Akita Prefectural University believes English should be mandatory in schools as 52 of the 66 students surveyed either “Agree” or “Strongly Agree” with this question.

At Akita University, 45 out of 80 students surveyed “Agree” English should be compulsory. Twenty out of the 80 students responded they “Strongly Agree” with this question. Only seven percent of respondents either “Disagree” or “Strongly Disagree” that English should be mandatory in schools.

Nearly half the students (47.27%) at Akita International University “Strongly Agree” English should be compulsory in Japan. This response was no surprise since all degree-seeking coursework is taught in English at AIU. Seventeen out of the 55 students (30.9%) surveyed “Agree” English should be compulsory. No student answered “Strongly Disagree” and only three percent “Disagree”.

Eighty-one percent of students at Akita University of Art (AUA) either “Strongly Agree” or “Agree” English should be compulsory in Japan. Only a fraction of students surveyed felt it should not be a required subject.

Table 1. English should be compulsory in Japan

APU	AU	AIU	AUA
SA: 37.87%	SA: 25%	SA: 47.27%	SA: 36.5%
A: 39.39%	A: 56.25%	A: 30.9%	A: 45.19
N: 16.66%	N: 15%	N: 21.8%	N: 15.3%
D: 4%	D: 3%	D: 0%	D: 3%
SD: 3%	SD: 0%	SD: 0%	SD: 0%

Table 2 shows the results of question number five, asking participants to answer if they need English for their future goals. At APU, 43.9-percent or 29 out of the 66 respondents "Agree" they need English for their future goals. This result is a bit surprising because students at APU seek degrees in the field of natural sciences like Machine Engineering and Systems Engineering.

At AU, 37 out of the 80 students also surveyed "Agree" English is necessary for their future. Nearly half of respondents at AU "Agree" English is necessary for their future. The second most popular response was "Neutral" as 31-percent of students did not have strong feelings about the role of English and how its impact on their future. All but three students at AU "Strongly Agree" or "Agree" English is necessary for their future.

At AIU, 63-percent "Strongly Agree" with this question while another 29-percent "Agree." Only seven percent of those surveyed answered "Neutral" while no one believed learning English would not be helpful for their future.

Nearly 40-percent of students at AUA seemed uncertain about whether English would impact their future. However, more than half believe it will have a positive effect as 33-percent answered they "Agree" and 19-percent "Strongly Agree."

Table 2. I need English for my future goals.

APU	AU	AIU	AUA
SA: 24.24%	SA: 15%	SA: 63.63%	SA: 19.2%
A: 43.9%	A: 46.25%	A: 29%	A: 32.69%
N: 28.78%	N: 31.25%	N: 7%	N: 39.4
D: 3%	D: 6%	D: 0%	D: 8%
SD: 1%	SD: 1%	SD: 0%	SD: 1%

Table 3 sought to find out if learning to speak English would help them find a better job. Nearly 58-percent of students "Strongly Agree" with this question while nearly 40-percent of students "Agree." No one answered "Strongly Disagree" and only a small fraction chose either "Neutral" or "Disagree."

Almost 44-percent of students at AU "Agree" learning English will help their chances of finding a good job once they graduate from college. The second most popular response was "Strongly Agree" as 27 out of the 80 students (33.75%) chose this answer. No one surveyed strongly disagreed, and only two out of the 80 respondents believe English will not help them find a better job.

At AIU, about three out of every four students either "Strongly Agree" or "Agree" English will help them obtain a better job. Twenty-two percent answered "Neutral" while only one student strongly disagrees learning English will be helpful for that individual.

An equal number of students at AUA answered they “Strongly Agree” or “Agree” English will help them find a better job as shown in Table 3. Only three students out of the 104 surveyed believe English would not be helpful in obtaining a better career

Table 3. If I learn to speak English, it will help me get a good job

APU	AU	AIU	AUA
SA: 57.57%	SA: 33.75%	SA: 38.18%	SA: 40.3
A: 39.39%	A: 43.75%	A: 38.18%	A: 40.3
N: 1%	N: 18.75%	N: 21.8%	N: 16.3%
D: 3%	D: 3%	D: 0%	D: 3%
SD: 0%	SD: 0%	SD: 1%	SD: 0%

Question 8 attempted to determine respondents' attitudes about their motivation to learn English as shown in Table 4. In Japan, study after study usually confirms apathy among students about learning a foreign language. As a faculty member at the university level in Japan, this researcher has had his share of visits to Japanese high schools as a guest lecturer. Disinterest permeates the classroom amid complaints ranging from the difficulty in learning a new language to being given few opportunities to practice speaking since classes are often teacher-fronted. Despite these frequent complaints, the results were relatively positive. Many APU students admit to having a desire to learn English. About 12-percent “Strongly Agree” and nearly 43-percent “Agree.” Seven percent feel strong they are not motivated to learn English while about 14-percent “Disagree.”

The numbers were much higher at AIU. Sixty-percent “Strongly Agree” they are motivated to learn English and nearly 35-percent “Agree.” These results are not surprising since it was previously mentioned that AIU teaches all coursework in English. No student admitted they were not motivated to learn.

At AU, only a small fraction (6%) of students appear to have a strong desire to learn English. However, almost one-third of students (30%) admits they have a desire to learn. Nearly 39-percent felt indifferent about learning English while 18 students out of 80 (22.5%) agree they are not motivated to learn.

AUA students also responded favorably about their motivation to learn English. Forty-percent either “Agree” or “Strongly Agree” with this question. However, 37.5-percent seemed indifferent about learning the language while 19-percent answered they were not motivated to learn. One student felt strong disinterest to learn English.

Table 4. I am motivated to learn English

APU	AU	AIU	AUA
SA: 12.12%	SA: 6%	SA: 60%	SA: 10%
A: 42.8%	A: 30%	A: 34.54%	A: 29.8%
N: 27.27%	N: 38.75%	N: 5%	N: 37.5%
D: 13.6%	D: 22.5%	D: 0%	D: 19.2%
SD: 7%	SD: 3%	SD: 0%	SD: 1%

Despite receiving eight years of English after finishing high school, there appears to be dissatisfaction about their English competency. Table 5 explores this question.

Table 5. I am satisfied with my level of English proficiency with the education I received

APU	AU	AIU	AUA
SA: 3%	SA: 0%	SA: 0%	SA: 1%
A: 4%	A: 7%	A: 9%	A: 11.5%
N: 30.03%	N: 36.25%	N: 23.6%	N: 23%
D: 43.9%	D: 42.5%	D: 38.18%	D: 47.11
SD: 18.1%	SD: 13.75%	SD: 29%	SD: 17.3%

Almost 44% of APU students are not satisfied with the education they received in English. Additionally, 18-percent feel strong about their displeasure in how English is taught in Japan. The numbers are similar at AU as 42.5% “Disagree” with how English is taught in Japan. Thirty-eight percent feel the same at AIU and 29-percent of those surveyed also “Strongly Disagree” (29%) with how English is taught in Japan. What might be most alarming is the fact that not a single student felt strongly that English is taught well in Japan from respondents at Akita University and Akita International University, and only a fraction responded positively from APU. Also, only 11 out of the 201 students surveyed “Agree” they are satisfied with how English is taught in Japan. At AUA, the numbers were similar. Sixty-five percent of students were not happy with their level of English proficiency. Only about 12-percent answered positively about their English ability.

Students appear to be rigid about significant changes to its language policy even though many are unhappy about their competency. Table 6 asked the respondents’ level of satisfaction when it comes to language policies in Japan.

Only nine percent of students strongly agreed at APU, five-percent of students concurred at AU, and no student at AIU strongly agreed they were satisfied with the language policies of English education in Japan. However, 21-percent surveyed at APU “Agree” with the policies in Japan while about one-third of respondents from AU “Agree”. Still, not one respondent from AIU agrees with the language policies outlined in Japan. In fact, more than one-third (34.54%) “Strongly Disagree” with the education policies of English in Japan while 56-percent responded they “Disagree.” Only about 21-percent of those surveyed at AUA were happy with the foreign language policies in Japan. About 43-percent of students felt negative about how English is taught while 37.5-percent appeared neutral.

Table 6. I am satisfied with the language policies of English education in Japan

APU	AU	AIU	AUA
SA: 9%	SA: 5%	SA: 0%	SA: 5%
A: 21.21%	A: 33.75%	A: 0%	A: 16.3%
N: 42.42%	N: 46.25%	N: 9%	N: 37.5%
D: 24.24%	D: 18.75%	D: 56.36%	D: 34.6%
SD: 7%5	SD: 1%	SD: 34.54%	SD: 8%

Table 7. Changes should be made in education to make Japanese fluent in English

APU	AU	AIU	AUA
SA: 15.15%	SA: 6%	SA: 18.18%	SA: 16.19%
A: 30.3%	A: 20%	A: 12.7%	A: 26.66%
N: 42.42%	N: 46.25%	N: 29.09%	N: 41.19%
D: 10.66%	D: 21.25%	D: 30.9%	D: 13.33%
SD: 3%	SD: 6%	SD: 7%	SD: 1.9%

Because 64.1% either “Disagree” or “Strongly Disagree” about being satisfied with their English ability and because only 22.9% “Agree” or “Strongly Agree” with the foreign language policies in Japan, Question 10 sought to find out if education policies need to be changed in order to make Japanese fluent in English.

Three out of the four schools chose “neutral” as the most popular answer (APU: 42.42%; AU: 46.25%; AIU: 29.09%; AUA 41.19%) as shown in Table 7. AIU was the only school at 29.09% that did not choose “neutral” as the most popular answer. Instead, “Disagree” was the most popular response at 30.9%. More students favored changes than those who oppose it. Out of everyone surveyed 103 either answered they “Agree” or “Strongly Agree” with changes to make Japanese students bilingual versus 69 students who chose either “Disagree” or “Strongly Disagree” to changes in education in an attempt to make Japanese bilingual.

Table 8. English should become an official language in Japan

APU	AU	AIU	AUA
SA: 6%	SA: 2.5%	SA: 3%	SA: 2%
A: 12.12%	A: 7.5%	A: 0%	A: 1%
N: 31.3%	N: 20%	N: 7%	N: 25%
D: 16.66%	D: 37.5	D: 25.45%	D: 25%
SD: 34.33%	SD: 32.5%	SD: 63.63%	SD: 48.2%

Because a high percentage of Japanese students in the Akita Prefecture are unhappy about their level of English proficiency, this research also hoped to determine if they felt changes were needed on a national scale by asking the question if it was time for English to become an official language in Japan as seen above in Table 8.

Overwhelmingly, each school did not “Strongly Agree” as only six-percent marked “SA” from APU, 2.5-percent from AU, and three-percent from AIU. Many APU students appeared indifferent about this question as 31-percent chose “Neutral” but 34-percent “Strongly Disagree” about making English an official language. Many AU students also felt strong (32.5%) that

English should not be an official language in Japan. However, most of the students surveyed at AU "Disagree" (37.5%) that English does not belong to Japan as an official language.

The numbers were even higher at AIU. Sixty-three percent of students surveyed believed that adopting English as a co-language in Japan was a terrible idea while 25-percent also disagreed.

Nearly three out of four either "Disagree" or "Strongly Disagree" about making English a co-language in Japan among those surveyed at AUA. Only three percent of students favored adopting English as an official language.

Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to examine the perspective of the foreign language learner about English and its role in Japan. It also sought to find out if their attitudes aligned with the vision envisioned by their late Prime Minister, Keizo Obuchi from a decade and a half ago when he proposed making English a second official language.

To summarize, 83-percent of those surveyed "agree" or "strongly agree" that English should be compulsory in Japan. Eight-five percent "agree" or "strongly agree" English proficiency would help them find a better job. Sixty-two percent answered they "agree" or "strongly agree" English is important in their life. Additionally, more than half say they are motivated or strongly motivated (53.4%) to learn English.

In contrast, 64-percent "disagree" or "strongly disagree" about the happiness of their level of English proficiency. Also, only 23-percent "agree" or "strongly agree" with the foreign language policies in Japan. Despite this, only 22.5 percent of participants answered they "agree" or "strongly agree" with curricular reform. This paradox is an example of educational incongruence taking place in Japan. In other words, Japanese education is disconnected to the learning of students as it is failing to meet the personal and societal needs of its country.

Non-native language teachers known as Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) feel anxiety teaching the target language due to insecurities about their English ability. One study shows that 77-percent of Japanese teachers of English self-admitted they were anxious about their level of English proficiency. Ninety-percent of those surveyed answered they lacked the confidence to teach English in English (Machida, 2011). It results in teachers avoiding the use of the target language, many of whom lack the formal classroom teaching experience. Teachers end up teaching to their comfort by emphasizing reading and writing while avoiding the other two learning domains.

Krashen (1987) argues effective teachers develop students' self-efficacy, decrease their anxiety, and promote motivation-enhancing attributions. In contrast, ESL teachers with high stress cause more problems in learning such as a student's self-confidence, motivation, self-esteem, and risk-taking ability.

In conclusion, Japanese students understand what's good for them. They know that speaking and listening should be emphasized in the classroom. Their irresolute attitude about education

reform stems from the teacher failing to take action research since they lack the confidence and the know-how in creating a speaking environment in the classroom. Because the teacher is unwilling to take on this challenge, the student lacks the desire as well.

As for the last question about adopting English as a co-language, there was strong opposition to this idea as only eight-percent “agree” or “strongly agree” to a co-language while 71-percent answered they “disagree” or “strongly disagree” with this idea.

Perhaps a rebirth of nationalism is taking shape in Japan. Not the kind that should be a threat or feared like during World War II. The type of postwar nationalism gripping Japan is “sociocultural”, the sharing of similar social values and behavioral norms, and especially the ability to communicate (Ishibashi, 1997). The political climate is nationalistic as outside forces are always reminding Japan what it’s doing wrong. Consequently, there appears to be an urgent need for Japan to redefine itself. In fact, opponents argue for the protection of Japan's national identity. Williams and Burden (1997) claim learning a language is comparable to slipping into someone else's shoes implying that language learners adopt more than language skills, but they also adopt new social and cultural behaviors as well.

Bourdieu (1979) has long theorized that education is one mechanism that serves to maintain social inequality. Schools not only provide the skills but Bourdieu (1977) argues they also perform the functions of conserving, inculcating, and consecrating a cultural heritage. In essence, Japanese will never be able to play on a level playing field as a native speaker of English. As a result, the invasion of English into a local cultural space has led to some countries legislating to restrict the use of English in some key domains like education, scientific writing, and media (Kirkpatrick, 2002).

Recommendation

The top four Asian countries in TOEFL iBT scores in 2014 can be seen in Table 7 below. One commonality among all four countries is that English is an official language. Singapore has four official languages: Malay, Mandarin, Tamil, and English. India has 24 official languages in its 28 states and seven union territories including English (Patke, 1986). Pakistan has two official languages. Its national language is Urdu while English is the country’s language of education. Lastly, the Philippines also has two official languages, Tagalog and English. All but one subject (Tagalog) are taught in English in schools.

For better or for worse, all four countries have adopted English officially resulting in English fluency by the vast majority of their citizens.

Table 7

Country:	Rank:	Score:
Singapore	1	98
India	2	91
Pakistan	3	90
Philippines	4	89

Japanese are no worse off than anyone else in acquiring a foreign language. Experts have said English is taught a decade too late (in middle school) in Japan and by teachers who can't speak it well. Consequently, Japan is fretting over the fact that, in this age of information, they have not achieved fluency in the indispensable language of technology which is resulting in a growing competitive handicap. The Ministry of Education will finally make English learning mandatory in grade three in public schools in 2020. However, many educators don't believe enough teachers can be trained to take on this endeavor in such a short span of time. Also, the fact that students in this survey feel strong that English would help with their future goals, and yet they want to see very little change in the country's language policies is symbolic of how slowly Japan moves even after years of debate about the role of English in Japan. This is perhaps exemplary of Japan's reputation for institutional rigidity and its reluctance to change.

For Japan to raise its international profile, there are some pressing issues it will have to confront. The country still lacks an immersive teaching and learning environment that can sustain English (Sakamoto, 2012). There also remains resistance on the part of the public in devoting efforts to fund the language (Sakamoto, et al, 2012). Other issues include substandard teacher training programs and certification for English language teaching. Instructors also continue to teach in the grammar and translation-based approach which does little to improve communicative skills. Perhaps it can be concluded that the students' motivation to learn English is not matched by the foreign language policies of Japan. Therefore, if students are to achieve English fluency, it might take more than hard work alone.

As a guest of Japan, it is not my place to recommend what's best for the country. The question is whether Japan is ready for a paradigm shift at the cost of language imperialism. Pedagogically, we have seen that today's approach does not work. In the end, students graduate high school with little to no ability to speak English, which seems to be a complete waste of time for students and a waste of money for the country. It's not that Japan lacks vision. Japan will need to decide if it wants to embrace English knowing it will come with uncertainty and darkness.

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Survey

CONFIDENTIALITY: A faculty member at Akita International University thanks you for taking a few minutes to fill-out this survey. It should take approximately 5 minutes of your time. You will not be asked to attach your name to your survey responses. Individual responses will be used for research purposes only and will be strictly confidential.

学生の皆さま アンケート調査にご協力いただき、誠にありがとうございます。このアンケートの所要時間は 5 分程度です。また、回答にあたって氏名の記入は必要ありません。いただいたご意見につきましては、研究目的のために使用し、厳重に保管いたします。

Demographic Information:

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Age 年齢 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender (Circle the answer that applies to you) 性別 (どちらかに○をしてください) 	1) Male 2) Female
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grade Level (Circle the answer that applies to you) 学年 (当てはまるものに○をしてください) 	1) Year 1 2) Year 2 3) Year 3 4) Year 4 5) Other
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Major 専攻 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hometown (City and Prefecture) 出身 (都道府県および市町村) 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nationality (Circle the answer that applies to you) 国籍 (どちらかに○をしてください) 	1) Japanese 2) Other

Please check the answer that best applies to you. 最も当てはまるものに○をしてください	Strongly Agree 強く同意	Agree 同意	Neutral どちらとも言えない	Disagree 反対	Strongly Disagree 強く反対
1. English should be compulsory in Japan. 日本で英語教育は義務教育であるべきだ。					
2. English should only be an elective course for Japanese students who want to learn the language. 英語は選択科目で、その言語を学びたいと思う人のみが学ぶべきだ。					
Please check the answer that best applies to you.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
3. I am satisfied with the language policies of English education in Japan. 私は日本の英語教育制度に満足している。					
4. I am satisfied with my level of English proficiency with the education I received. 私は、現行の教育制度において習得した英語力に満足している。					
5. I need English for my future goals. 私は自分の将来目標のために英語が必要だ。					
6. If I learn to speak English well, it will help me get a good job. もし英語をうまく話せたら、将来良い職に就くための助けになるだろう。					
7. English is important in my life. 私の人生において英語は重要だ。					
8. I am motivated to learn English. 私は英語を学習することに意欲を感じている。					
9. I prefer to learn English by native speakers of English					

<p>rather than Japanese nationals. 日本人よりも英語が母国語の人から英語を教えてもらうほうが良い。</p>					
<p>10. Changes should be made in education to make all Japanese citizens fluent in English. 日本国民全員が英語を流暢に話せるようになるために教育制度が変わるべきだ。</p>					
<p>Please check the answer that best applies to you.</p>	<p>Strongly Agree</p>	<p>Agree</p>	<p>Neutral</p>	<p>Disagree</p>	<p>Strongly Disagree</p>
<p>11. Japanese companies should require workers to be proficient in English for employment. 日本の企業は従業員に英語を流暢に話せることを求めるべきだ。</p>					
<p>12. English should become an official language in Japan. 英語は日本で公用語になるべきだ。</p>					

Including Students with Disabilities: Attitudes of Typically Developing Children and of Parents of Children with and Without Special Educational Needs

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Abstract

The present paper constitutes a literature review research, discussing issues of inclusion of individuals with disabilities. Inclusive education refers to the appropriate response to the diversity of students with disabilities, addressing their Special Educational Needs (SEN) as equal members and as stakeholders of the culture of the school learning community. These inclusive educational environments both influence and are subject to the dispositions of their addressees. The purpose of this study is to investigate the attitudes of the recipients of inclusive education towards the inclusion of preschoolers, of primary school aged students and of adolescents with disabilities. For this reason, the thirty (30) most recent (2000-2015) relevant empirical studies, at European and international level, are reviewed, investigating the related attitudes of Typically Developing (TD) children and of parents of children with and without SEN. Regardless of the student age, it is observed that parents of TD children and of children with mild SEN express conflicting relative attitudes. Moreover, parents of children with moderate and/ or severe disabilities and TD children by majority assess the present issue in a positive and in a negative way, respectively. Generally, an effect of demographic, socio-cultural and socio-economic parameters in the attitudes of the surveyed is noted. Several reasonable parental doubts are depicted, influencing the associated student views. In conclusion, the integration of students with SEN in mainstream educational settings is a field of expression of various and multifactorial attitudes. Lastly, the methodological limitations of the studies reviewed and future research proposals are set out.

Keywords: inclusion, students with disabilities, children's attitudes, parental attitudes

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Introduction

Nowadays, the inclusion of children with disabilities in mainstream settings constitutes a significant, realistic and opportune topic for discussion worldwide (Koster, Nakken, Pijl, & Van Houten, 2009; Nakken & Pijl, 2002). In principle, Bossaert, Colpin, Pijl, and Petry (2013) define inclusion as the service and the appropriate support of students of a full range of skills and with Special Educational Needs (SEN) in mainstream classes. In that context, children are perceived as equal members of the school learning community (Pijl & Hamstra, 2005). Yet, inclusive education's specification requires a clarification between mere inclusion and integration (Obiakor, Harris, Mutua, Rotatori, & Algozzine, 2012). Thus, Takala and Ahl (2014) claim that substantial inclusive education involves the increase of student participation in the cultures and in the curriculum of mainstream schools, as well as the reduction of the associated restraining pressures.

Equally, the term SEN presupposes a separation between "normal" and "less normal" students; hence, it entails exclusion (McLeskey, Waldron, & Redd, 2014; Reindal, 2010). In fact, Norwich (2008) argues that the given terminology impedes critical approaches of inclusion, continuing the culture on a separate special education. What's more, Anastasiou and Kauffman (2011) assert that it implies a relative weakness of the trainees, being a language of sentimentalism and bias. On the contrary, substantive inclusive education refers to the receptive and respectful response to diversity as part of human rights, both influencing and being subject to the dispositions of its addressees with and without SEN (Miles & Singal, 2010). Such a cohabitation recommends an inclusive experience of all students (Lindsay, 2007). Yet, separated special schools have encouraged stereotypes, unawareness and a bilateral suspiciousness among individuals with and without disabilities (Polat, 2011). Therefore, in accordance with Armstrong, Armstrong, and Spandagou (2011), they have no right of existence. Finally, the pursuit of an inclusive education necessarily implicates the removal of the provision, the policies and the practices already embedded to the educational structures fostering attitudes of exclusion (Slee, 2013). Consequently, the absence of an empirical study of the attitudes regarding the inclusive education of pupils with SEN on behalf of all its recipients (Hwang & Evans, 2011; Runswick-Cole, 2011) led to the necessity of a bibliographical summarization of the research results focused on its individual addressees.

Purpose of the study

The present paper aimed to investigate the attitudes of the recipients of inclusive education towards the inclusion of preschoolers, of primary school aged students and of adolescents with disabilities in mainstream educational settings. For this reason, the thirty (30) most recent (2000-2015) relevant empirical studies, conducted at European and international level, are reviewed, investigating the related attitudes of Typically Developing (TD) children and of parents of children with and without SEN. Summarizing the abovementioned research findings, an attempt will be made to draw conclusions concerning the attitudes of the surveyed towards inclusive education.

Method

Using the keywords of the title of the present paper in English, an online search was carried out, from May until July 2015, via the following databases: ERIC, MEDLINE, PsycARTICLES, PsychINFO, SocINDEX, Elsevier, Wiley, Taylor and Francis, and Springer. During this procedure, the initial about 6,000 results were limited to the final 30 studies, due to the search criteria of research papers published from the year 2000 and onwards, comprising empirical and measurable data.

Review of the literature

Attitudes of parents of TD children

By majority, inclusion is considered beneficial for both preschoolers with and without SEN (Rafferty & Griffin, 2005). In that regard, the parental acknowledgement that participation in inclusive classrooms supports developmental diversity's acceptance by TD preschool children has been observed (Seery, Davis, & Johnson, 2000). However, some parents express concerns that their children might develop undesirable behaviors (Peck, Staub, Gallucci, & Schwartz, 2004). In addition, reservations are expressed about the adopted inclusive classroom practices (Tichenor, Heins, & Piechura-Couture, 2000), the staff qualifications' adequacy (Leyser & Kirk, 2004) and the appropriate guiding and supportive teaching resources' availability (Kalyva, Georgiadi, & Tsakiris, 2007). Moreover, the classrooms' size (Peck et al., 2004) and the school district's commitment in providing coordinated services of quality are highlighted (Tichenor et al., 2000).

Further parental concerns are depicted regarding the potential low interest, the expectations and the disappointment of TD children owing to an unequal distribution of studying and grading among pupils (Stahmer, Carter, Baker, & Miwa, 2003). Additionally, time management difficulties for disciplining or keeping up with children with SEN are noted (Tafa & Manolitsis, 2003). What's more, it has been observed that Greek parents who viewed positively their eventual personal interaction with a child with SEN were less positive to allow the same to their TD child (Tafa & Manolitsis, 2003). On the contrary, Kalyva et al. (2007) recorded broad positive corresponding attitudes. Lastly, it has been inferred that progressive student exposure to inclusive frameworks reduces parental concerns (Leyser & Kirk, 2004).

Influential factors

Contradictory findings exist respecting the effect of parents' age, gender and educational level on their attitudes (Kalyva et al., 2007; Leyser & Kirk, 2004; Tafa & Manolitsis, 2003; Tichenor et al., 2000). Nevertheless, such stances are positively influenced by the parental experience with a child with SEN in class (Peck et al., 2004) and by the disabilities' severity (Rafferty & Griffin, 2005).

Attitudes of parents of children with SEN

Attitudes of parents of children with moderate and/ or severe disabilities

Parents of children with severe SEN express support and satisfaction for the outcomes of inclusive education, particularly for its social benefits (Gallagher et al., 2000; Mandell & Salzer, 2007). In particular, associated attitudes regarding pupils with Down syndrome (De Boer & Munde, 2014; Palmer, Fuller, Arora, & Nelson, 2001) and autism (Abu-Hamour & Muhaidat, 2014; Mandell & Salzer, 2007; Whitaker, 2007) are recorded. Likewise, gratification for TD children's behavioral modelling on their peers with SEN is observed (Gallagher et al., 2000; Leyser & Kirk, 2004). Nonetheless, following the admission to inclusive programs, parental reservations about the insufficient teachers' training (Whitaker, 2007) and concerns regarding students' social integration as well as academic progress are set forth (Palmer et al., 2001; Seery, Davis, & Johnson, 2000). Also, some parents worry that their children might become socially isolated (De Boer & Munde, 2014) and harass or be harassed either verbally or physically by their TD peers (Rafferty et al., 2001). Further concerns are recorded towards the qualitatively inadequate instruction, the possible teacher burnout (Abu-Hamour & Muhaidat, 2014; Whitaker, 2007) and the lack of support from the latter and from TD classmates' parents (Gallagher et al., 2000). Finally, doubts about student transportation's constraints and as to the likelihood of an interventional failure due to the respective student disabilities' severity are indicated (Palmer et al., 2001).

Attitudes of parents of children with mild cognitive deficits and/ or Learning Disabilities (LD)

Parents of pupils with mild and/ or moderate disabilities (e.g. LD, behavioral disorders and mild intellectual disabilities) support their children's inclusion in mainstream schools (Elkins, Van Kraayenoord, & Jobling, 2003; Leyser & Kirk, 2004). Corresponding parental satisfaction exists in reference to the benefits of preschool (Seery, Davis, & Johnson, 2000) and of primary school aged students (Rafferty et al., 2001). Conversely, parental concerns have been expressed with regard to the reintegration of pupils with LD in mainstream primary school classrooms (Runswick-Cole, 2008). In addition, similar stances have been recorded for including adolescents with mild to moderate cognitive disabilities in general upper secondary education (Eizein, 2009). In such cases, special education or partial inclusion settings have been supported (Hotulainen & Takala, 2014; Runswick-Cole, 2008).

Influential factors

Favorable attitudes towards inclusion are determined by parents' demographic, socio-cultural and socio-economic features, with a lead of younger, more educated and less affluent women (Runswick-Cole, 2008; Seery et al., 2000). Moreover, they are based on personal inclusive experiences (Elkins et al., 2003; Leyser & Kirk, 2004; Palmer et al., 2001). Likewise, the family status of single parent families, as well as the small number of children are accordingly related (De Boer & Munde, 2014; Eizein, 2009; Gallagher et al., 2000). Furthermore, parents' attitudes are positively affected by the low severity of their child's diagnosis, the small student age and the satisfactory

current inclusive school placement (Abu-Hamour & Muhaidat, 2014; Mandell & Salzer, 2007; Whitaker, 2007).

Attitudes of TD children

A superficial acceptance rather than a reciprocal inclusive interaction of TD pupils with their classmates of multisensorial disabilities has been observed (Nikolarazi & De Reybekiel, 2001). Correspondingly, Ferguson (2008) concluded that the academic coexistence of TD students with children with motor disabilities in inclusive settings did not necessarily entail the integration of the latter. In fact, Marshall, Stojanovik, and Ralph (2002) recorded an “internal exclusion” in schools and a continuous tendency of labelling of children with mild SEN. Lastly, both De Boer, Pijl, Minnaert, and Post (2014) and Nikolarazi et al. (2005) deduced the innate and intense negative students’ attitudes regarding the inclusion of children beyond the presumed “normal range”.

Influential factors

Positive student attitudes are displayed in terms of including pupils with physical, rather than those with emotional, intellectual or multiple disabilities (Kalyva & Agaliotis, 2009; Panagiotou, Evaggelinou, Doulkeridou, Mouratidou, & Koidou, 2011) or even with LD (Gasser, Malti, & Buholzer, 2014; Nepi, Fioravanti, Nannini, & Peru, 2015). Comparably, a negative lead of boys and of students who do not assume a tutor role during inter-student interactions is noted (Laws & Kelly, 2005), depending on the taught courses (De Boer et al., 2014; Nikolarazi et al., 2005). Furthermore, disabilities of low functionality, e.g. Autism Spectrum Disorders (ASD), cause more intense negative and less social stances in inclusive, rather than in mainstream educational settings, with student views aggravating in proportion to the respondents’ age increase (Mavropoulou & Sideridis, 2014; Tonnsen & Hahn, 2015).

One of the main factors influencing the attitudes of TD students towards integrating children with SEN is the family environment, especially the impact of parental attitudes, in particular of mothers (Laws, & Kelly, 2005; Nepi et al., 2015), more than of school teachers (Ferguson, 2008; Gasser et al., 2014; Kalyva & Agaliotis, 2009). However, the opposite has also been observed (Tonnsen & Hahn, 2015). Finally, inclusive student attitudes are fueled bidirectionally with friendship establishment trends (Marshall et al., 2002; Mavropoulou & Sideridis, 2014; Nikolarazi et al., 2005).

Conclusions

Generally, it is deduced that the inclusion of students with disabilities in mainstream educational settings constitutes a field of expression of various and multifactorial attitudes. Firstly, regardless of the student age, parents of TD children and of children with mild SEN utter conflicting stances. Secondly, parents of children with moderate and/ or severe disabilities by majority assess positively the inclusive inter-student interactions. Particularly, the first and the latter formulate concerns regarding the arrangement of parameters associated with the teaching process and as regards to supporting pupils with and without SEN. What's more, the attitudes of parents of TD children are unrelated to their gender, age and educational level, whereas the attitudes of parents of children with SEN depend on their demographic, socio-cultural and socio-economic characteristics, in relation to their children's age and diagnosis; the stances of both depend on their personal inclusive experiences. Thirdly, TD children by majority express adverse attitudes towards integration, with a precedence of boys and in relation to the students' SEN, less of motor disabilities and more of ASD. Fourthly, TD children's attitudes are influenced by the corresponding parental and schoolteachers' views, with a head start of the first.

However, certain research limitations of internal and external validity and reliability are posed, given the size of each population sample, as well as its selection and allocation procedure. Equally, the case by case data collection and statistical analysis proceedings do not permit the generalization of the aforementioned conclusions. Thus, future research should focus on the settlement of these specific methodological issues. Also, it could concentrate on the broader intercultural and concurrent examination of particular disabilities and on the interaction of individual influential factors regarding the respective attitudes expressed, both at in-school and at extracurricular level. At the same time, it might be helpful to use open-ended interview questions on a wider scale, in order to examine in greater detail the feelings of the surveyed. In conclusion, specialized or individualized interventional programs ought to be developed and documented by research, promoting multiply and systematically the broad integration of students with SEN.

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***Global Dialogues Through Educational Technologies:
A Critical Literature Review On Current Practices and their Transformative
Potential***

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Introduction

Since the 1990s, globally networked learning environments (GNLEs) have emerged as pathways to connect students from around the world. Although it was initially hoped that bringing diverse students together online would naturally foster the inclusion of disparate voices and viewpoints, it is now widely acknowledged that online communications may just as easily reinforce pre-existing social arrangements as challenge them, serving as either a tool for oppression and colonization or resistance and social justice (Dooly, 2011; Gregerson & Youdina, 2009; Helm & Guth, 2010; Herring, 2001; Zembylas & Vrasidas, 2005). Grounded in the assumption that dialogue which is meant to serve civic and peace-building ends must acknowledge and work to transform inequalities, this literature review seeks to both present an overview of the theoretical and empirical literature on intergroup/intercultural online dialogue as well as the issues surrounding power and inclusivity in digital and dialogical settings.

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Method

Literature Search

To explore how technology has been used within educational initiatives to facilitate dialogue in citizenship and peace-oriented curriculum, a systematic literature review using EBSCO was conducted. The first search used the following search terms: SU ("multicultural education" OR "citizenship education" OR "civic* education" OR "peace education" OR "peace learning" coupled with: "web based instruction" or videoconferenc* or "handheld devices" or pda* or "mobile comput*" courseware or "online education" or "online space*" or "computer software" or "computer assisted instruction" or net-based or "technology uses in education" or "online courses" or "Asynchronous Communication" or "Synchronous Communication" or "computer mediated communication" or "distance education" or elearning or e-learning or "electronic learning" or "social network*" or "educational technology" OR "social media" OR "online learn*" OR "web sites" OR Internet or "virtual classroom*" or "web 2.0" or blog* or weblog* or facebook or twitter or instagram. No restrictions were placed on dates and therefore include publications up to and including 2015. 101 articles were retrieved from this search. A detailed review revealed that although quite a few articles (25) addressed power issues in educational technology such as culturally and linguistically biased design and pedagogy, only five articles looked at platforms designed to support intergroup/intercultural dialogue.

A second search was thus conducted in an attempt to identify articles that addressed online intercultural or intergroup dialogue specifically. As suggested by the Education Librarian at Concordia University, the following subject search terms used were: su(interaction) or "intergroup relations*" or "racial relations*" OR "intergroup contact*" OR "intercultural contact*" or "contact theory" or intercultural or intergroup and, as with the first search, "web based instruction" or videoconferenc* or "handheld devices" or pda* or "mobile comput*" courseware or "online education" or "online space*" or "computer software" or "computer assisted instruction" or net-based or "technology uses in education" or "online courses" or "Asynchronous Communication" or "Synchronous Communication" or "computer mediated communication" or "distance education" or elearning or e-learning or "electronic learning" or "social network*" or "educational technology" OR "social media" OR "online learn*" OR "web sites" OR Internet or "virtual classroom*" or "web 2.0" or blog* or weblog* or facebook or twitter or instagram. Again, no restrictions were placed on dates and therefore include publications up to and including 2015. 135 articles were retrieved from this search. Only three articles appeared in both the first and second searches.

As recommended by Rocco and Hatcher (2011), in addition to database searching, additional sources were identified through reference lists and a Google Scholar search. A final list of 242 articles were retained for analysis. In order to identify the articles that addressed the research questions, a selection of exclusion criteria were established.

Exclusion Criteria

The 242 abstracts were read through for an indication that the article addressed intergroup/intercultural dialogue through an interactive online medium. Articles were excluded from analysis for a variety of reasons. Although many articles discussed the mechanics of setting up international online courses, such as the need for the professors to develop relationships and coordinate tasks and deadlines, they often failed to acknowledge the dynamics of intercultural communication and made little or no reference to curriculum development or teacher facilitation (ex. Araujo, de Carlo & Melo-Pfeifer, 2010; Azcarate, 2007; Cunnigham, Fagersten & Holmsten, 2010; Little, Titarenko & Bergelson, 2005; Mountcastle, 2011). A number of articles were also excluded because their application of technology did not require any interaction between students, thus not fulfilling the minimal requirements of dialogue. Instead these articles focused on learning about different cultures, simulating intercultural scenarios or playing games (ex. Bachen, Hernandez-Ramos & Raphael, 2012). Articles that referred only to intercultural videoconferencing (ex. Gregerson & Youdina, 2009) were also excluded although Helm, Guth & Farrah (2012) was included because it compares videoconferencing to online discussion forums and addresses relevant inequalities and power dynamics. In the end, 237 articles were retained for analysis.

Analysis

The content from the selected articles were organized according to themes using the “constant comparative method” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008) and organized according to the research questions:

1. What is the state of the literature on intergroup/intercultural dialogue online? How are these programs conceptualized and in what context?
2. What are the issues surrounding inequality and power that arise? How are they addressed? How do these programs address inequality in design and facilitation?

To address the first question, a majority of the empirical articles were summarized in a chart that highlighted the rationale, conceptualization, benefits and challenges. A summary of these findings constitute the first part of the results.

Fifty largely theoretical articles were also retained to address the second research question. These articles were also reviewed using the “constant comparative method” from which the following considerations for developing inclusive online environments emerged : the need for culturally and linguistically inclusive design and pedagogy, the need to embrace and work with conflict and the necessity of re-defining the role of the teacher.

Findings

Overview of Literature on Computer Mediated Intercultural and Intergroup Dialogue

Rationale

The majority of research on intercultural computer-mediated communication (I-CMC), alternately referred to as “telcollaboration”, is done in the context of Business and English courses and meant to develop work-related competencies. As stated by Boehm and Aniola-Jedrzejek (2010):

The workplace of the 21st century will increasingly demand employees who bring a global perspective as well as a multiplicity of abilities to their work, including an understanding of world cultures, an ability to work collaboratively, and the capacity to integrate technology into many facets of their work, (p. 2).

The incorporation of I-CMC in a business course is thus largely motivated by the assumption that during one's career intercultural contact and collaboration, on and off-line, is inevitable (Conway-Gomez & Palacios, 2011; Crossman & Bordia, 2011; Freeman, Knight & Butt, 2011). Research on the integration of technology into English language curriculum serves to meet the goal of exposing students to cultural differences while also developing their language skills (Yang & Chen, 2014).

A significantly smaller number of articles largely referring to online contact as "intergroup", addressed online programs that were developed in the context of peace education. These programs, mostly occurring in Cyprus, Ireland and Israel, were founded on the premise that dialogue between groups in areas of intractable conflict are fundamental to lessening tensions and meeting the goal of reconciliation (Firer, 2008; Laouris, 2004; Vrasidas, Zembylas, Evagorou, Avraamidou & Aravi, 2007; Yablon & Katz, 2001; Yablon, 2007). The Virtual Peace Education (VPE) program in Israel, for example, was developed in the 2000s when the traditional forms of peace education aimed at bringing Israeli and Palestinian youth together had to be cancelled due to an escalation in the conflict and a resurgence of mistrust between both groups (Firer, 2008). Similarly, Laouris (2004) reports that the integration of technology became a necessity in peace-building efforts in education when the European Union postponed accession negotiations with Turkey, leading the Turkish Cypriot Authorities to limit the movement of Turkish Cypriots while banning face-to-face meetings with Greek Cypriots.

Conceptualizations

By and large, studies on English and Business courses were grounded in Michael Byram's (1997) conception of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) which points to the intractability of language and cultural competence. Byram's (1997) intercultural model speaks to the need to be open and curious, have knowledge of social groups and cultural practices as well as the ability to interpret an event from alternative perspectives.

Studies that looked at the use of internet communications for the purposes of reconciliation in peace education context, on the other hand, were mostly grounded in Allports' (1954) "contact hypothesis" which suggests that without being supported by certain "necessary conditions", dialogue in multicultural settings may only serve to reinforce stereotypes and intensify conflicts. The first of Allport's (1954) conditions for relationship-building included "environmental support", referring the need for students to perceive institutional support for having them come together. The second condition, "equal status between groups", although not likely felt outside of the classroom, is determined to be essential within the classroom. As well, having students cooperate on some sort of project or goal was also deemed necessary to overcoming prejudices and developing relationships.

The few articles that did speak of using online dialogue in the context of global citizenship education did not address issues surrounding facilitation or power (ex.

Meier, 2007; Patterson, Botero Carrillo, Rigoberto & Salinas, 2012). A more critical perspective that acknowledges and addresses inequality and power dynamics in communication was largely taken up by the more theoretical literature. This body of literature will be presented in the second part of the literature review.

Benefits

Across disciplines, there appears to be general agreement that the benefits of incorporating technology with the goal of facilitating intercultural dialogue and collaboration include: around the clock accessibility for students with internet access (Basharina, 2009), the flexibility of being able to interact at one's own chosen time and pace without the pressures of a traditional classroom setting (Basharina, 2009; Berg, 2012), having the time to think through ideas before posting or responding (Basharina, 2009) and the opportunity to connect with students from different parts of the world (Basharina, 2009; Berg, 2012). Virtual learning environments were also seen to reduce the impact of visual or superficial differences between participants that often occur in face-to-face meetings.

In addition to allowing contact between groups, most case studies on intergroup dialogue suggested that technology mediated discussions had additional benefits. Firer's (2008) study reported that learners felt that face to face encounters with the "enemy" could be extremely anxiety producing, traumatic and end badly. Technology mediated contact, however, allowed participants to take their time in getting to know each in environments and at a pace with which they were comfortable. Firer (2008) described online dialogue as allowing reflection and time for "internalizing the new impressions and change of emotions," (Firer, 2008, p. 196). Similarly, Yablon (2007) stated that using ICTs provided a "base for meaningful interaction while affording a sufficient feeling of safety for a personal disclosure and intergroup contact," (p. 102). Finally, Yablon and Katz (2001) contend that online communication allows for deep and meaningful connections by providing access to and facilitating disclosure between a wide range of participants while also allowing users to pull out of dialogues that made them uncomfortable.

Challenges

Firer (2008) warns against underestimating the difference between online and face-to-face dialogue and the potential for frustration when trying to bridge or connect these two worlds through I-CMC. As pointed to by Dillon, Wang and Tearle (2007) as in the case of face-to-face communication, in I-CMC, rhetorical styles, behaviours and expectations are grounded in culturally specific norms which may be negotiated with varying levels of success. In addition, when students from different cultures enter into textual communication across difference absence of the nuances of tone and expression may increase the risk of misinterpretation (Berg, 2012, Yildiz, 2009). Belz's (2005) study, for example, showed that the online interaction style of an American student who generally avoided confrontation was dismissed as being "uncommitted, uninterested" by his German counterparts. On the other hand, the American characterized the German students' interactions as "rude and aggressive" despite their view that they were merely trying to engage in discussions about the subject-matter at hand (p.26). Kramsch and Thorne's (2002) study of online interaction between French and American language learners also found different discourse styles between the two groups. French participants "used factual, impersonal, dispassionate genres of writing" (p. 94), while American students' posts

were described as being “full of questions and exclamation marks, [which] suggests a high degree of affective involvement and emotional identification” (p. 95).

Another challenge to technology mediated dialogue is the fact that students from different countries may not have equal access to technology. Needless to say, those who have regular access to technology as well as the internet are advantaged from the beginning (Bali, 2014; Berg, 2012; Helm, Guth & Farrah, 2012). For example, in the Basharina (2009) study all the Japanese and Mexican students had free and unlimited internet access, and most of them had internet at home. In contrast, 61% of the Russian students did not have internet access at home. In addition, Thorne (2003) notes that in I-CMC the ways students engage with technology may differ in accordance with the local ‘culture-of-use’, which he defines as “historically sedimented characteristics that accrue to a CMC tool from its everyday use” (Thorne, 2003, p. 40). As well, instructors implement technology in accordance with their own historically, economically and culturally based institutional conditions and curricula requirements, thereby reinforcing their own cultures-of-use vis-à-vis educational technology (Basharina, 2009).

Results

Whether the goal of I-CMC is intercultural competence or intergroup reconciliation, research on I-CMC has yielded mixed results and “often fails to achieve the intended pedagogical goals” (O’Dowd & Ritter, 2006, p. 624; Hoter, Shonfeld & Ganayim, 2009; Veletsianos & Eliadou, 2009). As stated by O’Dowd (2003), “intercultural exchanges which fail to function properly can lead to a reinforcement of stereotypes and a confirmation of negative attitudes,” (p. 138). O’Dowd and Ritter (2006) define “failed communication” in online intercultural dialogue as interactions with misunderstandings, conflicts and “...low levels of participation, indifference, tension between participants, or negative evaluation of the partner group or their culture,” (p. 624). Although Kramsch and Thorne (2002), for example, show that online exchanges can raise learners’ cultural awareness, Crossman and Bordia (2011) suggest that their online intercultural project actually strengthened an adherence to stereotypes. Other examples of unsuccessful intercultural contact that led to superficial exchanges, misunderstandings, conflict and/or frustration on the part of the students or teachers include Belz (2003), Hauck (2007), Ware (2005), O’Dowd (2003; 2005), and Chun (2011). These outcomes are attributed, based on their review of the literature, to “...complex often confusing, array of factors related to the students and the sociocultural contexts in which they are operating, the organization and structure of the exchange, and the type of interaction which takes place between the groups in the online environment,” (p.625). O’Dowd and Ritter (2006) outline “potential areas of dysfunction” (p.628) as including students’ incoming levels of intercultural competence, their motivation and expectations, the relationship between the teachers as well as the alignment of tasks, timelines and assessment criteria. Although these may very well explain some of the issues present, there is not reference to inclusion, inequality or the role of the teacher in facilitating online dialogue.

Conclusion

Research in the area cross-cultural dialogue, called “intergroup” in peace related contexts and “intercultural” in English and business courses, paint a rather scattered image of advancements in this area. Despite compelling arguments for the integration of I-CMC, there are few articles that provide a complete picture, conceptualization and assessment of online dialogue. Although there are some notable exceptions, which will be elaborated on shortly, this preliminary review confirms Basharina’s (2009), contention that research on I-CMC fails to document “ the diverse factors influencing learning, such as local contexts, different learner frames of reference, and instructors’ mediation,” (p.390). This is compounded by the absence of a recognition of power issues. Given that the intergroup dialogue studies are centered in areas of conflict, it is particularly surprising that there is little acknowledgement of the need to address inequalities or facilitate discussions on social and political issues. The following section, emerging largely from the theoretical literature, will thus focus on the issues relating to power and inequality that may arise in online dialogues contexts and some of the strategies for working with these issues.

2. Addressing Inequality in Intercultural/Intergroup Dialogue Online

Many of the aforementioned articles on ICTs and intercultural dialogue appear grounded in the assumption that the internet can promote equality by providing a “culturally neutral” learning environment where, in the words of Kramsch and Thorne (2002), “native and non-native speakers can have access to one another as linguistic entities on a screen, unfettered by historical, geographical, national or institutional identities” (p. 85). Laouris’ (2004) account of the development of the “Technology for Peace” portal, for example, concludes that the use of computer supported dialogue “equalizes power relations among participants because it ensures that all have equal time and equal opportunity to contribute,” (p.71) and “...facilitates a common understanding in a way that the consensus is not questioned and all contributors consider all parameters legitimate,” (p.72). These rather sweeping generalizations risk adhering to rather simplistic understandings of how power may be experienced and expressed in these contexts. A small but significant part of the research, however, does focus on the need to develop inclusive and transformative dialogue spaces that openly address cultural, linguistic and technological issues that arise in globally networked online environments that seek to foster intergroup/intercultural dialogue. The following largely theoretical body of literature suggests that there is a need to develop culturally and linguistically inclusive programs in which conflict is openly experienced and addressed. These learning environments also require a reconceptualization of the role of teacher.

Developing culturally and linguistically inclusive environments

Given the prevalence of English in GNLEs and the recognition that language and culture are inextricable, intercultural online interactions can lead to educational experiences that for many global learners are alienating or exclusionary (Dillon, Wang & Tearle, 2007). Bokor (2011) suggests that the dominance of the English language sets up an

... asymmetrical relationship between native speakers and the Other and has been accused of “linguistic imperialism” (Phillipson, 1992), which suggests that those using it as their mother-tongue should be wary of the danger of privileging their “nativeness” as an advantage in cross-boundary discursive events (p. 114-115).

Few programs acknowledge the implications of the prevalence of the English language in intercultural online communication. American students in particular are often unaware of the range of differences within the English language and fail to recognize that American English is contextual and may alienate wider international context (Dillon, Wang & Tearle, 2007). Failing to encourage students to interrogate the consequences of privileging the taken-for-granted status of their variety of English deprives them of the opportunity to “widen their worldviews and self-perceptions as users of English,” (Bokor 2011, p.116). More than spelling or grammatical competence, this type of reflection is considered essential to successful intercultural exchanges (Bokor, 2011).

Bokor (2011) insists on the need to produce new pedagogical spaces that incorporate a “World Englishes paradigm” that encourages students to examine the factors that influence what they know about themselves in relationship to others through language. Teaching students about the historical and sociolinguistic contexts of Indian English, Ghanaian English and Malaysian English, for example, should help them understand the cultural expectations underlying different rhetorical models (p.134). One strategy for working across cultural and linguistic barriers online, as presented by Bohemia and Ghassan (2012), is to work with visual ways of communicating such as representing emotions and viewpoints through images.

As explained by Bali (2014), an open dialogue between groups can “be potentially colonizing, empowering one group by inherently being on their terms and serving their interests,” (p.213):

... while our classrooms now constitute richly diverse transcultural and multi-epistemological environments, all students are required to conform to essentially mono-cultural, mono-linguistic and mono epistemic linguistic practices, (Eijkman, 2009, p.243).

With the dominance of English comes a privileging of a “western” style of education and discourse that centers on the development of deliberative and critical thinking skills which emphasize questioning and debate (Araujo, de Carlo & Melo-Pfeifer, 2010; Bali, 2014). However, “the expectation that students will question knowledge or the teacher is not a universally accepted form of interaction,” (McLaoughlin & Oliver, 2000, p.59).

Eijkman (2009) makes the case for a more “democratic or egalitarian approach to knowledge construction to render visible the marginalized knowledge systems and discourses of non-Western or non-mainstream social groups that have been erased by the hegemonic suppression inherent in Western higher education,” (p.241). He advocates for an understanding of knowledge that recognizes a multiplicity of viewpoints and speaks to the potential of online learning spaces as “egalitarian transcultural contact zones” that can be both disruptive and productive, neither privileging dominant or subjective knowledge systems, and instead, used to encourage self-reflection and critical interrogation (Eijkman, 2009, p.247).

Bokor (2011) speaks to the need to revamp the online curriculum through the use of input from non-Western perspectives. An example of designing an online learning environment from a non-Western perspective is provided in McLaoughlin and Oliver’s (2000) article “Designing learning environments for cultural inclusivity: A case study of indigenous online learning at tertiary level.” Their article outlines strategies for developing online learning environments that account for the learning needs and communication styles of Australian indigenous students. In particular, McLaoughlin and Oliver (2000) advocate for the application of a “multiple cultural model” that considers the philosophical underpinnings of goals, objectives, content and instructional activities while incorporating multiple pedagogies. This model is applied by considering the following questions:

- What kind of learning environment is most familiar to the students?
 - How does the cultural background of these students influence their conceptions of learning?
 - How do students conceive the role of the teacher?
 - What kind of relationship do students want with an online tutor?
 - What kinds of assessment tasks will support learning and cultural inclusivity?
 - What rewards and forms of feedback will be most motivating for these students?
 - Is the locus of control congruent with these students’ own sense of personal control?
 - What cognitive styles characterise the target group?
- (McLaoughlin & Oliver, 2000, p.64).

McLaoughlin and Oliver (2000) further recommend that the design be validated by members of the group or groups in order to ensure its “authenticity” (p.64).

In reference to their work with Australian indigenous learners, McLaoughlin and Oliver (2000) present ten design principles for culturally inclusive environments. The first, is to adopt a constructivist approach to knowledge and an epistemology that incorporates narratives and storytelling as legitimate ways of knowing and moves beyond a focus on rational argumentation, favouring the understanding of multiple perspectives over agreement.

Second, authentic learning activities should reflect the skills, values and culture of the community with an emphasis on interactivity and dialogue. Integrated opportunities to collaborate, construct and share knowledge are also deemed important to equalize learning environments. Fourth, web-based tools and tutors should be available to support and “scaffold” learners throughout the learning process. Fifth, they recommend establishing “flexible and responsive” student roles and responsibilities which allow “multi-layered exploration of unit requirements, assessment tasks and learning activities,” (p.67) which should include technical and information literacy

skills. A sixth consideration is to provide multiple channels for communication and interaction. The importance of having a sense of belonging, ownership and control over the learning process is the seventh guideline. The tutors roles need to be flexible, responsive and adjusted based on student feedback. In addition, access to multiple perspectives should be integrated. Finally, a high level of flexibility around goals, topics and assessments is considered in developing inclusive online environments (McLaoughlin & Oliver, 2000, p.67-68).

Placing intercultural dialogue at center of programs

Many articles talked about the importance of online international collaboration but treated intercultural competence as one of multiple goals, almost incidental, requiring little more than coming into contact with people from other cultures (ex. Karpova, Correia, Baran, 2009; Lee, 2011; Liaw, 2007). Jaidev (2014) warns against the assumption that bringing groups into contact will necessarily produce opportunities for intercultural communication that moves students beyond stereotypes and superficial understandings of cultural differences. As stated by Dooly (2011) “it is important not to ‘essentialize’ the cultural traits of the participants in the online exchange, since this might lead to assumptions that all incidences or misunderstandings in the exchange were related to the meeting of ‘cultures’,” (p. 323). Showing an interest in others’ culture, gathering facts, opinions or values should also not be equated with the interpretive abilities deemed to be primordial for intercultural exchanges (Araujo, de Carlo & Melo-Pfeifer, 2010; Belz, 2005).

Jaidev (2014) underlines the importance of teaching about self-awareness of ones’ own socialization, sensitivities and biases. This self-awareness can serve as “a first step towards understanding that every individual’s cultural make-up has been and will continue to evolve based on the influence of the whole range of cultures, people and experiences that the individual has been exposed to,” (Jaidev, 2014, p.134). Muller-Hartmann (2007) indicates that a learners’ capacity for critical reflection and self-assessment are essential to the development of intercultural competence. Furthermore, along with the realization of one’s ethnocentric perspectives, students’ need to learn to be open and flexible when working with different communication styles or expectations of learning (Kitade, 2012).

As pointed to by Bruns and Humphreys (2005), if students are truly to understand global issues, they must grapple with them in a way that connects to their everyday lives while also considering the impact on others. Thus, one of the significant challenges for faculty is to develop opportunities for students to not only learn first-hand about the process of globalization, but to challenge and re-evaluate their own cultural perspectives, building shared learning and knowledge cultures across traditional boundaries. Boehm, Kurthen and Aniola-Jedrzejc (2010) insist that students need not necessarily always agree with the views and opinions of peers in other countries. The more important question is whether they can recognize, understand, and respect differences, and effectively communicate and negotiate in spite of them.

Hilton (2013) advocates applying a conception of critical dialogue to that GNLEs that “disrupt the common-place” and focus on social and political issues and commits while also working towards social action. Hilton (2013) recommends the following design features for such a learning environment: a centralized discussion space where

students share equal control over subject-choice, the ability of students to opt in and out of more private and focused discussion threads, the capacity to create meaningful personal profiles, a careful management of task and time so that students have enough time to reflect on material and engage in a timely matter while addressing a range of subject matter. In addition, Hilton (2013) suggests developing critical capacities through readings with conflicting viewpoints as well as through the skilled interventions of teachers or moderators in discussions that encourage students to consider the influence of power in their subjects. Success is determined once students "...begin to self-reflect on their biases, recognize multiple perspectives, question the claims of others and become more comfortable with disagreement as a locus for understanding rather than marginalization," (p.610-611).

Barracough and McMahon (2013)'s own experience attempting to transfer a critical multiculturalism curriculum to an online platform revealed that the tensions that arise in intergroup/intercultural dialogue can be transformed into learning opportunities. Their course connected privileged and disadvantaged American youth through an online platform through which they discussed social and political issues surrounding the U.S Mexican border. Defined as "the recognition and articulation of the structural and cultural systems that frame individual experience and meaning making, across difference," (p. 236), Barracough and McMahon (2013) suggest that dialogue was "transformative" when tensions were treated as "distorting dilemmas" and used as opportunities for students to challenge their own knowledge and assumptions.

According to Zembylas and Vrasidas (2005), to avoid the potentially colonizing effects of I-CMC students need to develop "an alternative criticality that involves the ability to move flexibly outside conventional thinking- that is – imagining what it might mean to think without some of the very things that make our current thinking meaningful," (p.71). A critically literate learner "knows that the process of using the Internet is one of undoing the illusory stability of fixed claims and identities that mark others and one's self socially and ethnically," (Zembylas & Vrasidas, 2005, p.71). Further, ICTs should be seen as a way to empower traditionally marginalized individuals and facilitate contact with groups struggling for justice and equity. To this end, they suggest educators use ICTs to develop:

- the ability to question cherished beliefs and presuppositions, thus emphasizing difference that presents students with the possibility of thinking otherwise;
- the notion that criticality is not only a way of thinking but also a way of being, i.e. it is a practice, a way of life that does not uncritically accept ideological valorizations; and
- collective questioning and criticism in social circumstances that affirm resistance against global domination, (p.73)

These aspects of criticality are not meant to promote a monolithic view of a more just or peaceful world but rather to challenge the hegemonic ideologies surrounding ethnocentrism, capitalism, militarism, etc. Zembylas and Vrasidas (2005) describe the need for a “pedagogy of discomfort” that ask students to move outside of their comfort zones and recognize the ideological framing and social construction of what they have been taught (p.74). As described by Kanata and Martin (2007), any transformative online dialogue will likely require the take down of “fragile contradictions that are necessary to maintaining their [privileged students] unearned privilege,” (p.4).

Role of the teacher

Although some articles on I-CMC acknowledge the importance of teacher training and involvement (O’Dowd, 2007; Ware & Kramsch, 2005) few articles explore this issue in much detail particular as it relates to the facilitation of online dialogue. As acknowledged by Auxiliadora Sales Ciges (2001), I-CMC necessitates a redefinition of an educator’s role and insists that teacher’s need to focus on facilitating positive interactions with and among students so as to “build a learning community that makes it possible to openly exchange ideas, information and feelings,” (Sales Ciges, 2001, p. 137).

Committing to open online dialogue can make it difficult for teachers to feel prepared given the unpredictability of student interactions and the likelihood that tensions will emerge (Schneider & Silke von der Emde, 2006). As a result, Schneider and Silke von der Emde (2006) suggest that “too often efforts to teach communicative competence betray a desire to diminish or even eliminate conflict entirely,” (p.179). One example of this is in Hoter, Shonfeld and Ganayim’s (2009) report on their development of a model for intergroup contact in Israel, where they intentionally omit subjects that may be “provocative,” including history and sports (p.10). Schneider and Silke von der Emde (2006), however, suggest that “a dialogic approach to online exchanges offers a conceptual structure for making conflict a central and productive source for learning rather than a debilitating stumbling block to communication,” (p.179). They suggest that it is “more essential to help students to tolerate and feel comfortable with conflict rather than encourage them to deny their own cultural approaches to disagreements or rush to find common ground,” (p. 183).

Further, Schneider and von der Emde (2006) insist that intercultural conflicts will always occur and that the solution is not to teach students strategies to avoid conflict, but rather to help students treat conflicts as learning opportunities. As stated by Belz (2003):

It is very important to understand that these contextually-shaped tensions are not to be viewed as problems that need to be eradicated in order to facilitate smoothly functioning partnerships. ... Structural differences frequently constitute precisely these cultural rich-points that we want our students to explore” (2003, p. 87).

Given the flexibility that this may require on the part of the teacher, O’Dowd and Ritter (2006) advises educators to take “an on-going action research approach to their

classes which involves collecting and analyzing online interactions and subsequent feedback from their students” (p. 639).

Barraclough and McMahon (2013) further point to the need for teacher involvement in online dialogue so that tensions may be used productively, suggesting that teachers must “pose the tough questions, and challenge students’ assumptions just as they do in the physical classroom, to facilitate students’ critical reflexivity about power, privilege, and their own positionality,” (p.250). Zembylas and Vrasidas (2005) describe the role of the educator as one that

translates experiences through multiple discourses and identities. She knows that all knowledge is partial. These understandings do not lead to anarchy or complete relativity because one can incorporate multiplicity and hybridity without losing a capacity for thoughtful evaluation, (p.71).

The peace education literature readily acknowledges the need for facilitator training in conflict mediation was consistently provided to moderators of the online discussions. In the first phase of the “Feeling Closer from a Distance” project, for example, Jewish and Arab university students were trained as program practitioners and attended workshops on ethnic stereotypes (Yablon, 2007). As well, the project regrouping Jewish and Bedouin youth as presented by Yablon and Katz (2001), started with facilitator training on dealing with stereotypes and intolerance. Such training, however, did not mention how to deal with power disparities between participants.

Helm, Guth and Farrah (2012) also support the position that conflict can be turned into opportunities for learning. However, based on their research, they suggest that there are certain “necessary conditions” for productive dialogue including “an awareness of the potential hegemonies at play in a telecollaboration project and the addressing of power issues,” (p.118). A dialogic approach, suggest Helm, Guth and Farrah (2012), brings diverse learners together to explore misconceptions and the causes of conflict. Such an approach should not seek to minimize difference and emphasize universal beliefs, nor does it seek to persuade and convert, but rather encourage free expression, respect of difference and an openness that facilitates understanding and empathy, (p. 118). To adopt such an approach, they recommend a curriculum that overtly tackles sensitive issues effectively taking students outside of their comfort zone. Dialogue groups, they suggest, should be balanced with participants from different backgrounds. Facilitators should be trained and work to develop a trusting environment in which disagreement is seen as a learning opportunity. Students cannot be seen solely as language learners but also as individuals with multiple identities. Finally, they recommend the use of multimodal/different forms of online communication (Helm Guth & Farrah, 2012, p.118).

Akintunde (2009) makes a similar observation stating that “confrontation is an essential element of any class that seeks to deconstruct White racist pedagogy,” (p.36). He also suggests that online spaces may serve to ease tensions associated with conflict by diminishing fears of being jumped on or ridiculed. His experience was that students tend to feel more comfortable sharing personal reflections on power, privilege and multiculturalism in an online space. He concludes his observations by suggesting that “...as we grapple with the notion that technology is just as much a product of social inequality as a conduit through which we can address such an issue,

it becomes incumbent on us to ensure that as the debate rages we are using the technology to its best advantage,” (Akintunde, 2009, p.44).

Conclusion and Recommendations for Further Research

There is a significant chasm gap in the literature between the empirical research on developing intercultural competence online (largely in the context of language and business courses) and the largely theoretical body of literature that points to issues relating to power and inequality in international online learning settings. This literature review confirms Freeman, Knight and Butt (2011)’s contention that much of the literature on I-CMC deals with the technological aspects of global virtual teams and that there is a “substantial void in the literature discussing the human factors of global, virtual group formation and function, including the numerous challenges inherent in crossing international and ethnic boundaries and the current importance of developing high functioning global teams,” (p. 280). Lamy and Goodfellow (2010) highlight the importance of critiquing telcollaboration by asking “historically-informed questions about whose interests the practice might serve and how its hidden power relations might be deconstructed and understood,” (p.130). To this end, Eijkman (2009) asks, “...how can we transform Western higher education to provide epistemically and discursively inclusive transcultural learning zones that place non-mainstream students on trajectories of participation that enhances their opportunity to participate as equals in a more vernacular, a much more egalitarian, cosmopolitanism increasingly committed to socio-economic and politically transformative global practices?” (p.244). Or as Bali (2014) states rather more succinctly: “how do we reconceptualize intercultural dialogue/communication programs in order to improve student learning and empowerment while adequately addressing the inevitable imperfection and inequality of the dialogue situation?” (p. 214).

As sites purporting to facilitate cross-cultural dialogue continue to emerge, it is imperative that educators and curriculum developers explore the implications and assumptions in their design and pedagogy. Having pointed to the importance of placing intercultural/intergroup dialogue at the centre of a pedagogy that aims to help students work through conflicts and misunderstandings, future research should take in-depth look at existing online programs designed to facilitate dialogue for civic and peace-building ends. This research should adopt a critical stance in order to help educators and designers work towards developing inclusive and transformative online learning environments that support reconciliation, global citizenship and peace. This approach necessitates that questions around how learning environments account for cultural and linguistic differences in curriculum and platform design be considered. Based on the theoretical literature in this review, additional questions should include: how are group-based power differentials acknowledged addressed? How are disagreements and conflicts addressed? And, what is the role of the teacher and how is it supported? Looking into questions like these ones would help address what Zembylas and Vrasidas’ (2005) have described as a fundamental challenge in education today to

...use the new technologies in creating a culture and society based on respect for cultural difference, and aim at greater participation of individuals and groups largely excluded from wealth and power in society...[to accomplish this] Educators need constantly to devise new decolonizing strategies in which ICT can be used for the advancement of what is ultimately an important educational vision: to create a more just and peaceful world (p.81).

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Transnational Higher Education- Linguistic Negotiations

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Abstract

The demand for transnational higher education, in particular UK education, has been high in countries where there is under- provision. Davis et al. (2000) raise concerns that most programmes are delivered overseas without significant adaptation, questioning therefore whether these programmes are relevant to local context, and appropriate with respect to different cultures, learning styles and language. Internationalisation of higher education in the UAE has been a recent phenomenon, with little subsequent research into the area. The study presented here draws upon the UK's one year postgraduate course in Initial Teacher Education which was adapted by a University in Dubai, as part of an ongoing collaborative venture to assist the University in its stated mission of providing a 'British' Education. A central aim of the UAE training programme was to develop teachers to teach mathematics and science in the English language in public schools thereby raising the quality of English language in these schools. By encouraging this promotion of the English language however it was clear that there could be tensions and challenges in adopting a global language hitherto little developed as a teaching medium. This adaptation of British education is investigated in the context of Dubai, drawing on the lived experiences of students and staff in attempting to make sense of the programme within a local context. It will be argued that tutors and students in offshore Dubai teacher education become 'selective cosmopolitans' who negotiate cross-cultural and linguistic influences pragmatically and ambivalently in order to make sense of the programme.

Keywords: cosmopolitanism ; internationalisation; cross cultural issues in teaching and learning; higher education; teacher education

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Introduction

The demand for transnational higher education, in particular UK education, has been high in countries where there is under-provision of higher education. Internationalisation of higher education in the UAE and the Gulf has been a recent phenomenon and there is little research into the area. Davis et al. (2000) raise concerns that most programmes are delivered overseas without significant adaptation. According to their study, only 28% of programmes were adapted to the local context. They raise questions therefore relating to whether the overseas programmes are relevant to the local context, and appropriate with respect to different cultures, learning styles and language. The aim of this article is to consider the adaptation of a UK postgraduate course within the UAE. In particular it draws on the lived experiences of students and staff in attempting to make sense of the programme within a local context. By encouraging the students to engage with the English language and promote its use in UAE schools it was clear that there could be tensions and challenges in adopting a global language hitherto little developed as a teaching medium. There has however been pressure on Emirati nationals to improve their competence in English language over recent years. . Despite the fact that Arabic is the only official language of the Emirate of Dubai, English is an essential medium of communication among its highly diverse expatriate population. It pervades its daily life, market, education and media. There is an emerging pattern of Arabic being replaced by English as the main language in some Emirati homes (Burden – Leahy 2009). There is also a perceived need to educate nationals in the English language to serve the global economy. Moreover, Emirati Government policy requires them to raise their competence level to occupy positions in the private sector. Dubai's higher education institutions use English as the main language of instruction and require a minimum English score to be eligible to enter university. There is therefore a perception that public schools in the UAE are failing to prepare students for higher education in English as they teach in Arabic.

The study reported here draws upon the UK's PGCE (Postgraduate Certificate in Education) programme, a one year course in Initial Teacher Education. This course was adapted by a University in the United Arab Emirate of Dubai, as part of an ongoing collaborative venture in which a partnership had been formulated with the UK University to assist the University in its stated mission of providing a 'British' Education. Funded by the Knowledge and Human Development Authority in Dubai a central aim and focus of the UAE programme was to develop teachers who could teach mathematics and science in the English language in public schools thereby raising the quality of English language in these schools. In this context the emphasis on the English language within the teacher education programme was central. Within the Emirate of Dubai however there is great variety in educational provision and curricula and this variety needed to be factored into any innovative practice in schools. There is clearly a divide between the public schools and the independent schools where English is the main medium of instruction. This emerged as a source of contention and challenge for the students, therefore it was felt that there was a need to investigate further, aiming to add to the field in relation to the adaptation of programmes abroad

Conceptual Context: Global Contact Zone

The study is conceptually located in the notion of 'Contact Zone' Pratt (1991). According to her, 'contact' zones are: 'social spaces where cultures meet, clash and grapple with each other, often in the context of highly asymmetrical relations of power' (p.1). Singh & Doherty (2004) expand this concept as 'global contact zones' to include sites of international higher education. Individuals in global educational contact zones come with diverse worldviews, histories and educational experiences and contest cross-cultural dilemmas through day-to-day pedagogical experiences. The business of exporting or importing higher education is not only an act of exchanging educational products but also ensuring the flow of ideologies, social values and cultural symbols.

As a consequence, global educational context zones raise new moral, cultural, and pedagogical dilemmas. They 'unsettle our assumptions about teachers, learners and appropriate pedagogic strategies' (Singh & Doherty, 2004). These assumptions are important as global educational contact zones operate within asymmetrical power dynamics. The universities usually from the developed English speaking countries are invited as 'experts' in the global contact zone of developing countries. They enter through a variety of means such as partnerships, validation, franchise and branch campuses (Altbach & Knight, 2007). The United States, United Kingdom and Australia are leading providers of such international higher education (Bohm, et al., 2004).

The English language dominates global contact zones (Jordao, 2009, p.95). Its supremacy is increasingly established in the academic, scientific and technological sectors. Flowerdew & Li (2008, p.2) observe that English is 'by far the preferred language in the social sciences and the humanities' on a global scale. Teachers and students play a very important role in global educational contact zones. Teachers are at the forefront of confronting 'risks, moral dilemmas on behalf of their institutions and end users' as they navigate between upholding the ethics of cultural respect on one hand and providing acculturating experience of the linguistic and cultural orientation to Western higher education on the other hand (Flowerdew and Li, p.34). Students are also involved as active agents. They 'produce, co-construct and challenge the design of these programmes in and through day to day pedagogic interaction' (p.12).

In considering the participants in this study reference to Skrbis and Ian Woodward's (2007) 'ambivalent' and 'strategic' cosmopolitans is helpful as a conceptual frame of reference to analyze the engagement of students and educators in the process of adaptation of an overseas educational model. It is useful for three reasons. Firstly, it recognizes the intertwined relationship between cosmopolitanism and globalization, secondly, it takes into account a variety of forms of everyday cosmopolitanism and thirdly, it is meant to study the type of people that the participants represent. They are neither 'global elites' nor the 'globally dispossessed'. Skrbis and Woodward's framework helps to explain selective and paradoxical cosmopolitan negotiations that the participants of this study demonstrate. It is therefore in the above conceptual context, that the research questions here are identified:

How do teachers and students adapt Western education in the 'global contact zone' of a developing country?

What ambivalence and pedagogical challenges do they face in adapting a Western model in the context of the local?

Empirical context

Having situated the research problem in its conceptual location the empirical location of the study is now considered. Dubai brings together universities and students from highly diverse cultural, ethnic, national, historical and linguistic backgrounds. The educational providers hail from a multitude of countries and cater to over 12,000 students of many nationalities (DIAC, 2009). A mixture of discourses shapes Dubai's educational sphere. Firstly, there is a huge market of expatriate students seeking overseas education (Wilkins, 2001). Secondly, there is a recognition that Dubai needs to develop its capacity to compete in the global economy (Dubai Strategic Plan, 2015). Thirdly, there is a move towards transferring skills and knowledge from expatriates to UAE Nationals. Expats occupy the vast majority of the workforce, especially in the private sector. The participation of nationals in the private sector was as low as 1% in 1995 (Wilkins, 2001, p.7). There is a political desire to increase this number.

The adapted PGCE programme's initial impetus therefore was to facilitate the Emiratisation of teachers. In particular the main driving force of the programme was to facilitate the development of Emirati nationals who could deliver the subjects of Maths and Science in the English language. However in the absence of sufficient applications from Emirati nationals, the offer of sponsorship on the course was extended to other Arab students. The programme thus, brought together a diversity of Arab students from countries such as Egypt, Syria, Jordan, Palestine, Iraq and Lebanon. All of them identify themselves as Muslims. The lecturers involved in the adaptation come from diverse faith, national and cultural backgrounds.

In the above empirical context a subsequent sub set of specific research questions were addressed

What do participants perceive as challenges and benefits of the adaptation of the UK model?

What factors do they consider as highly pertinent in adapting the overseas model?

Which aspects of the programme do they appreciate?

Which aspects of the programme do they reject?

Sites and sample

The research reported here was undertaken by two researchers. One researcher focussed their study on interviews with participants on the course and the course educators and managers. The other researcher undertook more in depth fieldwork in order to obtain a richer and fuller understanding of the field. Purposive interviews were initially undertaken with policy makers and curriculum leaders in the UAE and the UK. These interviews mainly served to provide contextual and background information regarding the programme. Course documentation relating to validation and review was also scrutinised. Focus interviews were held with the Mathematics, Science and English lecturers. Focus groups were held with all current students (11) on the programme. Four of these participated in follow up interviews. Students who completed their training the previous year and were now teaching (3 out of 8) were also interviewed. As the interviews progressed it became clearer that the classroom emerged as a site in 'which diverse lived experiences and disparate ways of being and knowing come together to negotiate the sometimes collectivizing cultural practices of traditional education' (Alexander, 2003, p.423). Thus it was decided to primarily focus on the student perspectives. The interviews with the lecturers and the focus groups with students became key primary data sources, the documents served to provide factual understanding and observations helped to provide corroborations with what the participants expressed. The interviews with other stakeholders and questionnaires were used to understand the broader context.

The interviews fell on the continuum of what Powney & Watts (1987) identify as 'respondent' and 'informant' type interviews. In the 'respondent' type, the control of the interview lies with the interviewer who directs the discourse in order to satisfy his or her questions, though not necessarily in a prescribed order. In an 'informant' interview the goal is to obtain insights into the perception of an informant rather than making them respond to predetermined questions. The approach adopted varied on this continuum but was closer to the 'informant' type helping to identify unexpected or unanticipated answers which suggested 'hitherto unthought-of relationships and hypothesis.'

Data analysis

In analysing the data Miles and Huberman's 'fairly classic set' of six common moves as described by Punch (2005, p.194) were adopted. All the interviews and focus groups were transcribed. Three key components of Miles and Huberman's framework were utilised: data reduction, data display and drawing and verifying conclusions. Using the techniques of data display pieces of the data were ordered in a logical flow and kept changing their places as the data analysis progressed. This was not a linear process but occurred in several stages of re-assembly. Conclusions were drawn and verified. Original research questions were refined to ensure that the analysis and research questions shared a close link. This study intended to understand how students and educators experience and engage with the adaptation of the UK's teacher education model in the context of Dubai. Skrbis and Woodward's (2007) conceptualization of 'ambivalent' and 'strategic' cosmopolitanism helped explain the engagement of the students and educators. In this way discourses and counter-discourse on globalization led to an exploration of the tensions between openness to globalization and the fear of loss of local culture

English as ‘Globalization’ versus the loss of Arab identity’

In a consideration of the responses to interviews it became clear that the use and emphasis in the programme on the English language was viewed as being both beneficial and challenging. Students and lecturers interviewed considered English as a means to ‘develop’. They view it as the language for academic development and the language of science, research and higher education. The participants acknowledge a correlation between participating in the global economy and education in English. It is viewed as affording them increased economic mobility. The participants accept it as lingua franca (Jordao, 2009) and are enthusiastically seeking to acquire it. The resistance to English from the public schools where the students were placed for teaching experience had not been anticipated by most of them. One of the students stated,

We need to be realistic that the world around us is using English everywhere and we need to make the students and schools understand. Knowledge has to be applicable- so we have to use English.

The students are active consumers of English. They consume it as the language of popular music, advertising, satellite broadcasting, home computers, and video games. After their lectures and during the breaks they are hooked to the internet which offers 90% of information in English (Chang, 2006). Some students however perceive English also as a threat to their identity. It is important to distinguish that the students do not view English as Western domination but are apprehensive of the survival of Arabic. A threat to Arabic means a threat to their religious and cultural identity and ‘Arab point of view.’ For some students language and religion are deeply interconnected.

Saif: *We will need to build religion upon the language. For example, when you read the Quran you are not going to read the Quran in English. You are going to read it in Arabic.*

Nasir: *I mean you know our language is a very important part of our lives. If you don’t speak Arabic or read Arabic that means you have lost half of the things. You don’t understand your identity.*

Saif: *‘Then, we are not Arabs any more, khalas (finished)’*

The Arabic language is important to them as it is the language with the symbolic capital of the Quran (Vaish, 2008, p.463). It has been the language of high prestige for Arabs. Though Muslims across the world speak numerous languages; it is Arabic which is important to Muslims of different linguistic groups. Their fear of the loss of Arabic is enhanced by the multicultural environment of Dubai whereby some of them they fear that Arabic has been relegated to marginalization and inaccuracies.

English and Arabic: A Space for Both

As a way to resolve the ‘opportunity’ versus ‘threat’ dilemma, a majority of the students recommend bilingual teaching in public schools. Some of them recommend subject-wise division of English and Arabic. They suggest the use of English for maths and science and the use of Arabic to teach subjects such as history and

geography. Some of them suggest mix-language use. One of the students shared his experience:

Ehsan: I remember in college, one of the doctors who is Arabic wanted to teach us a concept. She was speaking in English and repeating and repeating for one hour, and we were not able to understand and then suddenly she decided to say in one word what does that mean in Arabic. So like she said, 'Majkur.' And when she said that, all of us 'yeah, ahhh, OK.' ...mix Arabic and English, so it will be the best, we can get the idea 100%.

The students are however, ambivalent about the degree of emphasis on English versus Arabic within the programme and their teaching placement schools. Some of them suggest that Arabic should be used to explain the concepts and terminologies that are to be taught in English. This is, they suggest, because there are certain terms which are difficult to translate in Arabic, while some concepts are difficult to explain in English. Conversely, another group of participants suggest that English should be the primary medium of instructions and only when children do not understand in English should the teacher resort to Arabic. A few recommend the complete use of English from the middle years onwards while a few others favour it being introduced at the early primary grades.

Their bilingualism can be seen as an attempt to resist perceived totalitarian effects of globalizing forces. It is considered as a way of preserving indigenous language as well as adapting outside language. This can be seen in the context of the debate which suggests that the choice of English as medium of instruction connotes 'prestige' and 'power' to foreign language over the native language. UNESCO's Education Position Paper (2003, p.14, cited in Mayall, 2008) argues that:

'The choice of language in the educational system confers power and prestige through its use in formal instruction. Not only is there a symbolic aspect, referring to status and visibility, but also a conceptual aspect referring to shared values and worldview expressed through that language.'

In the English-Arabic debate what is perceived as at stake is a loss of 'status and visibility' for the Arabic language (Mayall, 2008). Thus bilingualism is considered as a way of preserving the local while going global. One of the students asserted that,

If we are not going to use English in all subjects, they (the public school students) will stay low..(if) you are going to use Arabic all the time they will not develop.

A few students however would like Arabic to stay as the only medium of instruction. They believe that maths and science can be taught in the local language and technical terms can be developed in Arabic. Their views reflect a sense of pan-Arab concern for the future of Arabic as a language of scholarship (Troudi, 2004). One student expressed these concerns strongly

I totally disagree with it. First of all you have to consider the students. They are very weak, underachiever students in their age. You have to compare them with the students of other countries. They are underachievers in their own language. If you

teach them in English, they, I don't feel, will learn too much. If they are going to be studying everything in English they are going to lose their native language and culture.

These students argue against bilingual teaching in schools because this decision not only affects students learning but it also is a 'decision about ... which society's values to transmit' (Findlow, 2005, p.22). They do not undermine English but suggest alternate ways of improving English which does not have to take place in schools. One of the students commented,

They have to find another way to improve English. For example me and Amin, we learnt English by practice, you know... We finish high school and all the classes were in Arabic. We graduated and we went to universities and we did not face problems in English at all...learning a second language is acquisition.

There appeared to be a correlation between participants' backgrounds and their emphasis on the use of English as language of instruction. None of the students questioned English being the medium of instruction in tertiary education. It is also interesting to see that the three non-Arab educators support the use of Arabic as the medium of instruction, and it is the Arab educator who welcomes the idea of bilingual teaching. In the main the lecturers support the alternate ways of teaching English. One of them even exclaimed, 'Why would an Arab country want to teach in English?' Another suggested,

To bring up the importance of English they don't have to switch the curriculum, all they need to do is focus on the syllabus of English and I don't think they should start imposing English on other subjects...I think the perception of English as the main language here has to change.

This suggests that the Arab participants' concern for Arabic is primarily not as the language of academia but as the symbol of identity. The Arab students seem to perceive the need for learning Arabic at a young age and not in a higher education setting, as the assumption is Arabic is acquired by then. For them Arabic is an anchor which should be cultivated in school before they move on to accepting global trends through higher education in English. As if they need as Vaish (2008, p.451) quotes the 'cultural ballast' which prevents one from being swept away in the tide of globalization. Arabic in this sense becomes the language of childhood and 'roots' and English language becomes their 'wings.' Several students on the other hand, questioned uncritical adaptation of English and Western models in local context.

'100% English' to '75% Arabic'

On examining further the main aim of the government's sponsorship of the programme i.e to embed English as the medium of instruction in Maths and Science some interesting issues arose. When asked which language the students prefer to use while teaching maths and science in school, paradoxically even those who said that Arabic should continue to be the central medium of instruction, acknowledged that they find it easier to teach in English instead of Arabic.

Saif (Maths trainee): *I will face a lot of difficulties, specially, if they want to change some mathematical terms into Arabic.*

Ehsan (Science trainee): *Yeah, I think it is much easier for me to teach in English especially some scientific terms, because there are many scientific terms that we have been taught, that I don't know in Arabic.*

The school teaching experience therefore posed new cosmopolitan dilemmas as the PGCE intended to train teachers to teach maths and science in English when the public school students do not have the linguistic competency for such a sudden shift after having studied in Arabic for years. During their school placements, the lesson plans designed to teach mathematical and scientific concepts turned into English vocabulary classes and school teaching practice became very challenging

Some students asserted that they had faced mockery and resistance from the public school students for teaching in English.

Saif (Maths trainee): *Some students will come and embarrass us. 'Where do you come from? Oh, you are an Arabi! Then why don't you speak in Arabic? Why are you teaching in English, you are an Arabi.'*

The language policy of the adapted programme therefore became a point of general contestation. As the students began to practice the teaching of maths and science in English in public schools during their school placements, they often faced resistance from various sources. The media heightened the debate. Additionally the students were often undermined by the private schools for not having the first language level competency to teach in English. Questions about the status of Arabic as a serious language of scholarship and Arab identity were raised. It was decided that this policy needed to be reviewed and that in order to continue to be able to work in partnership with schools the language policy would be decided at school level. The head of the programme argued that

This programme was written with a particular partnership programme in mind- one that is central to the UK. It cannot and does not translate well here. We really are not addressing this issue well. Training teachers is not the same worldwide. I dispute this. We need to reconsider how we import and adapt.

Linguistic negotiations

In considering the linguistic negotiations, using Skrbis and Woodward's framework, it can be surmised that the participants demonstrate the attributes of strategic and ambivalent cosmopolitans. They approach English as a means to take advantage of globalization. At the same time they raise concerns in terms of its impact on Arabic and religious-cultural identity. English is valued as the language for academic and economic success while Arabic is considered as the language of identity, social life and religion. The students' ambivalence comes from how can both languages, English and Arabic be negotiated without one compromising the other. Whilst all of them agree on a bilingual policy, they differ in terms of 'how' it can be achieved. The overseas model of PGCE is adapted within these cosmopolitan negotiations. Cosmopolitan dynamic is seen as something that goes on in all societies (Delanty,

2006). The assumption is that culture contains capacities for learning and transforming. Viewed as such, Arab society can be seen as a historically dynamic process, assimilating, negotiating and developing new relations between self and other. In this light the debates around Arabic and English and global and local become internal to the process. Global is not seen as outside it but inside it. The findings reflect internal processes in which new relations are being developed within Arab world.

The imperatives of importing the UK's teacher education model in its original intention could be viewed as 'un-cosmopolitan' as it sought to replace Arabic as the language of maths and science in public school and switch the public school students' ways of knowing and learning. However, the very idea of 'adaptation' implies cosmopolitan openness to negotiate with the local context. Following the language controversy, the programme negotiated strategically with shifting debates within the global, political and local context. The amount of teaching undertaken in the English language was curtailed.

The results show that students and educators demonstrate shades of ambivalent and strategic cosmopolitanism in the way they negotiate with the cross-cultural consequences of international education. Language and culture are central features of their everyday ambivalence and strategic cosmopolitanism. Hence, the issue of language can also be viewed essentially as an issue of culture. In terms of linguistic negotiations the study shows that there is a shift in the current English versus local language debate. The literature frames the debate in terms of which language should be the primary medium of instruction in public schools in several developing countries: English or the local/national language. The findings prove that there is a shift in the debate as it is no more about English or local language but about English and local language, both being considered equally important as languages of instructions in public schools. The question the participants of the study face is how to establish the significance of both languages without one compromising the other.

Conclusion

This research aimed to gain insights into how students and educators experience and engage with the adaptation of the UK's teacher education model in the context of Dubai. The results show that students and educators demonstrate shades of ambivalent, strategic and signs of critical cosmopolitanism in the way they negotiate with the cross-cultural consequences of international education. The study pictured the everyday complexities that teachers and students face in pedagogical interactions in the global contact zone. They are open to the UK's educational model and English through the 'opportunity' versus 'threat' discourses. The students welcome English as 'wings' to go global and seek 'roots' in the language connected to their cultural or ethnic identity. They value overseas education but they expect it to be sensitive to their culture. Western models are welcomed as they are perceived as offering opportunities to learn about the richness of the other. The adaptation of the UK model and accreditation by the UK based university is a valued commodity in this perspective. There is a growing homogeneity of ideas around the desirability of international education and the significance of English as a lingua franca and as a language of academia and research. On the other hand, there is hybridization as the participants bring in their diverse cultural repertoires and local realities which actively

contribute to the contextualization of international education. Western education and English will retain their visibility in Dubai but the people are reshaping, adjusting and negotiating to see 'what suits them best'. Global educational contact zones are, thus, spaces whereby academic agents straddle between the 'global' and the 'local' through their selective cosmopolitan pedagogical interactions. It is difficult to generalize the findings of this study for all the programmes delivered offshore. Contact zones are 'constructed and reconstructed anew' as people with diverse historical, cultural, linguistic, educational trajectories come from anywhere and go anytime. Therefore, global contact zones can only exist relationally. They are not, 'a one-time event nor is movement or travel in only one direction' (Singh & Doherty, 2004, p.12). Although an attempt has been made to capture the complexity of these lecturers and students' experiences in international education, it is not possible to draw any firm conclusions with regards to the consistency of the participant's cosmopolitan reasoning. As Calcutt et al. (2009, p.180) points out one's cosmopolitanism can depend on the social circle the individual keeps. This was a specific group based in a specific conversational context.

What the study does illustrate however are the real difficulties of attempting to transfer 'successful practice' from one area to another. As Jacques (2005) notes in relation to Japan, western values are not universal and too often there is a fickleness of western attitudes towards a transforming region. In this case study the move to adopt English as the main method of instruction was insufficiently developed and considered at the planning stages. It appears that efforts to engage in the global market have produced contradictory pressures and an ironic impasse in the required qualitative changes. The students highlight an important dimension of communicability which reflects on the relationship between language and culture. In negotiations participants have to translate their local languages 'with meanings often compromised' as 'education in a foreign language gives concepts slightly different meaning' (Askeland & Payne, 2006, p.740). The very idea of 'adaptation' implies cosmopolitan openness to negotiate within the local context. The Western educational model will retain its visibility in Dubai but the people are reshaping, adjusting and negotiating to see 'what suits them best' (p.46). It may be that the model is adapted considerably in the future. Global educational contact zones are, thus, spaces whereby academic agents straddle between the 'global' and the 'local' through their selective cosmopolitan pedagogical interactions as the participants bring in their diverse cultural repertoires and local realities which actively contribute to the contextualization of international education. In summary the new cohort of PGCE and the educators will begin to participate in a new discourse of linguistic cosmopolitanism under the changed linguistic realities.

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A Factor Analysis of the Transformational Leadership Among Undergraduate Student Leaders in Thailand

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Abstract

The study was aimed at factor analysis of transformational leadership among undergraduate student leaders in Thailand. The samples were 328 undergraduate student leaders in 5 universities. They were selected by multi-stage random sampling. Data were collected through Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used in this study. The results found that the transformational leadership model well matched with evidence – based practices (Chi-square = 0.149, df = 1, P-value = 0.699, GFI = 1.000, AGFI= 0.998, CFI = 1.000, RMR = 0.002, RMSEA = 0.000).The transformational leadership scale comprised 4 factors as follows: 1) Idealized Influence (II) 2) Inspirational Motivation (IM) 3) Intellectual Stimulation (IS) and 4) Individualized Consideration (IC). The factor loading values among those factors were 0.866, 0.591, 0.597 and 0.476 respectively. Besides, the reliability of those factors were 0.750, 0.349, 0.357 and 0.227 respectively. These results can be used to develop transformational leadership among undergraduate student leaders in Thailand more efficiently in the future.

Keywords: Factor analysis, Transformational leadership, Undergraduate student leaders

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Introduction

From The Eighth National Economic and Social Development Plan of B.E.2540-2544 (A.D.1997-2001) to the Eleventh National Economic and Social Development Plan of B.E. 2555-2559 (A.D.2012-2016) that is currently used, focus on "human beings" as the center of development. Aim at everyman holistic development of his full potential aspects (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, 2012). The human development to achieve their full potentials essentially bases on creating individual knowledge, ethics and virtual, vision, being farsighted, through the acceptations of others and living together happily, which are self-leadership-characteristics. Besides, The Tenth Developmental Plan on Higher Education of B.E.2555-2559 (A.D.2012-2016) in Thailand conduct education to develop learners' knowledge, intellectual virtues and leadership. Therefore, leadership plays an important role in social development and sets social direction towards noble ends. (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2012) However, there is a very low level of personal leadership in today's society because of a lack of support as students who serve in leadership roles. Its result is an adult without leadership. Therefore, creating leadership in society should start during college or university years in order to gain leadership experience as well as self-efficacy that are poised to become a high self leadership adult after graduation (Dempster and Lizzio, 2007). Moreover, there are only a few researches related to students who serve in leadership roles. Most of the studies are adult leaders in professional. In fact, leadership thoughts and theory can be studied and made a better understanding of students who serve in leadership roles.

Burke (2006) demonstrated on leaders' behavior patterns that influence team effectiveness significantly using Meta –analysis. The results analyzed two leadership styles: - One is task-focused leadership and the other is person-focused leadership. Results concluded that actual team performance was higher for person- focused led teams than for task-focused teams. The pattern of behavior in person-focused led teams that showed the highest effect size is transformational leadership (TL). Moreover, the researches of Yammarino, Dionne, Chun and Dansereau (2005), Bono and Judge (2004) and Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and Engen (2003) promoting transformational leadership., revealed that transformational leadership is a new approach of paradigm shift towards leadership having vision, decentralization, virtue, and encouraging followers sharing a few common characteristics. These thoughts match desired characteristics of university student leaders most universities in Thailand need. The ones who have knowledge, actual capabilities, creativity, virtues, promoting self development, and building others' confidence to follow.

Therefore, I adopted the thoughts and transformational leadership theory to use in the context of university student leaders by presenting the assessment of transformation leadership to undergraduate student leaders adopted from Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) that is an international assessment of Bass and Avolio (1995). Aim at checking construct validity of the mentioned assessment. Apply to measure transformational leadership of undergraduate student leaders and to study further more about leadership development of undergraduate student leaders in the future.

Literature Review of Transformational Leadership (TL)

Transformational leadership theory is a new approach to study leadership. The process influences the change of organizational members' attitude and assumption, the strong relationship to the goal and significant strategy change. Transformational leadership affects not only a leader but also a follower. However, the influence encourages followers to become change agents in the process of organizational change. Transformation Leadership was first mentioned by Burns (1978). He explained that transformational leadership is two-way processes that leaders use to influence their followers or vice versa. Transformational leadership is aware of followers' need and motivation. Besides, the relationship between leaders and their followers is raised each other's needs that transform both of them from followers to become leaders having transformational leadership and transform the leaders having transformational leadership to become leaders having ethical leadership. In other words, the leader with transformation leadership is aware of his followers' needs and encourages his followers' awareness to uplift their needs higher according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs and to determine ideals and ethical values such as freedom, justice, equality, peace and human rights etc.

Afterwards, Bass (1985) adopted transformational leadership theory more details to explain organizational change process that leaders having transformational leadership affect their followers concerning over self interest through idealized influence, inspiration motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. The leaders will be moving up their followers' maturity and ideal to be concerned about achievement, self actualization, social organizational and others' security, and filling up their lives with meaningful tasks, too. They may guide or participate in the need for the development of organizational ethics. Next, Avolio and Bass (1999) defined transformational leadership more deeply that it is a process of influencing participants and followers not only to make a determined effort towards higher positions and increased potentials, but also to be aware of team and organizational mission and vision. Motivate participants and followers to be farsighted of their personal interest for groups', organization's or society's common interest. This process consists of four patterns of behavior as follows:-

- 1) Idealized Influence (II)
- 2) Inspiration motivation (IM)
- 3) Intellectual Stimulation (IS)
- 4) Individualized Consideration (IC)

The Study Approaches

A cross-sectional survey was undertaken from January to February 2015. The self-reporting questionnaires were collected from 328 undergraduate student leaders in five universities located in Bangkok Metropolitan area by multistage sampling technique (King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, Kasetsart University, Bangkok University and Saint John's University). The sampling is 328 undergraduate student leaders that is adequate for checking construct variety according to Brown and Keeping (2005), Heinitz, Liepmann and Felfe (2005). The undergraduate student leaders were asked to

complete the questionnaire after they were informed that their participation was voluntary, that their responses were anonymous and confidential, and that results would be reported only in a group format. All signed informed consent forms were separated from their questionnaires.

I adopted the assessment of Transformation Leadership for undergraduate student leaders, from Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: MLQ (Avolio and Bass, 1999), to 39 questions altogether. Adapt the language in each question to match the context of undergraduate student leaders in order that they are able to report themselves suitably according to the questions consisting of four characteristics, as follows

- 1) Idealized Influence (II) Question examples:- You determine to the team goal and do your work connected with it. You express your confidence through self efficacy, etc.
- 2) Inspiration Motivation (IM) Question examples:- You motivates your friends to pay attention to their work. You can make your friends to be aware of the main point of work, etc.
- 3) Intellectual Stimulation (IS) Question examples:- You will encourage your friends to express their points of view. You search for different aspects to solve problems, etc.
- 4) Individualized Consideration (IC) Question examples:- You teach your friends how to understand others' needs and capacities. You treat your friends based on individual basic more than groups, etc.

Use five-point Likert's scales to gauge, assign 1 as to do this the least until 5 as to do this the most.

Including, the statistics used to data analysis were mean, standard deviation, correlation and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as an instrument to check construct validity of the assessment of transformational leadership for undergraduate student leaders. How to test a model of transformational leadership assessment is in part of criteria for consideration whether the model adopted from the theory will match empirical data or not under the term as follows:- 1) Test Chi square – test goodness of fit must have P – Value more than 0.05 2) Test Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) should be more than 0.90. and 3) Test Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) should be less than 0.08. (Hair, et al., 2010; Hussey & Eagan, 2007; Schumaker & Lomax, 1996)

Research results

Descriptive and relationship between observed variables in this study

The samples included 328 undergraduate student leaders, most of them were male (61.6%), aged 19-21 years old (56.4%) and studied in field of science and technology (45.4%). The results found that mean of transformational leadership for undergraduate student leaders in four observed variables was as follows: idealized influence (II) (\bar{x} = 3.479, S.D. = 0.835), inspiration motivation (IM) (\bar{x} = 3.652, S.D. = 0.939), intellectual stimulation (IS) (\bar{x} = 3.860, S.D. = 0.694), and individualized consideration (IC) (\bar{x} = 3.476, SD = 0.831).

Besides, the results of the correlations among 4 observed variables (6 pairs) found that every correlation coefficient was significant at the .05 level. The highest correlation coefficient was 0.517 (the correlations between idealized influence and intellectual stimulation) and the lowest correlation coefficient was 0.295 (the correlations between intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration). Before analysis, checking the problem of multicollinearity was performed by considering all correlations among observed variables. The results found that all correlations in this study were less than 0.80. This range of correlation coefficients was considered an acceptable level without the problem of multicollinearity (Doane & Seward, 2011; Hair et al., 2010). While, Approx. Chi-square of Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was 299.055 (df = 6) and p - value was 0.000 that showed significantly at the .05 level. Furthermore, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) analysis was performed. It found that KMO value was more than 0.50 (KMO = 0.731). This showed that correlation matrix among observed variables in this study was not identity matrix and correlations among observed variables were sufficient for factor analysis to check validity of measurement model as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Mean Standard Deviation and Correlation of Observed variables in transformational leadership among undergraduate student leaders

TL	Correlation			
	II	IM	IS	IC
II	1.000			
IM	0.513*	1.000		
IS	0.517*	0.347*	1.000	
IC	0.410*	0.453*	0.295*	1.000
Mean	3.479	3.652	3.860	3.476
S.D.	0.835	0.939	0.694	0.831

KMO: Measure of Sampling Adequacy = 0.731

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-square = 299.055, df= 6, p= 0.000

*p<0.05

Check validity of undergraduate student leaders' transformational leadership measurement model

The results showed the undergraduate student leaders' transformational leadership measurement model match empirical data (Chi-square = 0.149, df = 1, P-value = 0.699, GFI = 1.000, AGFI= 0.998, CFI = 1.000, RMR = 0.002, RMSEA = 0.000) and demonstrated the undergraduate student leaders' transformational leadership measurement model having the construct validity as well. Transformational leadership are able to measure significantly from each factor analysis as follows:- Idealized Influence (II) measured significantly by factor loading = 0.866, Inspiration Motivation (IM) measured significantly by factor loading = 0.591 and measurement error = 0.572, Intellectual Stimulation (IS) measured significantly by factor loading = 0.597, Individualized Consideration (IC) measured significantly by factor loading = 0.476. Therefore, Transformational Leadership is able to be measured from inspiration motivation the most significantly. Besides, reliability of variable of transformational leadership measured from each factor analysis as follows:- Idealized Influence (II) = 0.750, Inspiration Motivation (IM) = 0.349, Intellectual Stimulation

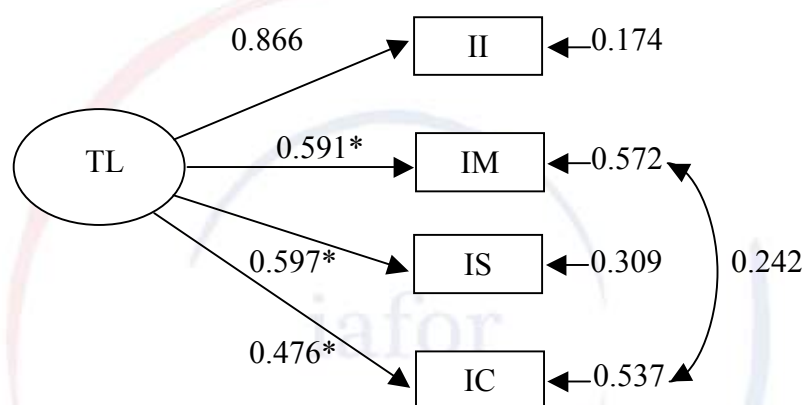
(IS) = 0.357 and Individualized Consideration (IC) = 0.227 as shown in Table 2 and Figure 1.

Table 2: Factor loading of transformational leadership among undergraduate student leaders

TL	b _{sc}	S.E.	t	Sig.	R ²
II	0.866	-	-	-	0.750
IM	0.591	0.100	7.664	0.000	0.349
IS	0.597	0.073	7.804	0.000	0.357
IC	0.476	0.084	6.583	0.000	0.227

Chi-square = 0.149, df= 1, p= 0.699, RMSEA= 0.000, RMR= 0.002, GFI = 1.000, AGFI= 0.998, CFI = 1.000

*p<0.05



Chi-square = 0.149, df= 1, p= 0.699, RMSEA= 0.000, RMR= 0.002, GFI = 1.000, AGFI= 0.998, CFI = 1.000

Figure 1: Measurement Model of transformational leadership among undergraduate student leaders

Conclusion and Discussions

In consequence, the study finding presented that undergraduate student leaders' transformational leadership measurement model well matched with empirical data and also showed that the assessment of undergraduate student leaders' transformational leadership measurement model has construct validity. Factor analysis is defined that idealized influence (II) is able to be measured the most significantly of all characteristics by factor loading = 0.866 and intellectual stimulation (IS), inspiration motivation (IM), individualized consideration (IC) are in sequence. The undergraduate student leaders having transformational leadership always devote themselves to groups, be self-sacrificing, as well as create motivation, and encouragement atmosphere. And they are concerned with the four characteristics according to Avolio and Bass (1999) thoughts and transformational leadership theory. The study finding is in harmony with Ergeneli Gohar and Temirbekova (2007) which revealed transformational leadership of undergraduate student leaders of Pakistan, Kazakhstan and Turkey of which idealized influence can be measured the most

significantly of all characteristics, as well. Furthermore, the assessment of transformational leadership having validity and reliability can be used to test transformation leadership of students in other researches. In addition, the assessment developed from Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire which is a universal one can be used suitably in the context of undergraduate student leaders in Thailand.

Although thoughts and theory of transformational leadership are generally used to study adults in working life span, the study finding obviously showed that transformational leadership approach can be used suitably for undergraduate students in learning life span, and also well-matched with Dempster and Lizzio (2007) to promote many more researchers to study sampling related to student leadership roles. Since leadership plays the most important roles in society development in the future, students should be trained to be aware of their leadership roles, of self and society development in order to become highly effective adults. Moreover, the researches of students who serve in leadership roles can be created a new approach to study further on adults who serve in leadership ones, too.



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Development of Instruction Based on Active Citizen Project

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Abstract

The objectives of this research were 1) develop instruction based on Active Citizen Project and 2) to study effects of instruction based on Active Citizen Project. This research study was an experimental research whose populations were 70 students of the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Course at Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University, 1st semester, academic year 2014. 20 students who had been granted by Thai Health Promotion Foundation (ThaiHealth) in Active Citizen Project were selected as the experimental group. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, mean, and the standard deviation. The means of effects of instruction based on Active Citizen Project according to the national framework for higher education were derived from the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Course indicated in Bachelor of Communication Arts (Public Relations and Corporate Communication) Bansomdejchaophaya Rajabhat University.

In terms of developing an instructional model, the researcher applied the Royal Initiative of His Majesty: Understand, Achieve and Develop. Therefore, the Research findings revealed that 1) the developed instruction based on Active Citizen Project arranged through the Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) Course could enhance student achievement and increase public involvement of the selected community and 2) the effects of instruction based on Active Citizen Project according to the national framework for higher education were: a) Ethics were good - very good at 4.57 average rating, b) Knowledge, Cognitive Skills and Responsibility and Interpersonal Skills were good – very good at 4.52 average rating and c) Information technology and numerical analysis Skills were good at 4.14 average rating.

Keyword: Development, Learning, Teaching, Active Citizen

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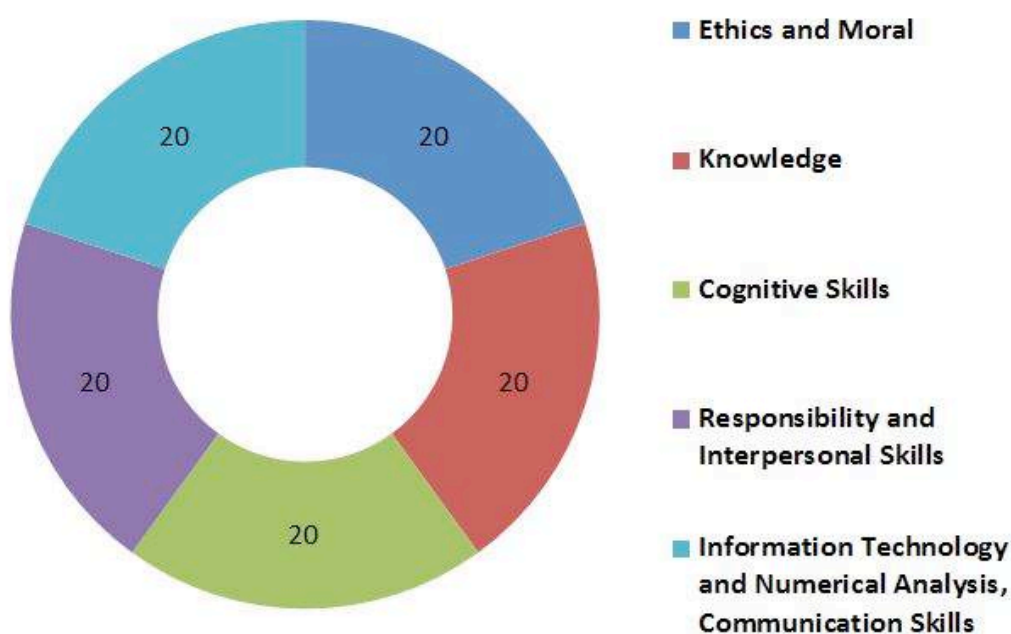
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Introduction

Thai Qualification framework for Higher Education is the outline for higher education qualification comprising of the connection of qualification itself from one to the next level, field descriptors, standard of learning outcome for each level, expected time requirement for each learning program, the opportunity for credit transfer from experience encouraging life time learning, as well as the system that ensure the effectiveness of instruction process and quality of each institution according to National higher education qualification.

There are 5 facets of learning outcome standard in each education level. 1) Ethics (Ethics and Moral) refers to the development of the habit in moral conduct, ethics and responsibility in the global nor. The ability to adjust their way of life in the conflicts of values. Develop the habit and according to morality in private and social matters. 2) Knowledge (Knowledge) refers to the ability to understand. The idea and the presentation of data. Analysis and characterization of the facts. The theory, as well as various processes and be able to learn manually. 3) The intellectual skills (Cognitive Skills) means the ability to analyze a situation and use the knowledge and understanding of concepts. Theoretical principles and processes in problem solving and analytical thinking. When faced an unexpected new situations before. 4) Human relations skills and responsibility (Responsibility and Interpersonal Skills). Refers to the ability to work as a group to represent the leadership responsibility for ourselves and society. The ability to plan and be responsible for In their own learning. 5) The numerical analysis skills. The communication and use of information technology (Information Technology and Numerical Analysis, Communication Skills) refers to the ability of numerical analysis. Ability to apply mathematical and statistical techniques, the ability to communicate in both spoken. Writing and the use of information technology.

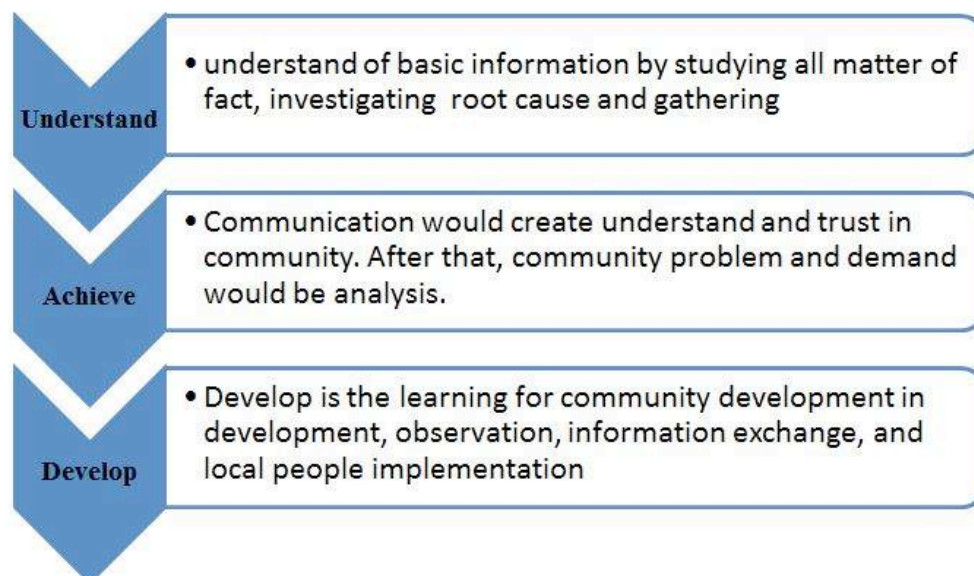
The Standard Framework of National Qualifications



The main purpose of Active Citizen Project is to stimulate, motivate, provide opportunity to get involvement in order to enhance Thai society happiness. With the objective, Thai Health promotion foundation was searching the joint with experts, people experienced in working with the youths in university, regional networking in order to lead and drive the project. However, by this they have discovered and realized the important of a key network under the Royal initiative of his Majesty King called "Pidthong Lang Pra" which not only have invested and worked with Local community concretely and continuously, but also have had readiness in human resource for project development. Consequently, the agreement for development and management of Active Citizen project is established under the joint of Active citizen and "Pidthong Lang Pra" under the Royal initiative of his Majesty King in Naan province. "Pidthong Lang Pra" this mean to do good things without expecting others to admire you for doing it. The development concept under the Royal initiative of his Majesty King : Understand , Achieve and Develop.

1) Understand this means the understand of basic information by studying all matter of fact, investigating root cause and gathering knowledge from all of the Royal initiative of his Majesty King project. It is important to allow involvement of local people and all community characteristic need to be studied and surveyed : Physical, economic, Social, environment also culture in order to move forward to next step , "Achieve". To Illustrate this Physical information could be expressed as residential, workplace, land utilization water resource, forest and its type, population, society, Lifestyle and living culture. Economic information may demonstrated as income, expense, debt, demand in problem solving or development of each community. 2) Achieve this means the communication and involvement. Communication would create understand and trust in community. After that, community problem and demand would be analysis. Also local people involvement needs to be allowed as much as possible. The Achieve step would gather available information in previous step, "Understand" to summarize, analyze and select a community problem to solve in the next which is Develop. 3) Develop is the learning for community development, advise, instruction designed. In development, observation, information exchange, and local people implementation focusing local involvement and evaluation from community development plan. According to The Royal initiative of his Majesty king, understand, achieve, and develop by emphasize community involvement and drive the development by local demand, would allow local people realized in the community possession. Thus, eventually, this would lead to sustainable development.

The development concept under the Royal initiative of his Majesty King

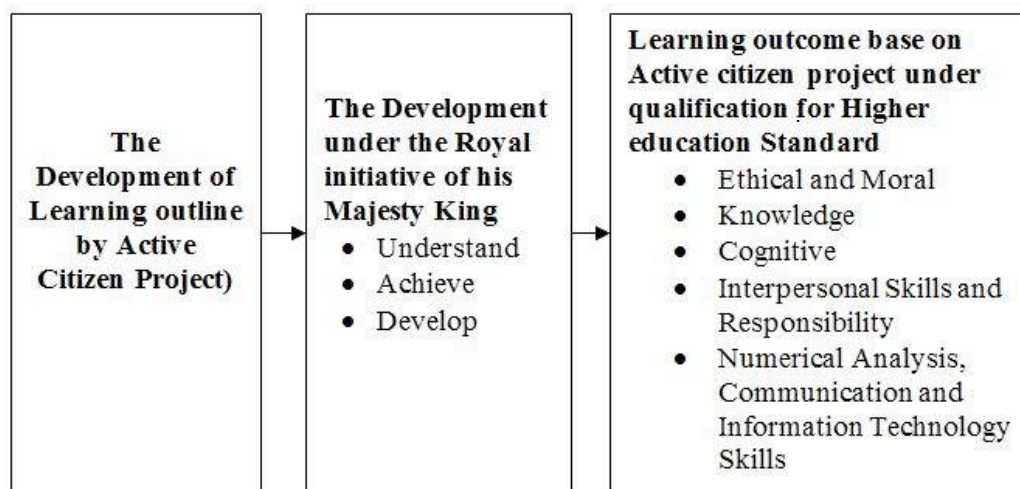


Currently, Corporate Social Responsibility is interested all over the world, especially in corporation level. As social and environment would be effect by corporation unavoidably. Now, the important of CSR has been considered from all. This is because it could not only create good corporate image for marketing, or solve business difficulty by social acceptance .but also, play important role in effective corporation development, risk reduction, competition ability enhancement, organization sustainable development, internal and external social effected activity by effective resource utilization. This could lead the peace and happiness to social. Classroom Action Research: CAR It is a research innovation for instruction development in class by Quality model of Action research framework. It applies Quality improvement theory such as P-D-C-A, 7 QC Circle, 7 QC Tools and 7 QC story in the action research; P-A-O-R and develops the role model using the class. This is the instruction development mixing both theory and practice or action base, therefore, this is interested for researcher to study CSR course instruction development by Active Citizen Project.

Objectives of the Research

In order, to be clear and understand for the purposes of this research. The two specific objectives have been formulated 1) To study the instruction development by Active Citizen Project 2) To study learning outcome base on Active Citizen project and CSR course

Research Framework



Research Method

The study of CSR Learning outline development by citizen active is an experimental research to study the development of learning framework and its outcome through the Citizen active project and Corporate Social Responsibility.

Target group for this research is 70 purposive sampling of 2015, semester 1, CSR student of Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University. Sample group for this research is the student applying social Network learning process, which is trial for appropriate learning framework. The sample group is selected from 70 CSR students in Semester 1 2015 from Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University. The Selection method is Purposive sampling, focusing on 20 Health Foundation and Active citizen Scholarship students for CSR course.

The statistic using analysis for learning outcome by Active citizen project and National qualification standard for higher education of CSR study in Public relation and communication for Bachelor of Communication Arts of Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University are as following: Basic statistic, Mean, The Variance and Standard Deviations.

Creation tools used for collecting data in this research was designed by weight behavior of each study credit's objective to test the learning result for each subject. According to National Qualification standard for higher education, 5 learning outcomes comprising of Ethics and Moral, Knowledge, Cognitive, Interpersonal Skills and Responsibility and Numerical Analysis, Communication and Information Technology Skill are designed as 5 tests for CSR course in Public relation and communication of Bachelor degree in Communication Arts at Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University. The test was conducted on 10 Active citizen students to assess learning result and verify the learning content.

The Completed question set was tested on sampling 20 scholarship students of Health promotional foundation and Active Citizen in CSR course during 1st-10th August 2015, then the information would be analyzed by statistic.

Result of the study

The Learning outcome study by Active Citizen Project and National qualification framework for higher education for CSR course in Public relation and corporate communication of Bachelor degree of Communication Arts, of Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University. The Responsibility distribution in accordance to learning outcome standard for CSR Course could be divided into 1) Primary Responsibility ,2) second Responsibility and 3) No responsibility for 5 facets of learning result.

Table 1: The table indicates Ethic and Moral score, accordingly National qualification framework for higher education, of Active citizen project.

Ethic and Moral		
	The Responsibility distribution in accordance with learning outcome standard for CSR Course	Active Citizen Learning outcome
Honest	Primary Responsibility	4.52
Gratitude	Primary Responsibility	4.52
Discipline, Punctual, Self and Social responsibility	Secondary Responsibility	4.71
Scarify and Public consciousness	Primary Responsibility	4.76

From table 1, it is shown that the responsibility toward Scarification and Public consciousness is very excellent with 4.76 highest average score. Next, is the responsible for Discipline, Punctual, Self and Social responsibility which were also in good level under 4.71 points. The last is the liable for honest and gratitude which was still in good level with 4.52 equally.

Table 2 The comparison for knowledge according to national qualification standard for higher education of Active Citizen.

Knowledge		
	The Responsibility distribution in accordance with learning outcome standard for CSR Course	Active citizen Learning result
Course understandable	Primary Responsibility	4.38
Ability in information searching and continuously self-developing.	Primary Responsibility	4.28
Information arrangement	Primary Responsibility	4.42
Knowledge deployment	Primary Responsibility	4.42

From table above, the active citizen is in very good level of Primary responsibility in information arrangement and knowledge deployment with 4.42 scores equally. While, for course understand and information searching and continuously self- developing ability are at 4.38 and 4.28 respectively. However, these are still considered as good level.

Table3: The comparison for cognition, according to national qualification standard for higher education of Active Citizen.

Cognition		
	The Responsibility distribution in accordance with learning outcome standard for CSR Course	Active Citizen Learning result
The capability of language, Literature and culture analysis and explanation by literature perception or related information application.	Primary Responsibility	4.23
Ability of linking of imagination and available information	Secondary Responsibility	4.33
Ability in reasonable argument	Primary Responsibility	4.28

From Table 3, it shows that the highest score of Active citizen learning result in Cognition is the secondary responsibility for Ability of linking of imagination and available information with 4.33 points. Secondly is 4.28 scores for ability in reasonable argument. The Last for this facet with 4.23 points, is the primary responsibility of capability of language, Literature and culture analysis and explanation by literature perception or related information application.

Table4: The comparison for Interpersonal Skills and Responsibility, according to national qualification standard for higher education of Active Citizen.

Interpersonal Skills and Responsibility		
	The Responsibility distribution in accordance with learning outcome standard for CSR Course	Active Citizen Learning result
Harmony and Teamwork	Secondary Responsibility	4.57
Management and Leadership skill	Secondary Responsibility	4.33
Effectiveness in Thai language communication and good in Human Relation	Primary Responsibility	4.52
Liabe for both individual and group assignment	-	4.57

From table 4 describes that Harmony and teamwork which is taken into accounted as secondary responsibility and Liabe for both individual and group assignment considered as no responsibility, are in very great level at 4.57. Effectiveness in Thai language communication and good in Human Relation with 4.52 is the next. Despite of the last, it is very good score at 4.33 for Management and Leadership skill.

Table5: The comparison of Numerical Analysis, Communication and Information Technology Skill, according to national qualification standard for higher education of Active Citizen.

Numerical Analysis, Communication and Information Technology Skill		
	The Responsibility distribution in accordance with learning outcome standard for CSR Course	Active Citizen Learning result
Effectiveness in both interpersonal and public communication skill	Secondary Responsibility	4.14
Information technology skill	-	4.19
Ability of making decision by using information technology and Numerical Analysis skill	Secondary Responsibility	4.14
Media and information literacy	Primary Responsibility	4.38

From above, primary responsibility for Media and information literacy is counted as the highest score at 4.38. Moreover, information technology skill of Active citizen is the second highest at 4.19. Furthermore, the score of secondary responsibility for Thai language communication skill effectiveness is as same as Ability of making decision by using information technology and Numerical Analysis skill at 4.14.

Discussion

As a result of instruction development by Active Citizen, student could understand the concept of “Pidthong Lang Pra” and principle of the Royal initiative of His Majesty King: Understand, Achieve and Develop and apply it by get local people involvement, also could drive the development by local demand.

Understanding by study and survey all facts of the community, in addition to this, allow local people involving in survey for all facets including Psychological, Economic, Social, environment and culture which this would lead to next step Achieve. The information that should be studied in 8 months includes residence, workplace, Land utilization water resource, forest and its type, population, way of living, revenue, expense, debt, local demand for Problem solving.

Achieve the information that had been collected from the understanding step would be summarize, and analyze in order to figure out problem’s root cause. After that the problem would be selected according to Local demand for solving or developing. Also the implementation way and the action plan would be set up for the community in short term (8 months).

Develop this would be the implementation of the community development plan, knowledge from the model area in Naan Province is applied. The sample of this could be 1) Water development, Agriculture development and environment development. Water development, could be describe as water consumption system improvement. check dam, the improvement of water supplied system. Moreover, Agriculture development could be explained as backyard garden planting, cropping system after rice harvesting, professional development like, seed fund, fishery, Crop fund, Handicraft Fund. Furthermore, environment development could be defined as industrial forest, industrial drop fund, garbage disposal.

Conclusion

In Conclusion, Active Citizen learning outcome under the Royal initiative of His Majesty King concept; Understand, Achieve, and Develop and National qualification framework for higher education in CSR course under Bachelor of Communication Arts in Public relation and corporation communication at Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University in each facets are as following. First, Ethic and Moral is in good to excellent level with average at 4.57. Moreover, in term of knowledge, cognition skill and Interpersonal Skills and Responsibility are taken into accounted as excellent with the average at 4.52 equally. Last but not least, Numerical Analysis, Communication and Information Technology Skill is average at 4.14. Learning effect liability distribution for CSR course, considering as primary responsibility, secondary responsibility and no responsibility, in overall the high level of score focus on Primary responsibility all 5 facets.

Suggestion

After The research of CSR learning instruction development by Active citizen, researcher has suggestion as following 1) Propose to Ministry of Education to promote the development of learning instruction by active citizen. 2) Propose to higher education committee to encourage the development of learning instruction by Active Citizen. 3) Propose to conduct comparison study between Theory and practice in CSR learning by Active citizen in theory. 4) Propose to study comparison of learning by Local community evaluation in CSR instruction development by Active citizen. 5) Propose to study important factor drives the effectiveness of CSR learning instruction development by Active citizen.



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Development of an Instructional Model Based on Television Creative

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

The objectives of this research were (1) to study development of an instructional model based on television creative presentation and (2) to study learning achievements focusing on creative television production project published through YouTube media.

The populations of this experimental research were 31 students taking the Television Creative Presentation through Broadcasting Course at Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University in the 1st semester of the academic year 2014. The sample students were selected according to specific sampling techniques. The researcher chose a group of 10 students to participate in the innovative television project to be published through YouTube media as the experimental group of the study. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, mean, and analysis of variance in order to compare student achievements of the experimental group to the control group. The means of effects of student achievements gained from joining television production project published through YouTube media which was derived from the Creative Presentation through Broadcasting Course indicated in the national qualifications framework for Bachelor of Communication Arts (Mass Communication), Bansomdejchaophraya Rajabhat University.

In terms of developing an instructional model, the researcher applied the Uses and Gratification Theory with the students from experimental group. Therefore, the results were: 1) The developed instructional model based on television creative presentation enhanced chances to experimental students to practice according to the principles television production process (3Ps) focusing on creative entries to reach the audiences which were measured from the viewing of viewers on website YouTube and 2) effects of the student achievements from the experimental group were as followed: a) Ethics were good - very good at 4.6 average rating; b) Knowledge was good – very good at 4.8 average rating; c) Cognitive Skills were good at 4.4 average rating. d) Responsibility and Interpersonal Skills were good-very good at 4.67 average rating; and e) Information technology and numerical analysis Skills were good – very good at 4.5 average rating.

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Introduction

The Office of the Higher Education Commission has initiated the Thai Qualifications Framework for Higher Education (TQF:HEd) as a tool for implementing the policy regarding the higher education standards mentioned in the National Education Act objecting to better student's learning outcomes which are minimum quality standards of graduates. The TQF is focusing on rules and regulations regarding curriculum and instruction as a tool to communicate better understanding about the expected qualification of graduates among stakeholders such as students, parents, entrepreneurs, communities, society and related organizations, from both Thailand and international which would make Thai qualifications and degrees to be globally accepted as well as would promote lifelong education.

The standard of learning achievement according to Thailand Qualification Framework for Higher Education (TQF) has been composed of at least 5 domains: 1) Ethics and moral which refers to habits of acting ethically and responsibly in personal and public life in ways that are consistent with high moral standards and ability to resolve value conflicts through application of a consistent system of values, 2) Cognitive Skills which means the ability to apply knowledge and understanding of concepts, principles, theories and procedures when asked to do so; and analyze situations and apply conceptual understanding of principles and theories in critical thinking and creative problem solving when faced with unanticipated new situations, 3) Knowledge which is the ability to understand, recall and present information including specific facts, concepts, principles and theories and procedures, 4) Interpersonal Skills and Responsibility which means the ability to work effectively in groups, and exercise leadership; accept personal and social responsibility, and plan and take responsibility for their own learning and 5) Numerical Analysis, Communication and Information Technology Skills which mean the ability to use basic mathematical and statistical techniques, communicate effectively in oral and written form, and use information and communications technology.

The Creative Presentation through Broadcasting Course aims for creating television programs to efficiency communicate crucial content together with implementing symbolic content in television program; and integrating the principle of broadcasting management from professional media organizations as a model for manpower planning, program planning, marketing strategy and audience targeting in order to communicate the content to target audiences. At present, the integrated instruction has been implemented for students can apply knowledge gained, such as creation of program, script writing, pre-production, production, editing, sequence of shot and sound editing, to produce a television program.

The internet is a large computer network and a public system which is widely used. It is considered as a library and a global financial and capital market available for those who would like to search for information and knowledge or invest in different businesses. In this regard, communicating through computer has become a new way to form a socially oriented relationship as the socio-emotional process occurred during the communication through computer is an antisocial pattern neither specifying emotions nor specifying receivers. Therefore, the participants of communication through computer must adjust themselves to fit with the communication more than face-to-face communication.

Social Media such as Facebook and YouTube have become new channels for communication personnel to broadcast their projects without relying on the mainstream media like television. It isn't necessary to have many broadcasting staff. On contrary, it is so easy that the programs can be uploaded anywhere and anytime through the internet. According to the result of the research entitled "Attitudes and Behavior through Social Networks in Establishing A Reputation: Case Study of YouTube", it was revealed that YouTube have effectively met the needs of customers who have been consistently using the media; and it was also shown that the number of YouTube users have become larger and larger. In addition, it was concluded that people in our society would use YouTube as a tool to reach for the success in terms of reputations, revenues or marketing communications of their business.

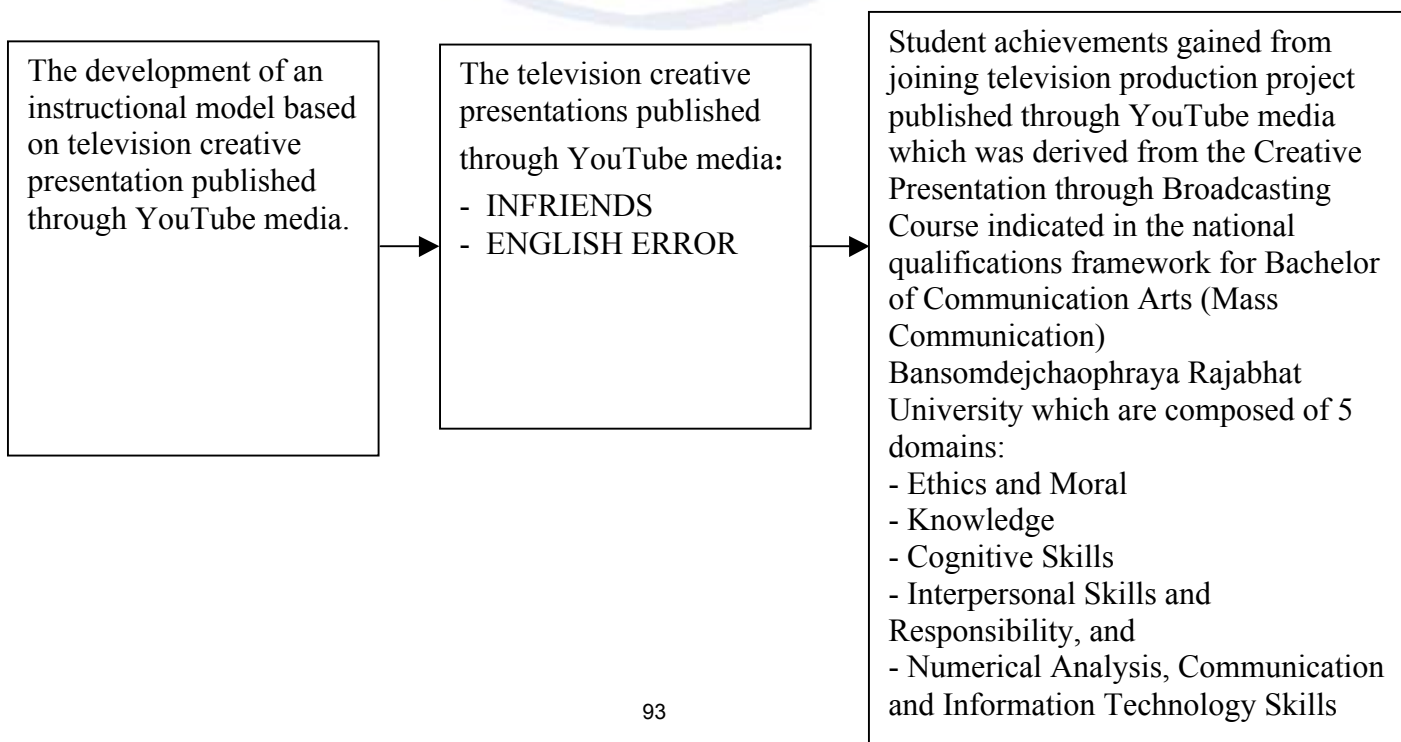
Consequently, the researcher developed an instructional model based on television creative presentation production project published through YouTube media in order to encourage students to take an advantage of YouTube to promote their created television program. Not only this was widely broadcast, but this also could immediately verify popularity rating or views of the active programs. Moreover, viewers could write their feedback in the comment box under the posted program. Therefore, the producers would be immediately informed the feedback toward their project.

Thus, the researcher would like to study about the Development of an Instructional Model Based on Television Creative Presentation broadcast through YouTube to find out how the created television program influence on learning achievement of the students according to Thailand Qualification Framework for Higher Education (TQF).

Research Objective

1. To study development of an instructional model based on television creative presentation published through YouTube online media.
2. To study learning achievements focusing on creative television production project published through YouTube online media.

Research Framework



Methodology

This research entitled “The Development of an Instructional Model Based on Television Creative Presentation Through YouTube Online Media” was an experimental research. The research procedure was designed according to the populations, samplings, research instrument and data collecting techniques. Finally, the research results were presented in table together with descriptive approach.

The populations of this experimental research were 31 students taking the Television Creative Presentation Course at Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University in the 1st semester of the academic year 2014. The sample students were selected according to purposive sampling techniques.

The research samplings were 10 students who had participated in the innovative television project to be published through YouTube media as the experimental group of the study. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics, mean, and analysis of variance in order to compare student achievements of the experimental group to the control group. The means of effects of student achievements gained from joining television production project published through YouTube media which was derived from the Creative Presentation through Broadcasting Course indicated in the national qualifications framework for Bachelor of Communication Arts (Mass Communication), Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University.

The research instrument was a test. The objective of each learning unit was developed into behavior indicators. There were 5 tests divided according to Thailand Qualification Framework for Higher Education (TQF) composed of at least 5 domains: 1) Ethics and moral which refers to habits of acting ethically and responsibly in personal and public life in ways that are consistent with high moral standards and ability to resolve value conflicts through application of a consistent system of values, 2) Cognitive Skills which means the ability to apply knowledge and understanding of concepts, principles, theories and procedures when asked to do so; and analyze situations and apply conceptual understanding of principles and theories in critical thinking and creative problem solving when faced with unanticipated new situations, 3) Knowledge which is the ability to understand, recall and present information including specific facts, concepts, principles and theories and procedures, 4) Interpersonal Skills and Responsibility which means the ability to work effectively in groups, and exercise leadership; accept personal and social responsibility, and plan and take responsibility for their own learning; and 5) Numerical Analysis, Communication and Information Technology Skills which mean the ability to use basic mathematical and statistical techniques, communicate effectively in oral and written form, and use information and communications technology.

The developed tests were applied with a group of 10 students who had participated in the innovative television project to be published through YouTube media to investigate their learning achievement and content validity.

The collection of data was done by the researcher. The verified and adjusted tests were applied with the 10 students, who had participated in the innovative television project, to evaluate their learning achievement of the course entitled Creative Presentation through Broadcasting. The samplings were selected by using purposive approach and the test was done during December 1-10, 2015. All gathered data would be processed using statistical analysis.

Research Result

The research entitled “The Development of an Instructional Model Based on Television Creative Presentation Through YouTube Online Media” was conducted as a simulation company. It was required that each simulation company should have its broadcasting process flow to produce a television program presented through YouTube online media. Moreover, each company should implement the management as a process which was systematic, coordinated and cooperative. The management team should operate according to the POSDCORB model including Planning, Organization, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting. Therefore, students would have a chance to practice systematic management and teamwork.

The first one entitled “INFRIENDS” aimed for introducing Freshy Boy and Girl from different universities who have had attractive look together with talent. This program was a talk show composed of a master of ceremonies named Mr.Pathomwong Saejia who has handled 3 responsibilities including a master of ceremonies, a creative and a producer. The second program entitled “English Error” presenting knowledge about English language and interesting vocabularies, composed of 2 masters of ceremonies named Mr.Sunapon Munjai-arn and Mr.Kobkit Janjerdkarn and Mr.Pongsakorn Jang-in as a producer. These 2 programs were planned their broadcasting at 8:00 p.m. every Monday; and the viewers could watch a new episode every week. In addition, the fanpage on Facebook of these 2 programs had been created to promote the programs and to communicate with the viewers.

These 2 programs had implemented the Uses and Gratifications Theory stating that audiences deliberately chose media that would satisfy their needs and that the value of content would be evaluated by audiences. Each week, both teams had evaluated their broadcast program until the last episode had been launched.

The results of studying learning achievements focusing on creative television production project published through YouTube online media assigned in Creative Presentation through Broadcasting Course, which gained from the 5 tests designed

according 5 domains mentioned in Thailand Qualification Framework for Higher Education (TQF), were as follows:

1. Ethics and Moral : Students had demonstrated honesty and integrity with an appropriate balance of personal and group goals and objectives even though there had been some conflicts.
2. Knowledge: Students were able to present the content by analyzing and determining facts according to the principles and theories of broadcasting they had learned from the class; and, finally they could design their concept and search for more information to be developed as the content suitable for their 2 television programs.
3. Cognitive Skills: Students could investigate complex problems and recommend creative and innovative solutions taking account of relevant theoretical knowledge. Once, the instruments were accidentally broken or the production could be done at the selected location, the students had to adjust their production procedure in order to fit with the daylight. For example, INFRIENDS whose production was shot outdoor, the daylight was required for shooting and recording.
4. Interpersonal Skills and Responsibility: All students had learned how to work as a team whether in a leadership role or as a member of a group and respect each other duties. They could plan their work and handle their responsibilities; as normally, in the broadcasting work, a producer is the main decision maker and find solution for each problem. Moreover, students had a chance to learn that every function has had its own important. To make the project done, none of duties could miss. For example, a welfare team which seemed unimportant at first; once, they were so busy that there was no time to take a meal, they had to rely on welfare team.
5. Numerical Analysis, Communication and Information Technology Skills: Technologies, such as cameras and computers for editing, are required in broadcasting work. As they had to upload their production on YouTube every week, sometimes, they were in trouble with computers for editing that had taken more time; and internet signal was bad during the time they were uploading the files.

According to the statistical analysis, the results of learning achievements focusing on creative television production project published through YouTube online media assigned in Creative Presentation through Broadcasting Course stated in the curriculum for Bachelor of Communication Arts (Mass Communication), Bansomdejchaophraya Rajabhat University, revealed that the learning achievements according to TQF of experimental group compared with the control group had been as follows : 1) Ethics and Moral reached good-very good level with a mean score 4.6, 2) Knowledge reached good-very good level with a mean score 4.8, 3) Cognitive Skills were in good level with a mean score 4.4, 4) Interpersonal Skills and Responsibility were in good-very good level with a mean score 4.67 and 5) Numerical Analysis, Communication and Information Technology Skills: Technologies, were in good-very good level with a mean score 4.5

In conclusion, the development of an instructional model based on television Creative presentation through YouTube online media achieved the research objectives because of the developed simulation company which made students learn to solve problems in real situation and the online feedback that students gained from YouTube viewers which they could get necessary recommendation for further improvement immediately. Moreover, the feedback of the project could be a guideline for the curriculum development of Bachelor of Communication Arts (Mass Communication), Bansomdejchaophraya Rajabhat University, in order to keep its instruction contemporary as well as to increase efficiency of student development.

Recommendations

In this regard, the researcher would like to propose recommendations for further studies gained from the research entitled “The Development of an Instructional Model Based on Television Creative Presentation Through YouTube Online Media” as below:

1. Propose to the Ministry of Education to announce a policy giving more support on project-based learning instruction for students can learn how to implement the theory in real situation.
2. Propose the research results to the Committee for Curriculum Administration of Bachelor of Communication Arts (Mass Communication), Bansomdejchaophraya Rajabhat University for improving curriculum.
3. This research was done within one course offered to students. Therefore, more research on the factor influencing the instructional development, especially for Communication Arts, should be taken.

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A large, faint watermark of the IAFOR logo is centered on the page. It consists of the word "iafor" in a lowercase, sans-serif font, surrounded by several overlapping, curved lines in shades of blue and red that form a circular, spiral-like pattern.

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Education Development in Bankruptcy Code by Using Role

Piboon Vitoonpanyakul, Bansomdejchaophaya Rajabhat University, Thailand

The IAFOR International Conference on Education 2016
Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to study education development in law by using role playing. This research was experimental research. There were 30 samples of students in law school faculty of Humanities and Social Science Bansomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University who failed in bankruptcy code semester 1/2014. Samples all agreed to join in research by do not using roll playing in the beginning but interpolate while studying. Data was statistically analyzed in the variance and standard deviation and mean.

The finding found that education development in bankruptcy code by using role playing under Thai qualifications framework of higher education in term of ethic and moral was in good level (4.12) knowledge was in good level (4.16) cognitive skill was in good level (4.14) interpersonal skill and responsibility was in good level (4.18) numerical analysis, communication and information technology skill was in very good level (4.5).

Keywords: education Development, Bankruptcy Code, Role Playing

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Introduction

The Bankruptcy Law is a substance Act and Procedural Law, which regulates the purees considering the method of bankruptcy cases of the terms of debtor on bankrupt person. The debtor is the bankruptcy person for receivership account has a contemporary receivership and claim reorganization including rehabilitation. The central Bankruptcy court has the power over bankruptcy (debtor) cases,

At presently, Thailand has a Bankruptcy Law, the bankruptcy act BC 2483. This has been revised as economic conditions continue to the present day. The Bankruptcy Law of Thailand was dropped according to the Bankruptcy Law of the United states of America (USA).

The administration of the Bankruptcy Law is different from the Law of Civil Procedure because the Bankruptcy Law is enforcement the creditor to have a guarantees so that the debt will be paid for sure. It is also more equality and it is opened to negotiation and compromise More than. The Law of Civil Procedure which settle civil disputes the right of the creditor to win the lawsuit.

Accessing to the Bankruptcy Law is not limited to a person of any type. Thus, no matter what on individual or entity is, it can be Bankruptcy is different to rehabilitation, it is limited or any public company.

There are 5 ways to declare bankruptcy of debtor:

1. The ordinary creditor the bankruptcy debtor.
2. The guarantor sue the bankruptcy debtor.
3. Creditor sue and would like to manage debtor's estate after death (debts)
4. Liquidator request corporate bankruptcy.
5. The plaintiff auditor on the official receivership requests unlimited partnership liability bankruptcy of partnership.

However, the Bankruptcy Law does not allow the debtor to declare themselves as bankruptcy but he could request own rehabilitation. Role playing is a process in which used we can to communicate, and share perception of social and culture history. Nature provides human and use the body to tell a story, such as a fighting adventure the lifestyle of people in society can narrate and relay and enter tainting story. Role playing has developed the human creativity and relay is imagination through the communication process. It is especially use for making meaning understood by a group of people. It has an entertainment for and reflects enjoyment for art and culture inherited from the good values of the lifestyle of people.

Role playing, according of the Royal Institute dictionary, means amusement and some words It can also be a role playing. Role playing is important to every national social rule.

Role playing means that the performance must consist of substance, the material has historical rode and education around the world.

The innovation of the classroom action research is for student development which is classroom action research using P-D-C-A.

Activity of quality of 7QC circles; quality equipment of 7QC tool and 7QC story extending concept for action research P-A-O-R, take duplication from the practical classroom developmental use. Research who's interested in studying research of develop teaching to create responsible and socially aware population in Thailand.

The Higher Education Commission sets a required standard qualification framework for higher education. It consists of education level linked from one level to another level.

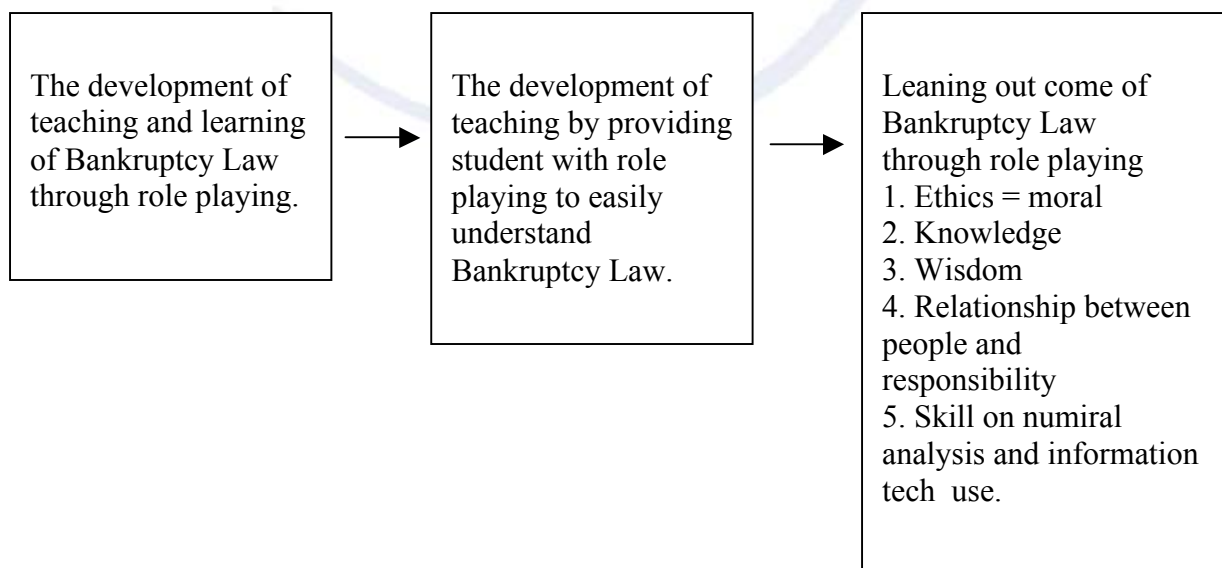
Getting higher level should be according to the time. Course characteristics in qualification level have a chance to transfer learning from experience to promote long life learning unclosed confidential mechanism to effect operational regulation of Thai qualification framework of higher education to produce graduates' standard quality assessment.

The standard of learning in each level should be according to 5 levels: Ethics and moral, honesty and gratitude to the patron discipline, punctuality social responsibility sacrificial and public awareness, and knowledge and understanding in subject. The skills can be analyzed using language literature. It concerns the ability to create concepts and linking knowledge to study and to support another idea or reason in relation between personal skills and responsibility, and also cooperation and unity with another person. There can be a leader using a good Thai language, having interpersonal skill and responsibility in the job even though a person or group of people, excellent numerical analysis communication and using information technology in public, communication in front of people. It must have Thai communication skill in public and can use information technology skill for analysis and making decision and has knowledge about multimedia.

Research purposes

1. To develop learning style through students' participation in educational role play in the subject, Bankruptcy Law.
2. To study learning achievement of students in the subject, Bankruptcy Law, by using role playing style in studying.

Research Framework



Research Method

This research is a study about education development in Bankruptcy Law using role play. The research is an experimental research for learning development through students' role play to prove learning outcome.

The research methodology includes population, and research sample, research data collection, data analysis, information presentation, and research results.

The researcher presents the data analysis in the form of a lecture schedule. The target population in the research are the students who did not pass the exam. Bankruptcy Law, Law program, Faculty of Humanity and Social Sciences, Bansomdej, Semester 1/2014. A total of 30 students studying Bankruptcy Law subject volunteered to participate in the experiment.

The students tried to study without using the role play, then inserting the role playing from.

The data analysis used are as followed Basic statistics, statistics for the correlation and the variance; statistics used for data analysis being comparing the average achievement of students of the experimental group using role play. It is according to the standard of higher education of Bankruptcy Law, Law, Faculty of Humanity and Social Sciences, Bansomdej Chaopraya. The Tool used for data collections of the research is the quiz tool for each unit. The learner behavior was tested using the test. These are 5 test according to the National Standard of higher education qualification.

The learning schedule of the 5 (five) ways are on follows morality and ethics, knowledge the intelligence skills, relationship and responsibility skill, numerical analysis skill, and communication and information technology skills as the requirement for the National Standard of higher education qualification of the Bankruptcy Law, Law, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Bansomdej Chappaya Rajabhat University.

Through the use of a test with the students who did not pass Bankruptcy Law subject, The total items for grading learning and checking the accuracy of the content using 30 items.

Data Collection: Researchers gave a test to students.

Result of the study

The researcher made a test for students of the subject, Bankruptcy Law, The collection of data in form the test resulting of 30 students in Semester 1/2014 and the data for statistical analyses.

Research results are presented in the table 1.

Table 1: Comparison of the ethics and moral according to the standard of higher education of Bankruptcy Law using role playing in the study.

Knowledge areas		
	Responsibility distribution for learning. The standard of learning for Bankruptcy Law subject	Leaning outcome of Bankruptcy Law by using role playing in the study
Moral ethics honesty	Responsible	4.24
Gratitude to the platen	Responsible	4.12
Punctuality social and self responsibility	Responsible	4.10
Sacrificial and public conscious	Responsible	4.02

From Table 1. Analysis of Moral and Ethical skills showed that the first is learning moral and ethics honesty with a score average of 4.24 at a good level. The Second is gratitude to the patron with a score average of 4.12 at a good level The Third is discipline, punctually, responsible for themselves and society at good level has average 4.10, and the fourth is sacrifice and public awareness at good level of average 4.20.

Table 2: Comparison of knowledge areas according to qualifications framework for national higher education of Bankruptcy Law course using role playing in the study.

Knowledge areas		
	Responsibility distribution learning outcome by the stranded of learning special subject Bankruptcy Law course	Leaning outcome through Bankruptcy Law course by using role playing in the study
Knowledgeable Understanding of the course contents.	Main Responsibilities	4.24
Have the ability to acquire for knowledge develop themselves continuously.	Main Responsibilities	4.14
Have the ability to manage knowledge as a category.	Main Responsibilities	4.10
Have the ability to apply knowledge in real situation.	Main Responsibilities	4.16

Form Table 2, the comparison of knowledge areas revealed that the first is knowledgeable understanding of the course content at good level with average of 4.24, the second is having the ability to acquire knowledge and develop themselves continuously at good level with average of 4.14, the third is having the ability to apply knowledge in real situation at good level with average of 4.16, and the fourth is

having the ability to ability to manage knowledge as a category at good level with average of 4.10.

Table 3: Comparison of intelligence skill areas according to qualifications of framework for national higher education of Bankruptcy Law course using role playing in the study.

Intelligences skill areas		
	Responsibility distribution learning outcome by the standards of learning specific subject Bankruptcy Law course	Learning outcome through Bankruptcy Law course by using role playing in the study
Have the ability of analyze describe the language, literature, culture, the dynamic concept of language literature and other related sciences.	Main Responsibilities	4.10
Have the ability to create a concept linking the knowledge that has been studied.	Main Responsibilities	4.22
Have the ability to support or argue by reasonably considerations.	Main Responsibilities	4.12

From Table 3, the comparison of intelligence skill revealed that first is having the ability to create a concept linking the knowledge that has been studied at good level with average of 4.22, the second is having the ability to support or argue by reasonable consideration at good level with average of 4.12, and the third is having ability to analyze describe the language, literature, culture, the dynamic concept of language literature and other related sciences at good level with average of 4.10.

Table 4: Comparison of interpersonal relationship skill and responsibility areas according to qualifications of framework for national higher education of Bankruptcy Law course using role playing in the study.

Intelligences relationship skill and responsibility areas		
	Responsibility distribution learning outcome by the standards of learning specific subject Bankruptcy Law course	Learning outcome through Bankruptcy Law course by using role playing in the study
Congruence and can collaborate with others	Main Responsibilities	4.12
Have the ability to manage and lead.	Main Responsibilities	4.12
Skillful use of Thai language to communicate effectively, interact and good human relations	Main Responsibilities	4.14
Responsibility for the assignment both individual and group work	Main Responsibilities	4.24

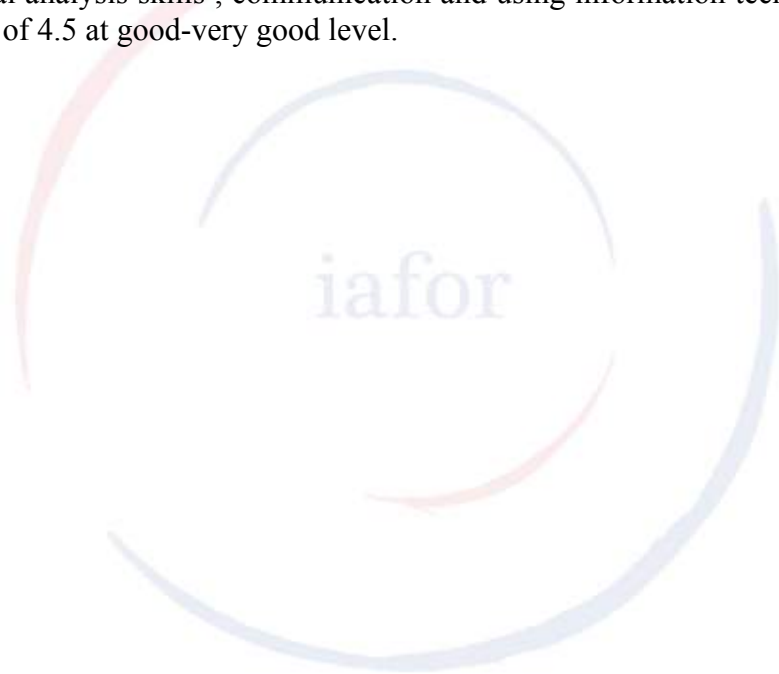
From Table 4, the comparison of the first and the second is congruent and can collaborate with others and have the ability to manage and lead at good level has average of 4.12 . third and fourth is skillful us of Thai language to communicate effectively, Interact and good human relations and Responsible for the assignment both individual and group work at good level has average 4.24.

Table 5: Comparison Numerical analysis skill, communication and using information technology areas according qualifications framework for national higher education of Bankruptcy Law course by providing students using role playing in the study.

Numerical analysis skill, communication and using information technology areas		
	Responsibility distribution learning outcome by the standards of learning specific subject Bankruptcy Law course	Learning outcome through Bankruptcy Law course by using role playing in the study
Skillful use of language in interpersonal communication and community presence as well.	Main Responsibilities	4.74
Skillful use of information technology	Main Responsibilities	4.56
Ability to analyses data and numbers for decisions malting	Main Responsibilities	4.32
Knowledge about media and information	Main Responsibilities	4.38

From Table 5, Comparison of Numerical analysis skill, communication and using information technology areas revealed that the first is skillful use of language in interpersonal communication and community presence as well at good – very good level with average of 4.74, second is skillful use of information technology at good – very good level with average 4.57, third is Knowledge about media and information at good level has average 4.38, and fourth is ability to analysis data and numbers for decisions malting at good level with average 4.32.

Research results of the development of teaching and learning the Bankruptcy Law course by using role playing in the study, the researchers applied to the students that in Bankruptcy Law course and comparing before and after teaching to compare the achievement of students at according to qualifications framework of national higher education Rating score of morality and ethics has average of 4.12 at good level, rating score of knowledge areas has average of 4.16 at good level, rating score of intelligence skill areas has average 4.14 at good level, rating score of interpersonal relationship skills and responsibility areas has average 4.18 at good level, rating score of Numerical analysis skills , communication and using information technology areas has average of 4.5 at good-very good level.



Suggestions

The research on Develop Education Development in Bankruptcy Code By Using Role has suggestion as following.

1. The Ministry of Education should encourage the development of teaching and increase learning through the role playing in the study.
2. To conduct research to develop teaching Law through the increased use of role playing role playing in the study.
3. Research suggests factors that contribute to the achievement of development, learning and teaching law through the use of role playing role playing in the study increased in order to study Law courses are easier to understand, and teaching is to understand the rules.



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Time Management in Higher Education - A Challenge for Academic Leaders

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Abstract

Planning the use of university faculty time and allocating it to various tasks can be challenging since university teachers typically have a complex mix of different tasks that also often change. In this context, some Swedish universities have turned towards time management software solutions as tools for planning department activities. This paper describes the introduction of such a web-based time management system at a Swedish university, and reports from a system evaluation comprising interviews with department leaders and staff planners. The empirical material implies that the advent of time management systems in higher education give rise to challenges for academic leaders aiming for efficiency, transparency and control, while trying to maintain flexibility and autonomy among faculty members.

Keywords: time management, higher education, academic freedom, academic leadership

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Introduction

Workforce planning is an essential part of every university department's administrative work. Teaching duties, research and other tasks must be planned from available resources and in accordance with national and local collective agreements. For this reason, some universities have implemented time management software solutions to support staffing and planning. This paper reports from a study of such a time management system (TMS), used at Umeå University in northern Sweden. The TMS was introduced as an instrument for improving time management and resource planning, aiming for increased efficiency and correctness, as well as increased fairness and transparency. This paper describes how the system was developed and implemented, and also presents results from an interview-based evaluation highlighting the consequences for workforce planning by reference to the initial expectations. Finally, based on this evaluation, the paper also discusses the use of TMS in a wider academic context, where professions and practices not always are bound to time and place, and where the culture of academic freedom perhaps not fully harmonizes with a systematic approach to workforce planning.

Thus, the main purpose of this present study is to examine to what extent the initial objectives of the TMS have been achieved, i.e. has the system facilitated increased overview and control, at the same time contributing to increased efficiency and transparency, as well as improved quality and stability? Secondly the paper seeks to contribute to an increased knowledge about how academic leaders can take on the challenges of time management in higher education.

The next section begins with a brief description of the context of the TMS at Umeå University, and then continues with explaining the process of decision-making and implementation.

The TMS at Umeå University

Planning the use of university faculty time and allocating it to various commitments have always been difficult, since teachers typically have a complex mix of different tasks. However, in a past era of more fixed resources for universities in Sweden, often distributed via national centralized planning, there was little motivation to account for and elaborately plan faculty time at the department level. Since the early 1990s a decentralization of economic planning superseded the traditional forms of centralization and has changed the environment of academic departments in Sweden and many other countries (Machado & Taylor, 2010; Schimank, 2005). Characteristics of this current environment include a performance based reimbursement for higher education with decreasing rates, a pressure on faculty to perform more work, even harder competition in attracting research funding, a disappearance of centralized fiscal buffers, and last but not least a real risk of fiscal failure and closure. Therefore, balancing the traditional academic missions of teaching, research and other forms of academic service has become increasingly important and difficult. In the wake of these changes, new forms of faculty time management systems have been introduced in Sweden and in many other countries (for an early American example see Daugird, et al, 2003). This study focuses on Umeå University in northern Sweden, and especially on the faculty of social sciences.

A university-wide reference group and pilot study showed in 2007 that the procedures for staff planning throughout the university were inadequate. Faculty planning was perceived as complicated and time consuming, and depending to a large extent on personal tacit knowledge, with a high degree of vulnerability. There was no standardized system or spreadsheet for documentation as informal methods and ad-hoc solutions were widespread, typically with a low level of transparency. Also, the local representatives of the labor unions pointed at difficulties with applying the collective labor agreements, and that few departments easily could deliver adequate quality parameters for evaluations of their activities.

Thus, when the need for a new TMS was brought to the fore, expectations were that it would facilitate and rationalize both human resource planning and overall operational planning. It would lead to increased planning quality and precision, and reduce vulnerability through reduced person-dependence. In addition, the system was expected to promote desired university-wide practices, and to facilitate the compilation and export of various quality parameters for monitoring purposes. (Ekstedt, 2010.)

Aiming for a more efficient and correct staff planning, the university decided to implement a web-based TMS. The system would support the process of staff planning, i.e. mapping all available personnel resources with various tasks/assignments. The system was fully introduced at the university in 2012, and is now (2016) being used by all departments.

The TMS eventually being procured, was initially developed as a tool for supporting project planning, but then modified to meet the specific requirements of a university context. Its primary functionality concerns matching personnel resources with the many different tasks carried out at a specific department. In line with the current working agreement, teachers have a definite amount of working hours (1980 hours, including holiday time) during one year. Since all tasks are valued with an exact amount of hours, a teacher's working hours will increasingly be booked when being assigned to various tasks. The challenge for planners is to find a way to fit, and evenly distribute, all necessary department tasks within the collective working capacity among all available personnel. Furthermore, the tasks should ideally be distributed so that scheduling conflicts are avoided, and in a way that makes the best use of different competences.

The interview-based evaluation

In April 2014 all departments at the social science faculty were informed by e-mail about an upcoming evaluation, which initially would include teachers, researchers, and department leaders (e.g. head of department and director of studies). The purpose of also including the teachers was to obtain a full picture of how the TMS was used at the various departments. Invitations to focus groups interviews were therefore sent to a number of randomly selected teachers. However, the response was very weak. Because of the low interest in participation, the evaluation instead came to focus on department leaders with experience in the role of planners in the system.

Furthermore, the evaluation was limited to 13 departments at the faculty of social sciences, since they were among the first departments to adopt the TMS at the university. Department staff sizes were between 20 to 125 employees.

Usually the director of studies attended the interview, but in some cases both the director of studies and the head of the department attended the interview. In addition, a study coordinator and a finance administrator also participated during one of the interview sessions. A majority of the departments introduced the TMS during the spring of 2012. One department had been given access to the system already in 2010, and had therefore already several years of experience. The remaining institutions had introduced the system in 2013 and, and in a few cases as late as in 2014.

The interviews were conducted orally during September and October 2014. All interviews were recorded and then transcribed before analysis. The interviews were semi-structured in nature, with key questions related to the initial expectations of the TMS. In the following sections, the findings from the interview study are presented, structured around the four main objectives lined up before introducing the system to the departments (Ekstedt, 2010; Pettersson & Skog, 2015). According to these objectives the web-based TMS should contribute to significant improvements in the areas of 1) overview and control of personnel resources, 2) efficiency through reduced administration, 3) quality and stability, and 4) transparency and clarity. The reader should note that when quotes are given to illustrate a standpoint, these quotes have been translated from Swedish by the authors.

1) Did the TMS facilitate an increased overview and control of personnel resources?

The empirical material shows that the departments, when entering the new TMS, largely stuck to the same kind of workforce planning as before, using similar methods and templates. Thus, the new planning tool was used to plan in the same way as was previously had been done using Excel spreadsheets. This applies in particular to the level of details and to what extent templates were used in staffing, where most departments that previously relied on broad templates in their planning continued to do so in the TMS. A representative planner in this group of departments argued that you can still use the “lecture hour” (assumed to include both teaching, staff meetings, course development and other common tasks), as a basis for workforce planning and that it constitutes a standard for all tasks that teachers are expected to perform during their working hours. Additionally, the same planner states that they are “*in practice using the TMS as the old Excel sheet*”, that is, they just moved the same structure to the TMS as they used before. Furthermore, the same planner explains that the teachers would protest against increased micro-management and that “*we will probably continue to not measure time for every single task, since we are very happy with the system we have*”.

A representative planner from the other group of departments, which have been planning in detail and without templates, states that “*we plan teaching, research, and administration, we put in almost everything. Everything has to be entered, all types of missions, all sorts of absence*”. At the same time this planner also notes that the planning still follows “*the same process as before*”, but that it has become “*safer in terms of managing different versions*”, making it easier for several people to work

with staff planning at the same time. Another planner likewise describes how the TMS is viewed as a new tool with which planning is carried out according to the same principles and rationality as before, while maintaining a high level of detail: *“We have noted very clearly, exactly, how many hours all assignments have. How many hours we have for department meetings, and so on. It is very detailed in my Excel sheet also. [...] So each person still has maybe 30 lines, specifying in detail what they should do”*.

It is notable how this detailed planning significantly differs from the templates used in the first example above. This illustrates the vast range of planning traditions and cultures present within the same faculty, in terms of principles and models for planning and monitoring. In this respect the TMS has not yet in any clear way contributed to a homogenization, but is rather harboring the diversity that existed since before.

However, there is also a tendency for some departments that the TMS over time has contributed to a higher degree of details in the planning. For example, one planner states that the staff planning has become *“more detailed”* and that the TMS has *“definitely contributed to added value compared to previous solutions, with better control and documentation”*.

Departments with a large number of leased teachers emphasize that it has become *“easier to manage leased teachers”* using the TMS. Another planners state that the system is *“good in discussions with PhD-students about how much employment time they have left”*, and that the TMS is generally good for the follow-up of different types of assignments. In several cases, the BPS also was perceived as a valuable aid in the dialogue with teachers about their working hours and the volume of work: *“It is a very good system when you end up in situations where teachers become anxious about whether they are doing too much. [...] Very pedagogically, you can show them their workload and how much time they have to accomplish it”*.

A clear pattern in the interviews with the planners is that while earlier traditions of staff planning essentially were converted directly into the TMS, the system has nevertheless over time led to changes that include less use of templates and generally more detailed staffing with a wider range of specified tasks than before.

However, there are also obstacles for better control and documentation. Planners at the larger departments state that the web-based interface was slow compared to the corresponding time management procedures in Excel and that this constitutes an impediment to exploit the system's full potential. Some planners also perceive the limited availability of output, in the form of comprehensible summaries and reports, as an obstacle to continuous evaluation.

In summary, parts of the first initial goal with the TMS have already been achieved. As for the overview and documentation there are clear signs in the interviews that time management have generally become more detailed and well documented than before the TMS, although there are differences within the group of departments. In terms of management possibilities, several planners emphasize that the TMS has facilitated for both the employee and the planner to get access to the same data in real

time, reducing the need to keep track of multiple versions of schedules or staffing documents.

2) Did the TMS contribute to an increased efficiency through reduced administration?

The second objective set out for the system was that it would make the staffing process more efficient by reducing some of the administrative work. Before the TMS, the planning was carried out in several different systems that could not communicate with each other and the same information was therefore fed into the different systems. To some extent the new system reduced this problem, reducing administration and making the staff planning more efficient.

However, the planners describe different experiences of how the transition to the TMS affected the opportunities for increased efficiency. Entering the system demanded a lot of work, since all tasks and activities had to be defined for the first time. In addition the planners had to learn to navigate in a new system. After using the system for some time, few planners testified that the TMS has reduced the administrative workload. Instead, several planners claimed that the staff planning took about the same time as before but with the advantage of better documentation and reduced complexity; *“If you can do it this year too, the planning for 2015, after that, I think we are back to the time it took before the TMS. [...] As I see it you might not be more efficient, but you may get added value from the system”*.

In summary, the interviews shows that the total administrative burden for planners was not reduced, but rather increased slightly after the new TMS was implemented. Not because of the effort of using the system itself, but because the TMS offered features that enabled a more detailed staffing and also offered new monitoring opportunities. These new features tended to be utilized and several planners stated that they now, with the help of the TMS, create a more detailed staff planning. This was seen as an improvement, though at the cost of increased workload.

3) Did the TMS contribute to an improved quality and stability?

High quality in the context of workforce planning can mean different things. However, one central aspect should be that the staffing are in line with current labor agreements and properly takes into account the guidelines for annual working time, sick leave and other absences. Thus, expectations were that the TMS would help planners to apply labor agreements correctly and generally contribute to better precision in the staff planning. Accordingly, most planners also claimed that the new system had helped to *“create order”*, and contributed to greater accuracy; *“It was a boost to get this tool. [...] It is at a level of detail now that did not exist before at all. [...] In this sense, it has become better organized and more fair”*.

Stability and reliability should also be considered quality aspects of staff planning. A central access and storage of staffing documentation can in that respect contribute to higher quality, compared to earlier versions of self-made documents, stored on personal laptops. This also reduces the person dependence in the staffing process, and new planners can more easily get involved in the planning process.

Several planners describe how they, when first becoming planners or department leaders before the introduction of the TMS, had a tough start when inheriting someone else's planning material. Since the TMS is a shared system throughout the university and with regular training sessions, the introduction of new planners had become smoother. The new system also made it easier to collaborate together when working with staff planning, as several planners could work in the same system in parallel.

Some planners also emphasize that the new system serves as an excellent tool for documentation. This makes both planning and follow-ups much easier and helps not only planners but also the individual teachers who always have access to their historical staffing, with accompanying notes and comments. The complete history of the department's workforce planning is also very helpful for new planners who need access to previous staffing materials, as well as a department head or staff coordinator when handling various personnel matters.

Overall, the TMS helped to reduce vulnerability and person dependency in the staffing process, mainly thanks to the excellent documentation possibilities and by facilitating cooperation and division of labor. By increasing accuracy and precision the overall planning also gained higher quality.

4) Did the TMS contribute to an increased transparency and clarity?

A fourth objective of the introduction of the TMS was that it would contribute to a more transparent staff planning. Most departments at the social science faculty had already before the introduction of the new system a relatively open staffing, so that the staff not only could take part of their own planning but also see how their colleagues were scheduled. However, during the interviews a majority of the planners said that with the advent of the TMS there was now an even greater clarity and transparency towards employees and that everything is even more visible.

The increased openness has to some extent also contributed to greater awareness and understanding among all employees, of the complexity involved in staffing. This also creates a greater understanding of the entire organization, including all the connections and priorities that affect the staffing process. All in all, it contributes to a higher degree of acceptance for the suggested staff planning; *"The ability to always enter the system and look, also helps people to get a better understanding of what they do and how it looks, with their hours. [...] I feel that there is a greater awareness, and that staffing is not something you can negotiate and bargain with."*

All planners welcome the increased transparency and clarity, since it seems to contribute to a greater understanding and acceptance. At some departments, however, the increased transparency also has given rise to problematic comparisons between teachers who do not understand the differences between their planning. Such situations must be handled through individual dialogues, since the underlying causes of specific staffing decisions not always can be made visible in the software system. Some planners also mention a tendency for staff to increasingly "chase" hours combined with a growing reluctance to take on even the smallest task unless it is first specified and assigned hours in the system.

In summary, the TMS has greatly increased transparency and clarity of the staffing process and the final service planning. Both planners and other staff see this as a positive effect of the new system. Increased transparency and openness has also opened up for collegial discussions about appropriate levels of details when staffing, and how smaller projects that previously often were included in the larger template based assignments, now could be specified and assigned hours.

Time management - a challenge for academic leaders

The evaluation of the TMS at the social science departments of Umeå University shows that after having used the system for a couple of years, many of the initial system expectations have been fulfilled, at least to some extent. Even though the process and rationality of planning did not change fundamentally, when moving from former spreadsheet solutions to a web-based TMS, the staff planners perceived an increased control as well as improved quality and precision in their work. In addition the transparency throughout the organization was increased. However, with a system offering new ways of handling data, there was also an increased complexity and added workload for the planners. In that sense one of the premier initial objectives (i.e. increased efficiency through reduced administration) has not yet been reached.

It is worth noting that the TMS mainly has been adopted by department leaders, and not by other staff members. As described earlier, the interest from teachers to participate in the evaluation was very low, and during the interviews with department leaders and planners, they confirmed that many teachers were skeptical towards the TMS and consequently preferred getting their annual planning presented in print. Since no interviews were conducted with teachers, we obviously cannot know all the reasons behind this cautious approach. However, statements from planners indicate that one possible reason seem to be that teachers, although appreciating the increased accuracy and transparency of the staffing process, still view the TMS as a tool for controlling and monitoring, having negative impact on their freedom to control their work.

Thus, besides giving vital feedback to the initiators of the TMS at the university, and also providing some indicators for continued work on implementing the system, the results from this evaluation study also highlights the complexity of time management in the context of higher education. While supporting an accurate, legitimate and transparent staffing, ideally contributing to good working conditions and a productive working environment, the TMS also can have the opposite effect, being a potential tool for increased control and excessive micromanagement.

In context of these opposing demands and expectations, the TMS offers the possibility (not yet tested in practice at Umeå University) for teachers to retroactively report back to the TMS how they have used their working hours. This would turn the TMS into a system for giving the academic leaders feedback on how teachers have used their working hours, rather than into an instrument for controlling the use of resources top-down. This bottom-up strategy might reduce the aversion against the TMS as a controlling and rigid instrument. On the other hand, this strategy would also increase the administrative workload for the teachers, since they have to log into the TMS and in rather high detail enter how they have managed their working hours. Another strategy could be to assign rather broad tasks (i.e. "teaching" rather than on what

courses) and leave the micro-management of courses and working hours to the teachers, without the need to give any feedback as long as they manage within the total sum of working hours. This way the TMS would be a template-based system for reporting the use of resources back to the government authorities, but that might suffice in some regulatory settings.

To conclude, the introduction of TMS represents a challenge for academic leaders who need to find a balance between the urge for efficiency and control, and the value of maintaining flexibility and autonomy among faculty members. In this context we have suggested some possible approaches, but further studies are needed to reach a better understanding of the challenges at hand.



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The logo for IAFOR (International Association for Frontiers of Research) is centered on the page. It features the word "iafor" in a lowercase, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by several overlapping, curved lines in shades of blue and red, creating a circular, dynamic effect.

***Pitfalls of Enthusiasm: Questioning our Assumptions
By Reflecting on our own Research Practices***

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Official Conference Proceedings

Abstract

It is not accidental that by problematizing the question, we, as researchers, begin to ‘learn by doing’ and formulate ‘what works’ within our research design. If we add the dimension of different languages, countries, and research practices to our intended study, we find ourselves not only ‘questioning what we do, but how we do it’. The following critique begins by situating the context of our pilot study on digital media and teaching practices in primary schools, and the ways in which through our own enthusiasm and interest, (often misguided at times), we developed our research design by “questioning our own practices and reflecting on our actions”. The continued negotiations of meaning and understanding which contributed to our research study are discussed as a means to ‘uncover, (re)discover, and re-frame’ our intentional, and unintentional means of ‘learning by doing’ as we address the ‘pitfalls of enthusiasm in our own learning’.

Introduction

The often cited motto ‘Pessimism of the Intellect, Optimism of the Will’, repeatedly mentioned by Gramsci (1975) in his prison notebooks, can be read as encompassing two crucial features. The first feature of critical research, namely is the intention of identifying and challenging oppressive power relations through the constant questioning of what we know and how we turn it into ‘scientific knowledge’ (critics or ‘pessimism of the intellect’). The second feature, our attempt as researchers to empower the research participants, by opening spaces for active engagement and dialogue with participants (empowerment or ‘optimism of the will’), as discussed further in this paper.

We will examine, in this paper, how we attempted to put into practice this motto in our pilot study on digital media and teaching practices in primary schools. Specifically, we will consider how our attempt, or more specifically our reflection on our attempts, contributed to changing some aspects of our research design, as well as our ways to address and include teachers and children in the research process. Indeed, although our research study reflects a comparison between Italy and the U.S.A., in this paper we concentrate on the results from the pilot study conducted in one primary school located in the countryside of Verona (Italy). We will discuss the strengths and weaknesses of specific research methods that we employed during the pilot study and the impact of our approach to achieving the overall aim of our study.

A socio-cultural approach to the study of technology integration in the classroom

Unlike many other research projects in the field of Educational Technology, this study neither focuses on the impact of digital technology on learning nor does it focus on how digital technologies can be used to train the 21st century workforce. As Selwyn (2012) and others argue, most educational technology writers and researchers focus mainly on the potential of technology use to ‘enhance’ learning and cognitive development, with little or no concern for the ‘wider’ aspects and contributions to education and society. Our study, in continuity with the research tradition of Cultural Studies, does not place the central emphasis on the effects of media on behavior, learning and attitudes, but rather on the ways in which meanings are established, negotiated and circulated, as well as on the ways in which power relationships are reproduced, resisted and negotiated in everyday life (Hall et al., 1980; Buckingham, 2008). Hence, our project shifts the focus from ‘media effects’ on teaching and learning to the critical understanding of how teachers and students make sense of different educational and teaching practices with digital media in their educational settings within the wider society.

Broadly speaking, we take a ‘socio-cultural’ approach to the study of technology integration in the classroom (Buckingham, 2007; Selwyn et al., 2010; Selwyn, 2011; Scott et al., 2015) in order to highlight teachers’ and students’ critical and reflective thinking when engaging with technologies in school settings. From this perspective we focus on what Brehony (2002:181) termed as “the (relative?) Autonomy of classroom life”, where teachers and learners negotiate the technological situations they encounter, and where local interactions are informed by broader social conditions. In this sense, digital technology use can be seen as a site for interactions between and within groups of teachers and students that are centered on issues of negotiation, meaning-making and identity formation. Moreover, following Apple’s (2010) analysis of unequal relations of power, we aim at producing critical

understandings that situate educational technology within the lived realities of schooling and the conflictual spaces that are generated by these relationships in society.

Moving from theory to research practice we translate this broad approach into an empirical analysis of how teachers and students represent digital technology use in education. In this sense, we recognize language as a key element in informing ideas and shaping actions, including digital technology use, within any educational context (Selwyn, 2015). As we will clarify later through a description of our research methods, on the one hand we are interested in understanding the actual uses of digital technology in school and this will be explored through observations of classroom activities with and without digital technology. On the other hand, starting from the assumption that language use is a crucial social practice to make sense of our actions, identities and relations, we take a 'discursive perspective' (Potter and Wetherell, 1987; Fairclough, 2003; Rogers, 2004) on the representations of digital technology constructed by teachers and students. From this perspective, what research participants say (but also write or draw) is not regarded as a self-evident reflection of what they 'really' think or believe, but rather as a form of socially situated performance through which they do not just represent their experience of digital technology but they also enact both social relationships as well as the specific subject positions that they occupy.

Reflective Practice in Education: the "pitfalls"- limits, and challenges

We understand that the power of knowing our philosophical orientations enables us to be reflective, (Argyris and Schon, 1974) and to better understand and appreciate our activities. From this perspective, reflective practice is instrumental in not only understanding the teacher's technological philosophy, but how he/she has internalized technological integration into his/her teaching practice. Reflective practice is used here to serve more than understanding the impact we are making; it serves to know the impact we *want* to make (Elias & Merriam, 2005). To know what impact we desire, we must ask ourselves what we believe is the purpose of education. Additionally, we need to know why we make the choices we do about the use of technologies in our everyday practices, and what we expect to achieve with these technologies in relation to our educational aims and goals. From a pedagogical perspective, if we recognize the value of the research participant's and the ways in which they make sense of their experiences, we are inevitably assuming that teachers' and students' reflexivity is key not only to understand but also to orient their actions (Dewey, 1933). Moreover, according to a 'critical pedagogy' orientation, when we include children's voices in research studies we should attempt to provide some kind of empowerment to the young participants themselves, and not exclusively to the teachers who are usually the recipients and far more present in these types of research investigations. In general, reflective practice is understood as the process of learning through and from experience towards gaining new insights of self and/or practice (Boud et al., 1985; Mezirow, 1981; Jarvis, 1992). This often involves examining assumptions of everyday practice.

It also tends to involve the individual practitioner in being self-aware and willing to critically evaluate his or her own responses to practice situations. The point of reflective practice is to recapture practice experiences and examine them critically in order to gain new understandings and inevitably improve future practice. This is part

of the connected processes of life-long learning, and understood as a fundamental positive outcome of reflexivity in identity formation and teaching practice.

However, the ways in which reflective practice have been applied, has evoked serious criticism and concern that challenge the productiveness of reflective practice in action. For example, when reflective practice is used easily as a ‘band-aide solution’, or mechanically imposed as an empty rhetoric where little or no deep thinking is involved, the outcome of reflection in action, contributes to greater misunderstanding and difficulties rather than serving as a means to address concerns in a productive way. As Larrivee (2000:293) has argued:

Unless teachers develop the practice of critical reflection, they stay trapped in unexamined judgments, interpretations, assumptions, and expectations. Approaching teaching as a reflective practitioner involves fusing personal beliefs and values into a professional identity.

While Schon’s work has inspired many different models of reflection and categories of reflective practice, it has also drawn criticism. Eraut (2004) faults Schon’s work for its lack of precision and clarity, while Boud and Walker (1998) had argued that Schon’s analysis ignores critical features relating to the context of reflection. Earlier works by Usher et al., (1997) also find Schon’s account and methodology as ‘unreflective’. This particular issue is further elaborated by Smyth (1989) who has asserted that Schon’s work is not theoretical and apolitical, while Greenwood (1993) attacks Schon for downplaying the importance of reflection-before-action. It is from this specific point of departure that we begin our pilot research study and consider the uses of reflections before-action, in-action, and after-action in our study. It is not our intention to ‘prove or disprove’ the arguments that support or challenge the practice of reflection, but rather to consider whether the uses of reflection within our own pilot study have meaningful outcomes. What do we learn about the participants and their making sense of digital technology within schools through the different levels of reflection?

The use of reflexivity as ‘heuristic tool’ in the pilot study

Reflexivity is widely recognized as a key concept in qualitative research. Although the issues raised in this paper interrelate to some extent to the broad issues of power, we understand reflexivity mainly as a ‘heuristic tool’ through which we attempt to make sense of our own role as researchers in the (co)construction of knowledge (Finlay, 2002). Broadly speaking, we try to make explicit how inter-subjective and contextual elements impact on our data collection. Furthermore, in line with feminist and critical versions of reflexivity in qualitative research (Reinharz, 1992), we enact self-reflexivity also to acknowledge (when present) the tensions arising from different social positions, for example in relation to age, class, gender, and race. Indeed, here we seek to situate our interpretations of the encounters between researchers and participants within a theoretical framework about the social construction of power. Hence, we further question the impact of our research study in terms of the empowerment, participation, the learning that we are thinking about, and/or our willing to promote, rather than taking for granted that our research is empowering simply because we operate within a critical theory of education.

In the context of the pilot study, reflexivity also served another practical (or pragmatic) purpose, namely the identification and re-design of (more) effective and suitable data collection strategies and tools. We asked: To what extent, do our specific data collection tools help (or hinder) the collection of 'rich' and significant accounts of participants' practices with digital media in school? Before illustrating how we attempted to answer, it is necessary to provide some information about a) the overall research strategy characterizing our international research study; b) the people that took part in the pilot study in the area of Verona (Italy); and c) the research tools adopted to collect our qualitative data.

Our research strategy consists of a multiple case study (Yin, 2003) through which teaching and educational practices with digital media in different geographical contexts are examined and compared. The empirical study will be carried out in Italy – in the cities of Rome and Verona – and in the U.S.A. (in the city of Buffalo, NY). By March 2016, approximately 100 primary school teachers and 120 students (aged 6-11) will have contributed to the empirical phase of the research.

The research team consisted of three researchers with diverse experiences in the field (a Full professor, an Associate professor and Senior Researcher). Two white male Italian researchers and one female of color American researcher contributed to different components of the research study. All of the researchers were present during the first session of data collection of the pilot study (interviews with teachers) whilst only the two Italian researchers conducted the second part of the pilot (observation of media classroom activities and group interviews with students).

Two primary school teachers and twenty students (aged 8-9) participated in the pilot study, which took place in one school located in the northern countryside of Verona in Italy. One of the teacher interviews was conducted at the University of Verona. Both of the teacher participants were male, middle age, Italian citizens who were widely acknowledged as experts in digital technology integration in their teaching practice. Part of their expertise as trainers of other teachers was in the uses of interactive whiteboards to teach Mathematics or Natural Sciences. One of the teachers described the attainment of the group of students involved in the pilot study as 'middle-low', in relation to students in his teaching subject (Math).

The data collection tools that were used for this pilot study were: a survey questionnaire with open ended questions for all of the 20 students, semi-structured/individual interviews with the two teachers, semi-structured focus group interviews with 6 students, and a grid of observation for the reporting of media classroom activities. The period of time that was spent collecting and analyzing data extended from July – September 2015.

Teachers' reflective practices and the pitfalls of enthusiasm

In the course of the pilot interviews with teachers, we experienced some pitfalls of enthusiasm in relation to 'reflective practice' (specifically the listening to - and taking about - 'reflexive teaching practice'). The pilot interviews with teachers were conducted by the male researchers, the full professor lead both the interviews, followed by further exploration and questions for clarification by the senior researcher. The female researcher observed the interviews and documented questions

for discussion with the research team. These roles reflect the established power differentials embedded within the academic learning structure. As previously noted, we enact self-reflexivity to acknowledge (when present) the tensions arising from different social positions, for example in relation to age, class, gender, and race. In this case, we have two proficient Italian language speakers who could have equally shared the duties of interviewing. However, without much 'reflection-before' we immediately assumed our respective roles based on the structure and power differentials that are embedded within the academic university structure.

We wish to highlight the social dynamics that are in play within a wider context, and how these tensions can subconsciously become part of the interviewing process. As we will show, in the first case, the teacher may have felt compelled to respond as an 'intellectual' highlighting his expertise as a means to speak as 'equals'. This is further reinforced by the teacher's request to contribute to the university as a potential lecturer for the training of prospective education students. The non-intervening interview style that was used in this first interview resulted in silences that the teacher tried to compensate for by offering repetition of the same discourse.

In practice, the first interview this theoretical enthusiasm translated into the enactment of a non-interventionist interview style. The interview style seems to contribute to how the teacher somewhat avoids to answer the very first question. Instead, the teacher repetitively reorients the interview toward his understanding of technology, or his teaching style, as demonstrated in the following extract:

Extract of Interview #1:

Researcher: *Could you provide us with some background information to 'frame', why and when you choose to become a teacher, what were your expectations, your dreams, your ideas and when did you start using media in school? Hence, these are essentially two issues: **why you wanted to be a teacher**, how you decided, and then **when you began to use media in school**, which (media) and why.*

Teacher #1 : *Well, I entered the school in 1981, so you see I entered accidentally, because in truth I was working as a builder, and because my mother had brought – the usual mums that bring - 'listen to me, you have to apply for the (teachers') substitutions...so I began, I fell, I say, **I fell in love with the job...in love...It's something I have always wanted – then I will come back to the technologies.***

Researcher: *Yes, yes, take your time*

Teacher #1: *I mean I don't distinguish between this (points to the desk) and...that (points to paper) it is all the same to me **technology is also the paper sheet, technology is the box, it is this (the counting blocks) I mean everything is technology.*** [Continues for 5 Minutes to talk about his understanding of technology]

In terms of reflective practice, we recognize the limitations of reflection in so far as no one from the research team stopped the teacher from continuing down this path. On the one hand we were understandably and genuinely committed to listening but on the other we obviously did not 'reflect-in-action', as indicated in this extract. It was apparent that both the non-interventionist interviewing style and our reflections-after, necessitated changes to our interviewing style.

There are a number of concerns that can prevent further exploration of the research investigation. In this first case, the quality of the collected data can potentially lead to a repetition of the same discourse, rather than explore the understanding of the teacher and how s/he makes sense of digital media. Furthermore, there is a chance of the interviewee reverting back to the comfortable role of “Teaching the Researcher” rather than reflecting on his/her own practice. Finally, sometimes a discomfort with silence may invoke comments that are less directed at the questions that are being asked, and rather serve as ‘filler’ for the silence lapses or gaps in the conversation. In light of this first pilot interview, the research team agreed to take a more interventionist approach to the second interview. As illustrated in this example, the second interview was heavily structured in interview style through which the value of the teacher’s practice was constantly reaffirmed and theorized by the interviewer.

Extract from Interview #2:

Researcher: [...] ***We know that sometimes the teacher doesn’t care about books, I mean books are interesting but what is it worth is the daily work and what he invents day by day that often, actually almost always, the teacher creates his own didactics, he invents the solutions, let’s say he/she is creative indeed, and after all he (or she) lets himself (or herself) lead by a theory. What he/she creates is his/her pedagogical faith and his/her teaching faith***

Teacher: *I understand very well* (laugh)

Researcher: *What?*

Teacher: *I understand very well ...*

Researcher: *So this is also to take a distance, also as academics, by the way I was a teacher, **I’ve been a teacher for 14 years***

Teacher: *So* (implying share understanding)

Researcher: ***And so I remember*** [memories about the past job as teacher]

This extract appropriately exemplifies the researcher’s attempt to value teaching practice, as well as to reduce hierarchical relations at work in terms of social status (academic and teacher). On the one hand the use of pronoun ‘we’ can be read as implying ‘we academics’ that value teachers’ practice. On the other hand the disclosure of the past personal experience could potentially work as icebreaking move toward a more equal dialogue.

However, we found that theoretical and personal alignments with the perspective informed by the interviewers may limit the contributions of the teacher participant. Strong alignments in the course of the interview limit the quality of the collected data and can potentially lead to “too many chefs in the kitchen”. The illusion of balancing the power relations through a more open and democratic/ interventionist interviewing style, may be possible in principle, but rather difficult to execute in practice. There is always the danger, and the risk, of patronizing the interviewee (teacher) if there are

too many references that are aligned to the status of the interviewer, his/her personal academic experiences or theoretical knowledge during the interview process.

Students Voices and the pitfalls of enthusiasm

Similar to power dynamics evident in interviews with the teachers, a similar interplay of power occurred with students. In this case the two Italian researchers were present. They presented and administered the questionnaire to the 20 students and after they equally participated in the conversation by asking questions to the 6 children involved in the focus group. As we will discuss, the researchers in the course of the focus group followed a pre-defined protocol but they often changed or rephrased some questions. Here the language used in the questionnaire, or during the focus group activities, played a key function in promoting understanding or preventing comprehension of the questions that were asked. Furthermore we noticed how language use served to encourage or at times mitigate 'school-learned responses' from children. In sum, here our research practice sometimes failed to make the participant's voices heard as expected.

During the focus group we recognized (reflection-in-action) that changes to some of the questions were needed. For the students who participated in the focus group, some of the questions were too general or abstract for the children to understand. For example, a couple of students couldn't understand this question: 'In your opinion, do you see any relation between what you do at school with digital technologies and what you do at home?'. Hence, we rephrased the question by dividing it into two very specific questions: a) *What did you learn by using digital media outside school?*, and b) *Could the things you have learned outside school also be taught in school?*. These reframed questions provided students with more opportunities to engage in a conversation about their actual experience rather than frustrating students to respond to more abstract forms of reasoning/thinking. Students moved from monosyllabic or minimal answers to the first question, to more elaborated answers to the two newly reframed questions. This constant process of simplifying and clarifying the questions in the course of the focus group interviews resulted in the rewriting of some of the questions for the final interview schedule.

A similar problem arose with other questions in the questionnaire. A small number of students were not all able to understand the question, whilst the vast majority of children replied with very brief answers and/or had drawn very minimal visual representations of their media classroom experiences. The question was formulated as follow: *'What is your most favorite thing to use digital technology in school for (write and/or draw)?'*. A small number of students provided representations of out-of-school experiences, which was the theme of the following question. When asked about this choice, this sub-group of students claimed that they did not understand the question. This response provided evidence of the lack of clarity of the questions for some students. As we look at the majority of students that understood the question their written answers were very brief. For example: *"Because I like to watch the picture on the tablet and because I like to play."* or *"I like to use the interactive whiteboard because we can learn and have fun."* Most of the drawings were limited to the basic representations of some devices, for example a black square representing the interactive whiteboard or children using a tablet.

Although some of the questions provided opportunities for students to draw rather than write, we actually found that the more insightful representations of classroom experience were found in some unexpected and/or unplanned students' drawings that were requested by the teacher, not by the researchers. The teacher's articulation for the students to portray the lesson that was taught during our observation resulted in more elaborate and insightful representations of student experiences with digital media in the classroom. This specific moment raised the question as to why students responded differently to the teacher's request than the researcher's request. Was this a 'learned response'? and if so, how might we further use these representations for informing our understanding of students' uses and understandings of digital media in schools?

Some of the students' unexpected and insightful responses led us to make other changes to the research study. For example, most of the students portrayed in their drawings the table that they used in the classroom where they were engaged in an exercise. However, only a few of the children's drawings reflected the interactive whiteboard that was used. The presentation and discussion related to the drawings functioned as a hint about how students make sense of digital media in their own contexts.

We asked students' to comment on the drawings of the lesson as part of the pilot focus group. At the very end of the group interview, students were asked to rank the drawings from their most favorite to the least favorite representation of media classroom experience. Students were asked to provide an explanation about their choices. The children seemed more willing and comfortable to comment on their drawings, rather than talking about their 'learning'. Almost all of the participants echoed the same explanation about their choices, limiting diversity of students' perspectives. We devised a new question in the form of group work in which children were encouraged to talk amongst themselves rather than merely dialoguing with the interviewer. Students were asked to discuss and work collaboratively with peers who had similar individual rankings of the drawings. Students were expected to respond as a 'group' not individually. The final rankings were to be provided in a format that a jury would use in an Art Festival. Interestingly, this more children-led discussion resulted in a more inclusive discussion strategy as also the less participative children in the previous researcher-led discussion proactively engaged more in the group discussion. In sum, the presentation and discussion as related to the drawings functioned as a clue on how to explore more productively the way students make sense of digital media in their own social contexts.

Since this task provided students with more opportunities to engage genuinely in the research process, we decided to include this activity in the final focus group protocol. The 'jury's role play' was proposed as follows:

'In the questionnaire everyone represented through a drawing, or a written description, a classroom activity using digital media. Now each student should show and present his/her work by explaining why a particular activity was chosen. After the presentations, students should discuss, as if they were members of a jury, required to decide and rank the drawing or written description. Finally, students will present the motivations/reasons for their choices.'

As suggested, we replaced the question about student's favorite uses of digital media in and out of school with a new question that echoed the teacher's request to represent the lesson through a drawing, despite the more structured approach involved. We asked students to assess their media uses with positive, neutral or negative symbols and provide an illustration of their ideas. We tried to offer a wider set of options to connote the experiences of students with digital media. We made this choice in order to accommodate the diversity of connotations (read 'not exclusively positive') of digital media provided by children in the course of the focus group responses. For example, we replaced the question about in-school uses of digital media "What is your most favorite thing to use digital technology for in school? (write and/or draw)- with the following request: "Draw and/or tell, using some words, a lesson, or a moment of work, where you used digital media at school." Before responding to this question, students were directed to "think about whether you enjoyed the lesson". If you did not like it put a circle around the symbol" – "if you liked it on average circle the symbol "+/-" " , and if you enjoyed it a lot circle the symbol" + ". After the pilot study and re-design of data collection tools, our following sessions of work in the classroom actually resulted in more engaging and inclusive discussions with the young participants.

Conclusion

The recognition of some of these pitfalls in our initial enthusiasm enabled us to frame even more critically our research design and thus to perform a pessimism of the reason. However at the same time, a more grounded optimism of will also emerged. This latter outcome is not lead by a blind-faith toward the critical pedagogy embedded in our theoretical framework, but rather by a critical and dialectic praxis between theory and (research) practice. In this respect , as Buckingham, (1998:12) has stated

Rather than regarding academic theory as a repository of truth, our commitment here is to praxis– in other words, to a dialectical relationship between theory and practice. Indeed, we would argue that any meaningful pedagogic theory has to be able to take account of the experience of classroom practice; and that practice is a site on which new theoretical insights and challenges can be generated.

As we have seen, the critical questioning of research practice clearly represents a condition of existence for 'critical research' (an epistemological issue) but somewhat it also might function as conditions of existence of any truly supporting relationship between academic researchers, teachers and children (an ethical issue). From this perspective, our critical questioning contributed not only to change some aspects of our research strategy but also to ground our research practice on the messy and complex realities of classroom practices, languages and cultures. However, we will need to be constantly open to revising, the interpretations, being aware of the unavoidable limits, given that as Cesare Pavese (2000) has stated, "The professionalism of the enthusiasm is the most sickening of insincerities".

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Promoting Self-Esteem Among Culturally Diverse Kinder Children by Exploring the Background of their Names

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Abstract

Aim

This Names Project aimed to promote social interaction and positive self-identity, through sharing the background of names of culturally diverse children.

Methods

Parents were engaged to provide an account on the background of their child's name, including why they gave the child that particular name. They were encouraged to divulge details on what the name linguistically means and what it means to them in a personal sense. This included details on any relatives or historical characters that they considered when selecting the name for their child.

Their contribution was included in the curriculum, as a book shared with the children during the group time that is part of their daily routine. Each day, we explored the name of one child and shared his/her parent's account among all children.

Results

The parents of all 42 children in Kinder Room 9 submitted their contributions within weeks. Children were excited, and summoned each other to participate by drawing/writing their names on the entry their parents made. There were a lot of discussions and interaction among children regarding their names. Many children had non-English names, and some had asked to be called by these names, after having developed self-esteem through sharing the proud background of their name.

Conclusion

Sharing the background of a child's name is a positive experience that highlights cultural diversity and enhances self-esteem among children. This is evident by the level of participation and their pride to be called by their traditional non-English names.

Keywords: cultural diversity, names, self-esteem, participation, curriculum, children

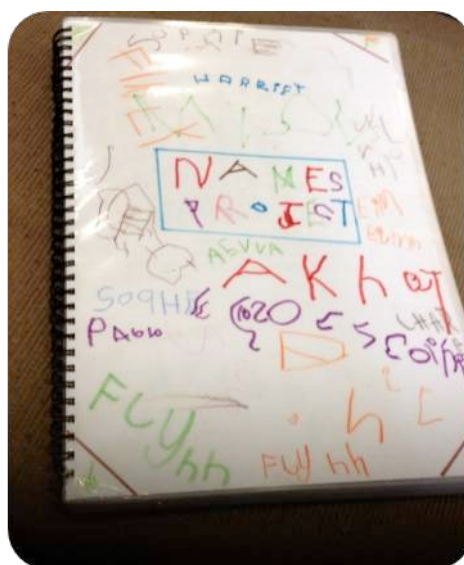
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Background

The success of the Names Book Project depended on engaging families and the participation of kinder children. The project aimed to:

- * Highlight every child's right to be called by a name they like and value.
- * Build every child's self-esteem by exploring and sharing the meaning of their name.
- * Present cultural diversity, encourage children's self-identity and their sense of belonging to their ethnic and family background, while offering positive experiences that are a source of social interaction, exploring cultural diversity, and developing communication skills.



Methods

Parents were engaged to provide an account on the background of their child's name, including why they gave the child that particular name. They were encouraged to divulge details on what the name linguistically means and what it means to them in a personal sense. This included details on any relatives or historical characters that they considered when selecting the name for their child.

Parents' and children's contributions were included in the curriculum, as a book shared with the children during the group time that is part of their daily routine. Each day, we explored the name of one child and shared his/her parent's account among all children.



Results

Parents of all 42 children in the kinder room submitted their contributions within weeks. About 25 families made their contribution within the first 10 days.

Children were excited, and summoned each other to participate by drawing/writing their names on the entry their parents made.

There were a lot of discussions and interaction among children regarding their names. Many children had non-English names, and some had asked to be called by these names, after having developed self-esteem through sharing the proud background of their name.

Parents demonstrated a great level of satisfaction and joy with the project. Entries were collected and made into a book that included children's photographs, drawings and notes on their name.

Examples of feedback from parents

"Thanks Mariana. We think your book is a great idea"

"what a great project!"

"Its a lovely idea and important to my family. Thank you!"

"Thanks for your email, this is really a good start of understanding self identity."

"Sounds like a great project! Here's some information re Seth..."

Discussion

This names project involved families, children and educators. It was a real success, and indeed a valuable addition to the curriculum. Its use during the group time was effective and appropriate. With the support of educators, components of the curriculum can reflect children's cultures and beliefs, making it more relevant to children who would then find it more interesting and engaging (Lauren & Denis, 2001). Furthermore, the project reflects Article 7 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989). However, it does not only highlight the right of the child to be called by a name, but also to be appreciated for that name and esteemed by peers.



Children's social skills need to be viewed not in isolation but within the context of the social and cultural world in which children are raised. As per the socio-cultural theory, educators need to understand the development of children in the context of their own communities.

Vygotsky saw the social environment as being involved in a child's learning (McDevitt, Ormrod, Cupit, Chandler & Aloa, 2013). The role of culture is so fundamental that educators need to ensure they are well educated on children's cultures and beliefs. This informs our awareness of children's social skills level, and thus enable us to implement different activities and resources suitable for every child's developmental needs (McDevitt *et al.*, 2013).

The project emphasized children's right to be called by the name they like. This, together with social interactions and being appreciated by peers, built children's self-esteem. This was further promoted by the friendships their established and the cultural diversity they experienced.

The Names Book further built strong relationships with families, and enhanced collaboration between kinder and home. Relationships and participation are essential to learning, as well as encouraging children of varying abilities to work together collaboratively through the sharing of ideas and skills. (Zakrzewski, 2014).

This book was an interesting open ended topic for children and parents. Children spent good times exploring the entries of everyone, sharing thoughts and laughs.

Each day, children kept asking for their name's turn during the group time. Parents were also impressed with the Names Book, and every day they would read the day's entry, which we followed on an alphabetic order.

Summary

The Names Book Project engaged children and made them happy and interested in others. It highlighted cultural diversity and promoted children's self-esteem, as their names were discussed and appreciated by peers, families and educators.

The Book generated much discussion and interactions, further developing children's social and communication skills, and promoted friendships and wellbeing.

Children participated in many tasks that fostered their skills and developed their literacy, through play-based curriculum and the inclusion of the Names Book in their daily curriculum.



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***The Development of Application for Thai-ASEAN Neighboring Language- English
Common Base Concepts Wordnet of 1st Order Entity***

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Abstract

The application of Thai, ASEAN neighboring languages, and English common base concept words was developed from the equivalent translation WordNet of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity. Present study selected Lao and Vietnamese languages to include in the pilot application based on the study of BanSomdejchaopraya Rajabhat University students' need. The 1st Order Entity words used in the application were selected and examined using bi-directional translation method and the native speakers of English, Thai, Lao, and Vietnamese were asked to translate from source language to target languages and then from target to source language; for example, from English to Thai and from Thai to English.

Keywords: Application, Thai, ASEAN neighboring language, English, 1st Order Entity words

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Introduction

Language is an key towards the ASEAN integration in 2015 because the use of English as an Asian language encourages the usage of English in Asian contexts. So, the development of application for Thai- ASEAN Neighboring and English common base concept words was developed from the equivalent translation WordNet of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity research project. According to the equivalent translation WordNet of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity research project, ASEAN WordNet using translation equivalence of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity was examined. In this project, the translation equivalence of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity were examined and selected to be used in the further development of ASEAN WordNet.

Web application is selected for further research development because web strategies and activities were most commonly used by language teachers. Presently, these technologies have been used in language education Language. Teachers are interested in using computer-based technologies both to facilitate language learning and to help their learners acquire the new knowledge.

Theoretical Background

Four orders of entities

Lyons (1977:442-447) presents a three-way typology of entities, which refines the traditional distinction between concrete and abstract nouns.

1) First-order entities

Entities of the first order are physical objects, i.e. persons, animals, and things. First-order entities are evaluated in terms of their existence (Lyons1977).

2) Second-order entities

Entities of the second order are “events, processes, states-of-affairs, etc., which are located in time and which, in English, are said to occur or take place, rather than to exist” (Lyons 1977:443).Second-order entities are evaluated in terms of their realization.

3) Third-order entities

Entities of the third order are “such abstract entities as propositions, which are outside space and time” (Lyons1977:443).Third-order entities are evaluated in terms of their truth.

In addition, Hengeveld (1992:7) added a fourth order of entities, which are located in space and time, and are evaluated in terms of their felicity. An overview of the four orders of entity was presented in the following table.

Order	Evaluation	Examples
first	existence	woman
second	Reality	arrival
third	Truth	belief
fourth	Felicity	question

Table 1: Orders of entities

According to Lyons (1977), first-order nouns are universally regarded as the prototypical examples of the category of nouns. Whereas, first-order entities are in general identified exclusively by nouns, second- and third-order entities are also referred to by embedded clauses, and fourth-order entities by quoting direct speech.

Translation equivalence

Translation equivalence is a principal concept in Western translation theory. As Catford mentioned, "the central problem of translation-practice is that of finding target language (TL) equivalents. A central task of translation theory is that of defining the nature and conditions of translation equivalence." (Catford 21: 1965). The concept of equivalence in translation becomes an essential feature of translation theories in the 1960s and 1970s, equivalence was meant to indicate that source text (henceforth ST) and target text (henceforth TT) share some kind of sameness. The different kinds of equivalence was described by many scholars as Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), Jakobson (1959), Nida and Taber (1969), Catford (1965), House (1997), Koller (1979), Newmark (1981), Baker (1992), and finally, Pym (2010).

As Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet mentioned in their *Stylistique Comparée du Français et de l'Anglais* (1958) and also, in its English version, first published in 1995, they distinguish between direct and oblique translation, the former referring to literal translation and the latter to free translation. Moreover, they propose seven procedures, the first three covered by direct translation and remaining four by oblique translation. These procedures are: borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence, and adaptation. Through this procedure, it is claimed that the stylistic impact of the source-language (henceforth SL) text can be maintained in the target-language (henceforth TL) text. Furthermore, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) considered as a necessary and sufficient condition for equivalent expressions between language pairs to be acceptable to be listed in a bilingual dictionary "as full equivalents."

According to the structuralist Roman Jakobson (1959), there are three kinds of translation, that is, intralingual (rewording or paraphrasing within one language), interlingual (rewording or paraphrasing between two languages), and intersemiotic (rewording or paraphrasing between sign systems). It is interlingual translation that has been the focus of translation studies. He addressed the problem of equivalence in meaning between words in different languages because there can be no full equivalence between two words (Jakobson, 1959/2000).

With Eugene Nida's two famous books in (1964) and the co-authored *The Theory and Practice of Translation* (Nida and Taber, 1969), Nida maintained that there are two basic types of equivalence: (1) formal equivalence and (2) dynamic equivalence. In particular, Nida argued that in formal equivalence the TT resembles very much the ST in both form and

content whereas in dynamic equivalence an effort is made to convey the ST message in the TT as naturally as possible.

Another important view is Catford's main contribution in the field of translation studies lies in the introduction of his idea of types and shifts of translation (1965). Catford described very broad types of translation according to three criteria. Firstly, full translation is contrasted with partial translation which differs according to the extent of translation. Secondly, total translation differs from restricted translation according to the levels of language involved in translation, and, thirdly, Catford distinguished between rank-bound translation and unbounded translation, depending on the grammatical or phonological rank at which equivalence is established.

Regarding to House (1997), House has distinguished between two basic types of translation, namely, overt translation and covert translation. As the term itself denotes, an overt translation points to a TT that consists of elements that it is a translation. On the other hand, a covert translation is a TT that has the same function with the ST since the translator has made every possible effort to alleviate cultural differences.

Werner Koller, the most prominent German scholars (1979), distinguished five different types of equivalence: (a) denotative equivalence involving the extralinguistic content of a text, (b) connotative equivalence relating to lexical choices, (c) text-normative equivalence relating to text-types, (d) pragmatic equivalence involving the receiver of the text or message, and, finally, (e) formal equivalence relating to the form and aesthetics of the text (p. 186-191).

The major difference between the two types of translation proposed by Newmark (1981) is that semantic translation must focus on meaning whereas communicative translation concentrates on effect. Semantic translation focused on the author of the original text whereas communicative translation is meant to serve a larger readership. Hence, the two methods of translation may be used in parallel, with varying focuses where each is employed. Moreover, Newmark (1981) strongly believes that literal translation is the best approach in both semantic and communicative translation.

Baker (1992) addressed the issue of equivalence by adopting a more neutral approach. According to Baker, a distinction of equivalence is made between word-level and above-world-level equivalence. Adopting a bottom-up approach, Baker acknowledges the importance of individual words during the translation process, since the translator looks firstly at the words as single units in order to find their equivalent in the TL. Grammatical equivalence refers to the diversity of grammatical categories across languages and the difficulty of finding an equivalent term in the TT due to the variety of grammatical rules across languages. On the other hand, textual equivalence refers to equivalence that may be achieved between a ST and TT in terms of cohesion and information. Baker argued that the feature of texture is of immense importance for the translators since it facilitates their comprehension and analysis of the ST and helps them to produce a cohesive and coherent text in the TL. Lastly, pragmatic equivalence deals mainly with implicature.

According to Pym (2010), he distinguished between natural and directional equivalence. Natural equivalence exists between languages prior to the act of translating, and, secondly, it is not affected by directionality. On the other hand, theories of directional equivalence give the translator the freedom to choose between several translation strategies which are not dictated by the ST. The most important assumption of directional equivalence is that it involves some kind of asymmetry since when translating one way and creating an equivalent does not imply the creation of the same equivalent when translating another way.

The web application and language learning

Presently, the web application is one of the best ways to learn language other than the other ways. This is because of the advantages of online learning; for example,

- 1) The web application offers the accessible possibility to experience English anytime and anywhere.
- 2) The web application allows for users to learn language when they want, where they want.
- 3) The web application can provide the repetition usage to the user.
- 4) The web application is a multi modal learning tool. It stimulates in a rich sensory and cognitive and thus fertilizes language acquisition successfully.
- 5) The web application allows the language learner choice and variety in both what and with who will be learned.
- 6) The web application is a safe way to learn English language.

Research Objective

To develop the application of Thai, ASEAN neighboring languages, and English common base concept words from the equivalent translation WordNet of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity.

Research Methodology

The present section, we will present 2 parts of research methodology. The first part concerning how we get the equivalent translation WordNet of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity and the second part concerning how we develop the application to present the selected information from the first stage.

The methodology of examining and selecting the equivalent translation of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity

The methodology of examining and selecting the equivalent translation of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity using the bi-directional translation method will be presented.

- 1) The 1st Order Entity words were selected from Brown Corpus (Word frequency corpus)
- 2) The equivalent translation of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity was developed by following translating procedure:
 - 2.1) The two English (Native language, NL, henceforth) -Thai (Foreign language, FL, henceforth) henceforth), two Thai (NL) -English (FL), two English (NL) -Lao (FL), two Lao (NL) - English (FL), two English (NL) - Vietnamese (FL), and two Vietnamese (NL) - English (FL) bilinguals were assigned as the translators.
 - 2.2) The translators will independently translate the items bi-directionally and then compare the results to obtain the most equivalent item. The procedure of bi-directional translation includes the procedure of the native speakers of each language were asked to translate from source language to target languages and then from target to source language. The translators

will independently translate the items and then compare the results to obtain the most equivalent item.

2.3) The translated items should then be back-translated into English by the translators to determine whether they are equivalent in meaning to the English original. For example, the native speakers of Thai who knows English language were asked to translate from English to Thai and from Thai to English and also the native speakers of Lao who knows English language were asked to translate from English to Lao and from Lao to English.

3) The translation results were tested using F-Measure ($\geq 70\%$)

The methodology of the present development

The research methodology consisted of 3 phrases.

1) The focus group study of specialists. The focus group was conducted for 5 specialists of related fields as linguistics, EST, IT, visual design, and art. The focus group was conducted by the interview concerning the appropriated characteristics of word application.

2) The application was developed based on the results of focused group.

3) The application was developed based on the following process.

4) The focus group consisting of 5 specialists in related fields: linguistics, EST, IT, visual design, and art. The focus group was conducted by the interview concerning the appropriated characteristics of word application.

5) The application was developed based on the results of focused group.

6) The developed application was evaluated by 5 specialists in related fields.

7) The developed application was improved based on the evaluation of 5 specialists.

8) The developed application will be operated off-line in 100 Bachelor's degree students in order to examine users' satisfaction.

Results

290 equivalent translation of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity have been selected and the accuracy of selected synsets has been evaluated manually. The examples of equivalent translation of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity were as.

<p>adult</p> <p>1 any mature animal</p> <p>2 a fully developed person from maturity onward</p> <p>ผู้ใหญ่</p> <p>Viet: người lớn</p> <p>Laos: ຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ '0ຄົນໃຫຍ່'</p>	<p>bed</p> <p> a piece of furniture that provides a place to sleep;</p> <p>"he sat on the edge of the bed";</p> <p>"the room had only a bed and chair"</p> <p>เตียง 0 เตียงนอน 0 ที่นอน</p> <p>Viet: giường</p> <p>Laos: ຕັບງູ ຕັບງນອນ0ທີ່ 'ນອນ</p>
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These selected translation equivalent words were developed as the application as presented in the following figure.

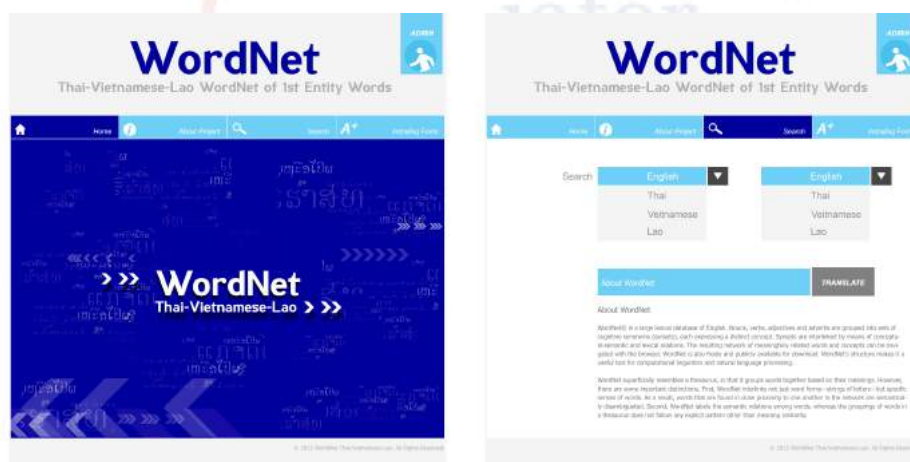


Figure 1: Example of Interface

Conclusions and Discussions

The next ongoing process is that the developed application will be operated off-line in 100 Bachelor's degree students in order to examine users' satisfaction.

In addition, a few numbers of equivalent translation of English-Thai-Lao-Vietnamese words in the 1st Order Entity obtained from the previous study can be implied that it is difficult to get the equivalent translation between words in any two languages or more than two languages which are absolutely identical in meaning. Hence, for the study of equivalent translation of many languages, it is difficult to get the cross-language equivalent translation. This proposed that equivalence between the source language and the target language should be investigated in different aspects based on the purposes of the study.

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Negotiating Gender Roles in Intercultural Communication in Qatar¹

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Abstract

This sociocultural linguistic study explores gender roles within the Qatari community emphasizing masculinity-femininity in terms of education, marriage, interdependence-independence and from different perspectives, including religion and traditions. More specifically, it focuses on the ways whereby gender roles associated with male and female Qatari students in intercultural communication courses in a university in Qatar are negotiated between them and their two female instructors from the US and Greece. Qatar has come under the spotlight due to its successful bid to host World Cup 2022, resulting in the diversification of its population, a fact that renders intercultural communication a sine qua non for a smooth co-existence of everybody who lives and works in the country. Falling under the scope of the “education for intercultural exchange” stream of the conference, our aim is to contribute towards the development of good practices related to teaching “exchange of information between members who are unlike culturally” (Berry et al. 2011: 471) by arguing that an efficient way of overcoming misunderstandings between instructors and students is to engage in a pedagogical approach, which we call “dialogical infotainment”. Used to negotiate relationship and professional roles, this pedagogical approach translates into holding a dialogue, interactive discussions, and oral interviews with our students aiming at eliciting ethnographic information about each other’s cultures in an entertaining way, e.g. through the narration of stories and/or through role playing activities. Infotainment serves the ultimate goal of sharpening our cultural sensitivity and subsequent tolerance and respect for each other’s gender role-related peculiarities.

Keywords: Intercultural communication, gender roles, Qatar, education infotainment, masculinity, femininity

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1 Introduction

The State of Qatar is a small country bordering Saudi Arabia, Bahrain and the United Arab Emirates (map 1) that came under the spotlight worldwide after its successful bid to host the World Cup 2022. After the discovery of oil back in the '70s and vast reserves of natural gas more recently, the economy of the country is considered to be one of the best in the world,² a fact that has led to the rapid modernization and subsequent diversification of the population of the country, which keeps expanding every month. Among the approximately 2,2 million people that form the contemporary population of Qatar (see figure 1), it has been calculated that the local population, i.e. holders of Qatari passports, are only 275,000 people.³ This segment, which is the focus of our paper, is characterized by intense gender segregation, which is found in governmental institutions, such as ministries and state universities.

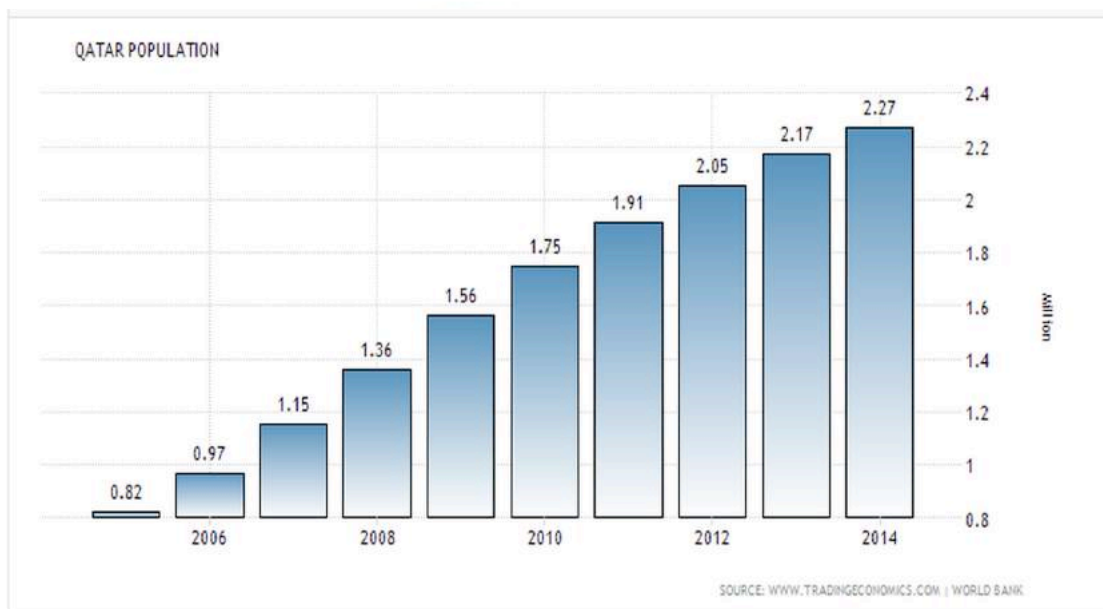
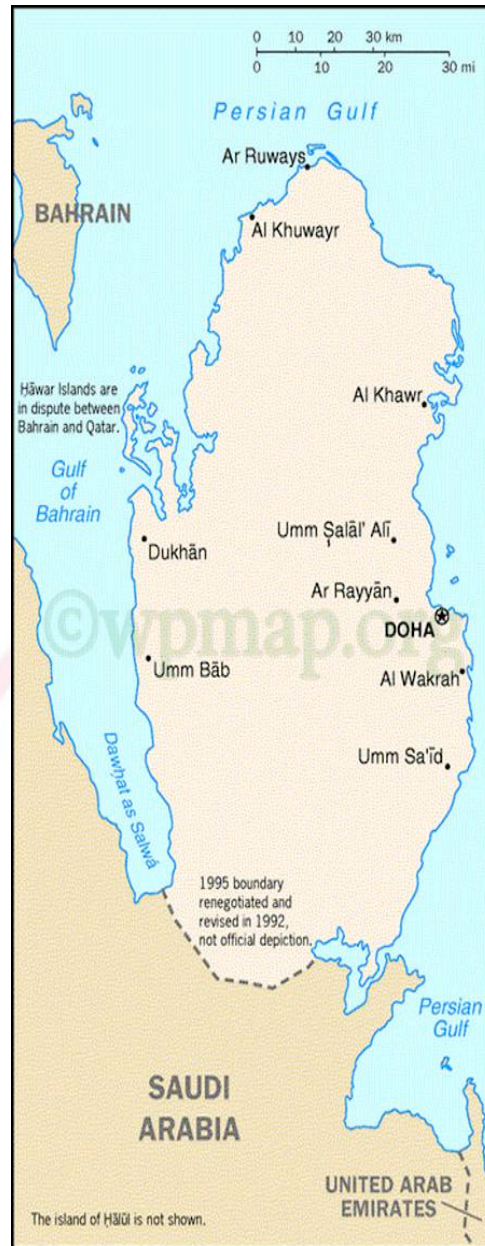


Figure 1: Population of Qatar (taken from <http://www.tradingeconomics.com/qatar/population>, accessed on 3 Dec. 2015)

Against this backdrop, more often than not as Westerners interacting with students from both genders both inside and outside the classroom we feel that there are misunderstandings between our male and female students with respect to how they perceive each other, hence we became increasingly interested in fleshing out what “gender roles” mean to our students and to us as well as how these are or can be negotiated in the university classroom. As an institution that prepares tomorrow’s citizens of Qatar, we feel that it is our mission to contribute towards the bridging of the gap between men and women, in order to have a harmonious and thus a prosperous society is of paramount importance, so this paper should be seen as a contribution towards that direction.

² <http://www.focus-economics.com/countries/qatar> (accessed on 3 Dec. 2015)

³ The bedouins (or igbaili) in Qatar trace their descent from the nomads of the Arabian Peninsula (Al-Amadidhi 1985).



Map 1: Qatar (taken from www.wpmap.org, accessed on 3 Dec. 2015)

2 Gender, sociolinguistics and IC communication with Arabs

The literature on intercultural communication with Arabs focuses primarily on the religious differences between Islam and the rest of the world's religions, primarily Christianity, which more often than not create misunderstandings and potential clashes between people due to the different values and practices associated with them (e.g. chapters in Raddawi 2015). However, the literature on the different takes on gender roles and the ways these are constructed and negotiated in the Arab world is rather scarce (Albirini 2016: 189), maybe due to the fact that gender is not viewed by many scholars as a type of identity that is associated with different cultures (however, see Sadiqi 2003, 2006; Vicente 2009; Pollard 2013). We understand "gender" as "the cultural traits and behaviors deemed appropriate for men or women by a particular society" (Cameron 2006: 724). For us, though, and in alignment with Deborah Tannen's work on Greeks and Americans (e.g. 2005), male and female genders along

with their respective masculinities and femininities can be seen as a continuum which has been created through the different ways boys and girls are socialized from day one of their lives, a fact that leads to the emergence of different cultures and different gender roles associated with these cultures. Against this backdrop, the research questions that we address in this study include the following: 1) how do Qatari students understand “masculinities” and “femininities” ? and 2) how do we as instructors and our students negotiate gender roles in the classroom?

3 Gender-oriented ethnography

In our study, the methodology we used to collect our data was primarily linguistic ethnography (Rampton et al. 2004; Tusting & Maybin 2007), both inside and outside the classroom. Having lived and worked in Qatar for over 5 years, both of us have engaged in extensive participant observation and field note taking with respect to our students in the classroom, in the hallway, in the Men’s and Women’s Activities Buildings found in the gender-segregated campus of Qatar University, where our students spend their break time. Similarly, both of us have attended weddings or have participated in desert camps or have visited former students’ houses, where we have been invited, so in this way we have been offered the privilege of getting a glimpse into their academic and more personal lives. This background knowledge is vital for our understanding of their gender-related behavior given that it stems from a gender-segregated environment, with which none of us was familiar before we arrived at Qatar.

Our understanding of gender-related roles has been significantly informed by conducting ethnographic interviews with both our male and female students. In these interviews, we asked them questions about what they consider as typical features and personality traits of “a good man” and “a good woman” in Qatar as well as how they see themselves in terms of their gender. In addition, we have kept a record of interesting stories, in which the gender-related expected roles have been blurred, twisted or undermined, that both students and us have shared with each other. Finally, in order to complement our primarily oral data with written ones, we have also relied on classroom material (from both male and female students) that we have collected from the Intercultural Communication class that Iglal has offered in Fall semesters 2013, 2014 and 2015 as well as from the Language & Gender class that Irene has offered during the Spring semesters 2013, 2014 and 2015. This classroom material consists of midterm exam papers, quizzes, home assignments and notes that deal with gender-related topics addressed in the classroom.

All of these resources have been used collectively in order to answer the aforementioned research questions. We start our discussion with how our students perceive masculinities and femininities, before we give our own take on these and we conclude our analysis by demonstrating what have turned out to be good practices of negotiating gender role diversity in the university classroom.

4 Gender roles from the perspective of Qataris

Gender roles involve outward expressions of what society considers masculine or feminine. What gender means and how we express it depend on a society's values, beliefs, and preferred ways of organizing collective life (Holmes 2008). We demonstrate gender roles by how we speak, dress, or style our hair, to mention just a handful of typical gender-related behaviors (cf. Wood 2012).

Gender roles are ascribed to us early on in life and are constructed through social norms, values, and beliefs, which are culture-specific. To be feminine is to be physically attractive, deferential, emotionally expressive, nurturing, and concerned with people and relationships (Spence & Buckner 2000), while to be masculine means to be strong, ambitious, successful, rational, and emotionally controlled. Although these requirements are perhaps less rigid than they were in earlier eras, they remain largely intact. Those whom we regard as "real men" still do not cry in public, and "real men" are successful and powerful in their professional and public lives (cf. Milani 2015). Within the Qatari society, femininity and masculinity are constructed primarily on the basis of their Islamic beliefs, traditions, and cultural norms. Gender roles are also constructed through socialization.

In terms of communication, there are various distinctions between female and male students' communication styles. Women's communication style is often described as supportive, egalitarian, personal, and disclosive, whereas men's is characterized as competitive and assertive (Wood 2005; cf. Theodoropoulou 2015a). However, Qatari women tend to be more competitive than their male counterparts. They are competitive with each other in terms of physical appearance as well as personality attributes and in order to demonstrate and ascertain their femininity. In this way, given that for some of them going to the university is the only way to socialize, they end up being far from egalitarian vis-a-vis each other. However, many of them intend to be equally open with their Western female instructors and sometimes share their personal stories, especially outside the classroom, which is their way to create rapport with them. On the other hand, male students tend to be personal and autonomous, while they do not show an interest in establishing intimacy and rapport with us.

With respect to femininity, the feminine norm of a woman in Qatar is to become a good wife and a role model for their children. In the case of bedouins (= people of nomadic origin), femininity is attributed by personality traits, such as reliability and interdependence, even though hathari (= people of urban origin) men perceive physical appearance as more prominent to femininity than personality traits. Since public segregation of gender is a common practice within the Qatari culture, they would have to defer to their female relatives to share with them whether their prospective bride is fashionable. Qatari men rely heavily on their female relatives' opinion regarding femininity of their prospective wives. Usually when female relatives visit the homes of a prospective wife, they will report back to the groom about her fashion style and whether she is dressed in designer clothes and jewelry.

Qatari female students tend to be respectful and obedient within the classroom setting. This is due to cultural restraints. Typically women should carry themselves in order for their behavior not to reflect negatively on their family or society. This is part of the Arab cultural norms as it is a collectivistic society (Abu-Lughod 1986). Qataris are

internally stratified according to factors, such as tribal affiliation, religious sect, and traditional values (Theodoropoulou 2015b).

Femininity in Islam, the official religion of Qatar, encourages modesty. One of the characteristics of our female students is to dress modestly by wearing the abaya (loose over-garment) and sheila (modern scarf), which are the country's national and traditional clothes for women. Among bedouins, women tend to be more traditional. A few of them cover their face by wearing niqab. In order to avoid offending traditional, religious, and culture sensibilities, often Western instructors would have to learn to differentiate between female students who are wearing the niqab by recognizing distinctive features pertaining to each student i.e. eyes, or voice.



Image 1: Qatari women with sheilas and niqab (© Google Images)

More specifically, as Western women it is impressive to see Qatari women's knowledge of and engagement with the latest trends of fashion, both Arab and international, even though in public women are expected to be covered by being dressed in their black abayas, black sheilas and very often they also wear the niqab (in the case of bedouin women), in order to perform modesty and not to provoke. However, there is significant variation, which indexes different degrees of femininity. For example, there are a number of young women, who wear extensive makeup and strong perfumes, or they wear abayas with fancy colored cross stitches. Along the same lines of variation, there are women, who wear their sheilas in such a way that they cover their hair fully, whereas some others adopt the so-called "Sheikha Moza style", which translates into wearing the sheila with some hair at the front of the head showing. This hair is usually dyed in fancy colors, in order to create a contrast to the black of the sheila. Another feature of feminine gender in Qatar is long hair. This is a historical notion which dates back to the Prophet's time, where women should not have their hair cut excessively short so that they resemble men.

Femininity is also closely related to stylishness indexed by accessories, such as expensive bags and shoes by trendy high end fashion designers. Coupled with these is also body language applied to the use of accessories, which means that slow walking with ostentatious showing of both the bag and the femininely decorated cell phone is considered the way to do femininity on a daily basis in public spaces, such as the university or the mall. In fact, some hathari women go as far as to walk with their abayas opened at the front, in order to show their expensive high end fashion designer clothes, and heels. Part of femininity is also doing your hair as frequently as possible and showing it off to your female friends when exchanging visits at home. Subsequently, young Qatari women get very competitive in order to outdo each other in terms of their looks and accessories. Interestingly enough, these practices are not considered very feminine on behalf of our male participants, who prefer women to wear less makeup, in order for their physical features to be more evident to them.



Image 2: Qatari women with their abayas open (© Google Images)

For bedouin women, on the other hand, femininity is a concept that is talked about but not performed excessively, especially in public, contrary to hathari women. Because the dominant ideal is the concept of modesty, bedouin women refrain usually from highlighting their femininity, in order to avoid provoking other women and especially men. However, when in private settings, bedouin women like to perform femininity primarily via dressing up and wearing expensive and elaborate heavy gold jewelry, called marria, which also indexes wealth and social status. Along the same lines, and like hathari women, bedouin women wear characteristic perfumes that index femininity, with flavors including jasmine, amber, musk and oud. In terms of Arabic perfumes, there is a preference for brands such as Rakaan, Nashwa, Roohi Fedak,

Attar Al Kaaba, Haneen and Alif Laila O Laila. In addition, they also enjoy spraying themselves with the latest Western perfumes by brands, such as DKNY, Burberry, D&G, Gucci, Tom Ford, and others. Some of them can also get customized perfumes, namely perfumes whose bottles have engravings with their names.

Apart from their appearance, women in Qatar are expected to demonstrate femininity through ways of being and acting. For example, when in public women, and especially bedouin women, are not supposed to speak in a loud volume, because the norm is that men are not supposed to hear women's voices. Similarly, soft voice is usually associated with femininity. Men also perceive as feminine characteristics practices, such as being reserved or not appearing in public late at night without a mahram (unmarriageable male kin/chaperon). In addition, contradictory practices, such as doing sports and smoking, are considered as less feminine, even though women have started engaging in these practices, even in public spaces in Qatar.

In terms of the expected careers, women's scope is more limited than men's, inasmuch as the former are encouraged to pursue studies in more 'feminine domains', such as education, medicine and social sciences, but not 'hard core sciences', such as engineering. These norms have led to a perpetuation of women in companies and ministries falling under these fields, while at the same time they have resulted in a scarcity of women in scientific domains, such as computer engineering, marine engineering and aero space divisions. Against this backdrop, both bedouin and hathari female students obsess with their grades as the latter are perceived to be the steppingstone to compete with their male counterparts and to gain positions within the aforementioned limited professional arena.

Finally, femininity in Qatar does not go hand in hand with professional development, in the sense that the very few women who have managed to promote and become managers and/or leaders are usually described as 'women who behave like men'. Of course, there are exceptions to this, such as H.H. Sheikha Moza, who albeit a leader in a number of institutions and projects both inside and outside Qatar, including Qatar Foundation, is a woman who is very often appraised for her stylistic choices and her femininity as well.



Image 3: H.H. Sheikha Moza, the Chairperson of Qatar Foundation (© Google Images)

Masculinity in Qatar is demonstrated through varied ways, and more specifically, through men's hobbies, appearance and values they believe in. With respect to hobbies, males in Qatar enjoy participating in outdoor, indoor and group-based activities. Especially bedouins⁴ tend to express their masculinity through breeding of camels, falcons, hunting, and camping. Ownership of falcons is a masculine trait which also indexes wealth and status within the Qatari culture. Sometimes men would walk around the souq⁵ with their falcons on their shoulders.

⁴ A traditional outdoor mall which consists of shops, restaurants, and Hookah cafés.

⁵ It is an ankle-length Arab garment, usually with long sleeves, similar to a robe.



Image 4: A Qatari man with a falcon (© Goole Images)

Another predominant masculine hobby in Qatar is the possession of extravagant cars, such as Lamborghini, Ferrari, Maserati, Rolls Royce, and Bentley. In fact, sports cars, such as Mustang, are perceived to be more masculine than for example the omnipresent in the streets of Qatar Land Cruiser. Sometimes the cars are custom made or painted with gaudy colors, such as fuchsia, and accessorized with high end designer interiors, such as Burberry. The purchase of unique and elaborate license plate numbers is another indication of masculinity among Qatari men. The uniqueness of numbers is indexed through the existence of less than six digits, the purchase of which would range from thousands to hundreds of thousands of riyals (the currency of Qatar). However, for desert and camping trips, men usually drive Toyota Land Cruisers. These activities are deemed prevalent in demonstrating masculinity in both bedouin and hathari (= urban) men. Through these practices, masculinity is coupled with status and power.

Another car-related trait to show masculinity is the way men drive in Qatar. Apart from being a necessary daily practice, driving is for Qatari men also a hobby. More specifically, men tend to engage in reckless and fast driving as it is demarcated to be more masculine. However, not all of our participants agreed on this point, because they have also witnessed veiled and niqabed women, who also engage in this sort of driving. Such driving practices are omnipresent in Qatar, to the extent that some driving schools, such as Karwa Driving School, offer “defensive driving lessons” to their customers. We have interpreted this type of driving as a practice indexing powerfulness as opposed to masculinity, but given that the type of power evident in the public sphere is usually associated with men, it makes sense to assume that eventually this sort of driving indexes masculinity (even on behalf of women).



Image 5: “Masculine” driving in Qatar (© Google Images)

Qatari men index their masculinity through their appearance. In particular, they demonstrate modesty by wearing traditional garment known as thawb.⁶ The thawb is usually tailored and made out of expensive fabric. They distinguish themselves from other males by wearing expensive accessories, such as designer watches and cufflinks, expensive pens placed on the pocket of the thawb, and sun glasses. They also wear ghutra⁷ and there are varied ways of wearing it in order to express their individuality and national identity. Both thawb and ghutra are white, though during the winter months, some men wear yellow or blue thawb and a red ghutra. In a class setting in Qatar, Qatari men express their masculinity by wearing their traditional garments. Western clothes, such as jeans or shorts, are not viewed as prototypical masculine clothes, even though a number of Qataris wear them inside Qatar.

⁶ A headscarf for men.

⁷ Verbally transmitted record of the teachings, deeds, and sayings of the Islamic prophet Muhammad.



Image 6: Qatari man (© Goole Images)

In terms of physical appearance, masculinity in Qatar is indexed through facial hair and the way their hair and facial hair is groomed. Men go to barbershops and spas on a regular basis for hair grooming. However, a number of religious, mainly Bedouin, men, tend to have a long beard as part of sunnah.⁸

Within the classroom setting, masculinity is perceived through respectfulness of their instructors translated into the students being diligent, attentive, and punctual. Qatari male students perceive themselves as gentlemen and due to cultural expectations they do not want to seem emasculated, given that their instructor is from the opposite sex. Additionally, male students have the freedom of choice regarding their studies as opposed to cultural restraints on their female counterparts. This is evident through the way they carry themselves within the classroom and seem to take great interest in their school work. However, they do not experience exam anxiety or obsession of grades, as they seem content with their scores but always seek help for improvement. This is perhaps related to the notion of autonomy and lack of expression of emotions;

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<http://portal.www.gov.qa/wps/portal/topics/Family,+Community+and+Religion/Marriage+and+Family> (accessed on 3 Dec. 2015)

the latter is usually associated with women. Societal expectations of men encourage the lack of expression for love with the exception of spouses. They are the ones that are expected to act as breadwinners of the whole family.

Aside from their appearance, car possession, and education, Qatari men are more privileged in choosing a spouse but due to their traditional and conservative society and in order to protect the female's virtue, female relatives will have to initiate the process with the prospective bride's family. This is in contrast with their female counterparts who are not able to choose their spouse but they have the liberty of refusing a potential spouse. Bedouin men practice polygamy in order to demonstrate their masculinity within their tribal affiliation. In addition, having more offspring is perceived 'more' masculine, as offspring, and especially male offspring, are seen as the pledge for the continuation of the tribe. Qatari men can pass citizenship on to their children and their non-national wives, whereas women cannot do the same. Subsequently, females are encouraged to marry nationals in order to reinforce the social norms within the state of Qatar.

Social, cultural, and religious norms prohibit premarital relations. In some contexts, males demonstrate their masculinity by engaging in premarital relations. Since Qatar is a very conservative society, usually the context is limited to the majlis and/or in khayamiya /khayma (tent) during camping. In some rare cases and in order to be perceived as 'macho' among their rabaii (close friends), their non-Qatari girlfriends accompany them to the khayamiya.

Overall, within the Qatari culture, male supremacy is the norm and males are perceived as the authoritarian figure (regardless of their age) within the household and in professional environments. Despite the fact that the percentage of divorce in Qatar has increased significantly over the last decade⁹ and women have started becoming more independent financially, the ideal woman is still considered the one who prioritizes her family over her career and is obedient to her husband.

5 Negotiating gender roles in the classroom

Having discussed how our students view gender roles and the norms associated with them, it becomes evident that there is a major discrepancy in our respective perspectives, translating primarily into the fact that for us women should have a more active role in the society being entitled to excel in both their family and their professional life in par with men, something that for our students is not valid in general, given the priority that women need to give to their family-related duties. As a result of this, for us, as Western instructors, engaging in gender role-related discussions is usually a challenging but at the same time an exciting venture. On the one hand, it is challenging given the different approach we take vis-à-vis the concept of gender and the subsequent roles we assign to each gender.

More specifically, we consider gender as a continuum between masculinities and femininities, which makes the identification of gender identities less rigid than the way through which our students perceive them. In this way, for us femininity can be more hybrid in the sense of accommodating a set of what our students would consider as 'masculine' traits, such as self-decisiveness. In addition, what is considered as

masculine for our students is not necessarily masculine for us: for example, when a woman wears jeans or when a woman is ambitious and successful in her career, this does not mean that she looks or she has adopted masculine features or traits.

In addition, what has become evident in our interaction especially with our male students is that there is a discrepancy in terms of the expected roles of women. More specifically, one of our male students told us that he once had a nightmare that he had to stay at home and cook for his family, while waiting for his wife to come back from work. This reversal of the stereotypical roles associated with the two genders instilled in him a sense of breaking the social order found in the Islamic world, which he found hard to cope with. For us both, such fixation to stereotypes is simply inconceivable and this is exactly what we are trying to negotiate and, eventually, to render less rigid in our classrooms. Obviously we do not wish to impose on our students our values and take on what gender means and how it can be used in the society, but through our classroom discussions we try to encourage people to critically think about how their perspective on gender can impact their family, peers and, by extension, their society. The way we usually go about negotiating gender roles is through the discussion of gender-related behaviors from our respective cultures, which we consider as characteristic or, more interestingly, non characteristic of the respective gender category. Some examples of these uncharacteristic examples include the stay-home father, who needs to take care of his newborn baby, while his wife goes to work after giving birth, or the female CEO, who sets the tone in the managing of the company by giving orders to and evaluating the performance of her (fe)male employees.

Such dialogues about gender-related issues are exciting ventures, because we can learn a lot from each other about each other's cultures, norms, values, belief systems and, as a result, we can try to understand and interpret everyday life both inside and outside the university. For example, it was really revealing for us to find out that in the bedouin culture women in the past used to participate in physically demanding tasks, such as camel milking or wood transferring, in par with men. Such information has contributed towards the breaking of the stereotypes we had about the position of women and their respective roles in the bedouin culture. Eventually, such exchange of information and experience can contribute towards developing a sense of tolerance for each other's cultural peculiarities, which will allow us to coexist in a harmonious environment.

In terms of the negotiating style per se, we usually apply what we can the 'dialogical infotainment' approach. This can be seen as a pedagogical method, which aims at educating each other, while at the same time entertaining each other through dialogue, performance and visual aids. In terms of dialogue, we try to engage as many students as possible in our classroom discussions by addressing them with their first names and encouraging to share with us stories from their personal lives that are related to the topics we are discussing.

A very good example, which summarizes the concept of educational infotainment is the following picture:



Image 7: Irene with H.H. Prince Sultan, the Saudi Minister of Tourism in Medinah (© Irene Theodoropoulou)

This stems from Irene's trip to Medina in Saudi Arabia to present a paper at a conference, which was organized by H.H. Prince Sultan Al Saud. As a Western woman traveling to Saudi, she had to wear the abaya and the sheila while at the same time abiding by restricting rules, such as not driving and going to places, where there are only women. These were unique circumstances, in which she had to live for one week. At the end of the conference, as a delegate she participated in the opening ceremony of a cultural exhibition, which was organized by H.H. and to which he had invited her. While being there, she was sitting in a female only zone and she asked to thank H.H. for the hospitality he had provided all of the conference delegates with during the week of the conference. The women who were sitting at the table laughed at her and asked her the rhetorical question whether she had realized that she was a woman in Saudi Arabia. Irene, despite her knowledge and respect of the sociocultural and Islamic values, wanted to meet with H.H. in person anyway, in order to express her gratitude for the hospitality offered to her, urged by her Greek values. Eventually, what happened was that she was able to meet with H.H., who shook her hand and had a brief chat with her about the similarities between Greek and Saudi Arabian traditional architecture. This story epitomizes the idea of overcoming stereotypes and aiming for intercultural communication on the basis of what connects people rather

than what separates them, and this is how it was framed in the context of the Intercultural Communication class, in which it was discussed.

After presenting our female students with this picture, we asked them to talk to us about their reactions and the ways they see gender's relevance in it. Some students acknowledged Irene's respect for the local values and traditions of Saudi Arabia indexed through her wearing the traditional female attire, while some others commented on the exolinguiistic features of the picture, and more specifically on the fact that the distance between her and H.H. was about right, i.e. it was formal but not too formal. Others noted the difference in terms of facial expressions between H.H. and Irene, who are both smiling, and the H.H.'s security guard, who looks very austere. All of these interesting dimensions were discussed among students themselves, who were trying to paint a psychological portrait of the figures of the picture, as well as between the students and us as instructors. It turned out that many students considered this incident as an entertaining breaking of the sharp boundary of gender segregation due to the fact that it was initiated by a Western female, who is considered to be an outsider and thus not a representative sample of the female Islamic values in the Gulf countries, especially Saudi Arabia and Qatar, according to which women are not supposed to strike up a conversation with strange men, regardless of their rank. Linguistically speaking, our students expressed this general idea through the use of hedging (e.g. discourse markers, like 'maybe', 'like', 'it seems that...', 'I think that...' etc.) when addressing us, but when they were talking to each other and they were negotiating the meaning of the picture, they tended to sound much more upfront and direct, indexed through the lack of mitigation and the attempt to overlap with each other and to raised their voice, in order to make themselves more audible and, hence, more dominant, than their interlocutors. This is in alignment with competitiveness, that was discussed previously in this paper. These performances, which were done primarily in English, were oftentimes enriched with codeswitching in Arabic through utterances in the students' native dialects, which aimed at easing the tensions that were created in case of disagreements and at also establishing an entertaining tone.

6 Conclusion

In conclusion, instead of employing the oftentimes opposing views in order to highlight differences in terms of how we perceive gender-related roles and thus create unbridgeable gaps in our communication, we use these differences instead as our point of departure and stimulus in our educational infotainment approach, which we hope will trigger interesting and enthusiastic responses on behalf of our students in the context of a healthy discussion in class, from which we can also benefit by familiarizing ourselves with their gender-related customs and values. At the macro level, we see such an approach a useful pathway towards leading people from different genders to understand each other and, hence, to create the circumstances of co-existing harmoniously in their societies. At the meso level, such pedagogical approach, which has worked pretty successful for both of us so far, can be seen as an engaging way that maintains both our students' and our own motivation in the classroom at high levels. Finally, at the micro level, educational infotainment helps our students and us as instructors and human beings expand our sociocultural horizons. Future research on this topic can look into how to translate this theoretical knowledge into tangible steps towards bridging the gap between genders in Qatar.

The IAFOR logo is a large, faint watermark centered on the page. It consists of the word "iafor" in a lowercase, sans-serif font, surrounded by two overlapping circular arcs. The top arc is light blue and the bottom arc is light red.

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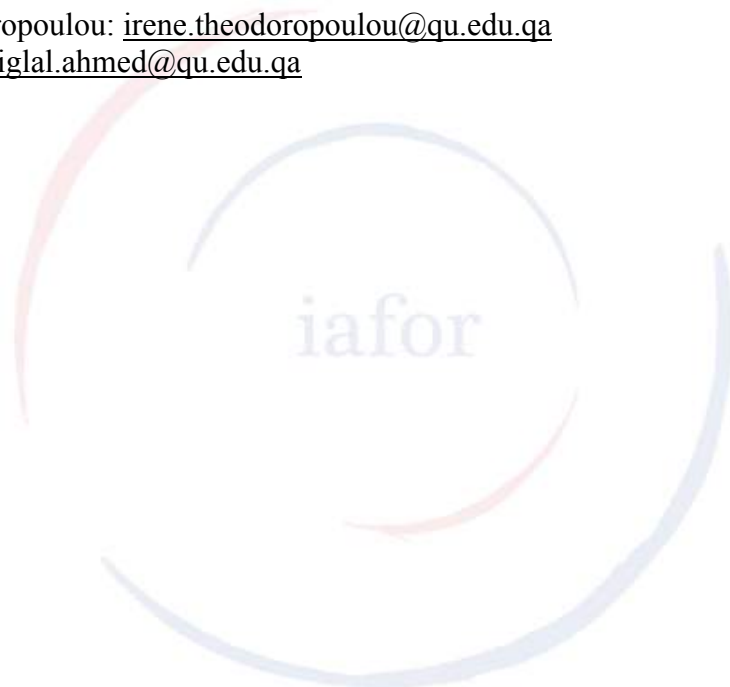
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The Comparison of Children's Caloric Expenditure During Elementary Physical Education Class and Free-Choice Recess Time

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Abstract

Background: The physical benefits of structured physical education (PE) classes and free-choice recess time in elementary school and how they compare to each other is unknown. National health objectives encourage 50% of PE class time being spent in moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA), while no set standards for elementary recess exist. The purpose of this study is to determine if a difference existed in the caloric amounts expended by elementary age children during structured physical education class compared to free-choice recess time.

Methods: Twenty-eight third and fourth grade children (male = 18, female = 10) were recorded, with a hip-placed accelerometer, during one day each of PE class and recess time. Each recording lasted exactly 30 minutes and were taken a day apart. Data was collected during a three week period in which the PE class participated in tennis and badminton.

Results: A paired samples t-test compared differences in steps, total energy expenditure (EE), total EE in males, and average kilocalories expended per minute. Steps: $t(26) = 3.79, p = .001$; total EE: $t(27) = 1.85, p = .075$; total EE (males): $t(17) = 3.78, p = .006$; energy expenditure per minute: $t(26) = 1.75, p = .091$. The average percentage of time spent in MVPA during PE was 64.37%.

Conclusion: There was a statistically significant difference in total EE in males and steps, with recess being higher than PE class. Further tests on the steps showed this also was only significantly different in the male children. It is important to note, on average, the children exceeded the national objective by spending over 50% of the PE class period in MVPA.

Keywords: childhood, physical activity, exercise, calories

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Introduction

For years the benefits of recess and physical education (PE) class have been unclear. People have debated the need for both of these to be scheduled into an elementary school day. Many research studies have looked at what could be done to improve these times to provide more opportunity for children to be physically active.

Physical Activity Recommendations for Children

According to the Council on Physical Education for Children, the recommendation for children aged 6-11 is at least 60 minutes a day of physical activity (Schachter, 2005, p. 38). Schachter concluded that physical education class time alone is not enough; therefore, other opportunities must be provided throughout the day. Recess has shown to be a vital part of a child's day because it provides students another break to get out of the classroom chairs and engage in some form of physical activity.

Other research studies also analyzed children's physical activity levels. Three different types of elementary schools, private, public village, and inner city, were participants in one study (Mallam, Metcalf, Kirkby, Voss & Wilkin, 2003). This study was done to see if differences in the children's overall activity level existed. For this research project, a total of 215 children participated in the study by wearing accelerometers for seven days. The private school had nine scheduled hours of physical education a week while the other two schools had only 2.2 and 1.8 hours a week, respectively. Research showed even though each school had a different amount of scheduled physical activity time during the educational day, in the end, the children all had similar amounts of physical activity. Outside of school, the children often made up for lack of exercise during the school day. Since this study involved three types of schools, it allowed for a comparison of the differences in class times and scheduling that commonly occur. Private schools have more freedom to adjust their schedule to give children more time in areas they deem important, such as physical activity.

The National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD) Study of Early Child Care and Youth Development Network researched third-graders to see if they met the Healthy People 2010 recommended goal (Nader, 2003). The guideline is for schools to have physical education class every day, with 50% of time being spent in moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA). With 814 participants, they discovered on average the third-grade students received only 25 minutes a week of MVPA during their twice a week physical education class.

Fairclough and Stratton (2006) collected all the research available on the topic of physical activity during elementary physical education classes. The journal article consisted of a review of 44 research studies on children ages 5-11. The goal of this review was to look at the percentage of class time spent in MVPA and see if it met the 50% recommendation. By using heart rate monitoring, observation, and accelerometers, they determined the class time MVPA of the elementary school children to be only 34.2%. This percentage is significantly lower than the set national guideline for physical activity.

Accelerometers

When testing elementary age children to determine if they meet the MVPA recommendations at school, many researchers use accelerometers. An accelerometer is a type of activity monitor which measures energy expenditure and intensity of physical activity. Most accelerometers are placed on the participant's hip in order to sense the most full body movements.

A study conducted in 2004 validated the accuracy of the Actical and Actiwatch accelerometers and focused specifically on use with children (Puyau, Adolph, Vohra, Zakeri & Butte, 2004). Researchers looked at the activity energy expenditure (AEE) and also the physical activity ratio (PAR). Activity energy expenditure is defined as energy expenditure (EE) minus basal metabolic rate (BMR). This equation can be written as $AEE = EE - BMR$. The physical activity ratio is defined as EE divided by BMR, or $PAR = EE/BMR$. For this study, the Actical accelerometer was placed on the right hip, directly above the iliac crest. The conclusion of the study showed both accelerometers' validity in measuring physical activity and predicting energy expenditure in children.

Daniel Heil (2006) also studied the reliability of the Actical Activity Monitor. His research showed the effectiveness of the Actical monitor on both children and adults in predicting activity energy expenditure. One result of the study was the similar accuracies in all three body placement locations (wrist, waist, and ankle). Heil's research validated the use of the Actical Activity Monitor in future research studies.

In one of the many studies done by Nicola Ridgers and her colleagues, 116 boys and 112 girls wore the ActiGraph accelerometer during recess (Ridgers, Stratton & Fairclough, 2005). The purpose of the research was to compare the activity levels between boys and girls and to see if the children were at least moderately active 50% of the recess time. Results found boys were more active than girls, having 28 minutes of physical activity in comparison to the girls only having 21.5 minutes during recess. These researchers proposed a new, more achievable recommendation of only 40% of recess time being spent in moderate activity. One notable problem in this study was the large amount of data lost because of the accelerometers malfunctioning.

Physical Education Class

The struggle for physical education classes to meet activity recommendations has been a problem for many years. In 1993, researchers wanted to determine how physically active children are during PE (Simons-Morton, Taylor, Snider & Huang, 1993). The national guideline then and now is the same, for 50% of class time to be spent in moderate to vigorous physical activity (MVPA). For this research study, trained observers recorded information on 157 fifth grade students in Texas elementary schools. To determine what classified as MVPA, the observers recorded dynamic movements that involved large muscle groups and any transfer of weight. The results showed on average, only 8.6% of class time was spent in MVPA, equivalent to 10.4 minutes out of the 121 minutes the children received each week in physical education classes. While this project did not have the resource of the energy monitors available today, the research still showed a large margin of difference between the 50% MVPA recommendation and the 8.6% achieved.

Due to the fact that physical education classes can vary in teaching focus, one research project used a special system to help classify the educational focus. SOFIT (System for Observing Fitness Instruction Time) was used to observe the students and record their physical activity levels (Nader, 2003). Each PE lesson was placed into one of six categories based on type of activity: management, knowledge, fitness, skill practice, game play, free play. The categories can create a difference in MVPA for the children based on what activities are offered during class.

In 2003, a research project used SOFIT and pedometers and discovered the average number of steps taken by children to equal one-third of the class time spent in MVPA (Scruggs et al.). During a thirty minute physical education class, 1800-1890 steps taken indicated children had engaged in MVPA for one-third of that time. None of the first and second graders studied reached the Healthy People 2000 50% MVPA recommendation (Scruggs et al., 2003, p. 1070).

Another study also looked at the percentage of children to reach the 50% MVPA guideline. In 2010, the physical activity of 380 children ages 8-11 was assessed during five different times of the school day, including recess and scheduled PE (Nettlefold et al., 2010). The results concluded that only 1.8% of girls and 2.9% of boys reached the 50% MVPA guideline during PE class time.

One of the most current studies on the role of physical education classes in children's daily physical activity was recently published by Chen, Kim, and Gao (2014). This study differs from similar studies because a Sensewear armband monitor was used, as opposed to other accelerometers placed on the hip. The researchers chose to use ≥ 4.0 METs as the threshold for MVPA and < 1.5 METs as the threshold for sedentary behavior, based on prior research. As in past studies, the percentage of class time spent in MVPA was not up to the standard 50% recommendation, even though a large part of the children's MVPA occurred during PE class. Also confirming other research, the boys were more active than the girls.

Physical Activity During Recess

In addition to the 50% MVPA recommendation for children during physical education classes, a national standard has been set by the National Association for Sport and Physical Education (NASPE), for free-choice recess time in elementary schools. Their position on what recess should consist of states every school should provide 20 minutes a day for recess (NASPE, 2006). NASPE also recommends 60 minutes a day of MVPA, part of which can take place during recess time at school. Recess is suggested to not take place either immediately before or after a PE class, but to be spaced out through the school day. NASPE recognizes free-choice recess time does not take the place of scheduled PE classes, but is extra time allowed for children to have more physical activity.

Nicola Ridgers has spent much time studying children's physical activity during elementary school recess. One study had 297 children participate by wearing hip accelerometers during school recess before and then six weeks after an intervention (Ridgers, Stratton, Fairclough & Twisk, 2007). A change in playground equipment served as the intervention to determine how it affected the children's MVPA. Results of the intervention showed boys being more active than girls. The difference in equipment helped the younger students increase their physical activity more than the

older children. It was also noted that when the recess time period was longer, the intervention had a greater effect, resulting in more time spent in MVPA.

Another one of Ridgers' many studies on the physical activity of children focused specifically on ethnicity, gender, and grade differences (Ridgers, Saint-Maurice, Welk, Siahpush & Huberty, 2011). She wanted to see if those variables showed a difference in children's physical activity during recess. This specific study had 210 participants from grades 3-6, who wore accelerometers on their waists for five consecutive school days. Results showed boys had higher activity levels than girls during recess. It also found third graders were more active than fourth graders and fifth graders being more active than sixth graders. This result could be an effect of the third and fifth graders having a shorter recess time than the fourth and sixth graders.

A specific "recess pack" intervention in a research study was used to determine the differences in physical activity during recess at four elementary schools (Elliot, et al., 2011). The recess packs consisted of different sports equipment to encourage physical activity in the children. Two categories the researchers looked at were: the potential differences in what types of activities both genders performed before and after the packs were introduced, and also the change in student activity level. A common discovery in this type of research was noted, showing girls being less active than boys. The females chose activities such as sitting, talking, and jumping rope, whereas the males played games of basketball and football. The conclusions made were based on school staff interviews after the intervention had been put into place. This study was not validated by any activity monitors.

Another study measured the effectiveness of an intervention; the "Ready for Recess" program (Huberty et al., 2011). Two data collection times were recorded, in September before intervention and April after the intervention had begun. A total of 93 third through fifth graders wore an ActiGraph accelerometer for one week at school during each collection time to measure physical activity during recess. Results showed the intervention increased both moderate and vigorous activity in the children. Moderate activity increased from 18.1% to 31.2%, while vigorous activity increased from 7.2% to 16.8% (Huberty et al., 2011, p. 254). Results also showed younger children and males as more active compared to the older children and females.

While many researchers have studied children's physical activity in either recess or PE classes, both are not usually compared. It is known from past research that national recommendations are not met by most elementary schools and males tend to be more active than females. This study will be looking at elementary age children and if they expend different caloric amounts in structured physical education class compared to free-choice recess time. Both are vital parts of a scheduled school day in helping children reach physical activity goals. It is unknown if one has a greater benefit than the other.

Methods

Study Participants

This study looked at third and fourth grade elementary school children from two classrooms at a small private school in Salem, Oregon. Out of forty children in the classes, twenty-eight of them had parental consent and chose to participate. In total, there were ten girls and eighteen boys. The children ranged from 8-10 years old. After weighing and measuring the children before data collection, it was determined that the average BMI was 17.068.

Protocol

Heights and weights were measured and recorded prior to data collection. Each scheduled day of data collection had four children from one class wearing the Actical accelerometer on their waists. The accelerometers were preset with the specific height, weight, age, and gender of each participant. A timer was also set to begin recording at the exact time either recess or PE class was scheduled to start. Data was recorded for exactly 30 minutes each time. Data collection took place over the span of three weeks in November 2014.

During recess time, the children had the freedom to choose whatever activity they wanted, both inside the classroom and outside on the field, court, and playground. For physical education class, the teacher always had a warm-up followed by instruction on how to play badminton or tennis and practice time. Every student was required to participate in all activities.

Results

Paired samples t-tests were run using the SPSS software. The tests compared different aspects of the children's activity during both PE class and free-choice recess time. These tests compared differences in average kilocalories expended per minute (*Table 1*), total steps taken (*Table 2*), total energy expenditure (EE) (*Figures 1 & 2*), and total EE in males. Energy expenditure per minute: $t(26) = 1.75, p = .091$; total EE: $t(27) = 1.85, p = .075$; total EE (males): $t(17) = 3.78, p = .006$; steps: $t(26) = 3.79, p = .001$. Percentages of time spent in moderate versus vigorous activity showed children spent the most time in moderate activity during recess (*Figure 3*). For PE, the average percentage of time spent in MVPA during class time was 64.37%.

Table 1 Average Energy Expenditure (EE) in kcal/min

Class	Activity Level	Mean	SD
PE	Moderate	1.81	0.52
	Vigorous	3.96	1.73
Recess	Moderate	1.89	0.64
	Vigorous	1.31	1.74

Table 2 *Number of Steps Taken During Class Period*

Class	Sex	Mean	SD
PE	Male	1130.82	236.04
	Female	1042.1	268.41
Recess	Male	1835.12	732.99
	Female	1372	780.71

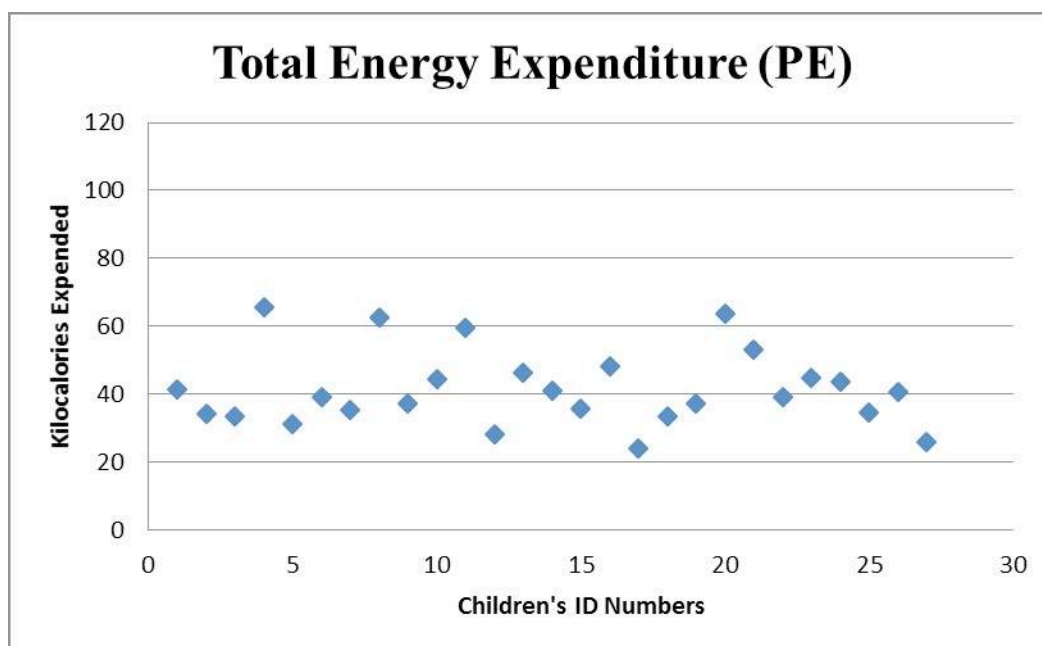


Figure 1: Total Energy Expenditure in kcal During Physical Education Class

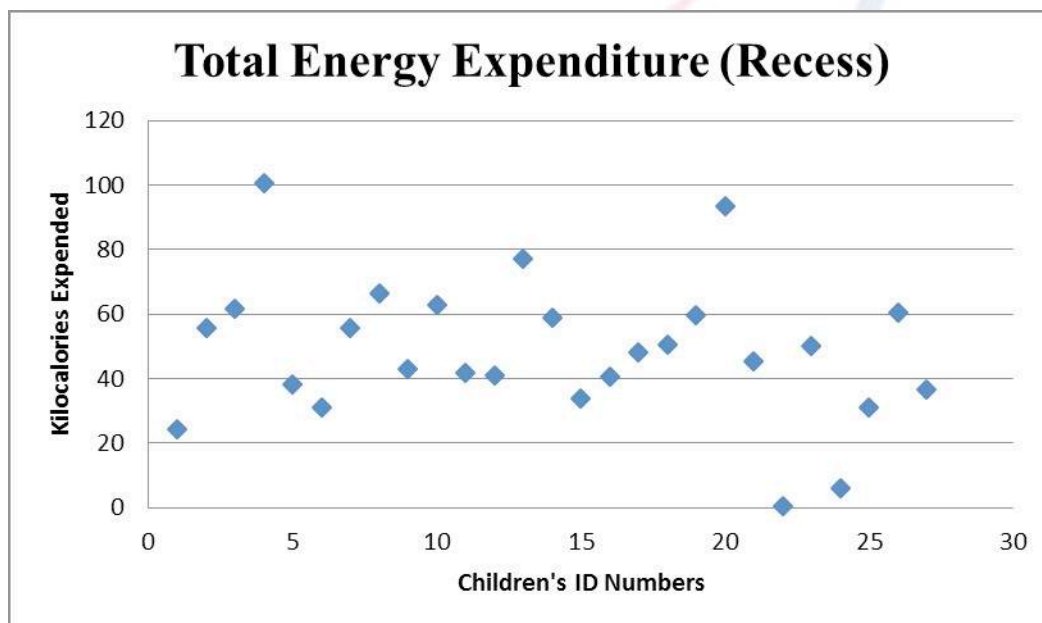


Figure 2: Total Energy Expenditure in kcal During Free-Choice Recess Time

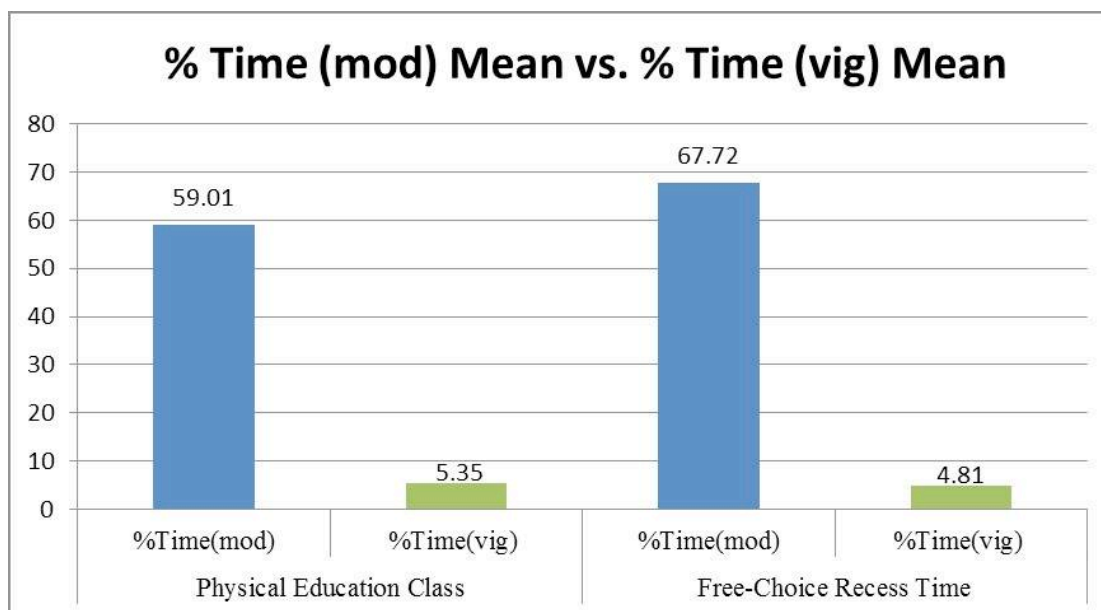


Figure 3: Percentage of Time Spent in Moderate (mod) Activity Mean vs. Percentage of Time Spent in Vigorous (vig) Activity Mean

Discussion

This present study started with the hypothesis of expecting elementary age children to expend higher caloric amounts in structured physical education class than in recess. Once background research was completed, it showed generally recess is more active than PE class. In this study, just like past research, results showed the children, particularly males, expended more calories during the free-choice recess than during PE.

The national Healthy People 2010 recommendation is for physical education to be scheduled into every school day with 50% of the time spent in MVPA (Nader, 2003). While the school in this study scheduled PE only two or three days of the week, the children did spend 64.37% of the class period in MVPA, exceeding the recommendation of 50%. The National Association for Sport and Physical Education recommends recess being offered for at least 20 minutes every day, which the school researched in this present study did (NASPE, 2006).

Also, in Nader's research (2003), physical education lessons were classified into six different categories. The PE classes observed in this study could be put into several of these categories, because the first part of class was focused on fitness (a warm-up) and knowledge (learning about a skill) and the second half of class was focused on skill practice (drills) and game play (tournament style games). Because PE teachers try to fit so much information into such a short amount of time, it can be hard to classify a single class into just one category.

This study matched with Ridgers' recess activity levels research showing boys being more active than girls during free-choice recess times (Ridgers, Stratton, & Fairclough, 2005). Other research has also shown this to be true such as the 2010 study by Nettlefold et al. and the 2014 study by Chen, Kim, and Gao.

According to Scruggs et al. (2003), 1800-1890 steps taken during a physical education class is equal to 33.33% of the class time being spent in MVPA. This study had completely different results which showed the average steps taken during PE were 1000-1150 which translated into 64.37% of the time being spent in MVPA.

Limitations for this study include potential interference by the children with the accelerometers while being worn. While the monitors were placed on the children's hips, many times the accelerometers were shifted and did not stay in place. Other limitations could be the awareness of the research project causing an increase in the children's desire to be physically active in an attempt to help the study.

Conclusion

Because of this research, more is now known of the comparison of children's energy expenditure during recess and physical education. Both are similar in caloric expenditure, with recess being higher, especially in males, which helps support the need for children to have a daily recess at school. While one is not significantly better than the other, this research shows the importance of having both available in elementary school.

Confirmation of males expending more calories than females during both recess and physical education classes was found in this study as well. The school proved to be a good example of how to meet the national objectives of providing a daily recess and having 50% of PE class time spent in MVPA. This research showed a statistically significant difference in total energy expenditure in males and total steps taken (significantly males), with recess being the time which had higher caloric expenditure and steps taken than physical education class.

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The logo for the International Association for Frontiers of Research (IAFOR) is centered on the page. It features the word "iafor" in a lowercase, sans-serif font. The text is surrounded by a large, stylized circular graphic composed of several overlapping, curved lines in shades of blue and red, creating a sense of motion or a globe.



Some Insights into a Peer Mentoring Programme

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Introduction

This paper describes a small scale study of students' expectations with the peer mentoring programme coordinated by the Student Learning Support (SLS) section of the Faculty of Business and Economics (FBE) at the University of the South Pacific (USP). USP is regionally owned by 12 member countries from the South Pacific and therefore attracts students from diverse cultures and learning backgrounds.

In 2014, FBE SLS shifted its style of mentoring which used to involve tutoring and coaching to discipline focused study strategies through the implementation of Peer Assisted Study Sessions (PASS). The main intention for the change was to incorporate student and discipline centered learning approaches applied by PASS, which would subsequently enable students to self-direct their learning.

The impetus for the study was twofold. First and foremost, it would enable delineating how students, hereafter mentees, were responding to PASS strategies which they were exposed to through the SLS mentoring programme. Another, the study would identify factors that mentees found conducive to the mentoring environment, so that it could then be employed to further enhance the programme for SLS, and eventually allow a full implementation of PASS.

The Study Context

In 2006 the mentoring programme was established in the Center for Excellence in Learning and Teaching (CELT) at USP. Prior to the start of each semester, the newly recruited and continuing mentors underwent a day's training on the roles and responsibilities of the mentor and the objectives of the programme. Mentor recruitment involved an initial short listing on the basis of high grade point averages and successful interviews.

A published brochure (Centre for Excellence in Teaching and Learning, 2009a) on the Mentoring Programme informed on the following activities that would be undertaken during a session:

Assistance is provided in terms of

1. unpacking assignment question
2. looking at tutorial questions
3. understanding lecture notes
4. doing research for assignment
5. proper referencing
6. exam preparation – past year papers

The Mentoring programme did emphasise that the mentors were not to tutor their mentees (Centre for Excellence in Teaching and Learning, 2009b), but it was not clarified how group strategies would be utilised to achieve the objectives laid out in the brochure.

According to the Mentor Training Workshop booklet (Vakamocea, 2009b, p. 8), a mentor possessed the following attributes: guide, friend, listener, coach and responsive adult. As such, the programme alluded to the mentor as an experienced 'study buddy'. Furthermore, the Term and Conditions for Practice provided the following guideline on how a mentor in CELT would mentor:

Aim to spend some time with each mentee on one on one interaction.

Do not only do things in groups.

It is generally inappropriate to include your friends in your time with your mentee(s).

Your mentee(s) should be receiving your full attention.

The of your time should be with them, although it is OK to spend time with other pairs or doing group activities occasionally.

Avoid spending time with one or more other pairs if it is not beneficial for the building of a strong relationship between you and your mentee.

Your mentee is here to build a relationship with you not with his or her friends (Vakamocea, 2009b, p. 2).

This description suggests that the mentor and mentee relationship was a one on one learning support platform and was expected to be nurtured even during a group session. As a result, the traditional concept of a mentor, someone who is more experienced (Ragins, 2009, p. 240), was established and continued. A CELT mentor was projected as someone who would facilitate the academic and social well-being of mentees.

In 2009, CELT was decentralised into the three faculties at USP enabling the management of each of CELT's programmes to be more faculty oriented. CELT was rebranded as Student Learning Support (SLS). Nevertheless the physical importation of SLS into each faculty did not occur until late 2011. Each faculty SLS then recruited and trained their respective mentors under a new banner, namely the Senior Peer Mentoring Programme (SPMP) and the mentors were formally referred to as Peer Mentors. There are now three SPMPs, one in each faculty.

In early 2013, Peer Assisted Study Session (PASS) training was initiated for all SLS staff at the Australian National Centre for PASS, University of Wollongong. This was to add the supplemental instruction platform that PASS involved, and consequently have an internationally recognised programme operating alongside SPMP. Furthermore, application of PASS would standardise all SLS SPMP operations at USP.

PASS is distinct from traditional mentor led sessions in that it nurtures self-directed learning approaches. It aims to provide a non-remedial approach involving collaborative learning activities that give more autonomy to learners in deciding how to proceed with their learning. As such it moves away from using the term 'mentor' to 'PASS Leader' since it tends to exude the conventional hierarchical role of the mentor. In order for a PASS session to be effective, participants need to be prepared and have to participate in directing the course of the session. Group consensus is used to direct the session and this can at times result in open-ended sessions and

unconfirmed solutions. In such situations, mentees are asked to consult with course tutors and lecturers. These strategies make PASS very different from the SPMP in FBE. The details of their distinction are tabled below.

Table 1
Some distinctions between SPMP & PASS

SPMP	PASS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Peer Mentor is a guide and friend who provides academic and social support. Session may simulate a tutorial. Mentor training does not address facilitation of academic content. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> PASS leader redirects mentees to information source. There is no re-teaching or introduction of new content. PASS leader receives training on how to avoid re-teaching.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cooperative learning techniques applied → solutions confirmed during session by the Peer Mentor. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collaborative learning techniques used → solutions confirmed through consensus from mentees
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Peer Mentor not expected to attend lectures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> PASS leader attends some lectures, and meets regularly with lecturers and tutors; network with academic staff and SLS established
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> No formal observations conducted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> PASS leader and session observed and evaluated
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Mentees fill out programme evaluation at end of semester and feedback provided to School staff, HODs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regular evaluation of programme conducted and feedback provided to School staff, HODs
	Source (Peer Assisted Study Sessions, 2012)

FBE SLS gradually implemented PASS first by informing faculty staff, and also conducted a workshop for one of the schools. PASS was rolled out to one first year course in the faculty, however, the title PASS was not used. This was mainly to trial PASS strategies within the existing SPMP, and assess how mentees would respond to PASS. Mentoring for other courses continued according to usual practice. In 2014, all new and existing mentors were trained according to PASS requirements and two first year courses were run as PASS courses. For quality measures and a requisite of PASS, mentors were observed formally and discussions with mentors ensued as per the stipulated criteria set by PASS. FBE SLS still uses the title Senior Peer Mentoring (SPMP) programme.

With the implementation of PASS strategies, a huge shift in the learning approach was realized. This became evident when some mentees verbally commented that their mentor was not teaching them properly. Other remarks were:

The mentor should come prepared... and not tell to look for information in the book ...

The mentor always tells us to discuss with each other...she doesn't tell us the answer ... other students don't know ... that's why we come for mentoring.

The mentor is like the lecturer ... only different ... I can't go to the lecturer. The mentor should tell us the answer

Evidently, these comments indicated that some mentees' expectations of the sessions were different from what they were experiencing during the sessions.

In order to elicit a general overview of how FBE mentees viewed their sessions, a small scale online survey was conducted. The study queried whether mentees found their sessions satisfactory and their reasons for their response. This paper presents findings from the survey.

Literature Review

Defining Peer Mentoring

Peer mentoring programmes fit within the social development theory framework (Vygotsky, 1978) which state that learning occurs through interactions people have with other more knowledgeable people. For students, this translates to their peers, teachers and other experts who engage in cooperative dialogue (Doolittle, 1995) with them to support them in internalising new information.

The term cooperative learning has been used quite interchangeably with another similar group learning terminology, namely, collaborative learning. While essentially, both terms denote group learning, literature (Bruffee, 1995; Panitz, 1999) distinguishes the two with regards to the purpose for group interaction. According to Bruffee (1995), cooperative learning maintains the conventional relation of teacher and student and there is a fixed instructional outcome of each session. Group activities are supervised and managed by an authority figure that is viewed as the 'more knowledgeable other'. Group interaction tends to focus on learning foundational knowledge. Collaborative learning situations, on the other hand, reposition the status quo present in cooperative learning environments. The learners are empowered to engage in critical thinking and debate. As such collaborative learning is more student-centered where "... students provide input into what the class does and how it does it. This includes decisions about what to study, how to study it, ... which group activities to do, how assessment is conducted, and what rewards and punishments – if any – are given" (Panitz, 1999, p. 11). Bruffee (1995), states that cooperative learning strategies are better for foundational knowledge, whereas collaborative learning is more appropriate for higher level interaction.

Peer Mentoring programmes in tertiary learning environments have traditionally reflected a 'hierarchical relationship' between the mentor and their mentees (Fullerton 1996, p. 7). This perception persists mainly due to the fact that a mentor is someone who is 'looked upon' for guidance and support despite the mentor's role encompassing attributes of a 'trusted friend' (Colvin & Ashman, 2010, p. 127). Tarrion and Leonard (2007) show that peer mentoring relations are usually based on

criteria such as maturity of age, experience, academic achievement, high self-motivation which therefore make a peer mentor a popular academic support agent. Considering that there are various strands of mentoring relationships and expectations, it is essential to delineate what they are so as to better understand how each type operates. Townsend et al (2011) categorise mentoring into three types of relationships namely; academic mentoring, peer mentoring and peer tutoring. While academic mentoring involves a faculty staff providing academic and emotional support to mentees (students), peer mentoring and peer tutoring involve student to student engagement. Their distinction for the two clearly describes that peer tutoring comprises 'teaching' students either in a one on one or in small group settings; whereas peer mentoring does not provide such tutoring but shares academic learning experiences and provides academic support during the peer mentoring context. These illustrations tend to reinforce the peer mentor's hierarchical role of someone who has more experience and thus is able to provide guidance.

The Pacific Mentoring Context

Chu (2012) describes that mentoring is a process which builds strong relationships that are necessary for positive development in Pacific students. This development involves a sense of closeness between the mentor and protégée, sense of empowerment for the protégée and opportunity for the protégée to become a mentor as well. Chu (2012, p. 131) maintains that mentoring is about '...creating relationships of influence' and this involves recognising, understanding and empathising with the needs of mentees. Chu's sentiments echo Thaman's (1996) call for greater sensitivity in Pacific students' learning experiences and learning contexts. Thaman (2009) explains that a learning environment is culturally democratic when it recognises the need of the learner to identify with his/ her culture and language and subsequently use that culture to co-construct meaning. In doing so, the students' worldviews are considered and used as a tool to understand new information. Thaman (2009, p. 2) argues that many Pacific Island nation curriculums do not encourage such learning environments and consequently gaps between how the learner has been taught by his/ her cultures and how they are expected to learn in formal (western) classrooms occur. For instance, Phan (2008, p. 372) describes that Pacific students' approaches to learning are shaped by their primary and secondary schools. Two illustrations are forwarded to describe students' pre-tertiary learning contexts. The first demonstrates strong reliance on information provided by teachers.

Since Pacific classrooms are 'teacher directed and controlled' (Taufe'ulungaki, 2003, p. 31), there is a prevalence of 'spoon-feeding' (Landbeck & Mugler, 1994, p. 287; Benson, 1995, p. 12; Latu & Young, 2004, p. 4). As a consequence, students tend to expect the same when in tertiary learning environments. Students at USP have themselves reported expecting to be provided with detailed notes by their lecturers, so that they do not have to refer to their readings and are not detracted from irrelevant content (Landbeck, 1997, p. 26). The second illustration is the strong prevalence of an exam culture. As there is considerable preoccupation with completing the requirements of the curriculum and ensuring maximum pass rate, little attention is given to how students are learning their content (Tuimaleali'ifano, 2007, p. 25). As such, students resort to rote learning and memorising (Landbeck & Mugler, 1994, p. 288; Phan & Deo, 2008), which in due course poses difficulty for them when transitioning to tertiary learning environments (Landbeck & Mugler, 1995), where

students' conceptions of learning excludes the development of higher order thinking such as problem solving and critical thinking (Landbeck, 1997, p.28).

In order to address such 'gaps', Young (1991, p. 87) explains that learners play an instrumental role in the learning process and therefore should be involved as active agents. His view that the "... learner is a pedagogical partner, rather than a pedagogical object" effectively supports Thaman's (2009) call for teachers to create culturally democratic environments where students can recourse to their own cultures to manage their learning processes. Additionally, Chu (2013, p. 9) suggests that learners' learning strengths should be taken advantage of and their learning communities need to be encouraged if successful outcomes in learning were to be achieved. As such, learners need a non-threatening environment where they are able to employ learning tools that suit them best and enable them to achieve their learning goals.

So the question that arises is why some SPMP mentees were reacting in the manner they did when their SPMP environment was enabling them opportunity to discuss and share knowledge. It is assumed that although PASS strategies were empowering mentees to self direct their own learning, they seemed challenging for some mentees which was manifested through their comments.

In order to assess whether current mentees were satisfied with their mentoring sessions, this study was undertaken. Due to the comments and attitude of some mentees (as presented earlier), it was already presumed that some level of dissatisfaction with FBE SLS peer mentoring sessions existed.

The Purpose

The study set out to identify:

- Whether current mentees were satisfied with their mentoring sessions (used PASS strategies)
- Their reasons for satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the programme
-

Research Design

This study was conducted through an online survey questionnaire. While surveys are fast paced and easily conducted, their main drawback is that response rate can be low and responses may not provide an in-depth understanding of the situation at hand (Robson, 1997, p. 128). Since the aim of the study was to obtain an overall assessment of how mentees viewed the present mentoring strategies, the survey approach was employed. It was also hoped that the findings generated from this study could lead to a more extensive research on USP students' expectations from their learning environments should such a need is indicated.

The survey questionnaire was based on six questions. Questions 1, 2, 4 and 6 were closed and options were provided to curtail responses. The questions were:

1. How did you learn about the programme? [From lecturer, web mail, friend, SLS presentation]
2. How many sessions have you attended? [One/ two/ more than two]
3. If you attended less than 5 sessions, why did you discontinue with them?
4. Were you satisfied with the sessions? [Yes/ No]
5. Is there anything you would like the sessions to address more specifically – what is it?

6. Would you recommend the programme to your friends? [Yes/ No]

The questionnaire was devised using the usual mentoring programme evaluation questions through the online Google Docs mechanism and the link was sent out to 489 mentees during the final two weeks of semester 2, 2014 through email. A follow up email was sent with the hope of obtaining maximum response rate. The email also contained a note explaining that all responses would be contained within USP's ethical conventions and that the students had the right not to respond. The mentees are from the Pacific Island countries which constitute the various member countries of USP.

Altogether 59 mentees responded to the survey which was considered final after a response period of 5 weeks. 60% of respondents are of itaukei descent from Fiji, whereas the remaining 40% represent Vanuatu, the Solomon Islands, the Federated States of Micronesia, Samoa and Tonga. The Google Docs platform enabled the presentation of data for Questions 1, 2, 4 and 6 into simple statistical charts and these are provided in the results section.

Questions 3 and 5 were open ended and so their responses needed separate analysis. The responses were coded accordingly and thematically categorised. For instance, responses from Question 3 were listed under study commitments and personal commitments.

The response items for Question 5 were categorised as reasons for satisfactory and unsatisfactory expectations. Comments were mostly focused on techniques used during session and common factors that reflected mentees' perceptions of session, and mentees' perception of mentors' role.

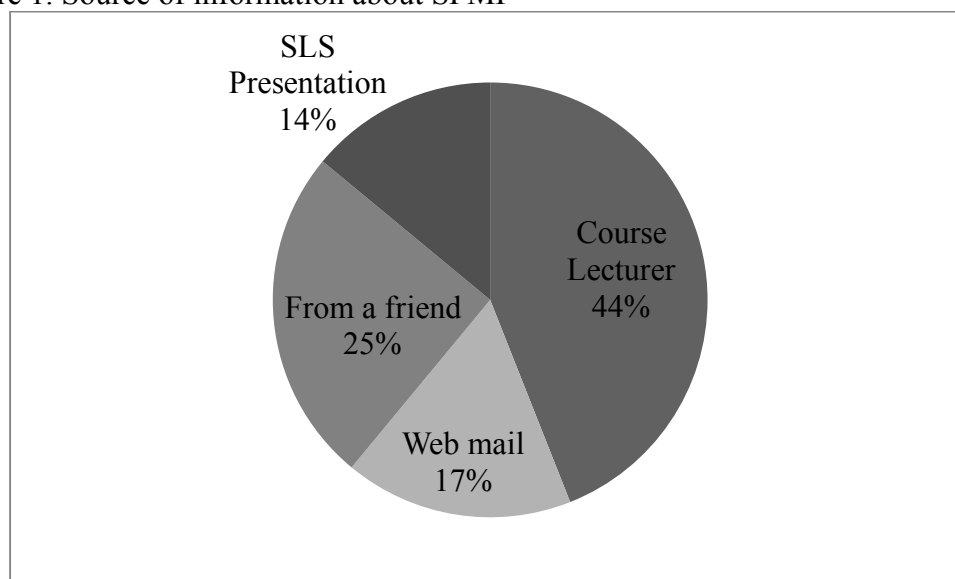
Results

Responses to the survey are presented accordingly.

Programme Information

The question provided four options to how the mentee had learnt about the programme: from a friend, from the Student Learning Support presentation, from the course lecturer, from webmail. Majority students indicated that information regarding the SPMP was forwarded by their lecturer.

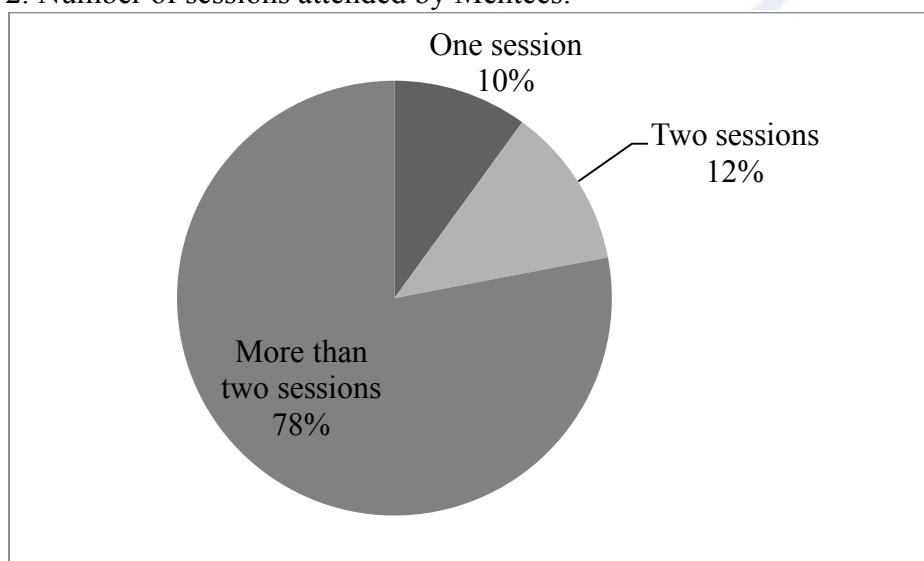
Figure 1. Source of information about SPMP



Attendance

Majority mentees stated attending more than 2 sessions.

Figure 2. Number of sessions attended by Mentees.



However with reference to question 3, it was found that 28 respondents had attended less than 5 sessions. Both study and personal commitments constrained mentees from attending sessions. Assignments, learning about the programme late in the semester, poor mid-semester results leading to late start, work and family responsibilities were some of the reasons attributed to the low attendance rate. Other factors such as poor time management, mentor absence, not knowing about mentoring times, and dissatisfaction with mentoring were also identified as reasons for discontinuing with the programme.

Session Impact and specific changes

While a large number of mentees reported that they were satisfied with their sessions, and a 100% positive response rate was achieved from mentees stating that they would recommend the programme to their friends, results demonstrated various reasons mentees provided for sessions being satisfactory or unsatisfactory.

Two common themes that emerged were mentees' perceptions of mentors' role and mentees' perceptions of how the session should be conducted.

The following table lists mentees' responses for satisfactory sessions. It delineates aspects that mentees considered beneficial and becoming of mentoring sessions.

Table 2

Reasons why sessions were satisfactory

Mentors' Role	During the Sessions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provided detailed explanations • Covered assignment requirements and assisted with assignments • Helped prepare for tests & exams • Provides study tips/ hints 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Test & exam preparation conducted • Addressed tutorial questions • Students did not cooperate

The table below lists mentees' reasons why the sessions did not meet with mentee's expectations.

Table 3

Reasons why sessions were unsatisfactory

Mentors' Role	How sessions should be conducted
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Did not teach and coach on difficult content • Did not simplify content • Did not explain • Did not clarify queries • Did not focus on tests and exams • Did not cover tutorial questions • Did not provide additional examples • Undermine mentees' capability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focus on assignment requirements • Address mentees' questions • Revise for tests and exams • Keep to par with course tutorial schedules • Allocate more time for coverage

Discussion

This study examined mentees' feedback on the FBE SPMP and whether the mentoring sessions were meeting their expectations.

Awareness of SPMP and attendance

The SPMP seemed to be viewed quite favourably by lecturers as reports showed student awareness of the programme was through their lecturers more than any other source. Furthermore, attendance was reported to be high but heavy course schedules and other personal commitments were factors affecting attendance.

Satisfactory aspect of SPMP

Generally, the response rate demonstrated that mentees were quite satisfied with their sessions; it was, however, evident from their specific comments that there was some dissatisfaction with the manner in which the sessions were being conducted. Since the question was open-ended, it generated responses on a range of latent issues such as noise levels, insufficient time and clashes between mentoring schedules, other commitments, and mentor absence contributing to dissatisfaction with the sessions. Nevertheless, majority comments targeted perceived mentor roles and preferred expectations from the sessions. The comments revealed disparity between mentees' expectations and the actual practices of SPMP.

To begin with, with the prevalence of teacher centered approaches that best describe learning prior to participating in SPMP, an obvious shift in learning style was realized when mentees were exposed to PASS strategies. Mentors prepared lessons and activities and mentees were expected to work collaboratively in order to find solutions. Mentor interventions were solely to 'manage' and facilitate direction, and not provide any instructional feedback. The method proved problematic for those expecting their Peer Mentors to provide coaching support.

A few justifications are forwarded for this attitude. Firstly, mentees stated that the one hour sessions were not sufficient to address questions brought in by them. Comments seem to imply that students were very dependent on their sessions for support with assignments and tests and if these were not being addressed, the sessions were inadequately fulfilling their purpose.

The second justification addressed mentor's role. Clearly, mentees do not perceive the mentor as a facilitator. Comments indicate that mentees view the mentor as someone who will demonstrate how to work on the activity, and situations that directly question, put them on the spot or expect them to be prepared to discuss in the presence of other mentees was considered upsetting and even offensive. The following comment clearly illustrates this:

I attend less than 5 sessions because the mentor did not teach the way I expected. He always try test each single person in front of others how well you understand. But he should understand some of us just went there to learn. That teaching approach does not help at all for some of us who are too shy. So as result I discontinue attending.

Mentors are expected to elaborate, address specific queries brought in by mentees and even assist with preparing for tests and exams. One comment clearly showed that the sessions were viewed as additional tutorials:

Please ensure that mentors are covering something that is newly taught and up to par with the weekly lecturers.

SPMP sessions focus on content that are a week behind of their courses to prevent possible overlaps with tutorial activities and to provide review sessions. Responses on the sessions resulted in manifesting actual practices occurring during the sessions. Comments stating that sessions were satisfactory revealed that there were explanations, clarifications of questions and extensive preparation for tests and exams. It was also stated that at times other students were not cooperative. There are two plausible situations at work here. One, since mentees were not contributing effectively towards the activities (this had also been reported in one of the comments), their mentors may have been resorting to explaining and clarifying. This may have become a habitual practice in some sessions. The second situation could be that there was considerable dialogue and engagement which had led to the satisfactory remarks about the sessions.

Responses on why sessions proved unsatisfactory were paradoxical to reasons for why sessions were satisfactory. Comments reflected that if strategies were not teacher centered, they were not considered to be meeting mentees' expectations of mentor's role and mentoring sessions. Mentees further commented that mentors were not or were inadequately trained to conduct sessions. These attitudes were noted through the following comments:

The mentors should be more knowledgeable to put the subjects in simple aspects in which the mentees can be able to understand and that the mentors should [not] undermine the mentees capabilities.

Mentors should at least get some teaching tips before teaching their peers.

Most of them have no teaching background, failed to perform.

While it was not clarified what the term teaching in these comments alluded to, it was evident that mentor not simplifying content or pushing questions back to students was viewed as 'poor teaching' and lacking content knowledge respectively. On the contrary, a comment indicated that some students did desire opportunity to discuss their opinions.

They should allow student to share their views and they will judge or guide them instead of them telling or teaching everything.

Economides (2008) explains that collaborative learning environments tend to have learners from diverse cultural backgrounds, and with a multitude of learning styles and preferences. This is clearly demonstrated in the FBE SPMP context where some mentees were feeling undermined and offended when expected to contribute to discussion while others welcomed opportunities to actively participate during the sessions. Economidas (2008) further suggests that collaborative learning contexts need to be 'tailor made' to suit the needs of their learners which in the case of SPMP seems to be lacking, hence the unsatisfactory comments.

The results reveal students' tendency to rely on teacher support in learning. Clearly, it is a habit that mostly likely has been moulded by pre-tertiary learning approaches and which students are finding hard to move away from. Evidently, SLS needs to orientate students into its mentoring programme with considerable sensitivity to this practice.

The sessions need to encourage positive growth which Chu (2012) states is a necessary outcome for Pacific mentees. This will involve incorporating Pacific values (Chu, 2013) and working together on the outcomes and a workable progression of each session. Mentees need to be included in dialogue where they are described the learning approach that will be used during their sessions and how it is likely to benefit them. They should be included in their own learning process rather than made to feel that some new approach has been forced upon them without any prior notification or engagement. PASS is circumscribed by discipline specific learning strategies which aim to make learners independent. This independence needs to be gradually inculcated which in turn should allow discussion between the mentor/ PASS leader and mentee about how a session is expected to proceed, what its learning outcomes are, and which strategies will be used. Since attendance in the programme is voluntary, the initial dialogue should be made a necessary requirement for all sessions so that new methods do not surprise students and new students do not feel 'out of place'.

With due respect to these suggestions, FBE SPMP can be enhanced by considering a juxtaposition of mentees' preferred expectations and the requirements of PASS. This will require dialogue on how to acclimatize mentees to PASS strategies, and how to engage them throughout the sessions (Ross, 2009, p. 6) so that they do not feel undermined or out of depth.

This study is relatively small. The number of respondents (59/ 489) represents 12% of commentary on the programme, however, the findings are consistent with issues and concerns that have been already outlined in existing literature on Pacific learners' learning preferences, and thus should not be considered negligible.

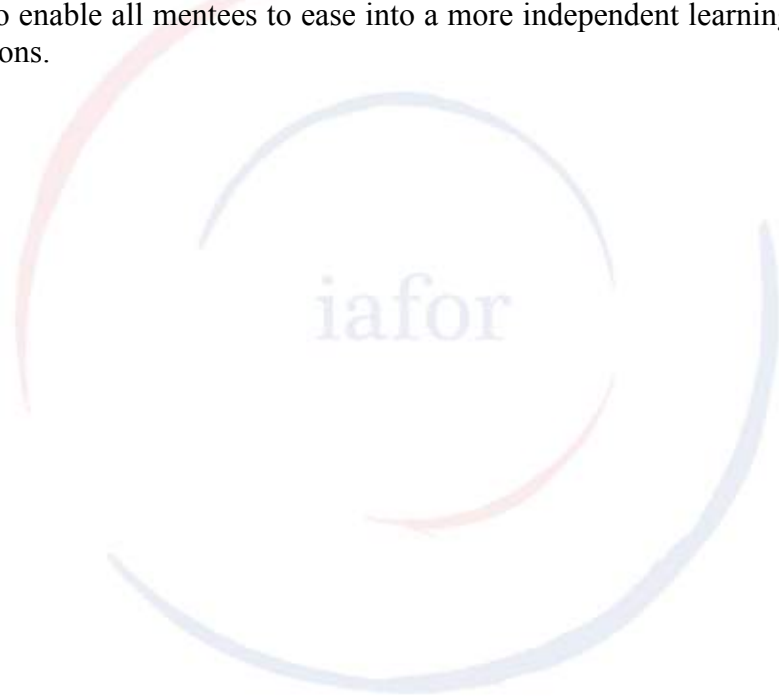
To recap, there is a conflicting interplay of learners' preferences and expectations with what FBE SPMP offers through its mentoring strategies. Responses have indicated that not all sessions are operating as per requirement. They are in fact slipping into traditional peer tutoring practices. Concurrently, sessions that are running as per requirement are preferred by some mentees. This exhibits that not all mentees' experiences in their sessions are unsatisfactory, and thus need thorough reassessment so as to adequately provide a conducive learning environment.

A reconfiguration and customization of PASS strategies to suit existing SPMP is needed if the programme is to foster positive expectations from its mentees.

Conclusion

The current Senior Peer Mentoring programme adopted PASS mainly to shift its tutoring and coaching practices to self-directed learning approaches circumscribed by PASS. After a year's implementation, FBE SLS set out to investigate whether mentees were satisfied with two aspects of the programme, namely, the mentor's role and the mentoring session.

The results from the study revealed that the programme is viewed as an additional learning platform for students, and is usually recommended to students by their lecturers. It was also discovered that although an overall satisfaction was predominant, there were conflicting expectations about mentor's roles and mentoring sessions. While some mentees favoured opportunities to engage with each other during their sessions, other mentees preferred to be tutored by their mentor. The former reaction was clearly positive and implied that there was preference for learning autonomy. The second feedback, however, indicated that there was an emphatic need to address the role of the mentor and the manner in which the session would be conducted to enable all mentees to ease into a more independent learning context and its expectations.



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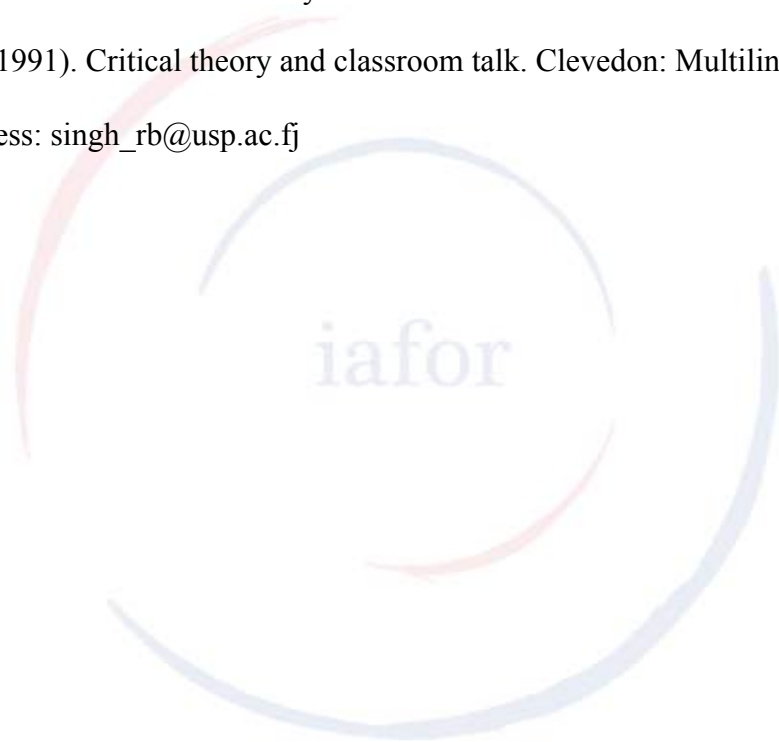
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Predicting Teachers' ICT Integration in the Classroom

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Abstract

This study was conducted to explore the teacher factors associated with the frequency of the use of ICT for instructional purposes in the K-12 classroom. Survey data was collected from 810 teachers in Thailand in order to examine how teachers use ICT as a tool for teaching and supporting students' learning in the classroom. Additionally, the antecedents of ICT use for support students' learning such as teachers' beliefs (personal teaching efficacy beliefs and self-efficacy toward ICT integration), ICT training experience, ICT infrastructure and demographical variables (gender, teaching experience) were taken into account. Correlation and hierarchical regression analysis were applied in the study. The results indicated that teachers are more likely to use ICT for teaching materials preparation and less likely to assign students to use ICT for their learning. The frequency of ICT use to support students's learning has a positive relationship with ICT training experience and self-efficacy toward ICT integration but has a negative relationship with female and teaching experience. Regression analysis results showed that self-efficacy toward ICT integration is the strongest predictor for ICT use to support students' learning. The findings are of particular importance to sustaining teacher development program and shed light on how to support teachers on ICT integration in the classroom.

Keywords: Self-efficacy beliefs; ICT integration; Technology integration

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Introduction

Many studies during the past decades about promotion of ICT as a learning and teaching tool in educational systems have focused on enhancing students' learning outcomes, for example, Hakkarainen et al., 2000; Hopson, Simms & Knezek, 2002; Keengwa, 2007; Cox & Marshall, 2007 and Dominguez et al., 2013. Many researchers provided a variety of ways on how to integrate ICT into teaching practices (Kozma & Anderson, 2002; Jimoyiannis, 2010). In addition, the previous studies also described the conceptualization of ICT integration which can fostered development of 21st-century skills of students (Pedersen & Yerrick, 2000; Law 2009; Wang, Hsu, Reeves, & Coster, 2014). Thus, teachers have a critical role to promote learning with ICT in the classroom context by developing new curricula and new pedagogies (UNESCO, 2011).

Commonly, ICT in schools refers to hardware, software and other tools (e.g. personal computers, laptops, smartphones, printers, LCD projectors, digital cameras, Internet, multimedia resources, databases, Web sites, and word-processing programs). Additionally, there is an expectation for educators to proficiently use these technologies in their teaching and learning process (Martinovic & Zhang, 2012). A review in this domain identified similar terms being used in the same context i.e. ICT integration and Technology integration. Hew & Brush (2007) viewed technology integration as "typically include the use of computing devices for instruction" (p.225). Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010) highlighted technologies as the tools "to facilitate meaningful learning which enables students to construct deep and connected knowledge, which can be applied to real situations" (p.257). UNESCO (2011) emphasized the outcomes and persistence to learning with ICT in Education and believed that ICT can change the nature of teaching and learning.

Recently, Thailand's government by Ministry of Information and Communication Technology (MICT) has launched the ICT Policy for 2011-2020 or "ICT 2020" as "SMART THAILAND 2020" to drive the country forward by using ICT to increase the "Quality of life" in the aspect of Education (MICT, 2011). In addition, The Ministry of Education in Thailand (2015) responded to the government's policy by releasing the MOE ICT Masterplan (MOE, 2011). In the area of professional development for preservice and in-service teachers, ICT has been promoted as the essential tool and encouraged teachers to integrate ICT in the instructional practices (MOE, 2011). The target of MOE's ICT Education Masterplan 2011 was utilization of ICT in all levels of education and 80% of teachers and educational personnel to have sound ICT knowledge (MOE, 2011). However, success at an implementation level is still questionable. UNESCO (2014) reported that teachers' actual use of ICT in the classroom was increasing but the teachers were using traditional teacher-centred approaches such as using slides and drill-and-practice exercises and omission to use ICT to innovative teaching. The teachers realized the importance of ICT integration for productive classroom activities. However, teachers were incapable of integrating ICT in their teaching while professional development was not sufficient to develop the skill of implementation (Laohajarsang, 2010).

When considering ICT use in education, teachers should design how to integrate technology with their specific subject. There are many different ways of ICT integration in the classroom. Russell, Bebell, O'Dwyer, & O'Connor (2003) examined 2,894 teachers to use technology for different instructional purposes such as using e-mail,

creating quizzes and tests, preparing lessons and ask students to do the task with ICT for example: writing a paper and using spreadsheets or creating Web pages. Interestingly, the result showed that teachers frequently use ICT more for preparation and communication than for delivering instruction or assigning learning activities that require the use of technology. The Second International Technology in Education Study 2006 (SITES, 2006) conducted the study to identify the ways in which teachers use ICT in the classroom supported by their general pedagogical orientation and capability. There were 22 education systems from around the world (including Thailand) participated in SITES 2006. The data were collected by a survey design for teachers of mathematics and science in Grade 8. The result showed that the percentage of teachers reporting ICT use was significantly higher among science teachers than among mathematics teachers. In addition, more than half of science teachers reported having used ICT in extended projects, short-task projects, product creation, teacher lectures, and looking up ideas and information (Law, 2009). However, the previous study found that teachers' ICT usage for teaching and learning practices were still traditionally orientation. On the other hands, teachers' ICT adoption does not necessarily change the view of teachers to use innovative model of 21st century pedagogical orientation (Law, 2009).

Peeraer & Petegem (2012) developed the instruments for measurement of the frequency of teacher use of ICT for teaching and learning. This set of instruments incorporated the 21st-century skills based on UNESCO (2003) ICT competencies framework. The constructs of ICT integration in education listed in this study were divided into two groups: ICT use for teaching and ICT use for supporting of student learning. The items represented the teachers' perception of using ICT in teaching were for preparation, for presentation of lesson material and for pedagogical use. The other indicators focused on student innovative use of ICT represented by teachers' perceived use of ICT for support of student learning. The set of items referred to ICT as tools for the development of ICT-related skills and the enhancement of learning outcomes. The students were suggested to use ICT to improve their skills with ICT as the learning tools. The result concluded that the majority of teachers occasionally used ICT to replace their existing teaching practice or to enhance student learning. However, the innovative use of ICT in support of student learning was still very scarce.

The International Computer and Information Literacy Study 2013 (ICILS 2013) reported similar findings. ICILS 2013 focused on the assessment of computer and information literacy of students in the digital age as well as the ICT learning environment, such as teachers' ICT usage from over 3,300 schools of 21 participating countries. The result showed that teachers most frequently used ICT in their classes for simple tasks such as word-processing, presentations, and information resources (e.g. websites, wikis, and encyclopedias). Teachers also reported that, within their classrooms, ICT was most generally being utilized by their students to search for information, work on short tasks, and study on learning materials by individual work. Moreover, teachers tended to use ICT in teaching when they were confident in their ICT skills. Less than 50% of teachers expressed that they were able to use ICT for more complex tasks, such as managing software and hardware and working with others by sharing tools or resources. Older teachers lacked self-confident in ICT use than their younger colleagues. In addition, the ICT integration in schools remains limited (Fraillon, Ainley, Schulz, Friedman & Gebhardt, 2014).

Several researchers studied barriers that held teachers back from integrating ICT in teaching practices. Ertmer (1999) reviewed the barriers of both preservice and in-service teachers with the findings that can support teachers in ICT use. First-order barriers (e.g., lack of technical skills needed to operate a computer, lack of support ICT infrastructure) can seriously limit ICT use in the classroom. Teachers also felt frustrated and were resistant to using ICT (Vanderlinde & Braak, 2010). From a study by Chen (2010), teachers' use of technology was influenced by extrinsic factors such as technological equipment. The availability of material resources in the classroom (i.e., computers, software, and connectivity), also an extrinsic factor, positively influenced teachers' beliefs and teachers' readiness for ICT integration (Inan & Lowther, 2010).

Second-order barriers also influence teacher beliefs about teaching, and beliefs about ICT integration in classroom practices. Teachers' belief influences the decision whether to and how to integrate technology in educational practice (Ertmer, 2005; Hew & Brush, 2007; Paraskeve, Bouta & Papagianni, 2008). Teachers with high perceived self-efficacy toward ICT integration will have tendency to integrate ICT into the learning environment to motivate and promote student outcomes (Bandura, 1982; Gassert, Shroyer, & Staver 1996; Hoy & Spero, 2005). On the other hand, teachers who perceived themselves as lacking the capabilities in technology and persistence to obstacles or challenges of new circumstances tend to avoid managing and setting ICT environment for their students (Bandura, 1982; Compeau & Higgins, 1995; Paraskeve, Bouta & Papagianni, 2008).

Recognizing the importance of preparing in-service teachers to effectively integrate ICT in the classroom, the purpose of this study is to identify the ways in which teachers integrate ICT in their teaching or supporting students' learning in the classroom. Moreover, examination of relationship between factors that influence teachers use ICT integration in teaching practices is an important key to understanding how to motivate them to use ICT and to overcome barriers to teaching with ICT. The demographic characteristics of teachers (gender, teaching experience and prior experience in ICT training) and self-efficacy toward ICT integration have been studied in relation to efficacy in ICT use. This study also aims to understand more clearly the construct influencing ICT integration in Science, Mathematics and Technology teachers in the K-12 classroom.

Methodology

Participants and procedure

The survey was carried out at the end of the second semester, the school year 2014–2015. The participants for this study were 810 school teachers from Thailand, 261 (32.2 %) were primary teachers and 549 (67.8%) secondary teachers. Among these 325 (40.1%) taught science, 257 (31.7%) mathematics and 228 (28.1%) technology. The majority of participants were female, 529 female and 281 male. The average age of the sample was 41.8 years (SD = 8.43) with the mean teaching experience of 15.3 years (SD = 10.95). These teachers had prior experience in ICT training in the past three years ranging from never to five times or more, with a mean of 2.4 times (SD = 1.67). The selection method started with stratified random sampling in order to select the schools. The questionnaires were sent by post. The questionnaire examined how teachers use ICT as a tool for teaching and supporting students' learning in the classroom. The data

were analyze for the relationship between ICT use for support students' learning, personal teaching efficacy, self-efficacy in ICT integration, ICT infrastructure and demographics data.

Instrument

The research instruments for the data collection were:

- (i) The demographic questionnaire regarding gender, teachers' subject areas, teaching experience, previous ICT training.
- (ii) The Personal Teaching Efficacy Scale was first developed by Gibson and Dembo (1984). The scale is a four item, Likert-type scale ranging from "1" (Strongly Disagree) to "5" (Strongly Agree) that measures a teachers' beliefs in their teaching abilities to bring about the positive students' behavioral change (Gibson & Dembo, 1984; Ross, Cousins & Gadalla, 1996).
- (iii) The Self-Efficacy Belief toward ICT Integration Scale was modified from the Personal Internet Teaching Efficacy Beliefs Scale (PITEBS) by Koul (1999). This scale was developed to measure teacher confidence in teaching with ICT. It includes 9 items that are scored using a five-point response.
- (iv) The ICT Infrastructure Scale by (Vanderlinde & Braak, 2010) was developed to measure teachers' perceptions about the instructional resources. It includes 4 Likert-scale items.
- (v) ICT use for teaching and ICT use for support students' learning were first developed by Peeraer & Petegem (2012). The self-report measurement assesses the perceived frequency of teachers in ICT use for teaching and for support of student learning. It includes 7 items measuring teachers' use of ICT for teaching purposes and 7 items for measuring teachers' use of ICT for support of student learning. This study adapted the response level to "never", "rarely", "sometimes", "often, and "daily".

Results

Frequency counts, correlation, and regression were used to analyze the data. A summary of the descriptive statistics of ICT use for teaching and support student learning follows in Table 1 and 2 respectively. In Table 1, word processing and Internet were the most frequently reported method of ICT use. As can be seen, about 98.5% of the teachers used word processing for the production of documents and the Internet as a source of information. Only 1.5% of the teachers reported never using word processing and the Internet for teaching purpose.

Table 1: *Frequency and percentage of teacher use ICT in teaching (n=810)*

Teaching Practices		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Daily	Total	Mean (SD.)
1. Production of documents by word processing	n (%)	12 (1.5)	24 (3.0)	162 (20)	340 (42)	272 (33.5)	810 (100)	4.03 (0.89)
2. Presentation	n (%)	20 (2.5)	58 (7.2)	202 (24.9)	325 (40.1)	205 (25.3)	810 (100)	3.77 (0.98)
3. Use specific software	n (%)	56 (6.9)	86 (10.6)	250 (30.9)	284 (35.1)	134 (16.5)	810 (100)	3.44 (1.00)
4. CD-ROM/DVD as resource materials	n (%)	14 (1.7)	83 (10.2)	271 (33.5)	336 (41.5)	106 (13.1)	810 (100)	3.54 (0.91)
5. Electronic Communication with students	n (%)	45 (5.6)	61 (7.5)	176 (21.7)	331 (40.9)	197 (24.3)	810 (100)	3.71 (1.09)
6. Internet/WWW as a source of information	n (%)	12 (1.5)	41 (5.1)	119 (14.7)	351 (43.3)	287 (35.4)	810 (100)	4.06 (0.91)
7. Use classroom management software	n (%)	189 (23.3)	90 (11.1)	209 (25.8)	222 (27.4)	100 (12.3)	80 (100)	2.94 (1.35)

Teachers' use of ICT for presentation and electronic communication with students were less frequent, as compared to the use of word processing and the Internet. Only about half of the teachers reported "often" or "daily" for use of subject specific software and CD-ROM/DVD as resource materials (51.60% and 54.60%, respectively). Finally, about 23.30% of teachers stated that they had never used classroom management software in a computer classroom setting.

Table 2 shows that data collecting and information gathering from digital resources were the ICT activities that the teachers most frequently assigned to students. As can be seen, the number of teachers who often or daily assigned these ICT activities were 69.5% and 64.3%, respectively. The second most commonly assigned ICT activity was the computer use by students to synthesizing knowledge (62.4%). About 60.7% of the teachers often or frequently assigned students to ICT to communicate with others. More than half of the teachers (59.8%) assigned students to work with a computer to solve a problem and students integrated different media to create products. Finally, about 6.9% of teachers had never assigned students to give a presentation supported by a computer.

Table 2: *Frequency and percentage of teacher use ICT for supporting students' learning (n=810)*

<i>Ways to Support Student Learning</i>		<i>Never</i>	<i>Rarely</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Daily</i>	<i>Total</i>	<i>Mean (SD.)</i>
1. Work with the computer to orientate themselves to a new subject	n (%)	34 (4.2)	71 (8.8)	277 (34.2)	303 (37.4)	125 (15.4)	810 (100)	3.51 (1.00)
2. Gather information from digital resource	n (%)	15 (1.9)	61 (7.5)	213 (26.3)	364 (44.9)	157 (19.4)	810 (100)	3.72 (0.92)
3. Use technology to collected data	n (%)	19 (2.3)	62 (7.7)	166 (20.5)	371 (45.8)	192 (23.7)	810 (100)	3.81 (0.96)
4. Work with a computer program to solve problems	n (%)	32 (4.0)	70 (8.6)	224 (27.7)	353 (43.6)	131 (16.2)	810 (100)	3.59 (0.99)
5. Give presentation with a computer	n (%)	56 (6.9)	76 (9.4)	219 (27)	314 (38.8)	145 (18.9)	810 (100)	3.51 (1.10)
6. Integrate different media to create products	n (%)	32 (4.0)	84 (10.4)	210 (25.9)	348 (43)	136 (16.8)	810 (100)	3.58 (1.01)
7. Synthesize their knowledge	n (%)	27 (3.3)	75 (9.3)	203 (25.1)	379 (46.8)	126 (15.6)	810 (100)	3.62 (0.97)
8. Communicate with others (locally and/or globally)	n (%)	39 (4.8)	72 (8.9)	208 (25.7)	352 (43.5)	139 (17.2)	810 (100)	3.59 (1.03)

In terms of using ICT for teaching activities, as compare to the using ICT for supporting students' learning activities, with means of 3.77 and 3.62 respectively. It should be further noted that teachers are more likely to use ICT for preparing teaching materials and less likely to assign students to use ICT for their learning.

Table 3: Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations among ICT use for supporting students' learning, ICT infrastructure, demographics and self-efficacy variables. (N = 810)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. ICT use for Support Student Learning	-	-	-	.24*		.33**	.49**	3.62	0.85
		.18*	.13*	*	.29*				
		*	*		*				
2. Gender		-	-.01	-	-	-	-	1.65	0.48
				.09*	.09*	.15**	.19**	15.3	10.9
3. Teaching experience			-	-.02	.08*	-.03	-.12**	4	5
4. Personal Teaching Efficacy				-	.32*			4.03	0.52
					*	.11**	.55**		
5. ICT Infrastructure					-			3.62	0.80
						.11**	.33**		
6. ICT Training experience						-	.23**	2.44	1.67
7. Self-efficacy toward ICT Integration							-	3.94	0.55

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

As can be seen in Table3, the associations of the variables in this study, zero-order correlations were calculated. In terms of the outcomes of interest, ICT use for support student learning was positively related to personal teaching efficacy ($r = .24$, $p < .001$), ICT infrastructure ($r = .29$, $p < .001$), ICT training experience ($r = .33$, $p < .001$) and self-efficacy toward ICT integration ($r = .49$, $p < .001$).

Finally, gender and teaching experience were negatively to endorse ICT use for supporting students' learning ($r = -.18$ and $r = -.13$, respectively, both $p < .001$).

To examine the extent to which teachers' perceptions of ICT infrastructure, personal teaching efficacy, ICT training experience, and self-efficacy toward ICT integration predicted changes in teacher use ICT for supporting students' learning. A series of hierarchical regression analyzes were conducted.

Table 4: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Gender, Personal Teaching Efficacy, ICT Infrastructure, ICT Training Experience and Self-Efficacy ICT Integration Predicting ICT use for Support student learning (N= 810)

Variable	B	SE(B)	β	R ²	ΔR^2
Step1				.03	.03***
Gender	-.31	.06	-.18***		
Step 2				.05	.02***
Gender	-.31	.06	-.18***		
Teaching Experience	-.01	.00	-.13***		
Step 3				.09	.05***
Gender	-.28	.06	-.16***		
Teaching Experience	-.01	.00	-.13***		
Personal Teaching Efficacy	.36	.05	.22***		
Step 4				.15	.05***
Gender	-.25	.06	-.14***		
Teaching Experience	-.01	.00	-.15***		
Personal Teaching Efficacy	.23	.06	.14***		
ICT Infrastructure	.26	.04	.25***		
Step 5				.22	.07***
Gender	-.19	.06	-.10***		
Teaching Experience	-.01	.00	-.14***		
Personal Teaching Efficacy	.20	.05	.12***		
ICT Infrastructure	.24	.04	.23***		
ICT Training Experience	.14	.02	.28***		
Step 6				.32	
Gender	-.11	.05	-.06*		.10***
Teaching Experience	-.01	.00	-.09***		
Personal Teaching Efficacy	-.10	.06	-.06		
ICT Infrastructure	.17	.03	.16***		
ICT Training Experience	.11	.02	.22***		
Self-efficacy ICT	.61	.06	.40***		
Integration					

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

Note. ΔR^2 = Change in R^2 . Adjust R^2 = .32.

The results of analysis were shown in Tables 4. These results respond to the research questions about the important factors for predicting of ICT integration. Self-efficacy toward ICT integration is the strongest predictor for ICT use to support students' learning. Furthermore, ICT training experience, ICT infrastructure, Teaching experience and gender explained additional variance in ICT use to support students' learning.

In the first and second step of this analysis, the gender and teaching experience were a significant predictor ($\beta = -.18$ and $\beta = -.13$, $p < .001$), accounted for 3% and 5% of the variance in the outcome of each step respectively. When a personal teaching efficacy was added to the equation (Step 3), the coefficient of gender dropped to $-.16$ ($p < .001$). In step4, when ICT infrastructure was taken into account, teachers were more likely to endorse ICT for support student learning ($\beta = .25$, $p < .001$), accounted

for 15% of the variance in the outcome. In step5, when ICT training experience was added to the equation, ($\beta = .28$, $p < .001$), the accounted for the variance in the outcome was added to 22%. In the last step, when self-efficacy toward ICT integration was taken into account, teachers were more likely to use ICT for supporting students' learning ($\beta = .40$, $p < .001$), and the coefficient for personal teaching efficacy dropped to $-.06$ and gender dropped to $-.06$ ($p < .05$). In addition, perceptions of gender, teaching experience, personal teaching efficacy, ICT infrastructure and ICT training experience accounted for an additional 7% of the variance ($R^2 = .22$, $p < .001$, $\Delta R^2 = .07$, $p < .001$) whereas self-efficacy in ICT integration added a further 10% ($R^2 = .32$, $p < .001$, $\Delta R^2 = .10$, $p < .001$).

Discussion

Our results clearly implicate that teachers more frequency use ICT for preparing material for teaching than use ICT for supporting students' learning or assigning them to do the activities by using ICT (Law, 2009; Hsu, 2011). This study found that the most frequently of ICT usage for teaching purpose were word processing for preparing the document and Internet as the source of information for lecturing. While teachers most frequently use ICT for supporting students' learning were assign students to collect data by using ICT and gather information from digital resources. Even so, for both result and discussion, it can be proposed that teachers' use ICT for teaching as a less innovative way by replacing and enhancing teaching practices from the traditional such as the use of electronic practices and drill exercises for revision (Peeraer & Petegem, 2012). In addition, teachers' perceived to use ICT for supporting students' learning focused on innovative ways for using ICT tools by students as acquisition and manipulation of the existing information for the development of ICT-related skills and enhancement of learning outcomes (Peeraer & Petegem, 2012). More than the half of frequently use ICT to support students' learning, teachers assigned students for constructing and synthesizing knowledge. It can be suggested that teachers prefer to use ICT to support student-centred learning approach. They need to design a flexible ways to use ICT for creating student-centred activities to engage students while they use ICT as a tool for processing deepening knowledge, supporting during problem-solving and promoting ability to think critically about information (Liu, 2011; Martinovic & Zhang, 2012).

Another key finding from this study is that self-efficacy towards ICT integration also positively influence ICT integration for support students' learning. The added value of this finding is that the moderating effect of teacher' perception of ICT use. This implies that if teachers perceive in confident to use ICT in education, they are more eager to integrate ICT into their teaching practices for support students' learning. This finding is in accordance with the findings of previous studies (Paraskeva, 2008; Chen, 2010; ICILS, 2013). Furthermore, Teachers' experience in ICT training, ICT infrastructure and self-efficacy toward ICT integration as the important variables that can predict the frequency of ICT integration in the classroom. It also concluded that teachers were more likely to use ICT if they were confident when using these tools with their teaching, if they had experienced in ICT-related professional development, and if there were relatively few ICT constraints for accessibility or availability of hardware and software (Law, 2009). However, the result of the current study also indicates that the two variables that represented teacher's demographic characteristics (gender and teaching experience) had a negative relationship with ICT integration. Female and teachers who

have more teaching experience tended to be less likely use ICT integration than male and their younger teachers (Inan & Lowther, 2010).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the current study supports previous research emphasizing for the important obstacles to use ICT and explaining the tendency of teachers' ICT usage to support students' learning through their instructional practices. Recent research has revealed important links between different aspects of teachers' perceived in sense of efficacy (Wolters, 2007) and the integration of ICT context into the learning environment. Future research is needed to explore the possible influence of goals effect on learning strategies such as deep or surface learning which teachers tend to use in their classroom. It would be valuable for developing teachers training course can change the confidence of teachers to integrate ICT as educational tools and also add the skills in teaching strategies for how to enhance students' learning ability in long-term persistence of academic's achievement.



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Media Education - A Major Challenge for our Era

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By encouraging debate, the media play a critical role in democratic societies. It is for this reason that it is crucial for us to understand how the media function at a time of universal access to overabundant data. But it is also important to be aware of how information is “manufactured” and to learn how to detect “superficial objectivity” and “deceptive knowledge.” In our hyper-informed, hyper-connected universe, we all need to understand how the media and the Internet developed and led to the rise of infotainment and omnipresent modelling based on “big data.”

The prospect of an education program of this type raises several questions. First, with respect to the traditional media, can experiments in participative knowledge made possible by digital technologies that make everyone a data producer cause social change by reducing social and cultural inequalities? What worldview will the evolution of this immaterial economy reflect? Learning to understand the complexity of the information society requires a form of apprenticeship. International recommendations have encouraged the development of a type of “media competence” that would train students to assert their rights to examine and critically assess this world of data. Indeed, what is needed is to reduce citizens’ “structural gullibility” about the “transcendental illusion of the media,” in the words of the late philosopher Jacques Derrida.

I) Detecting “superficial objectivity”

Many media professionals claim to utter only truth and simply to transcribe reality. While this is a laudable intention, it is clear that it is far from the case. First, the exponential growth in the production of information causes the sheer volume to double every eight years, but also constitutes an anarchic avalanche of duplicate and often inaccurate information, if not “true rumors.” Verification thus becomes considerably more difficult.

In the same way, the prevalence of immediacy and directness do not nurture analysis or deliberate reflection. As Baudrillard has observed, “the closer we come to the real time of an event, the more we fall into the illusion of the virtual,” where reality is of necessity distorted by this temporal short-circuit. Information exhausts itself in its own instantaneousness; it is not History in the present, but instead, an ahistorical present that reveals the anecdotal more than the essential.

The imperatives of competitiveness and marketing simply reinforce the production of sugarcoated information that tends, in fact, to move in the direction of infotainment and a kind of globalized “show-biz.” Crafting and composing become staging, transforming information into a “major branch of industry”. The inevitable over-exposure to the spectacular is obviously accompanied by other orchestrations. First is the illusion of veracity: We believe we are speaking the truth although even the simplest re-framing is both a snapshot and an opinion! Information is always fabricated and relative, and the subjectivity that is inherent in this fabrication has difficulty taking into account the complexity of the real. Certainties replace questionings, and dysfunctions are brought into focus, one of the legitimate roles of the press, but also one that increases the imbalance.

In the same way, the illusion of verisimilitude - i.e., of what might correspond to our idea of what is real - can also distort the situation: closure, assumptions, and conforming to a single thought pattern shape facts to fit representations. This

ideological prism prevents verification of information that resonates with the dominant idea, as appearance becomes a substitute for reality. We are no longer facing a “deciphered reflection” of reality, but instead, a “projected reconstruction.” Above all, this kind of fusion-confusion hijacks deeper aspects of the culture and politics and helps transform the counter-force of the media into a fourth power.

This is why it is so vitally important to develop information skills at school, the mission of the French organization called the CLEMI (*Centre de Liaison de l'enseignement et des médias d'information*/Center for Connecting Teaching and Media Information) since it was founded in 1983. The CLEMI organizes media education throughout the French educational system, with the purpose of teaching students to be media-savvy citizen, with an annual press week in the schools “by initiating them into the complexities of the production of information, students develop independence and initiative and become aware of the role of the media and their influence in society.” In 1989, the UNESCO Convention on the Rights of the Child, which guarantees - the right to freedom of expression, to access to information and to participate in cultural life - named media education as a basic human right. In theory at least, this paves the way for the rise of informed citizens who can verify the traceability of information and serve as skilled and effective “receivers” and producers of data.

Should the “right to communicate” provided by the Universal Declaration of the Rights of Man be interpreted as a guarantee, in addition to access, of the right to create and disseminate information? Citizen journalism, in which millions of individuals act as a network, represents a prime example of this poly-vocal critical process. AgoraVox is one of the first interactive European achievements in this domain. By focusing on information on a vast scale, amateur reporters contribute to a collective body of knowledge that is perpetually evolving to adapt to a changing world, and that limits the dominance of traditional social hierarchies.

Blogs, which are essentially open diaries, are also used as sources of information that are particularly useful in contexts involving censorship. Initiatives such as these that promote “informational and communicational intelligence” if they avoid the perils of disinformation, by providing alternatives to the preponderance of the established media, enhance the credibility of the entire media system and, in the process, reinforce the democratic elements of society.

II) Stalking “misleading knowledge”

In the same sense that the media do not necessarily describe reality or facts, the Internet cannot be considered as a reservoir of knowledge. Data and information do not inherently add value. It is how they are divided and regrouped, validated, and synthesized that will produce relevant and reliable information and in turn, via contextualization, knowledge.

This is the case with scientific information stored in databases, and also with isolated knowledge dispersed in big data “clouds,” some of it without any value as information, particularly in the infinite variety of opinions scattered across myriad forums and blogs.

Progress in new digital technologies has provided remote access to vast amounts of documentation, but finding information using on-line networks and databases is not as

easy as one might think. The access to knowledge that such sites provide is interfered with by factors such as the “noise” (irrelevant information) or “silence” (missing information). The first difficulty concerns accessibility, because learning the search procedures for research engines requires skills that users do not necessarily possess.

It is nevertheless primarily knowledge of how information is developed that should form the basis of a well-adapted critical approach. It is important to know, for example, that the information obtained will not necessarily be exhaustive because certain fields of knowledge are not covered, just as one can better detect a lack of precision, and one is more likely to have the reflex of verifying sources despite the fact that layers of intermediaries can render verification impossible.

The logic of “real time” and immediacy, although they offer the illusion of immediate access, can also be misleading. There appears to be a lack of systematic updating of information or, worse, recent information that coexists with obsolete information.

The hidden face of the algorithmic treatment of data also raises questions because it is sometimes linked to industrial and economic interests, as well as to marketing. The references proposed by research engines and comparison sites are good examples that raise questions about the quality and reliability of the information obtained by automated systems, underscoring the relative nature of knowledge. Data flows are now stored in massive systems - a truly amorphous abstraction called a cloud - that represents billions upon billions of bits of information organized in spaces with over one hundred dimensions, and this fragmentation offers the possibility of generating new elements of information.

Two additional drawbacks that also appear to impede the quality of knowledge supplied by the Internet also merit attention. The first is what could be described as “digital information reductionism” : More qualitative or intuitive aspects of reality that cannot be apprehended through binary logic and are unable to be represented by digitized systems. This is also true of existing data, and an identity cannot be reduced to a navigation profile ! Google’s promises to make all of the world’s knowledge available at a single click seem to invoke the ideology of the omnipotent technical world more than they do real potential.

Another pitfall involves the widespread development of modeling procedures. Indeed the construction of metadata and the power of algorithms transform these new knowledge management systems into an authentic strategic development that converts raw data into “informational gold.” An infinite number of fields are concerned by an optimized decision-making process. For example, models that provide measurements to support risk assessments are highly prized in fields such as health, security, and insurance.

Nevertheless, this method of treating data is not immune to error, because the predictive aspects are not infallible, they are based on probabilistic computations, erroneous extrapolations and invalid results are sometimes obtained. Furthermore, as the sociologist Dominique Cardon has observed, the reach of these models is limited to the extent that data from the past are used to represent the future. It also appears that these new forms of computation are intrinsically linked to the logics of “algorithmic truth” of the techno-industrial world. Moreover, the infinite range of

problems in modern society cannot be fully grasped, despite innovative solutions such as machines that are able to self-program.

This informational universe of computations and networks whose mechanisms remain partially invisible must also be submitted to the rigors of a critical education. The European Parliament acknowledged the importance of learning informational and digital competence in a 2006 recommendation in favor of a “critical and reflective attitude towards available information and a responsible utilization of interactive tools.” Asking questions about the reliability of digital information is all the more urgent in the present context, notably in academic contexts. University-level methodology courses have been created to teach students to refine their searches, optimize their use of tools and procedures, identify sources, and decipher the information that they obtain.

These skills should encourage new experiments such as participative encyclopedias - like Wikipedia and others - by exploiting self-edited digital content, which promote emerging knowledge, breaking the monopoly of experts and scholars. The stakes of a “citizen-based regulation” should be taken into account in order to enable us to articulate new forms of knowledge with each other while discovering unexpected new realities among the structures brought to light by big data.

In this way, the increasingly skilled and info-aware citizens who benefit from media education will fully participate in the “knowledge-based society” that is already here and in the new forms of “intelligence” that many thinkers ardently hope are emerging in the process.



School and Family Involvement in Educational Practices in French Polynesia

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to present an ongoing research project financed by the Ministry of Overseas in France. The paper describes a longitudinal exploratory study that aims at gathering a large scale corpus on educational practices both from classroom and family environments from five French Polynesian archipelagos. To our knowledge no other study has looked into educational practices that combine both school and family environments and the impact of the interaction between these two milieus on French Polynesian children. We have been gathering corpus on four disciplines: Polynesian languages which are taught at schools; English as a foreign language; mathematics; and science. The use of French (which is the medium of instruction) will be analyzed across situations observed. The data for this research project have been gathered via video/audio recordings, observations, interviews and questionnaires. In each archipelago, the data are collected by two observers: a researcher and another professional in education who speaks the local language spoken in the archipelago.

Keywords: educational practices; interaction; school; family environment; French Polynesian children.

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Introduction

The purpose of this paper is to present a project in the process of finalization which aims to establish a corpus of educational practices in the school and family environments in French Polynesia. This research is both longitudinal, since it covers a three-year period, and exploratory because, to our knowledge, this is the first research of its kind carried out within the territory of French Polynesia.

The corpus is aimed, on the one hand, at current educational practices, i.e. the practices observed and filmed by the researchers and, on the other hand, reported educational practices, i.e. practices collected by means of interviews.

Describing and analyzing educational practices in settings in which the child evolves will enable us to, firstly, understand current interactive dynamics and their impact on learning at school and, secondly, propose guidelines for awareness-raising and the training of parents and teachers in the specific multilingual and multicultural context of Polynesia. Whilst recent studies have reported on multilingualism and the inclusion of local languages into the school curriculum, to our knowledge no studies exist on educational practices (teacher and parent) and their impact on the school performance of Polynesian children.

However, the role and importance of the links between educational practices and school achievement are now clearly established. In this sense, examples include, among others, the impact of educational styles of adults on children's learning, the roles and functions of the family in different cultural contexts and their impact on adjustment and school performance, and the influence on the cognitive skills of children.

Research questions

Our project is based on two key research questions:

1. What are the family educational practices in the five archipelagos of French Polynesia? Is there interactive variability between different family practices: especially among the populations of the five archipelagos; or between families living in the same archipelago?
2. What are the teaching practices and classroom interactions? Is there interactive variability depending on the type of activity (Polynesian languages; English, mathematics, science); or is there variability depending on the linguistic and cultural context?

To our knowledge, this is the first study of its kind in French Polynesia to examine teaching and family educational practices for these socio-cultural groups.

Our hypothesis is that the interactional variability between educational practices in the family and the school may influence the child's adjustment to the school environment.

Complementarity with recent research in French Polynesia

Our research is complementary to recent research specifically devoted to the question of multilingualism (LCP and ANR-ECOLPOM, ReoC3, OPLF, see below) and exploratory research on the implementation of the CLIL approach to teach a school

subject using English. In this chapter we briefly describe each of these programs, whether already completed or still in progress:

LCP "Teaching of Polynesian languages in the public primary school of French Polynesia" (2006-2009)

This program measured the impact of an experimental teaching mechanism in Polynesian languages and culture on the psychological development of the child and his/her academic achievement (at a rate of 5 hours/week instead of 2 hours and 40 minutes) (Nocus et al. 2012; 2014).

ANR-ECOLPOM "Evaluation of original language teaching programs in the bilingual context in the primary school in New Caledonia, French Polynesia, and Guyana" (2009-2011)

This program assessed French/local language bilingual programs in three communities in accordance with two complementary psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic axes, for CP and CE1 levels. In this context, surveys were conducted on family language practices and the family and school relationships (Salaun, 2012).

ReoC3 "Intensive teaching from reo mā'ohi to Cycle 3 to prevent and fight against illiteracy in French Polynesia" (2012-2014)

In French Polynesia, ReoC3 constituted a continuation of the ECOLPOM program within the framework of educational and language policy of the Directorate of Primary Education of French Polynesia. The Directorate aims to promote the growth of additive bilingualism by facilitating the mastery of both the spoken and written French language, based on the students' original language. More precisely, this continued the strengthening and teaching of languages and Polynesian Culture (LCP) already initiated in Cycles 1 and 2 into Cycle 3. The ReoC3 mechanism set up experimental LCP classes at CE2 level, then at CM1 level, and focused on the production of content and language teaching materials. In addition, it involved the organization of awareness-raising and information sessions for teachers and families regarding their role in the building up of students' language skills, in a multilingual family and social environment.

OPLF "Observatory of practices of the French language and languages of France - Tahitian between school and family: the contemporary context and practices of children in French Polynesia" (2013-2014)

This survey was conducted through semi-structured interviews, based on a common interview outline, with 24 children from Cycle 3. The project aimed to survey students on their French, English and Tahitian language learning practices.

CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in a multilingual context (2012-2014)

The CLIL project is still an on going project and it involves investigations on the implementation of this approach in the primary school context in French Polynesia (Gabillon & Ailincal, 2013, 2015a, 2015b). This longitudinal study has been carried on since 2012 aims to explore various CLIL practices (in the classroom and family settings) and to establish a set of data that can be used for teacher training.

The data obtained from these abovementioned research studies revealed interesting results in a experimental setting, limited to the islands of Tahiti and Moorea. These

studies should be reevaluated in ordinary, non-experimental learning contexts over the whole territory. Moreover, some studies (e.g. OPLF and CLIL) have used a small qualitative corpus and their results need to be confirmed using larger samples.

Indeed, the Government of French Polynesia has invested heavily in the learning of local languages (Polynesian languages) and foreign languages (English) in the country's primary schools. However, very few studies have focused on the current teaching and family practices which, according to research results on a global level, have a strong impact on the development and school achievement of the child.

In this sense, our project is complementary to the previous and ongoing research studies which have been implemented in the French Polynesian Context and it constitutes a logical and necessary step for future research projects.

The theoretical fields on which this research project is based

Numerous studies suggest that the educational practices and contexts of adults may be intermediate variables between the social background and school adjustment of children. Thus, there would be a high correlation between development and school adjustment (Pourtois, 1979; Bloom, 1964).

The link between the immediate environment of the child and the socio-cultural context is confirmed, by both eco-systemic theories and socio-cultural theories.

Eco-systemic theories

The importance of the education of children within a family milieu has been raised for a long time (see the synthesis proposed by Pourtois & Desmet, 1989; Montandon & Sapru, 2002). In psychology, ecosystem development theories (e.g. Bronfenbrenner, 1986) have emphasized the role of the microsystem composed of people who take care of the child (e.g. nuclear family, nursery, etc.), as well as other systems in which the child fits (e.g. extended family, educational and social community, social group, etc.). It has been shown that the way in which the parent exercises his/her role has effects on the development of the child and his/her academic success (Tazouti, Flieller & Vrignaud, 2005; Dearing et al., 2006; Lahaye, Pourtois & Desmet, 2007; Spoth, Randall & Shin, 2008). Numerous studies have thus attempted to identify the characteristics of the practices and attitudes of parents, which determine the healthy development of children on physical, cognitive, emotional and social levels (e.g. Barocas et al. 1991; Steinberg et al., 1992; Martin, Ryan, & Brooks-Gunn, 2007).

In line with ecological models, we will briefly introduce here the famous developmental model of Bronfenbrenner (1979). According to this author, the child's cognitive development is influenced by different social environments and systems that are interconnected. The model shows the different nested structures (see Figure 1): the microsystem (the immediate environment of the individual) is included in the mesosystem (all of the microsystems), which in turn is included in the exosystem (system of external forces, having a strong impact on the microsystem, e.g. policies, regulations, finance, etc.), all of which are contained in the macro-system (remote systems of strength with long-term influence e.g. values, culture).

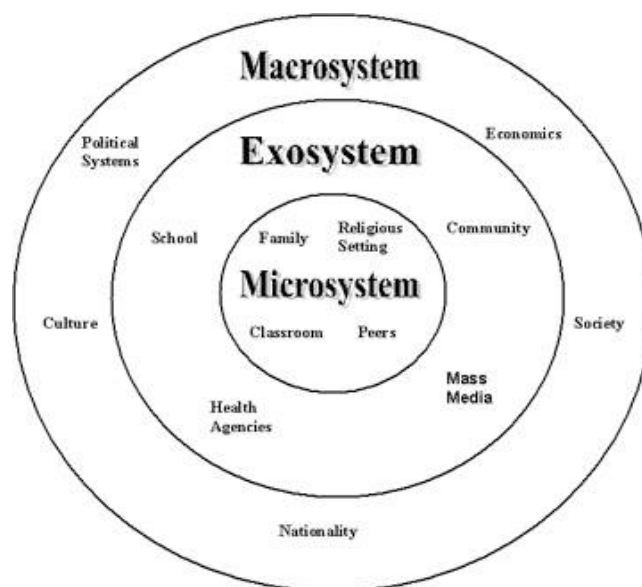


Figure 1: Bronfenbrenner's developmental model (1979).

Bronfenbrenner's theory of ecological systems helps us to understand the overall context in which the child evolves, with all systems operating in a dynamic interaction with the child, which is the innermost structure.

This macro-approach was completed with the model of bio-ecological systems (Bronfenbrenner & Ceci 1994; Bronfenbrenner, 1995) which focuses more on the microsystem and the end processes of child development. Among the micro-ecological approaches, we include the developmental model proposed by Valsiner (1987). This model characterizes each event experienced by the child into three interacting areas: the free movement zone (the free movement of children according to the rules already integrated); the area of encouraged actions (actions required by instructors); and the proximal development zone (the set of actions that the child can only complete with the help of another person, inspired by Vygotsky).

For Valsiner (1987), the environment is characterized by its cultural (transmission of the cultural dimension) and regulated (limits, permissions, suggestions, encouragement) side. His model offers a compelling interest for studying the environment on a fine scale, close to the child.

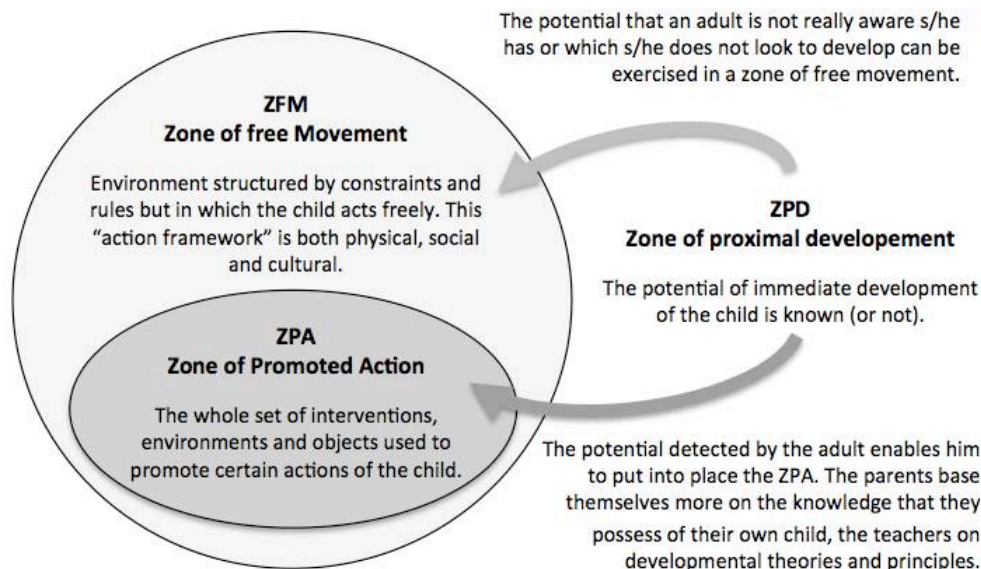


Figure 2: Graphic interpretation of Valsiner's model by Lacombe, 2006.

Another theoretical framework of particular interest to us is that of the "developmental niche" proposed by Super and Harkness (1997).

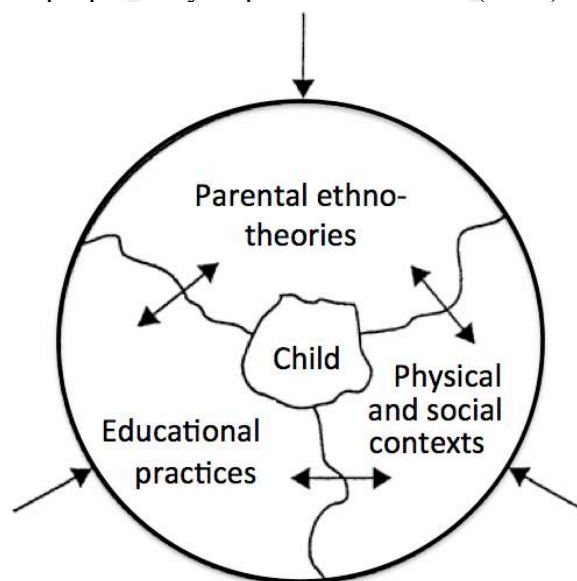


Figure 3: The developmental model, "the developmental niche", Super and Harkness (1986, 1997).

In this model, which meets the requirements of psychology and anthropology, the close environment of the child and cultural transmission (its enculturation and socialization) envelop the individual and maintain an interactive dynamic in which contexts (physical and social), educational practices and the behavior of adults are the main components (see Figure 3).

These three components work as an indivisible whole and contribute to instilling within the child the personal characteristics and instrumental and social skills necessary for integration into their social group.

Socio-cultural theories

Socio-cultural theories, most of which are influenced by the ideas of Vygotsky (1978), consider the formation of knowledge and cognitive development as a social construction that grows through social interactions. According to this theory, children can learn better when interactive activities are used. It has also been shown that children learn new knowledge better when a more experienced person [e.g. teacher, mother, father etc.] facilitates their learning using gestures, artifacts, simplified language etc. (this type of assistance is known as 'scaffolding'). The use of real life situations, which form the basis of learning from experience, as well as the active participation of students, are also considered as effective methods in the teaching of young learners, both in general education and the learning of a foreign/second language.

Vygotsky (1978) distinguishes cognitive development as a social construction which is developed with social collaboration. He says that optimal cognitive development depends on the 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) where individuals construct new concepts of language through social interaction. Vygotsky does not consider the construction process of individual knowledge as separate to the social process, but considers the two as connected and interdependent. According to Vygotsky (1978), knowledge is co-constructed first on social plans through interaction with others and then this knowledge is appropriated (i.e. internalized) at the level of personal plans. From the socio-cultural point of view, the building of knowledge is a social and contextual process. Through this process, learners test hypotheses by social negotiation and every individual has a different interpretation of this social experience.

Many studies (Vandenplas-Holper 1987; Mugny and Carugati 1985; Pourtois and Desmet 2004) attest to the interest of researchers in the socio-cultural and psychosocial approaches that examine the implicit theories of parents (their knowledge a priori of the child development process). The cultural aspects being implicit, it is difficult for the teacher to understand and possibly take into account the cultural differences of the pupils in the class. Note the work of Charlot on the positive influence of the school (the effect of certain teachers' "messages") on the relationship with the knowledge of students who fail academically (Charlot, 1999b). Furthermore, other studies have examined the impact of the representations of parents about school and school signifiers on the child's psychological future (Pourtois and Delhay, 1981). Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory is completed with learning theories such as Bandura's social learning theory (1977), Lave's experiential learning theory (1991), Leontiev's activity theory (1978), and Bruner's constructivist theory (1978).

A review of recent international scientific literature on practices and representations, attests to numerous studies showing that the major determinants of fundamental learning (see Dieterich et al., 2006) and behavioral disorders (e.g. anxiety, high-risk behavior, violence, etc.) relate to family practices (August et al., 2001; Lengua, 2006; Khanna & Kendall, 2009), parental control, and methods of parent-child interaction (Kilgore, Snyder & Lentz, 2000; Kalff et al., 2001; Valiente, Lemery-Chalfant & Reiser, 2007; Orte et al., 2008; Deater-Deckard et al., 2009; Calzada, Fernandez & Cortes, 2010; Feinberg et al., 2010; Livas-Dlott, Fuller & Stein, 2010; Weil Barais & Lacroix, 2010). Moreover, some research highlights the impact of parenting practices

on academic achievement and the fact that practices vary according to the sex of the children (Potvin et al. 1996; Deslandes and Cloutier, 2005).

Pourtois notes that family realities (e.g. behaviors, attitudes, personality traits and intellectual potential of parents, status and social environment) may account for over 84% of the variance of scholastic skills (Pourtois 1979).

Regarding teaching practices, we mention some recently-studied elements: the processes that explain the regularities and variations in teaching practices and the dynamics with changing "teaching-learning" situations (Altet, 2002); the relationship to the context and constraints (Clanet, 2005; Clauzard and Veyrunes, 2007); interactional dynamics co-constructed between the teacher and students (Vinatier, 2007); the role of the semiotic and cultural function of language (Numa-Bocage et al., 2007); or teacher-student interactions and professional gestures (Altet, 1994; Bru, 1991; Clanet, 2005). This study is a continuation of the work carried out on contextualized learning (Blanchet, Moore & Rahal, 2008; Fathum-Sainton, Gaydu & Chéry, 2010; Prudent, Tupin & Wharton, 2005), as well as on classroom practices in multilingual situations (Gajo & Mondada, 2000), and the role that family educational practices can play in contexts of school bi/multilingualism (Pourtois & Desment 2004; Ogbu 1987; Ailincai, 2012).

Research methodology

In terms of method, as regards verbal corpora, with mainly linguistic, but also extra-linguistic elements that occur during learning, we favored the ethno-methodological approach and used various data collection instruments (e.g. video recordings, interviews, questionnaires etc.):

- the current educational practices (teaching and parenting) were filmed and recorded,
- the *reported* practices (teaching and parenting) were only recorded; with the two categories of public (teachers and parents); we practiced open-ended interviews.
- parents also completed a questionnaire measuring parenting skills, designed by Larose, Terrisse & Grenon (2000). The questionnaire identified parenting skills, referring more to the emotional and conative components of attitudes and less to the cognitive component (Pourtois 1978). The purpose of this questionnaire was to enable comparative analysis between daily parenting and parenting in an activity of a cognitive nature ("epistemic" educational style) (Ailincai, 2015).

In order to obtain a representative sample of educational practices, we identified contrasting islands in each archipelago: in each archipelago we selected one or two islands with a large number of pupils and one or two islands with a small number of children (see Figure 4).

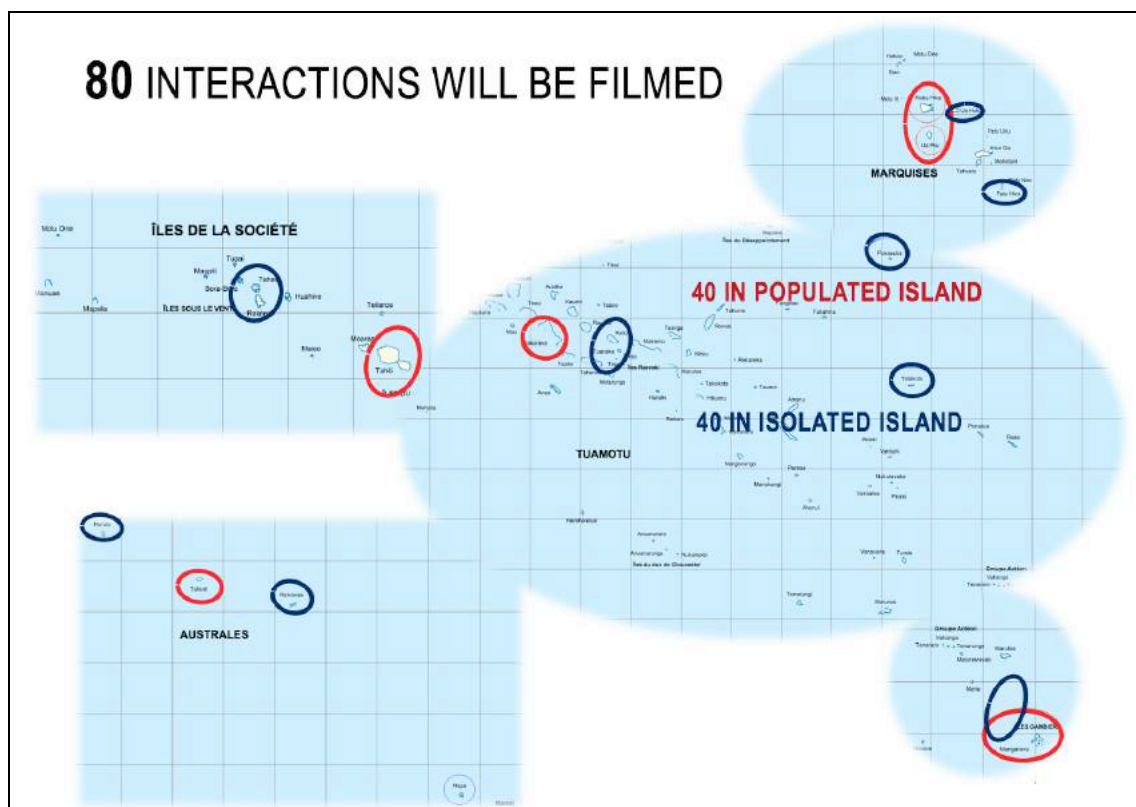


Figure 4: The map represents the French Polynesian archipelagos where the data for our research are collected.

The observations were made over two years, with several stays, on the sites selected for this study (see Figure 4). For each archipelago, the data sets were collected by at least two observers. The pairs were formed with the requirement that at least one observer spoke the local language of the observed speakers.

The observed situations were chosen in the four following subject areas:

- the Polynesian language taught at school¹,
- English as a foreign language,
- mathematics,
- activities of a scientific and technical nature.

The use of French (standard and/or local) will be analyzed across the board, in all the situations observed. The choice of these subject areas is justified by our desire to set this project in the extension of the research cited above.

The project team is multidisciplinary and consists of researchers in the abovementioned areas: teachers-researchers (six), postgraduates (two), those with PhDs and education professionals (two). The team, organized in pairs with complementary skills, collected the data between September 2014 and February 2016.

¹ The languages taught are Reo Tahiti (society), Reo Pa'umotu and its variants (Tuamotu), Marquisien 'Eo enata (South) and 'Eo enana (North), Reo Magareva (Gambier), and the Southern languages: Reo Rapa, Reo Tupua'i, Reo Rurutu, Reo Rimatara and Reo Ra'ivavae.

An audio and video-recorder were set up in each classroom observed (sometimes two video-recorders were installed, depending on the organization of the class); after having installed the equipment the researchers left the classrooms and observed the classroom actions on their laptops, which had Bluetooth connections with the video-recorders. The teacher could choose to present a session of his/her choice from among the four disciplines identified in the project. The interview with the teacher followed the filmed session.

Regarding the parents, an activity of a scientific and technical nature was proposed (the completion of an electrical circuit, followed by an evaluation sheet, where the parent could help the child). This activity was chosen in order to conduct comparative analysis with previous research carried out in French Guyana (Ailincal & et al., 2016). As for the teachers, this session was followed by an interview with the parent (see Ailincal & et al., 2016). Then, the video/audio recordings were transcribed with the help of ELAN data analysis software.

Expected results of the project

In terms of the end result, this project aims to provide a "corpus base" of educational practices (teaching and parenting) in French Polynesia. This "corpus base" consists of videos, audio recordings and transcripts. The corpus consisting of films and recordings is already finalized; transcripts of the films are currently being finalized and will be made available for the scientific community (online, on CD-ROM support, at the library).

The corpus database (i.e. video and transcripts) will be used for further scientific analysis; indeed, these data are essential for studying the impact of "adult" educational practices (teaching and parenting) on school adjustment and child development.

In today's context where the school is still struggling to use the potential resources of their students and families for learning, it is particularly interesting to invest in the family space in order to educate parents of the importance of developing bilingual skills in their children; this approach seems to be a new way, little exploited to date by research conducted in Polynesia, that could be very effective given the results of the 2011 Pisa Report: "The performance advantage of students whose parents read books to them during their early school years is evident, regardless of the socio-economic background of the family" (OECD, 2011).

In terms of scientific breakthroughs

The constitution of a corpus of current practices in the classroom and the home environment will allow researchers to carry out subsequent scientific analysis that will provide education professionals with important information relating to, for example, regulatory practices in the learning of languages (French, Tahitian and English); interactive educational styles and effectiveness in learning situations; the relationships between home and school interactive styles and their impact on the development of the child.

Regarding the corpus on parenting practices, the analysis will focus on:

- comparative research of "intra-island" interactional variability (between dyads belonging to the same socio-cultural group and inhabiting the same island),
- comparative research of "inter-island" interactional variability (between dyads sharing the same culture, living in the same archipelago, but on different islands),
- comparative research of "inter-archipelago" interactional variability (between dyads who do not share the same mother tongue and with cultural specificities).

Concerning the corpus of teachers' educational practices, the analysis will focus on:

- the interactions between students;
- the interactions between the teacher and students.

Conclusions

The purpose of this article was to present a research project, which is in the process of being finalized. The project was funded by the Ministry of Overseas Territories, the University of French Polynesia, the Directorate General for Education and Teaching of French Polynesia, Vice-Rector of French Polynesia and the University of the French Guiana.

This research forms part of an emerging axis dedicated to *Research and Innovation in French Polynesia*. The recent establishment of the new teacher education institutes (*École Supérieure du Professorat et de l'Éducation - ESPE²*) provides a new framework and platform for implementing basic and applied research on teaching and learning in the French Polynesian Context.

This project also aims to establish "*a map of educational practices*" in all of the archipelagos of French Polynesia in order to build a corpus of data which is representative of the entire territory. Furthermore, it is the first step of a larger project which will target the design of awareness-raising programs to support educational practices in child development.

Indeed, it represents an essential step as regards the study of a) the interactive dynamics of school and family milieus which constitute the main "microsystems"³ of the child's development framework; and, b) the interaction between and the impact of these educational practices on the school success of children.

This work also aims to provide information for the development of language education policies favouring the implementation of school/family partnerships which is tailored to the characteristics of the learning audience in bi/multilingual contexts. We, therefore, propose the establishment of partnerships with various institutions and professionals in education in French Polynesia, as well as, with the Council of Europe, which is a leading force in projects concerning learning approaches and pedagogies on plurilingualism.

² In the French education system *Ecoles Supérieures du Professorat et de l'Éducation (ESPE)* are public institutions that provide Master level diplomas, a necessary condition to be qualified to take the French national exam to become teachers in primary or secondary schools.

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Gerontological Educational Work in the Context of Neighbourhood Community Work – A Reliable Path towards Greater Social Equality and Empowerment

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Abstract

In addition to a supporting range of services (such as personal mentoring, various therapies, day-care and supporting case and care management), sustainable and community-orientated educational and neighbourhood work with the elderly in the city of Salzburg (Austria) includes educational work with senior citizens that is thematically open, participative, and need-orientated. This innovative neighbourhood community programme for the elderly was initiated in the city of Salzburg a little over 20 years ago, and has since been taken up and developed by various institutions, including a number of social projects, generating greater social equality. The annual reports and records of social and health institutions in Salzburg, which describe these educational programmes and accompanying didactics that strengthen the communication of the elderly, reveal an all-embracing spectrum of geragogical and gerontagogical work and empowerment. Moreover, in the light of the ageing global population and increasing urbanisation, and the related increase in numbers of dementia sufferers, these results may carry an international significance. The present report consists of a content analysis of the gerontological educational work in annual reports of facilities of the social and health system in the city of Salzburg, as well as in publications referencing these reports, newsletters and flyers between the years 1997-2015. This is followed by a comparative analysis of the websites of the institutions and similar educational programmes from the autumn of 2015. The results are presented in a summary and representative examples are discussed in terms of their global significance.

Keywords: educational work with the elderly; sustainable empowerment of the elderly through participative education; lifelong learning in old age; the future of social equality through education

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1. Introduction

In this paper I will describe the origins and development of educational schemes for the elderly within neighbourhood community programmes in the city of Salzburg, Austria. I will show that these systems of support for senior citizens and the educational programmes offered make a significant contribution to greater social justice, sustainable age and ageing, and the empowerment of elderly people. Last, but not least, I want to consider the significance of the results of my content analysis for rapidly expanding mega-cities throughout the world. In the face of world-wide urbanisation these findings could serve as a valuable source for facilitating the quality of life for a wide range of (senior) citizens in many places. – Here, the newly deductively developed „person-centred model of integrative education, health, culture and social services within the context of community-oriented district work” is presented. – For better understanding the English translation of the original German terms is given – if possible – in square brackets next to the (bibliographical) references in the following text.

2. Methods

The details I present are based on a qualitative content analysis (Mayring, 2010) of annual reports from selected institutions within the social and health sector – located in the city of Salzburg – between 1997 and autumn of 2015, additional data drawn from the websites, flyers – a comprehensive collection hereof is available to the author – and newsletters of these institutions, as well as relevant personal notes and secondary literature (cf. Bahr, 1999; Bahr & Hagleitner, 1998; Österreichisches Rotes Kreuz, 2004; Kolland, 2005; Stadt Salzburg, 2015; etc.). The here presented results are only a representative, on educational focused, topical snapshot and are part of a larger, qualitative research project, which is concerned with the development of community-oriented and district-focused work in the field of social- and health-care as well as its integrative cultural and educational work within the context of the city of Salzburg.

3. Results

In the present report the results of the content analysis are summarised. Furthermore, an exemplary selection of model projects will be given. First of all, the integrative as well as explicative educational work with elderly people in progressively designed facilities will be specified. This explanation is followed by the description of further development in this innovative work area until autumn 2015. Based on the gained results a deductively developed and internationally valid theoretical frame model of optimised, district and community-oriented educational work with and for elderly people will be formulated.

3.1. How did it all begin?

Agendas of high-quality city development and social housing have been of great importance for the city of Salzburg for the last 30 years (Gutmann, 1990; Stadt Salzburg Magistrat, 2013). – Due to this attitude of innovative urban development as well as concerns for the preservation of traditional values by the political decision-makers, attempts were made to do justice to the different population groups, their

democratic consultation and competences of direct participation. Even in the 1980s an innovative project of social housing, called “Forellenwegsiedlung” [Forellenweg Estate] was developed and erected in Liefering, a district at the northern area of the city. Development was finished in 1989, when the estate was ready for occupation. Here, the codetermination and active participation of citizens in this newly erected estate on the Forellenweg [Forelle = trout, Weg = path] was emphasised by the founding of a “Residents’ Association as Advocacy Group” (Lieferinger Post, 2009, p. 3) on the 4th July 1989. A further goal was the long-term, creative and generation-spanning interconnection, which would also be made possible and further strengthened by this group.

A further point of interest from the perspective of urban development and the policymakers were projections of the expected, pronounced increase of elderly people within the coming decades, which were already available in the 1980s. This required planning steps, even in Salzburg, and a connected, urgent requirement to meet the demands of additional infrastructure of corresponding services for elderly people, as well as for people in need of long-term care and support.

This also demanded the consideration of grass-roots democracy planning and implementation steps, whose common goal was the optimal supply structure. This structure included on one side the development of educational, social, advisory and cultural programmes for elderly people while on the other side, guaranteed social-medical services of activating, therapeutically, rehabilitative, supportive and relieving help and support.

3.2. The Social and Health Centre Gnigl – “St Anna”

In the 1980s the city of Salzburg had a very extensive system of residential geriatric care, mostly in the form of retirement homes. What was missing however was a similarly well-developed ambulant system for the provision of care, education, health and social services for elderly citizens. Thus in the late 1980s the authorities determined to establish a facility for neighbourhood community work with a geriatric focus. A well known, centrally located, unused building in the suburb of “Gnigl” was chosen. The city council of Salzburg renovated the site with view to creating a location offering day-care, physiotherapy, chiropody, therapeutic baths, social counselling, and various educational and communicational events. In 1992, under the locally recognised name of “St Anna”, the Social and Health Centre Gnigl opened its doors. This facility was principally open to all age groups, but was intended to focus primarily on the needs of the elderly and on aspects of gerontological prevention. These priorities underlay the initial development of the theoretical basis of this institution as an “Integrated Health Care and Social District”, as it was described in a handbook published by the Austrian Federal Health Institute (Österreichisches Bundesinstitut für Gesundheitswesen, 1993).

The Social and Health Centre Gnigl (Bahr, 1999; Bahr & Hagleitner, 1998), therefore, offered not only health orientated services such as physiotherapy, gymnastics for the elderly and therapeutic baths, but also possibilities of assistance and activities – such as in the context of day care. Moreover, there was counselling on health, education and social issues, which made it possible to network and helped to provide necessary services for senior citizens in terms of case management. Furthermore, regular

“follow-up care” took place, meaning that elderly people were visited in their homes by staff of the Centre. This advisory contact, in turn, was closely linked with the regular educational programmes, as during these home-visits senior citizens were invited to events in the Social and Health Centre GniGl, or were reminded of regular educational activities. In this way, the individual educational events and programmes of the Centre were easily accessible and low-threshold. Last but not least, in the Social and Health Centre GniGl there was an important clearing house which examined local and regional care-demand (Bahr, 1999, p. 72), as it revealed by analyses of the on going records of the employees’ activities, as well as the numerous issues, interests, problems and needs of the visitors. Moreover, this data fed directly into the development of the specific educational programmes for senior citizens. The elderly therefore received strengthening support in the form of lectures, at communicative events (Sozial- und Gesundheitszentrum GniGl, 2001), in culturally centred neighbourhood initiatives, or just in form of a valuable conversation. In this context I want to particularly stress the intensive and exonerative work with fostering relatives as well as the regular discussion groups in the context of biographical work. The latter were based on both practices drawn from “Oral History” (Assmann, 1999; Obertreis, 2012) and according to the concept of “Guided Autobiography Groups” (GAB) (Birren & Deutschmann, 2005), and were following specific thematic premises.

In the Social and Health Centre GniGl, locally recognised as “St Anna”, educational opportunities were not restricted to publicly advertised courses, talks, seminars, events and intergenerational meetings, but also offered implicitly through thematic initiatives in other socio-medical areas. One example is the conversation in the “Café Alzheimer” (Sozial- und Gesundheitszentrum GniGl, 2000). This was a long-term event series held in the centre’s café, which created an informal setting for those interested in learning about Alzheimer’s Disease or seeking to share their experiences of it. Participants included those caring for relatives seeking more information about dementia of the Alzheimer’s type (DAT), people experiencing sudden and repeated amnesic aphasia who feared developing dementia themselves, and others attending out of curiosity or professional interest. In a comfortable setting with good food, participants could inquire and learn about a disease that is particularly worrying for sufferers and their carers. They learned about the most common symptoms in different stages of the disease and possible distinguishing features from other forms of dementia und depression, along with further important information. In addition participants were introduced to socio-medical treatments and gained an understanding of the importance of targeted help for caring relatives, whose health must also be considered. – Here, the individual exchange of experiences between interested and affected persons and relatives played an important role. Many found comfort, understanding and encouragement for their daily lives and found strength through offers of help. They learnt something for themselves and for their relations with others.

The educational programmes in the Social and Health Centre GniGl always placed great emphasis on inspiring talks and events and included topics such as prevention, strengthening of individual well-being, humour and relief as well as empowerment and the promotion of health through information as well as giving room to encouraging conversation. Some of these educational events and in courses, in which this was implemented, had titles such as: “Relaxation and meditation”, “Tai chi –

qigong”, “Self-awareness therapy”, “Senior dance”, “Senior gymnastics”, “Functional spinal gymnastics”, „gymnastics according to the motto ‘Everything in life is movement’“, “Weight Watchers”, and classes leading to a “Qualification as a Clinical Health Psychologist”, and more. A further programme covered the preventive and elucidating initiative “Violence against the Elderly” (Bahr & Hagleitner, 1998, pp. 27-28). Additionally, the educational-based range of events included the course “Painting fabulously” and “With joy into the spring”, the seminar “In dialogue with my body, in dialogue with myself”, “Postural gymnastics” specifically for elderly people (Sozial- und Gesundheitszentrum Gnigl, 2001), the course “Feldenkrais” as well as “Encountering art” according to the motto “Insights into the museums of Salzburg” (Sozial- und Gesundheitszentrum Gnigl, 2000) and the concert series “Tones and texts in the SGZ” and “Tea-time & music”. Specifically biography-orientated series of events with elderly people further included the regularly happening discussion groups “My life with and without God” and the workshop “Seldom laughed so much! Anecdotes by and with elderly people” (Sozial- und Gesundheitszentrum Gnigl, 2000, 2001).

In summarising the results of this integrative sector of education in “St Anna”, I want to reiterate that the activities in the Social and Health Centre were generally open to all age groups. However, in the first ten years the events offered, the courses, encounter concerts and in some cases exhibitions and the social and health-related services, were orientated mainly towards the needs of elder citizens and their well-being. This was intended by the policies of the city council and therefore partly funded by subventions from the community budget. Only later did new policies lead to opening the programmes of the Centre increasingly to other age groups, which had an immediate effect on the gerontological educational programmes.

3.3. The Health and Social Network of the Red Cross and its Adult Educational Initiative called “Wicht!g” – “Important”

Gradually similar projects and centres developed in other quarters of the city. One such example is the “Health and Social Network of the Red Cross” (Österreichisches Rotes Kreuz, 2004) in the city of Salzburg, which opened a couple of years later. Like “St Anna” it offered ambulant services, case and care management and networking as well as open educational programmes for all. In addition the Networks staff took their senior-focused neighbourhood programme initiative a step further by exclusively planning together with elderly people from the region. In cooperation with a parochial educational institute called “Katholisches Bildungswerk” [Catholic Education Service] and with the help of its range of contributors in staging regular meetings, interesting topics were chosen and developed, and then the current educational programme was decided together. This initiative of participative educational programme was called “Wichtig” [“Important”] and written with an exclamation mark instead of the second letter “i” – thus “Wicht!g”. It met with great approval and was advertised in particular through word-of-mouth advertising by the participating seniors, who also distributed flyers which had been printed for every single event. In this way many elderly citizens found their way to the Health and Social Network of the Red Cross. Meeting in this low-threshold way allowed them the dissemination of further offers and information, thus enabling elderly persons to access necessary services, counselling, medical aids and resources.

The activities of the “Wicht!g” – or “Important” – initiative was evaluated by an Austrian-wide educational study and cited as a “Good-Practice-Project”. Therefore, it was described in detail within its publication about “educational chances for elderly people” (Kolland, 2005, pp. 159-165). In the publication, the fact was highlighted, that “due to the large proportion of women in the addressed target group, it is also the goal of the organisers to cover topics focusing on women. Even though religious topics are addressed, the series of events is laid out interdenominational.” (Kolland, 2005, p. 160) And with regards to sustainable aspects it was noted that: „Sustainability is given through the fact, that the project has been very successful for three years. A Part of the elderly people visits the events on a regular basis. The ability for self-tuition is strengthened by new topics being discussed and participants can think about them.” (Kolland, 2005, p. 164) (Note: both quotes have been translated from German into English.)

The educational events offered included topics such as “I quite like being old – how older people can shape the later parts of their lives” and “Activity at an older age – joy of living through activity” (4-part series). Furthermore, “With the bike to the end of the world (Finisterre) – How I experienced the pilgrim’s way to Santiago de Compostela”, “Simply homespun remedies for colds”, “Happiness is no question of age”, “Ways of silence”, “Cooking and seasoning with medical herbs”, or “Pain affects the entire person”, and so on. – All events took place between 14:30 and 16:00 and after the talk, there was the opportunity for a pleasant get-together and the personal exchange of ideas, while having coffee and cake or a beverage and a sandwich. While single events had an entry fee of 2.50 or 3.00 Euro per person as well as 4.50 Euro for couples between 2002 and 2005, this made attendance also possible for less affluent people. Furthermore, there were also driving services for persons with restricted mobility to the event and back. This service was also provided and organised by employees of the Health and Social Network, if required and after advance reservation, and only cost a contribution towards costs of 1.50 Euro per ride.

Like “St Anna” in Gnigl, the Health and Social Network of the Red Cross also served as a counselling point and platform for socio-medical services and was located in the same building as a day care centre for needy elderly citizens, which was also run by the Red Cross. – And the Health and Social Networks educational programmes (with the elderly) also took place within the context of other activities, such as a self-help group for rheumatism-patients, the self-help group for fibromyalgia-patients, or the self-help group for diabetics, and last but not least the self-help group for foster carers, who attended as regular visitors in the day care centre. Many topics find place within such an educational framework: such as knowledge about a healthy and easy to prepare diet, facts about diabetes, rheumatism or the different forms of dementia, to the importance of purposeful body movements for elderly people, information about medicines and their possible side effects, medical herbs, correct and ergonomic lifting methods, decubitus prophylaxis and many more. – For those and further events, leaflets were provided for free at the venue and were also handed out in counselling interviews and at other events.

3.4. From Diversity of Services for the Benefit of Mainly Elderly Persons to Homogeneous System Structures for Citizens from all Generations and Migrants

In this way and similarly ways, a valuable network of counselling points and different providers of socio-medical services was established over the years in different quarters of the city. And after these successful years, the city council began ground work on a new path that sought to transform the sectors of local community into a structure of so called “Bewohnerservice-Stellen” (short form: BWS), namely “Citizen’s Service Offices” (CSO), whose key activities were no longer prioritising elder citizens. Now all age groups were addressed simultaneously and the increasing needs of migrants were more closely considered.

Inter- and intra-generational opportunities thus led to greater social justice, participation and concerted empowerment of residents in their areas. A look at the topics of events offered by Citizens’ Service Offices also shows that the need for a comprehensive understanding of sustainability and sustainable development in the social and local community was also taken into account. In the re-founded “Citizen’s Service Office Gnigl & Schallmoos” – with reference to the two quarters of the city of Salzburg of the same name – educational programmes included lectures such as “Mobile telephone and computer-training for elderly citizens”, and the course “German for beginners”, “Inter-cultural meeting: focus on communication and exercise for women, whose first language is not German”, “Supporter meeting for refugees”, “Social dining – cooking and eating together in the Citizens’ Service”, “Parent-Child-Meeting for the little ones”, “Gymnastics for 50+”, “Open sky’ in the Citizens’ Service”, “Learning support for school children” and more (Diakoniewerk Salzburg, 2015).

Meanwhile the greater part of day care services for needy elderly people was transformed from the previously integrated system of social and healthcare into separately organised services and offices. Aspects of day care and fostering were rather separated from programmes for the more active elderly and the Citizen’s Service Offices, which affected educational opportunities in this concern. Socio-medical services were no longer offered or executed in an integrative manner within the institution as before, but expected to be taken on separately by other providers. Moreover, the Citizen’s Service Offices concentrated on counselling, networking and improving people’s communication flow. In addition, an official position was created by the city council to coordinate all established Citizen’s Service Offices in different quarters of the city and the different institutions. This also involved the coordination of specific events in different quarters, such as, for example, the popular “Repair Cafés” (Stadt Salzburg, 2015, pp. 18-19), where people of different age groups and (former) professions met to repair broken household items and electrical equipment rather than throwing them away. The latter can be expressly specified as sustainability put into action and innovative practical educational work, in which experiences and matured knowledge are employed in an appreciative way and given to others constructively. It made encounters possible in which people learnt from one another. – In the end, this generated a completely new structure and culture of neighbourhood cooperation in the quarters running the events, within which the educational programmes with elderly people had to be newly positioned.

3.5. Results as Chance for Structural Development in (Mega-) Cities

The experiences of the programmes presented here carry great potential. Potential, that – as was shown – is realised today in different ways in Salzburg. This could be taken up in many places, albeit in slightly adapted forms, and in terms of inter- and intra-generational issues. Furthermore, it could be used in even more educational, cultural, health, social and general contexts. It is a potential that could lead to greater social justice concerned empowerment and to a more generationally bonded and sustainable life for all. – In this context I think specifically of urgent necessary, sustainable development processes in the continuously growing mega-cities of the world, with huge slums, which require the establishment of regional and supporting infrastructures. Moreover, thought has to be given to the following aspect: How will, for example, elderly or needy people, or the dramatically increasing number of patients suffering from dementia around the world and their relatives, or the many diabetics and their socio-medically trained helpers in these mega-cities and regions in the future find access to a system of education, counsel and care that adequately supports them? And how will older and interested younger people find these path-opening educational opportunities and training programmes, opportunities that would allow each of them a fundamentally more dignified and better health? We know today that a person in central Europe will on average live a more contented life, work longer, and require care only later in life, the more educated he or she is (W. Lutz in an interview, quoted by Kretschmer, 2012).

Reflecting on the gained, qualitative research findings of the present project, a deductively developed, theoretical model will be presented here after, in which education can be seen as an implicit, explicit and intergenerational process and therefore be very useful for successful ageing. This theoretical approach is called “person-centred model of integrative education, health, culture and social services within the context of community-oriented district work” and is compatible on an international level. A theory-based and practice-oriented implementation, which can be used in the practical day-to-day work, is therefore called “integrative centre for person-centred district work with education, health, culture and social services”. – It could be given this name or be regarded as a professional, content-related description and be given its own designation.

Based on positive empirical values of the Health and Social Network this could simply be called “The International Health and Social Network” in Salzburg, with the abbreviated form IHSN. Depending on sponsoring organisation and region it would be possible to add the name: for instance IHSN of the Red Crescent Bangladesh in Dhaka North City Corporation” or “IHSN of the Indian Red Cross in Central Dehli”. Naturally, the name could vary, depending on the sponsoring organisation. – It is used as a contact point as well as hub for important concerns, questions and information, consultation and helpful networking in the context of current educational, health and support requirements as well as required case and care management, if needed. Furthermore, it serves as providing institution for varied educational events, apprenticeships and in-service trainings and concrete, social-medical services such as physiotherapy, ergo therapy, psychotherapy, social consultation and day care as well as connected activities, such as support group for caregiving relatives, diabetic patients and much more. This platform and contact point of local community-orientated opportunities and information also encompasses sectors such as visitation,

ongoing social, educational work as well as numerous possibilities of communication, theme-specific cultural and information events, exhibitions, courses and concerts. Moreover these centres are designed as humanitarian meeting points, including a “Citizen’s Café”, which offers socially affordable lunch menu for (elderly) people, besides its standard food and drinks. In addition, cafés and additional function rooms serve as meeting points for communication for people from different generations and varied social groups at district festivals and educational events.

Please find further differentiation, arguments and explications in further publications of the author, if required.

4. Conclusion

The results of the study have shown that educational programmes for elderly people, if they are embedded in community-orientation and are integrative, networked and regional, will contribute positively by strengthening the self-confidence, commitment and personal quality of life. Moreover, they make important, health-based methods of prevention accessible, enable social-medical support and care services and promote grass-roots democracy future prospects and the active participation of citizens. This also strengthens the dialogue between generations and enables diverse methods of sustainable living, sustainable development and peaceful interaction.

I want to close with the words of the Anglican Archbishop and winner of the Nobel Peace Prize, Desmond Tutu, who said: “Hope is being able to see that there is light despite all of the darkness.” (Brainy Quote, 2016) – Easily accessible training institutions, and sustainable alternatives of education within the context of local community neighbourhood programmes and the integrative social and health institutions connected to them, can unlock many further educational initiatives for young and old. Moreover they can connect people with numerous services, bring greater hope and real opportunities, more commitment, co-determination, participation and targeted empowerment – and could thus bring fairness and greater social justice – in the developing regions of this world.

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Comparing Labour Market Expectations and VET Qualification in the NecVET European Project

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Abstract

This paper presents the results of a research in the field of Vocational Education and Training (VET) undertaken in the framework of the EU project named “New approaches to strengthened cooperation facilities for VET institutions and labour market” (NecVet). The NecVET project has the aim of setting up a network between vocational education institutions and enterprises to explore the effectiveness of training programmes for VET students. Moreover, the expectations of labour market have been compared with the learning programmes provided by the vocational education institutions through a questionnaire composed by two sections. The first section collects information about the opinions of representatives of the labour market about competences and skills of employees as well as the level of communication between educational institutions and labour market. The second section collects information about skills and personal capabilities needed in specific enterprise sectors. The questionnaire has been delivered to a sample of 500 interviewed composed by 10 labour market representatives in 10 different sectors (Health, Electronics and electricity, ICT, Textile, Mechanics, Construction, Agriculture, Tourism, Business and administration, Cosmetics) and in 5 European countries (Turkey, Italy, Spain, Greece, Poland). The years of experience in the specific sector of the representatives have been also considered in the evaluation of questionnaires. The significance differences between the opinion of the entrepreneurs for countries and sectors are presented in this paper. In particular, the results highlight the needs to improve the training programmes in order to enhance the qualification and competitiveness of students in the labour market.

Keywords: VET, labour market, comparison analysis

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Introduction

Vocational Education and Training is a strategic area for the qualification and competitiveness of professionals in the labour market in a European dimension.

Strengthening the links between vocational education, training institutions and enterprises is crucial to create new training opportunities and to make students more competitive in the labour market. In this perspective, it is important to promote and stimulate the dialogue between public and private schools, institutions in the field of research and innovation, and the labour market on topics regarding the development of new models of vocational education and training in a European perspective. In addition, exploring the development of effective policies of Vocational Education and Training at both regional and European level led to identify best practices and effective models for the improvement of vocational education system and curriculum. In this direction, the NecVET project (New approaches to strengthened cooperation facilities for VET institutions and labour market), funded by European Commission in the framework of the Erasmus+ Strategic Partnership KA2 call, aims at strengthening connections between VET institutions and enterprises. The project identifies and studies: (i) the characteristics of different European educational VET systems, (ii) professionalism required by labour market and suggested by entrepreneurs, (iii) the professional skills useful in different sectors of employment, (iv) the requirements of new professional standards of the labour market.

The project results contribute to the reinforcement of the educational offer by improving the quality of professional qualification and bridging the gap between skills demanded by labour market and vocational education supply.

The NecVET project provides the implementation of research study at local level taking also into account the overview of the educational policies implemented in the partner countries. Moreover, the project contributes, in collaboration with local and regional social players, promotion of standards in VET programme, such as EQAVET (European Quality Assurance in Vocational Education and Training)¹. Additionally, one of the most important characteristic of NecVET project is the structure of the partnership that brings together local and regional actors at different levels, such as institutions, associations, vocational education centers, enterprises, schools and public research organizations. Such a partnership is relevant to be effective in reaching the project goals in relation with the expectations and needs on local communities in each participant country.

As reported by the report from OECD (OECD, 2013) there is a lack of the skills needed to be successful in innovation-driven environments amongst the adult population in Europe, with particular respect to Southern European and peripheral countries as highlighted by the (European Commission, 2012) report.

In particular, technical competencies and “soft” skills, including leadership and teamwork capabilities are the most relevant missing skills.

As reported by (Tijdens, 2012) and (Hasanefendic, 2016) the reason of this condition has to be ascribed to the gap between the educational offers and the enterprises’ needs.

¹ <http://www.eqavet.eu/>

These reasons are at the basis of the work presented in this paper. In fact, in the research studies undertaken in the NecVET project a questionnaire has been defined to investigate the differences between local labour market expectations in partner countries, in connections with the educational system. Next section presents an overview of the different VET qualification systems in NecVET partner countries. Following, a detailed discussion about the research study carried out is also presented.

VET qualification systems in NecVET partner countries

The analysis of the relationships between the labour market and the educational system - developed in the NecVET project - started with the analysis of the differences of the VET educational system in partner countries.

In order to shape the local contexts in VET education, in the NecVET project the national qualification systems in partner countries have been investigated. In fact, local VET contexts are influenced by national policies, for this reason it was interesting to highlight the different approaches that the national governments have adopted.

In Italy, the qualifications released under the regional system are recognized at national level. In 2011, it was established a National Register of qualifications for VET professional figures. This Register describes two professional figures: named professional operator and professional technician, these two macro categories are, in turn, organized into specializations (ISFOL, 2014).

In Greece, a specific national authority named “National Organisation for the Certification of Qualifications and Vocational Guidance (EOPPEP)” has been established. The main objective of this authority is the development of lifelong learning and certification of qualifications at national level in Greece. Moreover, this authority has the aim of linking VET education with labour market needs by improving people’s professional qualifications (EOPPEP, 2014).

In Poland, the VET system is organized in three levels. At national level VET is managed by Ministries, at regional level there is a “school superintendent – curator”, to implement a pedagogical supervision, and finally at district level there are upper secondary schools specialized on VET².

In Spain, particular relevance has been done to the quality of VET system, and a specific quality network has been created to support regional governments. Moreover, indicators to evaluate the quality of VET have been identified with the aim of strengthening the relationship between educational centers³.

In Turkey, theoretical and practical aspects play a key role in the organization of VET education. Schools are specifically focused on theoretical training, while the practical training is mainly implemented in enterprises. The management of VET policies is mostly demanded to the Ministry of Education, and particular relevance is done in establishing strong co-operation between enterprises and schools (Turkish MoE, 2010).

² <http://www.eqavet.eu/gns/what-we-do/implementing-the-framework/poland.aspx>

³ <http://www.eqavet.eu/gns/what-we-do/implementing-the-framework/spain.aspx>

Method

This study presents preliminary results of a questionnaire aimed to explore the entrepreneur expectations and perceptions in the partner countries of NecVET project in relation with:

- professional qualification level of employees;
- professional qualification and labour market agreements;
- vocational education supply and skills demand by labour market;
- practical and technical knowledge of graduate students;
- professional skills required in different sectors of labour market;
- skills required by different sectors of NecVET partner countries.

Each partner organization of NecVET project has identified the priorities to investigate according to the labour market and vocational education system of their countries. All research activities and proposals have been discussed within workshops and transnational project management meeting. NecVET project workshops involved local institutions and national organizations with the aim to identify the sectors to investigate in the questionnaire.

The survey has been developed with the contribution of each partner organization. Coordinator institution has developed the validation of the survey. Stakeholders have carried out tests validity and reliability. Final version of the questionnaire has been shaped in line with reliability analysis.

Participants

A sample of 500 companies (10 labour market representatives in 10 different sectors) has been selected in the 5 European partner countries (Turkey, Italy, Spain, Greece, and Poland). A face-to-face meeting has been used as a method of interview to collect data. The questionnaire collected, as a demographic data, the years of experiences of the entrepreneurs interviewed in their own sector.

The mean number of years of experiences is 14.58 years ($SE = 9.17$). The Figure 1 and Figure 2 show respectively the means for each country and sector.

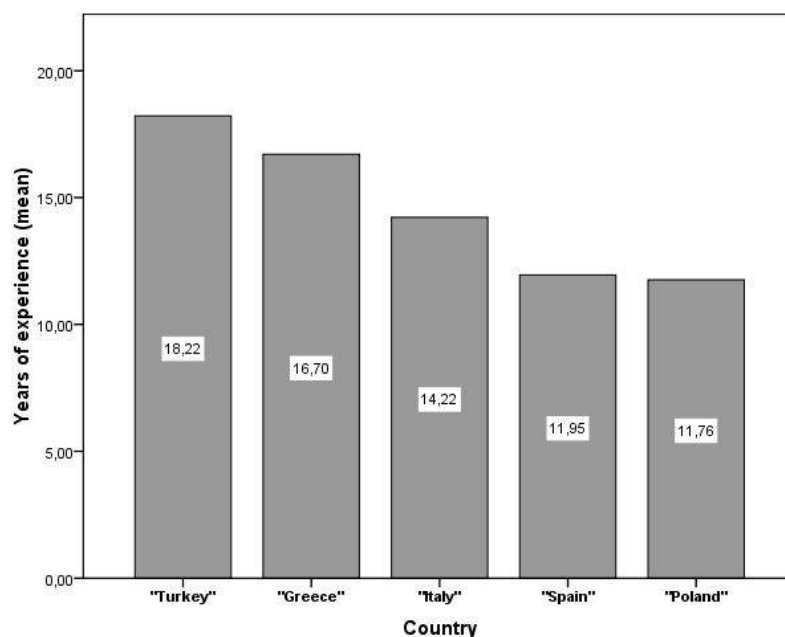


Figure 1. Years of experience for countries

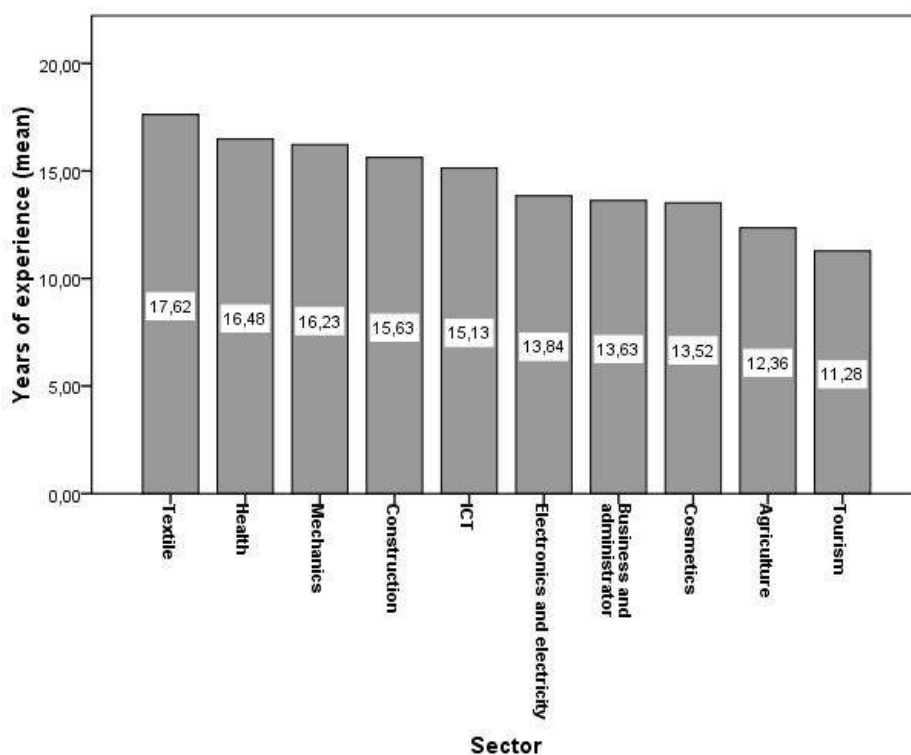


Figure 2. Years of experience for sectors

Material and procedures

The questionnaire is composed by two sections named A and B. The section A is composed by a five point Likert scale indicating to what extent respondents agree or disagree to each item. A generic response continuum is 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree. The section A reported

in annex 1 shows a set of 10 items defined for investigating the opinion of entrepreneurs about:

- The level of professional knowledge, skills of graduate students, employees and entrepreneur knowledge of topics in professional training curricula (item 1, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10);
- The level of agreement between professional needs of labour market, enterprises, training program and VET institutions (item 2, 3, 5, 8).
-

The section B is composed by a set of 12 items identified for exploring the opinion of entrepreneurs about the priority of basic skills required in an enterprise of a specific sector expressed in a scale from 1 to 5. The basic skills identified by the partnership are: communication skill, team-working, development sense of belonging to the workplace, vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility, problem solving, flexibility, self-working skills, ICT skills, vocational foreign language competencies, self-confidence, learning by oneself and self-development, entrepreneurship and management skills.

Results and discussion

A Kruskal-Wallis test (Kruskal & Wallis, 1952) was used to perform a preliminary analysis of each item and to find differences between countries in the opinions of entrepreneurs. The first set of items are focused on the following topics:

- vocational knowledge and qualification of people working in companies (item 1);
- entrepreneurs knowledge about vocational training program (item 4);
- practical skills in graduate students (item 6);
- theoretical skills in graduate students (item 7);
- work health and safety rules in trainees (item 9);
- hierarchical structure of enterprises during VET training (item 10).

The independent variable represented five different country groups of entrepreneurs wherein the study has been implemented in different regions of the countries;

- 1) Turkey – Çubuk District and Ankara Province
- 2) Italy – Palermo province
- 3) Spain – Madrid province
- 4) Greece – Trikala province
- 5) Poland – Lodz province

The dependent variables were the perceived knowledge levels expressed on a scale from 1-5 and according to the items described before. Table 1 shows the medians of five countries.

Table 1
Medians of items for countries

Country	n	Medians				
		item 1	item 4	item 6	item 7	item 9
Turkey	100	2	3	2	3	3
Italy	100	4	3	3	3	3
Spain	100	3	3	3	3	3
Greece	100	4	3	3	4	3
Poland	100	4	4	4	4	4

The responses track differences about countries in the perceived level of agreement expressed by respondents. The frequencies of each item are shown for countries in Figure 3.

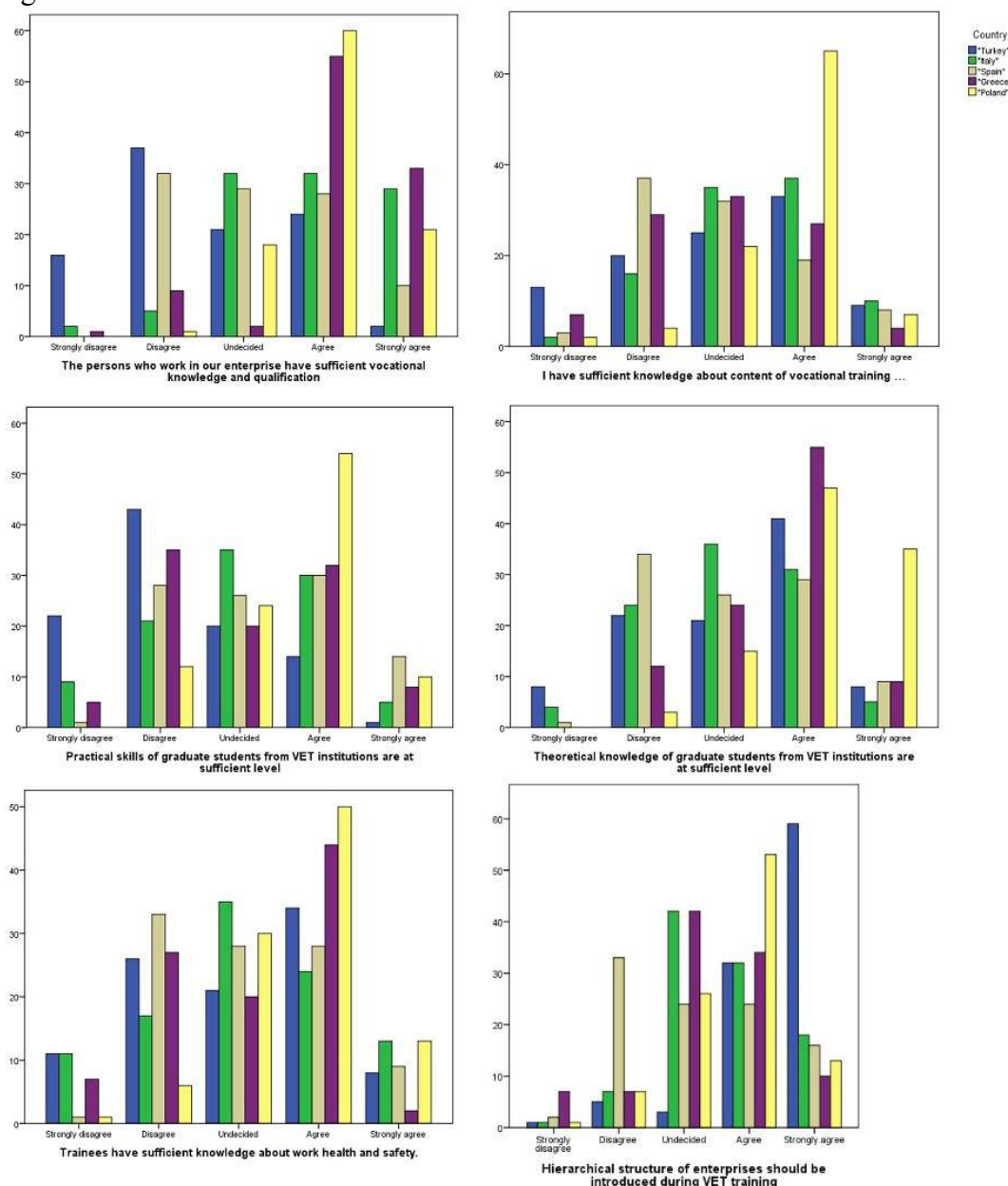


Figure 3. Frequencies of different variables

The test conducted in the item 1 highlights significant difference between countries for the opinion about vocational knowledge and qualification of people work in companies $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 131.06, p = .000$. While Italy Greece and Poland agreed with the opinion that peoples who work in the enterprise have sufficient vocational knowledge and qualification respectively (61%, 88%, 81%). Turkey are not satisfied of vocational qualifications when compared with other countries. This result emerges from Follow-up tests that indicated a significant difference between Turkey and each other country. In particular in Turkey the 53% of cases express a disagree opinion and the 21% have an undecided opinion.

A significant difference is detected between countries in the opinion of entrepreneur's knowledge about vocational training program $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 49, p = .000$.

The entrepreneurs evaluate their knowledge about vocational training program as sufficient, especially in Poland with the highest level of agreement equal to 72% respect to the others countries. Italy and Turkey follow with 47% and 42%. Spain and Greece entrepreneurs are prevalently unsatisfied with a percentage of 40% and 36% while the undecided opinions are the 32% and 33%.

The level of practical skills in the graduate students is perceived differently between countries $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 49, p = .000$

Follow-up tests indicated a non-significant difference in Italy, Spain, and Greece. They have a prevalence of disagree and undecided opinions respectively in the 65%, 55,3% and 60% of respondents. Turkey has the lower level of disagreement of each countries equal to the 65%. At the opposite side the Poland express the maximum level of agreements respect to the other countries equal to the 64%

A significant difference is found between countries in the opinion of theoretical skills in graduate students $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 78.52 p = .000$.

A positive agreement emerges in Poland with the 82% and Greece with 64% about the opinion of the sufficient level of theoretical skills in graduate students. Italy Spain and Turkey have respectively the 64%, 61% and 51% of disagreement and undecided opinions.

The opinion of interviewed about the knowledge level in work health and safety rules of trainees is significant different in the partner countries $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 25.14 p = .000$. The Poland is significantly different from each other countries with a level of agreement equal to 63%, Turkey Italy Spain and Greek show an undecided and lower percentage of agreement characteristics.

A significant difference in the partner countries was found in the need to introduce hierarchical structure of enterprises during VET training $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 93.55 p = .000$. The Turkey has the higher percentage of agreement (in particular strong agree) with the introduction of hierarchical structure of enterprises as educational content during VET training programs with the percentage of 91%. This agreement decreases respectively in Poland 66% and Italy 50% and next in Greece 44% and Spain 40%.

The second set of items explores whether the VET institutions and educational program take into consideration the needs or indications of the labour market. The items have as topic the following facts:

- improving of relationship and communication between VET institutions and enterprises (item 2);
- alignment of National Education Agencies program guidelines with the need of enterprises (item 3)
- upgrading of VET programs with the purposes to create qualified staff useful to enterprises (item 5);
- exploitation of VET professional qualification in the personnel selection processes (Item 8).

A significant difference is found between countries in all of items respectively $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 36.18 p = .000$ for item 2, $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 65.76 p = .000$ for item 3, $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 58.11 p = .000$ for item 5, and $\chi^2(4, N = 500) = 58.82 p = .000$ for item 8.

Poland agrees with the opinion that the relationship between VET institutions and enterprises are at sufficient level with a percentage of 62%. Italy has a prevalence of undecided equal to 38% respect to the undecided level expressed in other countries. Turkey, Spain and Greece have a prevalence of unsatisfied and undecided opinion respectively of 46% and 23%, 36% and 23%, 37% and 33%.

The opinions expressed by entrepreneurs highlight that the National Education Agencies programs does not follow the highlighted needs of enterprises during the updating of guidelines of curriculum. The 36% and 34% of sample have respectively disagree and undecided opinion. In particular, the Turkey has greater percentage of disagree with the 62% while the Greece has the greater level of undecided equal to 41%.

At the same time emerge an undecided and disagree characteristic in the opinion that the curriculum is in line with the purpose of well-trained staff in Turkey, Italy Greece and Spain. Only the Poland is significantly different from other countries with a 66% of agreement responses.

The Spain shows an undecided and disagree characteristics (38%, 27%) with the opinion that students who have VET diploma, have priorities in employment process of their enterprises. The Poland has the 80% of agreement follows the 74% of Greece, the 52% of Italy and the 40% of Turkey.

The second part of this analysis shows which are the preferred basic skills sought in a person who is graduated from a VET educational institution in the different business sectors. The mean value was used as index for sorting all basic skills for countries and sectors.

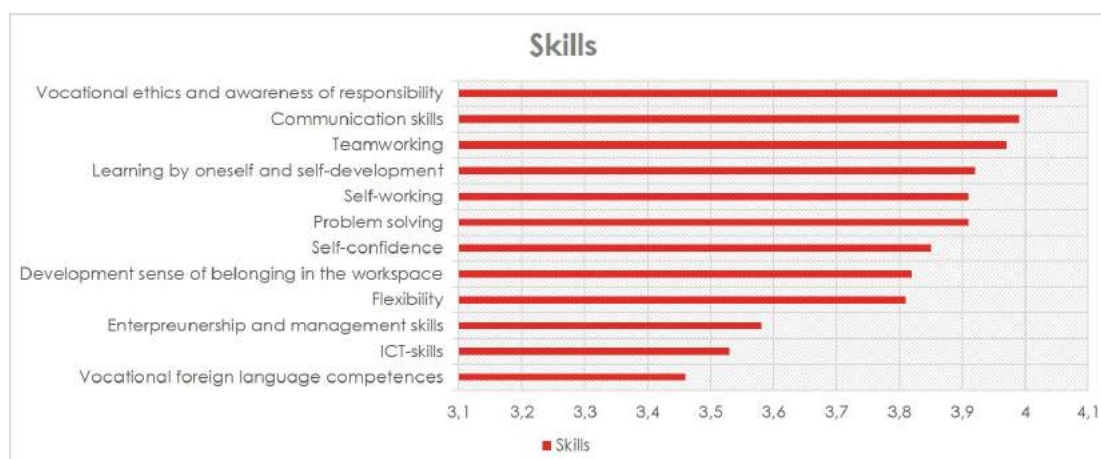


Figure 4. Basic skills sought in a VET graduate student

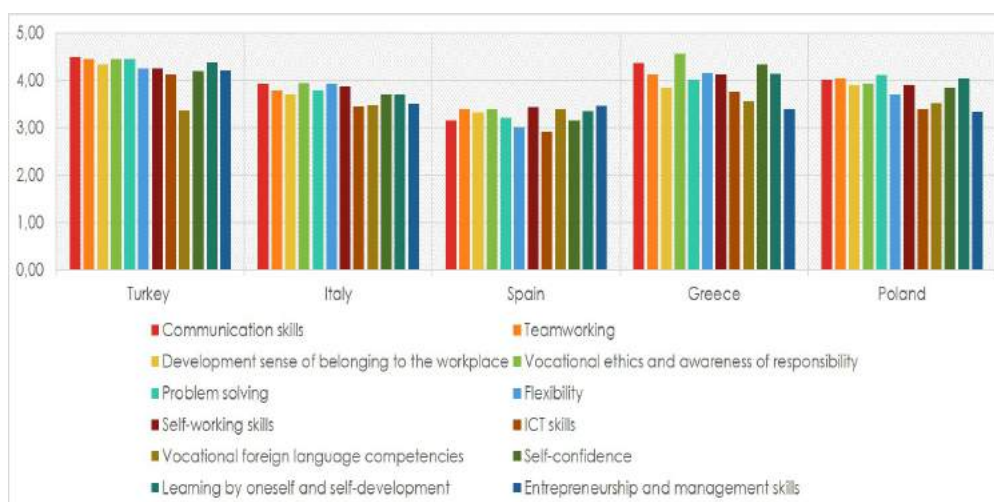


Figure 5. Basic skills sought in a VET graduate student for countries

The Basic Skill priorities in all sectors are reported as bar charts in Figure 4. The first three skills required and preferred by entrepreneurs are vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility, communication skills and team working. The basic skills organized for countries are shown in Figure 5.



Table 2 summaries the top three basic skills for each sector while the top three basic skills for each country are presented in table 3.

Table 2

The top three basic skills for each sector

<i>Sectors</i>	<i>Means</i>
Health	
Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility	4.56
Communication skills	4.02
Teamworking	4
Electronics and Electricity	
ICT-skills	3.96
Problem solving	3.94
Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility	3.86
Textile	
Problem solving	4.18
Teamworking	4.08
ICT-skills	4.04
Mechanics	
Communication skills	4
Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility	4
Teamworking	3.96
Construction	
Teamworking	4.24
Development sense of belonging in the workspace	4.06
Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility	4.06
Agriculture	
Communication skills	4.2
Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility	4.06
Teamworking	3.96
Tourism	
Teamworking	4.38
Communication skills	4.34
Learning by oneself and self-development	4.24
Business and administrator	
Teamworking	4.1
Problem solving	4.08
Communication skills	4.04
Cosmetics	
Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility	4.14
Self-working	4.02
Communication skills	4.02
ICT	
Problem solving	4.18
Team-working	4.08
ICT skills	4.04

Table 3
The top three basic skills for each sector

<i>Countries</i>	<i>Means</i>
Turkey	
Communication skills	4.49
Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility	4.45
Teamworking	4.45
Italy	
Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility	3.94
Communication skills	3.93
Flexibility	3.93
Spain	
Entrepreneurship and management skills	3.45
Self-working skills	3.42
Teamworking	3.40
Greece	
Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility	4.56
Communication skills	4.37
Self-confidence	4.34
Poland	
Problem Solving	4.12
Teamworking	4.05
Learning by oneself and self-development	4.05

Conclusion

The analysis reported in the previous section has led to the extraction of relevant insights about the differences in local contexts under investigation about the level of professional knowledge of graduate students, employees and entrepreneurs. A summary of the insights identified in our study is reported below.

Italy, Greece and Poland agree with the opinion that peoples who work in the enterprise have sufficient vocational knowledge and qualification. Turkey is not satisfied of vocational qualification when compared with other countries.

In Poland and Italy entrepreneurs declare a sufficient level of knowledge about vocational training program, while Spain and Greece entrepreneurs are unsatisfied of their knowledge.

In Poland and Turkey the comparison between theoretical knowledge and practical skills has highlighted differences at significance level. As an example in Turkey practical skills of VET students are considered not at sufficient level.

With respect to the introduction of hierarchical structure of enterprises as educational content during VET training programs, Turkish entrepreneurs expressed a positive opinion. On the contrary, this trend is in the opposite direction in the other countries. Greece and Spain revealed a strong bias towards the disagreement.

The analysis of the professional needs of the labour market, enterprises and training program has highlighted relevant differences in the countries.

For instance, in the analysis of the results of the item related to the relationship between VET institutions and enterprises emerge wide differences between countries: in Italy and Spain we detected a prevalence of undecided answers, Greece and Turkey

demonstrated an high level of unsatisfied answer while in Poland the entrepreneurs declared a positive opinion.

The study of the basic skills required by the enterprises has revealed that the vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility, communication abilities, team working, learning by oneself and self-development play a key role in all sectors of the enterprises represented by the interviewed. However, as reported in previous section significance differences emerges in the priority order of these vocational skills across the different sectors and countries.

To conclude the results highlight the needs to enhance the training programmes in order to improve the qualification and competitiveness of students in the labour market to create an effective European open space of vocational education able to dialogues with the specific needs of the labour market. Moreover, enterprises needs and training program require a major level of integration, in particular, training programs require an enhancement of topic and content in order to prepare more specialized workers.



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Annex - 1**EXPECTATION QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ENTERPRISES****Dear Representative,**

This questionnaire has been prepared for determination of expectations of enterprises from VET institutions in order to provide contribution to development process of quality of VET curriculum and programmes as a part of Erasmus + Strategic Partnership Project “New approaches to strengthened cooperation facilities for VET institutions and labour market - NecVET” which is financed by European Commission. The answers you provide will be valuable assessment for existing VET curriculum and programmes, beside of this, it will be significant contribution to the determination process of VET strategy and content. Private information about enterprises and persons definitely won't be shared in any conditions with third sides. Thanks for your contributions.

NecVET Team

Sector		Experience in the sector (years)	1-5 <input type="checkbox"/>	5-10 <input type="checkbox"/>	10-20 <input type="checkbox"/>	20-30 <input type="checkbox"/>	10-20 <input type="checkbox"/>	+30 <input type="checkbox"/>
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A- Vocational Qualifications

Clarification: 1 Strongly Disagree -2 Disagree- 3 Undecided,- 4 Agree, - 5 Strongly Agree

Please provide most available point(s) for following cases	1	2	3	4	5
1-The persons who work in our enterprise have sufficient vocational knowledge and qualification					
2-The relations between VET institutions and enterprises are at sufficient level					
3-Ministry of National Education applies opinions of enterprises while they are updating training programme and curriculums in VET					
4-I have sufficient knowledge about content of vocational training programmes					
5-The curriculums of VET institutions are convenient to serve the purpose of well-trained staff of our enterprise					
6-Practical skills of graduate students from VET institutions are at sufficient level					
7- Theoretical knowledge of graduate students from VET institutions are at sufficient level					
8-Students who have VET diploma, have priorities in employment process in our enterprise.					
9-Trainees have sufficient knowledge about work health and safety.					
10-Hierarchical structure of enterprises should be introduced during VET training					

B- Basic Skills

Which of following skills have priority in your enterprise while you employ a person who is graduated from a VET institution?	1	2	3	4	5
1-Communication skills					
2-Teamworking					
3-Development sense of belonging to the workplace					
4-Vocational ethics and awareness of responsibility					
5-Problem solving					
6-Flexibility					
7-Self-working skills					
8- ICT skills					
9-Vocational foreign language competencies					
10-Self-confidence					
11-Learning by oneself and self-development					
12-Entrepreneurship and management skills					


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