



EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT CONFERENCE 2015

5-7 MARCH 2015

BANGKOK

THAILAND

CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

Tomorrow People Organization

Dušana Vukasovića 73, Belgrade, Serbia

<http://www.tomorrowpeople.org>

Proceedings of international conference:
"EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT CONFERENCE 2015"

Editors: Tomorrow People Organization
Dušana Vukasovića 73
11070 Belgrade, Serbia

Secretary: Vladimir Ilić

Lecturer: Prof. Dr. Stamatović Milan

Producer: Tomorrow People Organization

Publisher: Tomorrow People Organization

Quantity: 200 copies

Table of Contents:

| | | | |
|--|---------------------------|--|-----|
| Attitudinal Barriers to Inclusive Education in India | Dr. Yash Pal Singh | M. J.P. Rohilkhand University, India | 6 |
| | Dr. Anju Agarwal | | |
| Certification to improve good practices in charities management: A proposal | Michel Plaisent | University of Quebec in Montreal, Canada | 17 |
| | Prosper Bernard | | |
| | Yupaporn Priyasilpa | Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Thailand | |
| | Younes Benslimane | York University, Toronto Canada | |
| Collaborative learning in designing and developing Hydrogen reinforced gas for household and industry work | Niranjan S. Karagi | Angadi Institute of technology & Management , India | 33 |
| Diffusion of Innovations: A Case Study of Thai Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Tablets | Orana Meenongwha | Mahidol University, Thailand | 39 |
| | Wiwat Puntai | | |
| | Kornsiri Boonyaparakob | | |
| Educating the Educators: An evaluation of the preparedness of elementary school teachers in Los Baños, Laguna, Philippines for journalism instruction and internet-mediated learning | Pauline Gidget Estella | University of the Philippines-Los Baños, Philippines | 47 |
| Entrepreneurship Education for Collegiate Students of Korea in Creative Economy Era | Sungeun Cho | Sookmyung Women's University, Republic Of Korea | 65 |
| | Sinjeong Lee | | |
| | Go Eun Choi | | |
| | Youngmin Lee | | |
| Evaluating the Current State of Employment Service Programs for Elderly Employees, Using the CIPP Evaluation Model | Jung-yeon Lim | Payap University, Thailand | 75 |
| | Youngmin Lee | | |
| Evaluating the Effects of the Integration of Literary Movies on Reading Motivation and Comprehension for Second Language Learners | Joan Marie Uyvari-Huang | Sookmyung Women's University, Republic Of Korea | 89 |
| Exploring Inclusive Education at a Qatari College: Aligning with Qatar National Vision 2030 | Dana AlHamad | Community College of Qatar, Qatar | 98 |
| | Maryam AlSuwaidi | | |
| | Yvonne Eaton | | |
| Exploring perceived effects of Thai secondary educational culture on social innovation | DeQawn Mobley | Webster University Thailand | 111 |
| | Dr Judith McIntyre | | |
| Future Directions in Interior Design Education | Dr. Abdul Samad Alkhalidi | University of Sharjah, UAE | 136 |

| | | | |
|---|-----------------------------|--|-----|
| Gender and Modern Foreign Language learning | Danagul Yembergenova | University of Geneva, Switzerland | 149 |
| | Nurzhanova Assiya | Saken Seyfullin Kazakh Agro Technical University, Kazakhstan | |
| Genre Analysis of Discussion Sections in Published Research Articles | Suchittra Tesana | Chai Nat Technical College, Thailand | 160 |
| | Jiraporn Intrasai | King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, Thailand | |
| Impact on Teaching and Learning Subsequent to the Introduction of Lesson Study Approach to Calculus Classes at a Secondary School in the Maldives | Mariyam Shahuneeza Naseer | Villa College, Maldives | 172 |
| Integrating values in higher and technical education | Dr. Mrs. Kiran Saxena | N.I.T.T.T.R. Bhopal, India | 183 |
| Legislative Policies and Reconciliation Committees: Contested Spaces for Aboriginal Peoples in Canada | Lorenzo Cherubini | Brock University, Canada | 190 |
| Material design on english for conversation at Samutsakhon Technical College | Phattarin Munchoei | Samutsakhon Technical College, Thailand | 194 |
| | Jiraporn Intrasai | King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, Thailand | |
| Seeking of the Educational Present Condition and Empowerment Measures of Workers in Korea Co-operatives | Miran Bong | Sookmyung Women's University, Republic Of Korea | 205 |
| | Jihyun Shim | | |
| | Youngmin Lee | | |
| Study on Solution of Manpower Supply and Demand Mismatch Problem in Youth Labor Market, and on Revitalizing Measures of Internship Program to Expand Youth Work erience | Hyewon Kim | Sookmyung Women's University, Republic Of Korea | 215 |
| | Sungeun Cho | | |
| | Youngmin Lee | | |
| | Jihyun Shim | | |
| The Effects of the Media Instruction Program (MIP) Modules on the Information Literacy Skills of the Ateneo de Manila Grade School Grade Five Students | Maria Victoria E. Dela Cruz | Ateneo de Manila Grade School, Philippines | 223 |
| Total Quality Management among Elementary School Administrators: A Structural Model on School Performance | Dr. Irene Culaste - Quimbo | Central Mindanao University, Philippines | 225 |

Index of authors:

| | |
|------------------------------|-----|
| Agarwal, Dr. Anju | 6 |
| AlHamad, Dana | 98 |
| Alkhalidi, Dr. Abdul Samad | 136 |
| AlSuwaidi, Maryam | 98 |
| Assiya, Nurzhanova | 149 |
| Benslimane, Younes | 17 |
| Bernard, Prosper | 17 |
| Bong, Miran | 205 |
| Boonyaprakob, Kornsi | 39 |
| Cherubini, Lorenzo | 190 |
| Cho, Sungeun | 215 |
| Choi, Goeun | 65 |
| Culaste - Quimbo, Dr. Irene | 225 |
| Dela Cruz, Maria Victoria E. | 223 |
| Eaton, Yvonne | 98 |
| Estella, Pauline Gidget | 47 |
| Intrasai, Jiraporn | 160 |
| Intrasai, Jiraporn | 194 |
| Karagi, Niranjana S. | 33 |
| Kim, Hyewon | 215 |
| Lee, Sinjeong | 65 |
| Lee, Youngmin | 65 |
| Lee, Youngmin | 75 |
| Lee, Youngmin | 205 |
| Lee, Youngmin | 215 |
| Lim, Jung-yeon | 75 |
| McIntyre, Dr Judith | 111 |
| Meenongwha, Orana | 39 |
| Mobley, DeQawn | 111 |
| Munchoei, Phattarin | 194 |
| Naseer, Mariyam Shahuneeza | 172 |
| Plaisent, Michel | 17 |
| Priyasilpa, Yupaporn | 17 |
| Puntai, Wiwat | 39 |
| Saksena, Dr. Mrs. Kiran | 183 |
| Shim, Jihyun | 205 |
| Shim, Jihyun | 215 |
| Singh, Dr. Yash Pal | 6 |
| Sungeun | 65 |
| Tesana, Suchitra | 160 |
| Uyvari-Huang, Joan Marie | 89 |
| Yembergenova, Danagul | 149 |

Attitudinal Barriers to Inclusive Education in India

Dr. Yash Pal Singh*

Associate Professor in Education, M. J. P. Rohilkhand University
Bareilly (U. P.) – 243006 INDIA

Dr. Anju Agarwal*

Associate Professor in Special Education, M. J. P. Rohilkhand University
Bareilly (U. P.) – 243006 INDIA

Abstract: *UNICEF's Report on the Status of Disability in India 2000 states that there are around 30 million children in India suffering from some form of disability. The Sixth All-India Educational Survey (NCERT, 1998) reports that out of India's 200 million school-aged children (6–14 years), 20 million require special needs education. While the national average for gross enrolment in school is over 90 per cent, less than five per cent of children with disabilities are in schools. According to the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010: reaching the marginalized, children with disabilities remain one of the main groups being widely excluded from quality education. Disability is recognized as one of the least visible yet most potent factors in educational marginalization. The United Nation's Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), which was entered into force in 2008, was ratified by India in October, 2008.*

It can be safely assumed that achieving the Education for All (EFA) targets and Millennium Development Goals will be impossible without improving access to and quality of education for children with disabilities. It is a binding on Indian government as well, being a signatory to UNCRPD. Inclusive Education for Disabled at Secondary Stage (IEDSS) was approved in India in September, 2008 to replace IEDC Scheme from 2009-10. The Scheme is 100% centrally funded. According to Barton (1997), "Inclusive education is not merely about providing access into mainstream school for pupils who have previously been excluded. It is not about closing down an unacceptable system of segregated provision and dumping those pupils in an unchanged mainstream system. Existing school systems in terms of physical factors, curriculum aspects, teaching expectations and styles, leadership roles will have to change. This is because inclusive education is about the participation of ALL children and young people and the removal of all forms of exclusionary practice". Achieving this goal in India requires serious planning and efforts.

In addition to many other requirements, implementation of inclusive education immensely requires positive attitudes towards inclusion and disability among teachers, administrators and policy planners. However, negative attitudes are still persisting among these in many cases. This is adversely affecting inclusive education scenario in India. Keeping it in view, the present paper tries to delve deeper into the issue by exploring possibilities and challenges ahead in fostering positive attitudes towards inclusive education in India.

Introduction

In the times of education for all, we need to consider those who are somehow missing out. Among these, children with special needs occupy an important category. These children with disabilities are often left out of schools due to negative attitudes and non-inclusive set-ups.

Providing an opportunity to children with special needs is thus essential for every society /country in order to provide opportunities to each and everyone for developing and growing to full potential and realizing the objectives of education for all.

UNICEF's Report on the Status of Disability in India 2000 states that there are around 30 million children in India suffering from some form of disability. The Sixth All-India Educational Survey (NCERT, 1998) reports that out of India's 200 million school-aged children (6–14 years), 20 million require special needs education. While the national average for gross enrolment in school is over 90 per cent, less than five per cent of children with disabilities are in schools. According to the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2010: reaching the marginalized, children with disabilities remain one of the main groups being widely excluded from quality education. Disability is recognized as one of the least visible yet most potent factors in educational marginalization. The United Nation's Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UNCRPD), which was entered into force in 2008, was ratified by India in October, 2008.

It can be safely assumed that achieving the Education for All (EFA) targets and Millennium Development Goals will be impossible without improving access to and quality of education for children with disabilities. It is a binding on Indian government as well, being a signatory to UNCRPD. Inclusive Education for Disabled at Secondary Stage (IEDSS) was approved in India in September, 2008 to replace IEDC Scheme from 2009-10. The Scheme is 100% centrally funded. According to Barton (1997), "Inclusive education is not merely about providing access into mainstream school for pupils who have previously been excluded. It is not about closing down an unacceptable system of segregated provision and dumping those pupils in an unchanged mainstream system. Existing school systems in terms of physical factors, curriculum aspects, teaching expectations and styles, leadership roles will have to change. This is because inclusive education is about the participation of ALL children and young people and the removal of all forms of exclusionary practice". Achieving this goal in India requires serious planning and efforts.

Meaning of Inclusive Education

Inclusive education is based on the principle that schools should provide for all children regardless of any perceived difference, disability or other social, cultural and linguistic difference. The diverse needs of these learners and the quest to make schools more learning-friendly requires regular and special education teachers to consult and collaborate with one another as well as with family and community in order to develop effective strategies, teaching and learning (Jelas, 2010) within inclusive setups. With the right training, strategies and support nearly all children with SEN and disabilities can be included successfully in mainstream education.

The '*Index for Inclusion*' (Booth and Ainscow, 2011, 3rd edition) summarizes some of the ideas which make up the view of inclusion within the Index as follows (CSIE, 2014):

Inclusion in education involves:

- Putting inclusive values into action.
- Viewing every life and every death as of equal worth.
- Supporting everyone to feel that they belong.
- Increasing participation for children and adults in learning and teaching activities, relationships and communities of local schools.
- Reducing exclusion, discrimination, barriers to learning and participation.

- Restructuring cultures, policies and practices to respond to diversity in ways that value everyone equally.
- Linking education to local and global realities.
- Learning from the reduction of barriers for some children to benefit children more widely.
- Viewing differences between children and between adults as resources for learning.
- Acknowledging the right of children to an education of high quality in their locality.
- Improving schools for staff and parents/carers as well as children.
- Emphasising the development of school communities and values, as well as achievements.
- Fostering mutually sustaining relationships between schools and surrounding communities.
- Recognising that inclusion in education is one aspect of inclusion in society.

Segregating children into ‘special needs’ and ‘mainstream’ schools prevent equal access to social and curricular opportunities and labels children (United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 2007; UNESCO, 1994). Parents of children with disabilities are usually more in favour of inclusive education and have a deeper understanding and wider knowledge of terminology and specific legislation. However, many of the parents of children without disabilities are often reluctant to have children with disabilities in the same class as their own child.

At the Jometin World Conference (1990) in Thailand, the goals for 'Education for All' were set and it was proclaimed that every person - child, youth and adult shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities which would meet their basic learning needs. Ever since that conference, UNESCO, along with other UN agencies, a number of international and national non-governmental organizations have been working towards these goals. The inclusion of pupils with barriers to learning and development in ordinary schools and classrooms is part of a global human rights movement. In 1994, at the UNESCO World Conference on Special Needs Education held in Salamanca, Spain, the idea of inclusive education was given further impetus. The conference considered the future international direction of Special Needs to ensure the rights of children to receive a basic education.

The marginalization and exclusion of learners from an educational system was addressed at the Dakar World Education Forum in April 2000 and it was so aptly captured in the statement: "The key challenge is to ensure that a broad vision of Education for All as an inclusive concept is reflected in national government and funding agency policies. Education for All... must take account of the need of the poor and the most disadvantaged...young people and adults affected by conflict, HIV/AIDS, hunger and poor health, and those with special learning needs..."

The United Nations Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities (UNCRPD, 2007) is a new international agreement about protecting and promoting the human rights of disabled people throughout the world. The Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities is an international human rights treaty of the United Nations intended to protect the rights and dignity of persons with disabilities. Parties to the Convention are required to promote, protect, and ensure the full enjoyment of human rights by persons with disabilities and ensure that they enjoy full equality under the law. The Convention aims to serve as the major catalyst in the global movement from viewing persons with disabilities as objects of charity, medical treatment and social protection towards viewing them as full and equal members of

society, with human rights. UNCRPD makes it a binding that countries ratifying it will ensure an inclusive education system at all levels and lifelong learning.

Inclusive Education in India

In India, National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) joined hands with UNICEF and launched Project Integrated Education for Disabled Children (PIED) in the year 1987, to strengthen the integration of learners with disabilities into regular schools. In 1997, IEDC was amalgamated with other major basic education projects like the DPEP (Chadha, 2002) and the *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (SSA) (Department of Elementary Education, 2000). The Persons with Disability Act, 1995 has a provision of providing education to children with special needs in the most appropriate environment. The SSA launched by the Govt. of India, in 2001, underlines the prerogative of a child with disability to be included in the mainstream of education.

MHRD (2006) in its *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan* (SSA) framework clearly states that “SSA will ensure that every child with special needs, irrespective of the kind, category and degree of disability, is provided education in an appropriate environment. SSA will adopt **zero rejection policy** so that no child is left out of the education system. It will also support a wide range of approaches, options and strategies for education of children with special needs”

The Rehabilitation Council of India (RCI) is mainly responsible for education and rehabilitation of CWSN. The Rehabilitation Council of India (RCI) was set up as a registered society in 1986. On September, 1992 the RCI Act was enacted by Parliament and it became a Statutory Body on 22 June 1993. The Act was amended by Parliament in 2000 to make it more broad based. The mandate given to RCI is to regulate and monitor services given to persons with disability, to standardise syllabi and to maintain a Central Rehabilitation Register of all qualified professionals and personnel working in the field of Rehabilitation and Special Education. The Act also prescribes punitive action against unqualified persons delivering services to persons with disability.

Article 24 of the Convention (UNCRPD, 2007) on education states that:

1. States Parties recognize the right of persons with disabilities to education. With a view to realizing this right without discrimination and on the basis of equal opportunity, States Parties shall ensure an inclusive education system at all levels and lifelong learning directed to:
 - a) The full development of human potential and sense of dignity and self-worth, and the strengthening of respect for human rights, fundamental freedoms and human diversity;
 - b) The development by persons with disabilities of their personality, talents and creativity, as well as their mental and physical abilities, to their fullest potential;
 - c) Enabling persons with disabilities to participate effectively in a free society.
2. In realizing this right, States Parties shall ensure that:
 - a) Persons with disabilities are not excluded from the general education system on the basis of disability, and that children with disabilities are not excluded from free and compulsory primary education, or from secondary education, on the basis of disability;

- b) Persons with disabilities can access an inclusive, quality and free primary education and secondary education on an equal basis with others in the communities in which they live;
 - c) Reasonable accommodation of the individual's requirements is provided;
 - d) Persons with disabilities receive the support required, within the general education system, to facilitate their effective education;
 - e) Effective individualized support measures are provided in environments that maximize academic and social development, consistent with the goal of full inclusion.
3. States Parties shall enable persons with disabilities to learn life and social development skills to facilitate their full and equal participation in education and as members of the community. To this end, States Parties shall take appropriate measures, including:
 - a) Facilitating the learning of Braille, alternative script, augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication and orientation and mobility skills, and facilitating peer support and mentoring;
 - b) Facilitating the learning of sign language and the promotion of the linguistic identity of the deaf community;
 - c) Ensuring that the education of persons, and in particular children, who are blind, deaf or deaf-blind, is delivered in the most appropriate languages and modes and means of communication for the individual, and in environments which maximize academic and social development.
 4. In order to help ensure the realization of this right, States Parties shall take appropriate measures to employ teachers, including teachers with disabilities, who are qualified in sign language and/or Braille, and to train professionals and staff who work at all levels of education. Such training shall incorporate disability awareness and the use of appropriate augmentative and alternative modes, means and formats of communication, educational techniques and materials to support persons with disabilities.
 5. States Parties shall ensure that persons with disabilities are able to access general tertiary education, vocational training, adult education and lifelong learning without discrimination and on an equal basis with others. To this end, States Parties shall ensure that reasonable accommodation is provided to persons with disabilities.

These provisions, being mandatory and a binding are a real challenge for the Government of India which has signed and ratified UNCRPD as early as in 2008. As far as clause 1a, b, and c are concerned, we know that many children with special needs are yet to be accommodated to our system of education. Most of such children are out of schools. Clause 2 desires full inclusion in Indian education which is not going to be easy considering the challenges to be faced. The Article not only desires full inclusion at the primary level but it desires accommodations at secondary and tertiary levels as well. The reality warns us to make immediate efforts in these areas.

Barriers to Inclusive Education

Inclusive education is a binding and priority for government of India. However, a wide gap in policy and practice exists in the country with respect to inclusive education. There are a number of barriers that hinder proper practice of inclusive education in our country. Based on the literature and personal experiences, the authors believe these barriers to include the following:

1. The inefficiency of teachers to develop and use instructional materials for inclusion students (Coskun, Tosun, & Macaroglu, 2009)
2. Attitudes towards inclusion and disability among teachers, administrators and policy planners
3. Attitudes of parents of children without disabilities
4. Lack of awareness about children with disabilities among general teachers (Unianu, 2012)
5. Improper curriculum adaptation
6. School environment
7. School management
8. Support services
9. Family collaboration
10. Insufficient and improper pre-service teacher education
11. Negative self-perceptions of children with disabilities
12. Negative attitudes of normal peers
13. ICT availability and related competencies
14. Improper policy planning and lack-luster implementation
15. Difficulties in physical access
16. Expenses involved

The barriers mentioned here do not form an exhaustive list but authors believe that not much are left out. In addition to above, skills of teachers which are responsible for implementing inclusive education are also not up to as desired and necessary for inclusion. Das, Kuyini and Desai (2013) examined the current skill levels of regular primary and secondary school teachers in Delhi, India in order to teach students with disabilities in inclusive education settings. They reported that nearly 70% of the regular school teachers had neither received training in special education nor had any experience teaching students with disabilities. Further, 87% of the teachers did not have access to support services in their classrooms. Finally, although both primary and secondary school teachers rated themselves as having limited or low competence for working with students with disabilities, there was no statistically significant difference between their perceived skill levels.

Attitudinal Barriers to Inclusive Education

In addition to many other requirements, implementation of inclusive education immensely requires positive attitudes towards inclusion and disability among teachers, parents, peers, administrators and policy planners. However, negative attitudes are still persisting among these in many cases. This is adversely affecting inclusive education scenario in India.

Mainstream teacher attitudes may be a contributory barrier to successful inclusive practices (Avramadis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000; Bender, Vail, & Scott, 1995; De Boer, Pijl, & Minnaert, 2010). Teachers tend to be broadly positive about the principle of inclusion while at the same time viewing its practical implementation as problematic (e.g., Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). However it has been argued that neutral, even negative, attitudes toward inclusion may better characterize teacher viewpoints (De Boer et al., 2010; Soodak, Podell & Lehman, 1998). Indeed teachers in mainstream schools were less positive about the potential of children with learning disabilities than special school teachers. The inclusion of children with social, emotional and behavioural difficulties has consistently been reported as a particularly problematic for teachers, and is accompanied by negative teaching attitudes (Cook, 2001; Cook, Cameron & Tankersley, 2007; Hastings & Oakford,

2003; Shapiro, Miller, Sawka, Gardill, & Handler, 1999). These are children whose learning in the classroom is compromised by complex and long-term difficulties in managing their behavior, emotions and relationships (Simpson, Bloom, Cohen, Blumberg, & Bourdon, 2005). Unlike other groups of students with special needs, they are still as likely to be placed in specialist provision now as 30 years ago (Cooper, 2004). This group is mainly male, with a majority from low socio-economic status backgrounds, and with lower educational attainment than their peers (Farrell & Tsakalidou, 1999; Simpson *et al.*, 2005).

Teachers with negative attitudes believe that inclusion is a burden on teachers and they should receive special service delivery in special education settings to avoid the negative impact on their typically developing peers in the regular classroom (Zambelli & Bonni, 2004). A number of studies found that general education teachers are not supportive of inclusion. Hammond and Ingalls (2003), for example, concluded that most of the teachers did not support inclusion, albeit their schools had inclusive programs. Burke and Sutherland (2004) found similar results where in-service teachers' attitudes toward inclusion were negative. Other studies found that general education teachers are less supportive of inclusion (Armstrong, Armstrong, Lynch, & Severin, 2005; De Boer, Pijl, & Minnaert, 2010; De Boer, Pijl, & Minnaert, 2011). Rakap and Kaczmarek (2010) investigated Turkish general education teachers working in public elementary schools regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities in their classrooms and their readiness to include students with severe learning disabilities. The results indicated that the teachers had negative attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular education classrooms.

School principals too have a central role in promoting an inclusive ethos within their schools. This implied that school principals have a crucial role within their school to communicate their expectations regarding inclusive practices clearly to their teaching staff (MacFarlane & Woolfson, 2013). Although no research could be located in Indian settings by the authors, but they believe that negative attitudes are quite prevalent among teachers, parents, peers, administrators and policy planners towards disability as well as inclusive education.

Conclusion and Suggestions

Teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education could be formed and developed in the context of an educational system which can provide some specific conditions in order to have a good practice in this field. Those conditions refer to a restructure of the curricula, more help from support teachers, more time for preparing the educational activities, decreasing the number of students in one class, creating and developing opportunities for interactive partnerships between teachers, students, support teachers and parents and so on. The reform of the curriculum should be made in parallel with a proper training for teachers regarding their knowledge of inclusion and its principles. The difficulties are inherent to any change or reform, but it is necessary to develop an educational system which can properly respond to all the needs, characteristics and individual differences of all children in school (Unianu, 2012).

The separate teacher education programs for regular and special education do not equip teachers with an integrated knowledge of the expected roles, functions and responsibilities to meet the diversity of learning needs in the classroom. A need is being felt for a new paradigm for the preparation of teachers. There exists the need for teacher educators of regular and special education at all levels of teacher education to develop a "whole faculty approach" in facilitating an inclusive pre-service teacher education curriculum embedded across all discipline areas (Jelas, 2010).

Within a tradition of a dual regular and special education system in India, the Government is promoting educational reforms that encourage an inclusive approach to education. A move towards an inclusive approach to education in India is being promoted through collaboration and support between teachers trained in regular and special education. Thus, different perceptions of pre-service teachers preparing to work either in elementary schools or in special schools are a particular concern for people devoted to inclusive education. A need is being felt for better teacher preparation due to the very low understandings of inclusive education and pre-service teachers' perceived lack of skills, knowledge, experience, and/or training for an inclusive approach.

Investigating the determinants of teachers' attitudes and behaviour and their relative importance is crucial for improving teaching practices, initial teacher education and professional development opportunities for effective inclusion of children with special needs (MacFarlane & Woolfson, 2013).

Summing up, authors feel and believe that many initiatives have been introduced at all levels to implement inclusive education in India but the road ahead is still quite long.

References

- Armstrong, A., Armstrong, D., Lynch, C. and Severin, S. (2005). Special and inclusive education in the Eastern Caribbean: policy, practice and provision. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 9(1), 71–87.
- Avramadis, E., Bayliss, P., & Burden, R. (2000). Student teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special educational needs in the ordinary school. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16(2), 277-293.
- Avramidis, E., & Norwich, B. (2002). Teachers' attitudes towards integration/inclusion: a review of the literature. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 17(2), 129-147.
- Bender, W., Vail, C., & Scott, K. (1995). Teachers' attitudes towards increased mainstreaming: implementing effective instruction for students with learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 28(2), 87-94.
- Burke, K., & Sutherland, C. (2004). Attitudes toward inclusion: Knowledge vs. Experience. *Education*, 125(2), 163-172.
- Chadha, A. (2002). "Inclusive Education in DPEP". *Journal of Indian Education*. Special issue on Education of Learners with Special Needs.
- Cook, B. G. (2001). A comparison of teachers' attitudes toward their included students with mild and severe disabilities. *Journal of Special Education*, 34(4), 203-213.
- Cook, B. G., Cameron, D. L., & Tankersley, M. (2007). Inclusive teachers' attitudinal ratings of their students with disabilities. *Journal of Special Education*, 40(4), 230-238.
- Cooper, P. (2004). Is 'inclusion' just a buzz word? *Emotional and Behavioral Difficulties*, 9(4), 219-222.
- Coskun, Y. D., Tosun, U. & Macaroglu, E. (2009). Classroom teachers styles of using and development materials of inclusive education. World Conference on Educational Sciences 2009. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 1, 2758–2762. Available online at www.sciencedirect.com
- CSIE (2014). Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education: supporting inclusion, challenging exclusion. <http://www.csie.org.uk/inclusion/what.shtml>. Retrieved on Nov. 19, 2014.
- Das, A. K., Kuyini A. B., & Desai I. P. (2013). Inclusive education in india: are the teachers prepared? *International Journal of Special Education*, 28(1). <http://www.internationaljournalofspecialeducation.com/articles.cfm?y=2013&v=28&n=1>
- De Boer, A., Pijl, S. J., & Minnaert, A. (2010). Regular primary schoolteachers' attitudes towards inclusive education: a review of the literature. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 1(1), 1-24.
- De Boer, A.A., Pijl, S.J. & Minnaert, A.E. (2010). Attitudes of parents towards inclusive education: A review of the literature, *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 25(2), 165-181.
- De Boer, A.A., Pijl, S.J. & Minnaert, A.E.M.G. (2011). Regular primary school teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education: A review of the literature. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 15(3), 331-353.
- Department of Education (2000). *Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: A Programme for Universal Elementary Education*. New Delhi: MHRD, GOI.
- Farrell, P., & Tsakalidou, K. (1999). Recent trends in the re-integration of pupils with emotional and behavioral difficulties in the United Kingdom. *School Psychology International*, 20(4), 323-337.

- Hammond, H., & Ingalls, L. (2003). Teachers Attitudes toward Inclusion : Survey Results from Elementary School Teachers in Three South-western Rural School Districts. *Rural Special Education Quarterly*, 22(2), 24-30.
- Hastings, R. P., & Oakford, S. (2003). Student teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of children with special needs. *Educational Psychology*, 23(1), 87-94.
- Jelas, Z. M. (2010). Learner Diversity and Inclusive Education: A New Paradigm for Teacher Education in Malaysia. International Conference on Learner Diversity 2010. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 7(C), 201–204. Available online at www.sciencedirect.com
- MacFarlane, K. & Woolfson, L. M. (2013). Teacher attitudes and behavior toward the inclusion of children with social, emotional and behavioral difficulties in mainstream schools: An application of the theory of planned behaviour. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 29 (2013), 46-52.
- MHRD (2006). Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan: Discovering New Paths in Inclusion, A Documentation of Home-based Education Practices for CWSN in SSA. Elementary Education & Literacy Bureau- MHRD. New Delhi: Government of India.
- NCERT (1998). *Sixth All-India Educational Survey*. National Council of Educational Research and Training, New Delhi.
- NCERT (2000) Assessment of Needs for Inclusive Education: *Report of the First Regional Workshop for SAARC Countries*, New Delhi, NCERT.
- NCERT (2006). *Position Paper: National Focus Group on Education of Children with Special Needs*. New Delhi: National Council of Educational Research and Training
- Project Integrated Education for the Disabled (1993). New Delhi: NCERT.
- Rakap, S., & Kaczmarek, L. (2010). Teachers' attitudes towards inclusion in Turkey. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 25, 59-75.
- Scruggs, T. E., & Mastropieri, M. A. (1996). Teacher perceptions of mainstreaming/inclusion, 1985-1995: a research synthesis. *Exceptional Children*, 63(1), 59-74.
- Shapiro, E., Miller, D., Sawka, K., Gardill, C., & Handler, M. (1999). Facilitating the inclusion of children with EBD into general education classrooms. *Journal of Emotional and Behavioral Disorders*, 7, 83-127.
- Simpson, G., Bloom, B., Cohen, R., Blumberg, S., & Bourdon, K. (2005). US children with emotional and behavioural difficulties: data from the 2001, 2002, and 2003 National Health Interview Surveys. *Advance Data: From Vital and Health Statistics*, 360.
- Soodak, L., Podell, D., & Lehman, L. (1998). Teacher, school, and student attributes as predictors of teachers' responses to inclusion. *Journal of Special Education*, 31(4), 480-497.
- UNCRPD (2007). UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities www.un.org/disabilities/default.asp?id=259
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (1994). The Salamanca statement and framework for action on special needs education. New York: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2000). *Dakar Framework for Action*. http://www.unesco.org/education/efa/ed_for_all/dakfram_eng.shtml
- Unianu, E. M. (2012). Teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. PSIWORLD 2011. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 33, 900–904. Available online at www.sciencedirect.com
- UNICEF ROSA (2003). *EXAMPLES OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: INDIA*. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), Regional Office for South Asia. Kathmandu, Nepal.

Zambelli, F., & Bonni, R. (2004). Beliefs of teachers in Italian schools concerning the inclusion of disabled students: A Q-sort analysis. *European Journal of Special Needs Education, 19*(3), 351-364.

CERTIFICATION TO IMPROVE GOOD PRACTICES IN CHARITIES MANAGEMENT: A PROPOSAL

Michel Plaisent¹, Yupaporn Priyasilpa², Younes Benslimane³, Prosper Bernard⁴

1&4 Management & Technology, University of Quebec in Montreal, Canada

2 Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Thailand

3. dept of Technology, York University, Toronto Canada

ABSTRACT

With recent scandals on charities, donors to charities ask for more transparency and request good management practices and effective use of the money they give. In order to satisfy this legitimate need, a certification process has been suggested to Canadian charities. This ethical code summarizes the existing codes found in the American literature. This idea was tested among main managers of Canada's charities and relevance of this approach was agreed as long as it is adapted to the organizations capacities.

1- INTRODUCTION

In times of the "League of Nations", the "Rome Club", the World Bank, the Kyoto Agreement and the globalization, it is even more essential to continuously renew the tacit contract which binds us as a community and as a group. As in any union, to reiterate its loyalty and its engagement and to renew the inaugural gesture of giving is essential.

And as long as there will be privileged people, people more "equal" than others, and less fortunate people for which needs, alas, increase with the gradual enrichment of our societies, giving becomes an engine of development where each one grows and feels better. We are all in the same boat, the North and the South, the rich and the poor, and no one can decide who is going off the boat. (According to Michel Serre) .

Unfortunately, the governments progressive disengagement (leading to the decrease in subsidies) in times of needs increases, specially with the aging of the population, the ever increasing cleavage between the rich and the poor, the explosion of psychological distress and the challenges of education emphasize the requirement for private donors contributions.

According to Kelly & Anderson (2006),the U.S., charity organizations have collected 260 billion in 2005 including 76.5% from private donors (Jump, 2006), on total incomes of 1250 billion, which include 1050 billion from the public agencies and 60 billion from the private organizations.(National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2007).

For the sharing principle to have any sense, it is essential that the donation be transparent, and not generate embarrassment. Mutual confidence is essential in giving, even if given media coverage. We have to be confident in the foundations and organizations which redistribute the funding, confidence that the donation will improve the life of the receiver. Confidence also that the received donation require giving in return.

Yet, the more "distance" between the donor and the beneficiary, the more intermediaries and thus risk that the donation does not reach its goal in its entirety. Unfortunately, the

administration complex mechanisms for donations can create multiple diversions. Everyone knows some story of embezzlement, or simple inadequate management. Cases where results obtained are ridiculous not to say absurd; funds raisers which are more expensive in mediatization and in staff than the donations received; balls, dinner benefits, fund collecting, sales where all benefits are lost in the process of fund raising.

Recently the public confidence was shaken by various scandals; Fremont-Smith & Kosaras (2003) lists an inventory of 152 incidents for the years 1995-2002. Among the most famous:

- The American Red Cross, unable to give to the victims of Rita the billion received for Katrina, due to legal considerations (Salmon and Williamson, 2005).
- The embezzlement of a million dollars from the National Capital United Way by its former president (Kindstream, 2004)
- The high wages of the leaders of organizations of benevolence compared to that of their employees (Manzo, 2004).

In this context, donors have to right to question the performance of their fund raising organizations (Steinsky-Schwartz, 2006), specially since a significant “substitution” phenomenon between organizations means that money going to one is not going to the others (Reisntein, 2006).

A survey by the BBB Wise Giving Alliance (2001) reveals that in the U.S. the donors expressed frustration at having to choose between the organizations which reach them, in particular because they believe that the organizations do not reveal enough relevant information; consequently many givers seek reassurance by consulting the watchdogs (Stutsky, 2006) and the ratios, which seem to become increasingly popular (Lammers, 2003; Poderis, 2003).

The fund raising organizations do not escape the tightening in the ethics requirements. Indeed, several authors agree to say that the transparency is now at the heart of the concerns of givers and recipients (Keating & Frumkin, 2001; others). According to an important study undertaken of 1024 elected officials, 164 managers of big associations, 34 recipient representatives and the analysis of 45 accounts of very large organizations, transparency would bring more detailed financial informations, i.e. better integrated into the operations, better communicated (more accessible) while being adapted to specificities of the organizations (KPMG, 2007).

However, it would not be easy to measure the performance of the organizations. To reach that goal Poderis (2003b) recommends an external more credible evaluation,. The organizations are more and more under the scrutiny of the notation agents which give them “stars” like restaurants and hotels according to their performance under various criteria, that some describe as danger of “dictatorship by the ratios” (Rubio & Ziegle, 2006).

In the United States, the publication of the annual income and expenditure declaration of the charity organizations helped in the compilation of data to compare the organizations of benevolence (Hager and Al, 2004c). With time, “watchdogs” organizations were born to help givers make responsible choices. They publish 1 data periodically that they draw from

governmental databases (annual declarations) or on the data which they collect from the organizations themselves.

In the same way, a Canadian philanthropist proposed to certify the organizations on the basis of healthy management principles. The movement towards certification seems inescapable since it is done under a double changing context: On the one hand, the world context of disengagement of the State in the social affairs leaves an increasingly important place to the creation of non-profit organizations who play an increasing role in sectors and/or services dealing with social demands. Some of these organizations are favorable to a certification not only to make their action credible and reassure their donors but also to acquire management tools and directives to help them perform in this evolving field. There is an emerging brand of donors, who today are often businessmen or firms working on their image or redistributing their wealth (Wagner, 2002). This modification of the donors profile will obviously change ways within the Non-Profit Organizations as they arrive with expectations, but also with a cultural baggage of private sector methods of management. By adding to this double movement the regrouping of associations adhering to a common policy (AFP, Imagine Canada,...) and the installation of mechanisms of certification in Europe, the movement towards certification seems to be already moving.

To better understand the mechanisms of good management, a documentary study was undertaken on the various codes of conduct. Indeed, according to Zieglé (2006), it is necessary, before a certification, to go through a long period quality-controlled steps (the present period, maybe). Certification is only one result of this process. The principal effect would be the increased quality in the functioning of the structure not in certification itself. The codes of conduct being guides or benchmarks of an ideal attitude to be reached, they appear to be initiatives put in place by the non-profit organizations to guarantee the quality of their actions, their financial transparency, their ethics, etc. The idea was to study the recommendations of the codes of conduct to bring out good management practices which could, later on, be included in the elements to be certified. Included here are the results of a comparative study of the 20 principal codes among about sixty indexed codes of ethics, especially from American organizations. The common points were noted and entered. The following presents a summary of the results. The results are divided into nine sections representing topics most typically covered in a code of conduct.

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mission/Program <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Programs - Programs evaluation - Culture of serving - Political commitment • Board of Directors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Responsibility - Functioning - Line-up - Meeting • Management <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Policies for good management - Decision making structure - Charities in business - Adjustments size/criteria • Human Resources <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Policies for human resources - Professional responsibilities - Evaluation orientation - Education development - Hiring/Firing - Recognition - The volunteers - Remuneration | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Control <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Code of ethics - Complaint management - Finance control • Finance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Financial accounting - FORM 900 and Income taxes • Legal matters <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Respect of legal obligations - Formation/sensatization • Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Annual report - Internal communications - External Communications - Information characteristics - Protection of the information • Fundraising <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fundraising activities - Donors - Solicitation methods - Gift accepting - Fundraising personnel - Subsidies request |
|---|--|

These sections are divided into sub-sections and sub-sub-sections, like for example the Board of Directors case

BOARD OF GOVERNORS

- **Responsibilities**
 - Define mission and programs
 - Determine management policies
 - Budget and financial practices management
 - Member selection
 - Task descriptions
 - Evaluation

- **Operations**
 - Independant council
 - Election of the members
 - Cumulative mandates
 - Compensations
 - External consultants

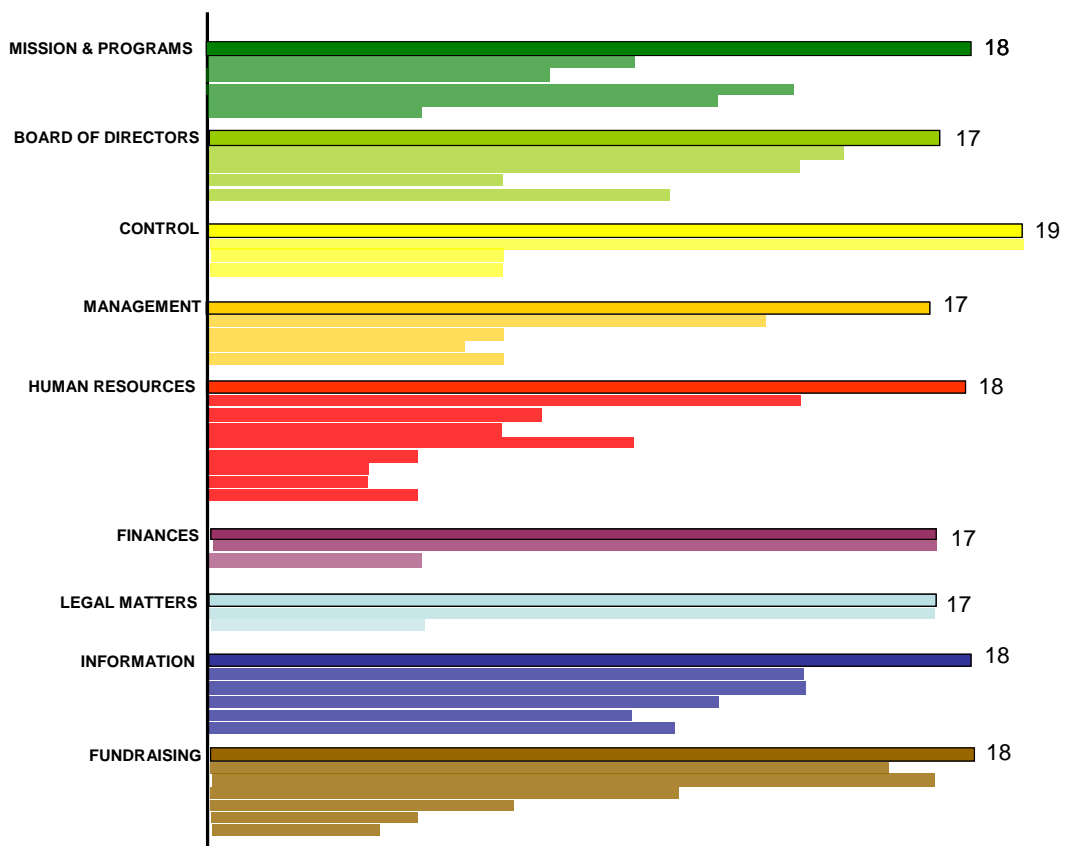
- **Constitution**
 - Member profiles
 - Influential positions
 - Number of directors

- **Meetings**
 - Code of conduct and practical details
 - Meetings
 - Communication and archives

It can be observed that, in the codes of conduct, the board of directors' responsibilities include: define the mission and the programs, determine management policies, manage the budget and financial affairs, etc...

Once a matrix of the various topics approached by the codes of conduct was created, the number of times each code referenced these topics was determined.

Certain sub-sections were mentioned by a majority whereas others were mentioned only by a very small minority of codes. We present the major sections first, the the "minority" ones.

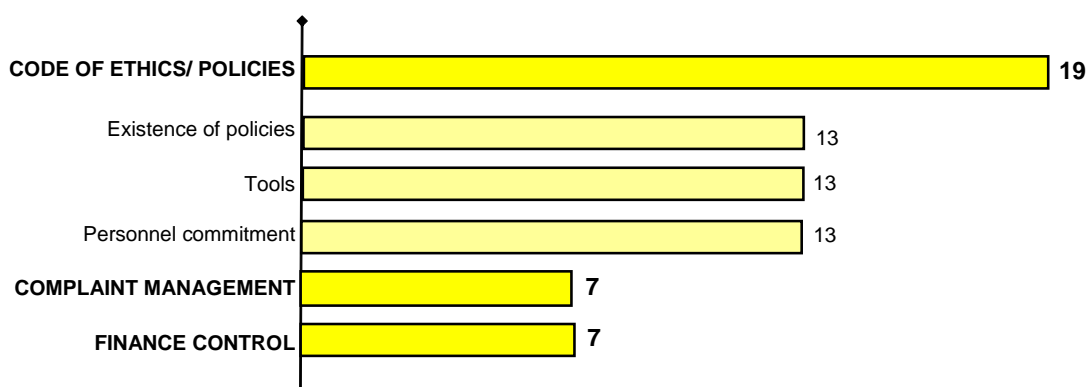


2- MAJOR CONSENSUAL SECTIONS

2.1- CONTROL

The topic mentioned most often is control. This section includes all the references to the constitution of guard rails to minimize fraudulent actions. Almost without exception, the organizations codes of conduct mentioned the need for a means of controlling fraudulent actions by members or the conflicts of interest within their own organizations.

2.1 Control



When looking at the sub-sub-sections, these guard rails include :

- Existence of a policy: the drafting of a policy or a code defining conducts in order to avoid situations of conflict of interests, written and signed by all. For example, it stipulates the relational limits which the organization members must maintain with business partners.

The board shall adopt a policy that prohibits direct and indirect conflict of interest by member of the board, employee or volunteer

- The existence of a written moral engagement from the staff. Other organizations use the more individual approach by asking a commitment from their employees . The employees vouch for their actions.

The employees, volunteers and members of the board commit themselves to avoid any conflict of interest situation.

- Tools for members : mainly means of denouncing fellow employees.

Does the organization have a system for confidential employee complains?

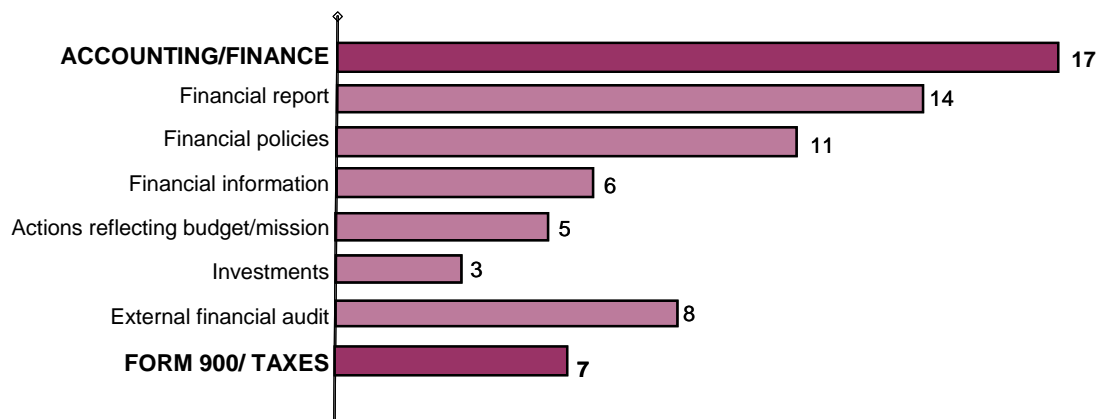
None of these choices are mutually exclusive and more than one are often present.

2.2- FINANCING

For the organizations, financing represents mainly the necessity for financial reports.

The organization prepares a financial report covering for example : financial statements, (balance sheet, income statement, appendices, bond portfolio and the list of fixed assets, a summary presentation of the origin of the resources (public subsidies, private donations, gifts, legacies, benefit generated by commercial activities), details of the main benefactors (name and amount of financial support, presentation synthesizing expenses (fund raising costs, cost of programs and activities, administration, commercial activities) with “dedicated/not dedicated” and annual multiannual; costs, generated revenues and benefit from commercial activities versus forecast; the remuneration and possible side benefits of the administrators; financial results are compared with financial forecasts.

2.2 FINANCING



2.3- LEGAL MATTERS

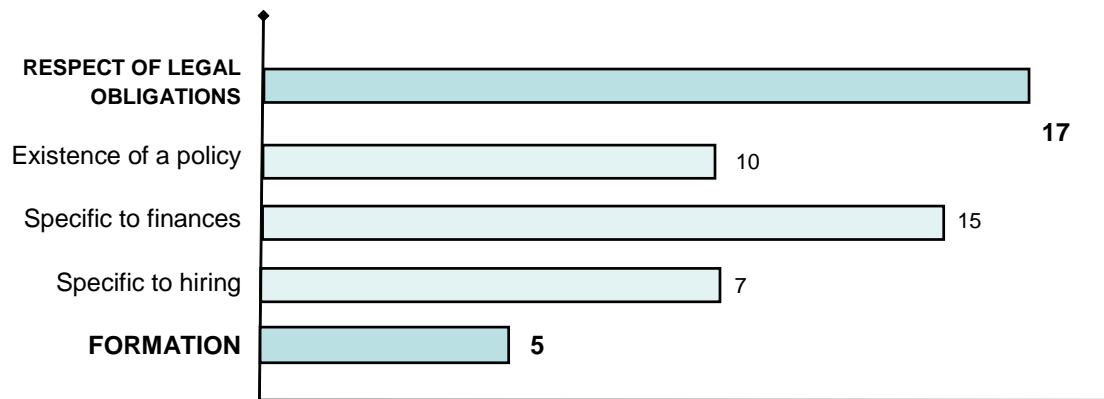
In the same way, the organizations make a point of respecting the legality of the countries in which they carry on their activities

The members will conform to all the local, provincial, federal laws civil and criminal or of their State

Organizations are mainly concerned about the legality of the financial affairs, thus the fund raisings and the management activities.

The annual financial report will conform to relevant laws and practices and be audited by a qualified independent public accountant whose statement will accompany the report.

2.3- LEGAL MATTERS

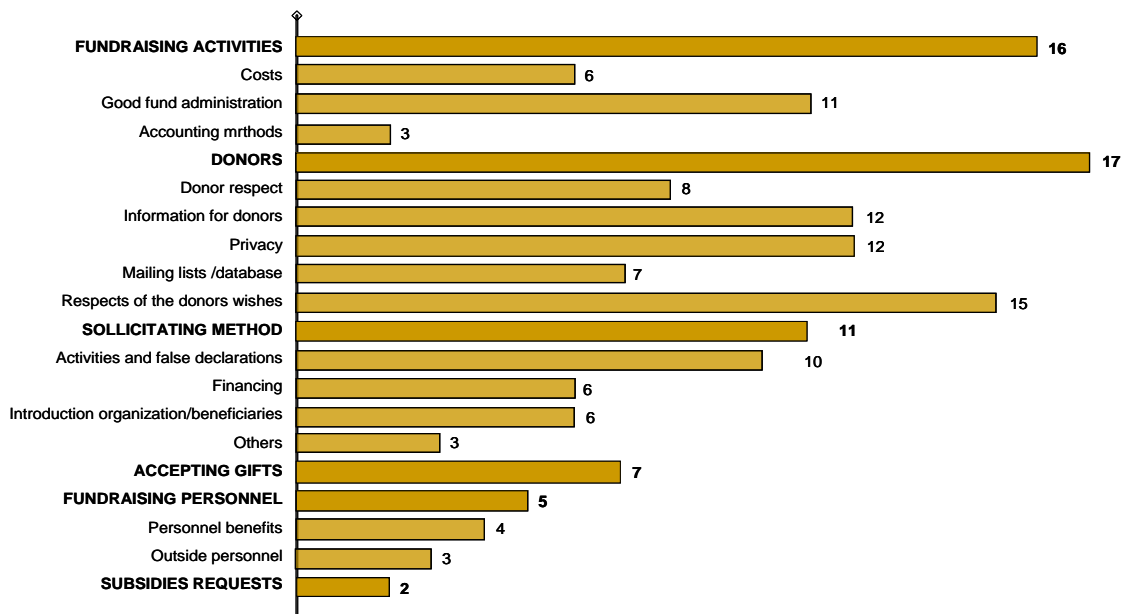


2.4- FUNDRAISING

Fundraising is one of the unanimous topics which in the codes of conduct. Organizations generally expressed their engagement towards “the donor” and specially the respect of his intentions.

Members should make sure funds are utilized according to the donor’s intentions.

2.4- FUNDRAISING



In addition, in fund raising activities, the organizations mention “good funds management”, without really agreeing on specifying what good funds management means. They remain vague or make reference to standards already in place (notably the Association of the fund raising professionals)

To : act, in fund raising and public education activities organized by or for organization X, according to the philanthropy norms of ethic; not present the beneficiaries in an unfavorable or inappropriate manner, not make false pretenses or exert excessive pressure on donors.

The organization has established a plan identifying actions to take in the event of a reduction or loss in funding.

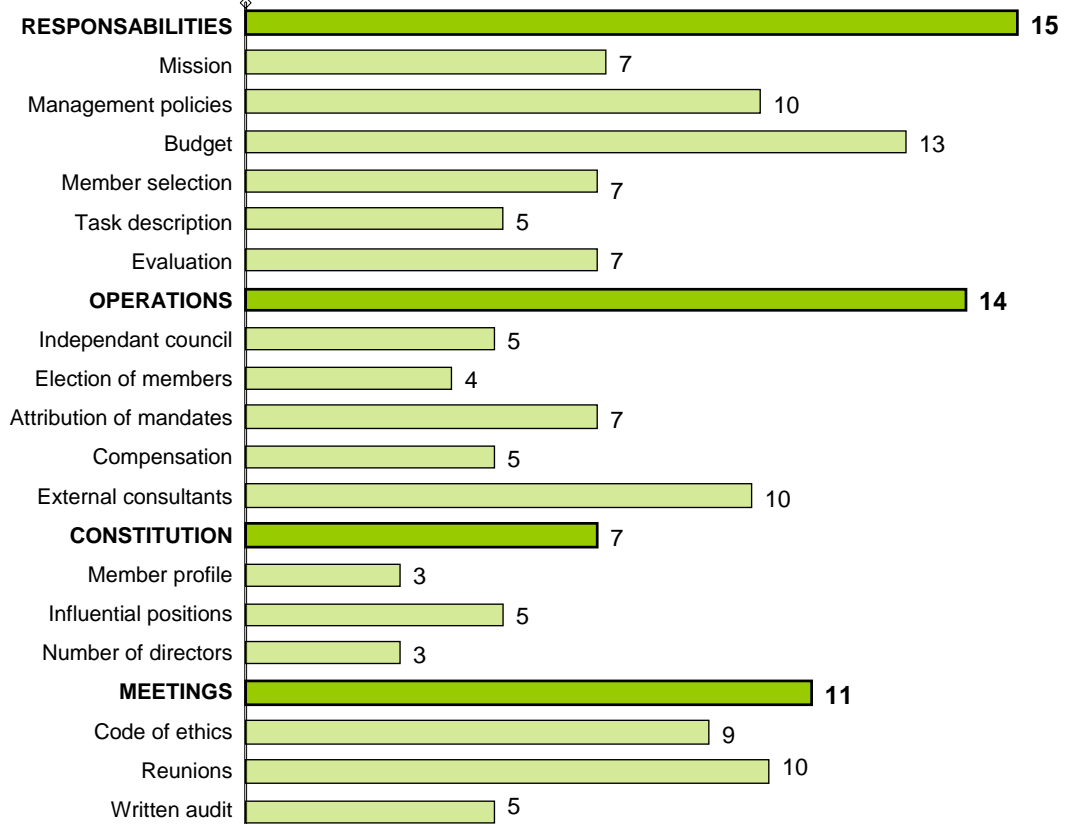
To make a commitment toward managing the funds which the givers entrust to them in a responsible way .

2.5- THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Most organizations mentioned the board of directors in one way or another. The most referenced subsection or the topic most covered in the codes of conduct is board of directors responsibilities. With regard to its responsibility, the emphasis is put on financial management and everything that pertain to the budget:

The General Assembly approves the financial report, the activity report and the orientation report.

2.5 – THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS



The topics presented (Control, finance, legal affairs, fund raisings, Board of directors) are approached in the codes of conduct in accordance with academic recommendations.

Finance dominates in the elements: in the control, finance, legal affairs with a special mention to financial legality; in the fund raisings where fund allocation and transfer are emphasized; finally, with the Board of directors responsibilities, a major one being to deal with managing the budget and the financial businesses.

Does this financial prevalence indicates a past tendency to accuse organizations of bad management practices? Is it because the presence of numbers facilitates evaluations and measurements?

Some of the elements not mentioned by all the organizations have also an interest, in particular in comparison with the theory. These other points are presented now.

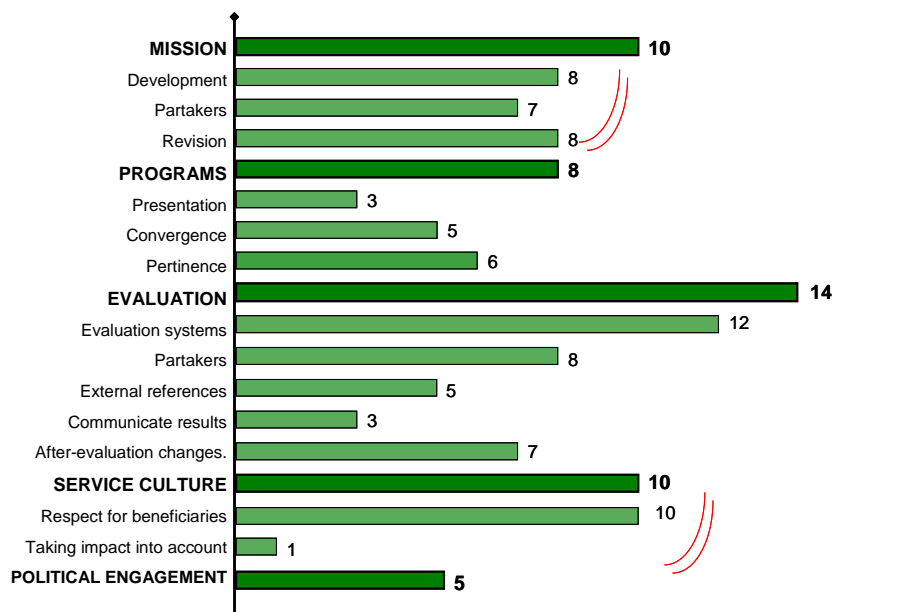
3- MINOR CONSENSUAL SECTIONS

3.1- MISSION AND PROGRAMS

The first one, “the mission and the programs” of the organization. When the codes of ethics make mention of it, it is generally to refer to the evaluation of the latter.

However Yang Cheng and Yang (2005) speak about the importance for an organization to identify its key mission, its vision, its values and its strategy.

3.1- MISSION AND PROGRAMS



The mission will define clear goals and programs which can then be evaluated.

According to him this base management theory is neglected because the non-profit organizations believed for a long time that they were not in a competitive market and so had neglected the managerial aspect, however determinant. The mission must then be a top priority.

Moreover the culture of service, the organizational strategy of the marketing orientation are recognized as being determinant for the higher performance of the private companies. The establishment of marketing concepts is characterized by the intention of the firm to deliver a higher value to their recipients and should, if not be adopted, at least be taken into account by the non-profit organizations. One of the codes of ethics presents this concept as:

[The organization is committed] to respect at all times the dignity, the values, the cultural inheritance, and the religion of the partners of the organization and the populations it supports.

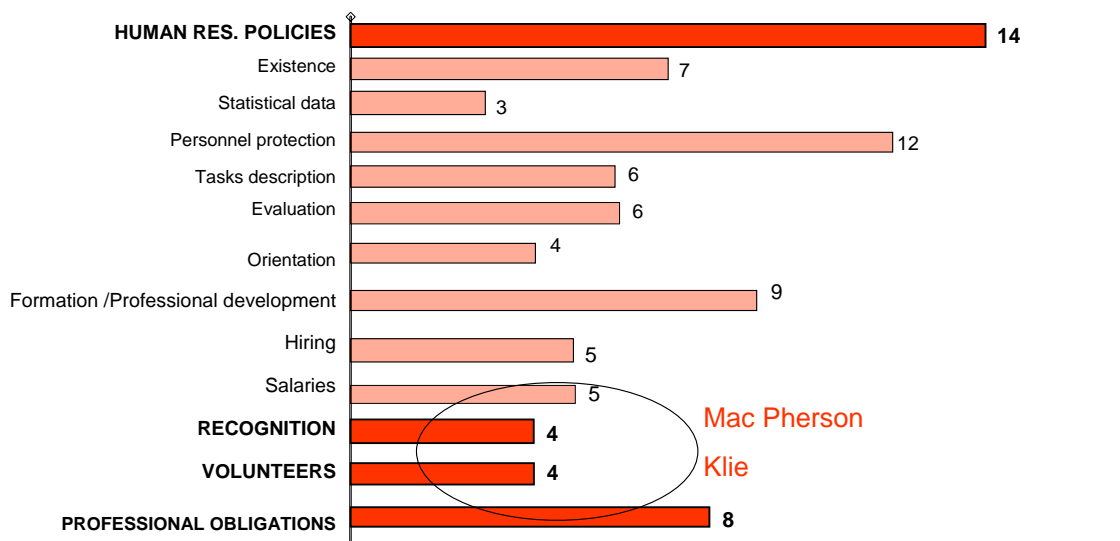
But even if it is a managerial concept, he is clearly mentioned in Yang, Cheng and Yang (2005) that the goal of a charity is to fulfill its mission and not to increase or obtain profits.

3.2- HUMAN RESOURCES

Another managerial failure, this time relevant of human resources: The particular case of volunteers and the concept of recognition. Certain code of ethics include statements such as:

We recognize that our performance and success reflect the quality of our staff and volunteers; the organization should define procedures for formation, follow-up and recognition for its volunteers.

3.2- HUMAN RESOURCES

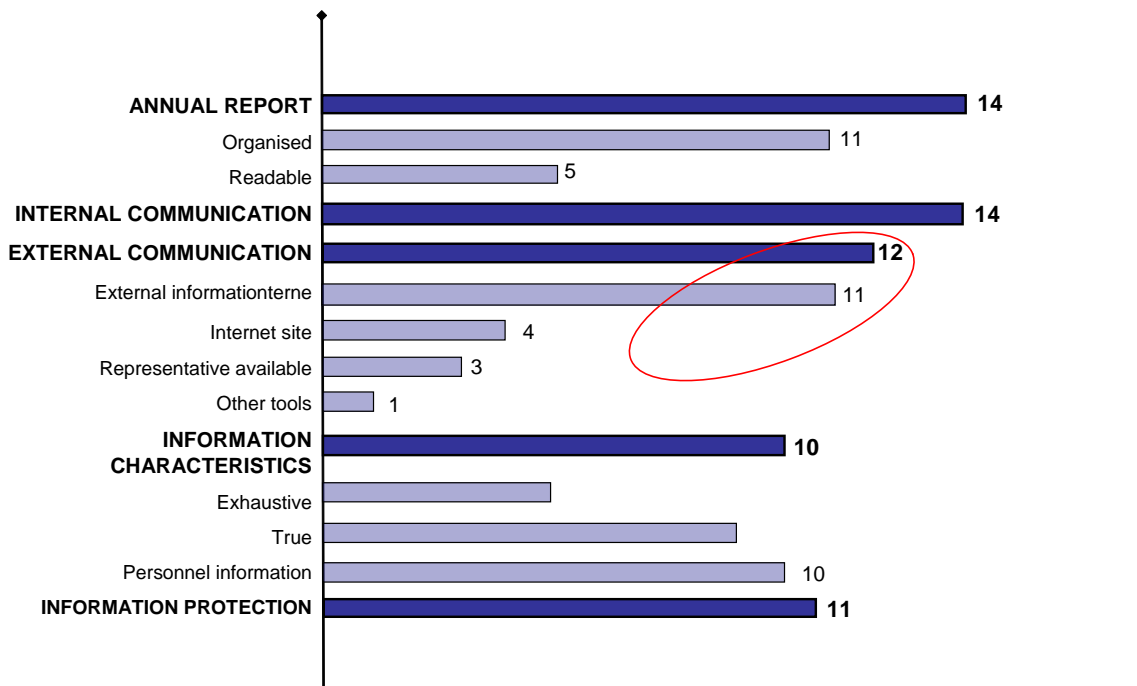


Taking into account the differences between volunteers and employees is of primary importance at Klie (2006), who distinguishes the roles and duties of volunteers and employees. Organizations should hire specialists in human resources to ensure a formation for the volunteers and a recognition program. “the volunteers are, in fact, making you a favor and you cannot act as a boss as one would do it with a paid employee”. However she adds that it is necessary to be very careful when ‘importing’ human resources theories from management schools in the charities world.

3.3- INFORMATION

A third point not covered relates to information and specially external Information. However in Frumkin and Kim (2000), the competition (as at Yang, Chend and Yang) between the organizations does not allow stable financing on the long term. They worry about the managerial theories which preach the reduction of the costs of operation in the name of effectiveness and the multiplication of the financial ratios as an indicator of financial health. According to their study, spending a lot on public information is the way to attract donors and funds which, in the long run, will allow financing of important projects.

3.3- INFORMATION



3.4- MANAGEMENT

Lastly, “management” is the item the least mentioned in the various codes of ethics. It is mentioned primarily through the need for ‘good management’, without however defining what is a good management. For example:

- Has healthy management practices*
- Assures good activity planning*
- Assures good financial resources management*

3.4- MANAGEMENT



According to Yang, Cheng and Yang (2005), if the private companies focus on management because they are under pressure to survive and “eat” their competitors, which is not (wrongfully) the case for the charities. The evaluation of the administration and management are often neglected. However, as the governmental subsidies decline, the charities enter in competition with one another and must pay attention to their missions, their management, and their performances. Pip (2005) points out that the organizations must find more innovating ways to manage in order to generate more funding. They could learn from businessmen who became philanthropists.

The setting up of good practices can only work with the sharing of perceptions of each participant: governments, members of the charities (administration, employees and volunteers), academics, recipients, givers.

4. COLLOQUIUM AND ROUND TABLE

A colloquium titled “Certification for Quebec charities” was organized with some main actors from the community sector to compare reality and theory, and to investigate the interest and the possible consequences of the application of such a certification.

A documentation review and a presentation of the certification process was first introduced. At the end of the day, a round table allowed the participants to exchange ideas and to express their opinion on the relevance charities certifications.

Following the day presentations which covered, each in their own manner, and according to various points of view, the issues of certification, the participants perceptions changed. Some will point out that this conference demonstrated the complexity of the process. Among those who had arrived with very positive or very hostile opinions with regard to certification, several ended up adopting a more moderate attitude. This ambivalence will be found throughout the discussions or the comments. A summary follows

4.1- TO DETERMINE THE FINALITY OF CERTIFICATION.

During this round table, everyone agreed on the importance of concepts definitions so as not to talk in general terms. The very nature of the certification was questioned : What are we talking about really? Ethics? Transparency? Performance? It seemed important to the participants to clarify the themes used and the organizations concerned. Answers to these questions were essential before going forward and start an in-depth analysis. For example, we should define the differences between a foundation, un charity organization and a non-profit organization, since a certification concept might be applied to some but maybe not to all.

In the same way, if we define certification as a tool, it would be necessary to know its finality. This would make it possible, for example, to determine the activities to certify. The participants think that for certain purposes like the measurement of performance, Only part of the activities should be certified. For others, it would be necessary “to certify the results but not the whole process” which generates these results. So the participants insisted on the finality of the certification process.

4.2- EXPECTATIONS AND WORRIES :

This round table also brought out expectations and fears. The participants were ambivalent : A game of questions/answers, arguments/counter-arguments proved very interesting for everyone.

- A certification fitting the distinctiveness of the organizations :

The fact that the certification would not be tailored to the structure and the needs of the organization was a major concern. Many times, the fear that a stiff, heavy, too generic and not adapted to the real needs certification was mentioned. According to the participants, certification would mainly be useful for big associations or big foundations, and this, for specific activities, like fund-raising. Most of all, the certification should not be a « *simple cut-copy of the private sector* » to the charities sector.

- Certification = credibility

While everyone recognized the credibility attached to a certification, some participants noted that this credibility could be acquired by some other means. The participants are favorable to a certification since it would put in place certain indicators, markers, or standards which would allow comparison within the « industry ». Certification would also bring ‘discipline’ in this sector and would enable a « *spring cleaning* ». For others, the « *industry* » will regulate the sector since « *if we are not transparent, if we don’t do things well, donors don’t come back and go somewhere else* ».

Credibility would also be useful for volunteers ...except when, as certain participants mentioned, the certifications is attached to the process, and the operation framework! A participant rightly mentioned the case of his organization where some of the main attractions of the volunteer work were the flexibility, the possibility to take initiatives and to develop creativity. A major plus for volunteers who, nowadays, look for professional experience.

- Overlapping tasks

Participants expressed their fear of “having to do certain tasks twice”. Parallel constraints like the ones imposed by Revenue Canada, Imagine Canada, or associations like the AFP (Association of Fundraising Professionals) would add to the certification process. “*This would not be useful*”, “*this would create too much paperwork*”, “*some tasks would have to be accomplished twice*”, “*we don’t have the time*” “*less people would volunteer*”. The representative of the Bureau de Normalisation du Québec was reassuring : There would not be any doubling of the tasks in the creation of a norm since the elements required by law or by other institutions would be integrated in the norms. The Bureau de Normalisation du Québec considers that the organization should do the work anyway. Other participants remark that since the associations have to justify their activities, they might as well do it, and receive, at the end, a certification. Certain tasks would not be doubled but overlapping.

4.3- CONDITIONS OF A COMMITMENT

Note that the participants commitment to a certification would only occur under certain conditions.

Here is a summary of these *sine qua non* conditions to certification :

- Certification should not be “written in stone” but should adapt :
 - To the sector of activity,
 - To the range of activities (federal vs. provincial).
 - To the size and the budget
- First determine the basic criteria and then certify, and not the reverse
- Certification should be voluntary
- Certification should be stratified, according to the size of the organization.
- Certification should not create additional documentation or paperwork

- Certification should not be detrimental to the beneficiaries
- Certification should not be « for the sake of it ».

For some it is an on-going movement in the sector and the charities, which become more and more important in the economy, should get involved internally in the definitions of these norms, so as not to have them imposed. An auto-regulation initiative would be the best way to define an adapted, stratified, and within context certification as a tool “*to develop quality*” and not become a control tool.

4.4- TO GO FORWARD

Despite diverging opinions, and the adherence to the concept of certification subjected to conditions, interest and enthusiasm brought a unanimous desire to pursue the reflection. To prevent “*going round in circles*”, concrete activities emerged :

- A meeting of the Bureau de Normalisation du Québec with the l’Association française de normalisation (AFNOR) in Quebec City to get information about the French expertise.
- A meeting of the UQAM committee widened to other organizations with the possibility of inviting participants of the certification in England and Scotland where certification is already in place.

5- CONCLUSION

Certification of the charities practices will not be easy. To deny its complexity is walking into a wall. To think it is not possible and not get involved because it is too complex might bring a certification (unavoidable, we think) which could be of poor quality, and would serve a minority interests.

REFERENCES

BBB Wise Giving Alliance (2001). *Non-Profit Organizations*.

Fremont-Smith, Marion R. & Kosaras, Andras (2003). Wrongdoing by Officers and Directors of Charities: A Survey of Press Reports 1995-2002. The Hauser Center for Nonprofit Organizations The Kennedy School of Government Harvard University, September 2003, Working Paper No. 20.

Frumkin, P., & Kim, M. (2000). «*Strategic positioning and the financing of nonprofits organizations: Is efficiency rewarded in the contributions marketplace?* ». The Hauser Center for Nonprofit Organizations and the Kennedy School of Government; Harvard University; October 2002; Working paper n°2.

Hager, Mark A., Pollak, Thomas, Wing, Kennard & Rooney, Patrick M. (2004). Nonprofit Overhead Cost Project: The pros and cons of financial efficiency standards. Facts and perspective, brief no. 5, august.

Keating, E. K. & Frumkin, P. (2001). How to Assess Nonprofit Financial Performance. Hauser Center Researchers and Staff. Research report , white paper, Bnet, October 2001, <http://jobfunctions.bnet.com/whitepaper.aspx?&docid=237072&promo=100511>, http://www.ksg.harvard.edu/hauser/people/researchers_staff/ekeating_research.htm, 84 pages.

Kindstream (2004). United Way Scandal: Repairing A Damaged Reputation - Free Live Webcast to Examine Steps Taken to Recover The Public's Trust - June 15, 2004.

Klie, S. (2006). «*HR has much to contribute to volunteer management*». Canadian HR Reporter, Mai 22, 2006; 19,10; p.3

KPMG. (2007). «*Observatoire KPMG: Transparence et Associations*»

Lammers, Jennifer, A. (2003). Know your Ratios? Everyone **Else** Does. The Nonprofit Quarterly, spring, 1-5.

Manzo, P. (2004). The Real Salary Scandal: It isn't that some nonprofit CEOs make big bucks. It's that most nonprofit employees are paid too little. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*, winter 2004, 64-67.

Poderis, Tony (2003a). The Fallacy of Financial Ratios (part 1): Why outcome evaluation is the better gauge for grant worthiness. CharityVillage Feature article, September 29, 3 pages. <http://www.charityvillage.com/cv/research/rstew9.html>.

Poderis, Tony (2003b). The Fallacy of Financial Ratios (part 2): It's Up To The Development Professional. CharityVillage Feature article, October 27, 2 pages. <http://www.charityvillage.com/cv/research/rstew10.html>.

Reinstein, David Aaron (2006). Does One Contribution Come at the Expense of Another? Empirical Evidence on substitution Between Charitable donators. University of Essex, Department of Economics in its series [Economics Discussion Papers](#) with number 618, 58 pages.

<http://www.essex.ac.uk/economics/discussion-papers/papers-text/dp618.pdf>

Rubio, François & Zieglé, Cécile (2006). Les ressources des ONG et leur contrôle. In Association d'économie financière : Rapport moral sur l'argent dans le monde 2006. Les ressources des ONG et leur contrôle. <http://www.aef.asso.fr/rubrique.jsp?prm=10>

Salmon, Jacqueline L. & Williamson, Elizabeth (2005). Charities Wary on Use of Katrina Donations Laws Limit Ability to Shift Aid to Victims of Rita; Fundraising Appeals Adjusted. Washington, Friday, September 23, 2005, p A07.

Slutsky, Lorie (2006). Response to Bridgespan's Study. In The Bridgespan Group The Nonprofit Sector's Leadership Deficit. Commentaries, march. 27-28.

Wagner, L. (2002). «*The new donor: Creation or evolution?* ». International Journal of Non Profit and Voluntary Sector Marketing; November 2002; 7,4; p.343

Yang, C-C., Cheng, L-Y., & Yang, C-W. (2005). A study of implementing Balanced Scorecard (BSC) in non profit organizations: A case study of private hospital. *Human System Management*. 24. p. 285. ISO Press.

Zieglé, C. (2006). «*Notation, certification des ONG : définitions et propositions du secteur privé*» Coordination Sud, solidarité Urgence Developpement.

**Collaborative learning in designing and developing Hydrogen reinforced
gas for household and industry work**

Niranjan.S.Karagi
Mechanical Department
4th Semester
Angadi Institute of technology & Management
Savogaon Road Belgaum-590009
India

Abstract

Collaborative learning in implementing engineering projects becomes important when many fields of science and engineering are combined. A product development requires information from mechanical engineering, Chemistry domain, electronics engineering, thermal engineering and material science engineering. The fertilization of ideas from all domains helps in designing the components reliably. Collaborative learning and information exchange over the social media or discussion forums yield diverse ideas and promote lateral thinking. One such project is developed by seeking inputs throughout the globe by web portals and internet for developing a gas torch burner and induction stove which works efficiently on Hydrogen derived from water. Hydrogen-gas torch burner and induction stove offer the promise of significantly reducing the amount of pollutants exhausted into the environment. Furthermore, hydrogen can be generated from any of a number of diverse energy sources, including hydrocarbon, nuclear, solar and wind, thereby helping address energy security as well as environmental concerns. The technology needed to store hydrogen fuel onboard and deliver it to the engine system is different from what consumers, mechanics, fire safety personnel, the public, although these component present new challenges, government, industry, and the public expect that they will not be more hazardous to own and operate than conventional other present gas torch.

The primary components within the hydrogen gas storage subsystem are the compressed-hydrogen gas containers. Because the hydrogen gas has a low energy density per unit volume, storage containers must be designed to supply an adequate amount of hydrogen to achieve realistic welding and cooking ranges. A hydrogen gas container increases weight and cost to the present gas torch and induction stove so its big challenge of achieving desirable welding and cooking ranges. To overcome these limitations in this work by hydrogen gas is produced continuously by electrolysis process the hydrogen gas is generated at cathode end with help of KOH solution and it is directly passes through a series of piping system, valves and filters. This gas flows through the pipe and comes out from the outlet nozzle of induction stove and welding torch. Hydrogen combustion is the process by which hydrogen reacts with an oxidizing agent (a compound that supports or causes combustion of other materials) and burns. Hydrogen combustion is exothermic combustion, which means it releases heat and energy. Hydrogen gas is highly flammable and will burn in air at a very wide range of concentrations between 4% and 75% by volume so which helps to produce the power required to light the gas torch. Benefit of using hydrogen as a fuel is that an ease of availability then the gasoline. This results into increase to make use of the kit and hydrogen gas for household and industry work.

Author Keywords: Collaborative learning
Hydrogen
Water
Welding and cooking
Discussion forum
Internet
Social media

Introduction to Hydrogen

Hydrogen is the chemical element with atomic number 1. It is represented by the symbol H. With an atomic weight of 1.00794 u (1.007825 u for Hydrogen-1), hydrogen is the lightest and most abundant chemical element, constituting roughly 75 % of the Universe's elemental mass. Stars in the main sequence are mainly composed of hydrogen in its plasma state. Naturally occurring elemental hydrogen is relatively rare on Earth.

The most common isotope of hydrogen is protium (name rarely used, symbol H) with a single proton and no neutrons. In ionic compounds it can take a negative charge (an anion known as a hydride and written as H^-), or as a positively charged species H^+ . The latter cation is written as though composed of a bare proton, but in reality, hydrogen cations in ionic compounds always occur as more complex species. Hydrogen forms compounds with most elements and is present in water and most organic compounds. It plays a particularly important role in acid-base chemistry with many reactions exchanging protons between soluble molecules. As the simplest atom known, the hydrogen atom has been of theoretical use. For example, as the only neutral atom with an analytic solution to the Schrödinger equation, the study of the energetic and bonding of the hydrogen atom played a key role in the development of quantum mechanics.

Hydrogen gas (now known to be H_2) was first artificially produced in the early 16th century, via the mixing of metals with strong acids. In 1766–81, Henry Cavendish was the first to recognize that hydrogen gas was a discrete substance, and that it produces water when burned, a property which later gave it its name, which in Greek means "water-former." At standard temperature and pressure, hydrogen is a colorless, odorless, nonmetallic, tasteless, highly combustible diatomic gas with the molecular formula H_2 .

Industrial production is mainly from the steam reforming of natural gas, and less often from more energy-intensive hydrogen production methods like the electrolysis of water. Most hydrogen is employed near its production site, with the two largest uses being fossil fuel processing (e.g., hydro cracking) and ammonia production, mostly for the fertilizer market.

Hydrogen is a concern in metallurgy as it can embrittle many metals, complicating the design of pipelines and storage tanks.

Physical properties:

Color: colorless

Phase: gas

Density (0 °C, 101.325 kPa) 0.08988 g/L

Liquid density at m.p: 0.07 (0.0763 solid)^[2] g·cm⁻³

Melting point: 14.01 K , -259.14 °C, -434.45 °F

Boiling point: 20.28 K-252.87 °C , -423.17 °F

Triple point 13.8033 K (-259°C), 7.042 kPa

Critical point 32.97 K, 1.293 MPa

Heat of vaporization (H_2) 0.904 kJ·mol⁻¹

Specific heat capacity (25 °C) (H_2) 28.836 J·mol⁻¹·K⁻¹

Pressure reducer kit

Installing an L.P.G system requires both expertise and a sense of responsibility. Inability, negligence or non compliance with the regulations in force can be EXTREMELY DANGEROUS. It is obviously necessary for the installer to understand the characteristics of L.P.G and to have an in-depth knowledge of the components of the system so as to be able to install it correctly and carry out maintenance. This manual provides the installer with all the information necessary and useful to successfully install the system and keep it in good order.

Objective:

The oxy-acetylene flame has been used very widely in industry for many years and enjoys several positive characteristics including a high combustion temperature, wide availability, trained workforce and process versatility. However, it also has some drawbacks which are becoming more significant with increasing health and safety and environmental concerns; having significant quantities of highly combustible gases is undesirable; dedicated training on safety aspects of handling oxyacetylene; the production and transportation of large quantities of combustible gas is damaging to the environment. In project SafeFlame, an alternative to oxy-acetylene heating will be developed, validated and exploited, particularly for SME fabricators. Oxy-hydrogen flames can be generated by the combustion of oxygen and hydrogen produced locally using an electrochemical cell. This approach has the following advantages over oxy-acetylene heating:

- The cell is highly portable, reducing transportation costs and increasing the flexibility of the process.
- The fuel is water which is widely available and low cost.
- The process requires electricity to generate the gases but is >60% efficient. Storage of combustible gas is eliminated
- The system can be deployed flexibly and is cost-effective compared with oxy-acetylene.
- Control over the combustion process will enable reducing or oxidizing conditions to prevail during the heating process.
- The aim is to develop and validate the use of oxy-hydrogen combustion as an alternative to oxy-acetylene, for applications which could include precision welding, brazing and soldering, cutting, repair and heat treatment. The project will involve the specification of the required heating for a given application, different design(s) of electrolyser, the design of heating torch (including process modeling) tailored to the application, product integration, process trials and validation, the development of case studies, dissemination activities and training.

Electrolysis of Water

Electrolysis of water is the decomposition of water (H_2O) into oxygen (O_2) and hydrogen gas (H_2) due to an electric current being passed through the water.

Principle:

An electrical power source is connected to two electrodes, or two plates (typically made from some inert metal such as platinum or stainless steel) which are placed in the water. In a properly designed cell, hydrogen will appear at the cathode (the negatively charged electrode, where electrons enter the water), and oxygen will appear at the anode (the positively charged electrode). Assuming ideal faradic efficiency, the amount of hydrogen generated is twice the number of moles of oxygen, and both are proportional to the total electrical charge conducted by the solution. However, in many cells competing side reactions dominate, resulting in different products and less than ideal faradic efficiency.

Electrolysis of *pure* water requires excess energy in the form of over potential to overcome various activation barriers. Without the excess energy the electrolysis of *pure* water occurs very slowly or not at all. This is in part due to the limited self-ionization of water. Pure water has an electrical conductivity about one millionth that of seawater. Many electrolytic cells may also lack the requisite electro catalysts. The efficacy of electrolysis is increased through the addition of an electrolyte (such as a salt, an acid or a base) and the use of electro catalysts.

Currently the electrolytic process is rarely used in industrial applications since hydrogen can be produced more affordably from fossil fuels.

Conclusion:

Gasoline when blended with Hydrogen efficiency can be improved. Since hydrogen is a highly combustible gas and has got more flame front velocity which helps to burn the unburnt charge.

References:

- Automobile Engineering – Prof R B Gupta -7th Edition
- Course In IC Engine –Mathur And Sharma -3rd Edition
- IC Engine – V Ganeshan- 3rd – Edition
- www.afdc.energy.gov/afdc/pdfs/fueltable.pdf
- <file:///multi%20fuel%20powered%20generator/chaits/Hydrogen%20-%20Reports%20-%20Research%20Library%20-%20XRTLAB.htm>
- <file:///multi%20fuel%20powered%20generator/chaits/Vehicle%20Technologies%20-%20Research%20Library%20-%20XRTLAB.htm>
- multi fuel powered generator//Liquefied_petroleum_gas.htm
- file:///multi%20fuel%20powered%20generator///bibliography/Electrical_generator.htm

Author: Niranjan Karagi aged 20 pursuing bachelor of engineering in Mechanical department. Has finished schooling at St. Mary's high school Belgaum and Pre University at Govindram Seksaria Science College Belgaum.

Diffusion of Innovations: A Case Study of Thai Teachers' Perceptions of Instructional Tablets

Orana Meenongwha

Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Thailand

Wiwat Puntai

Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Thailand

Kornsiri Boonyaparakob

Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Thailand

Abstract

Diffusion of innovations theory (Rogers, 1962) contends that innovation attributes influence the adopters' decision. This article reports the results of an investigation into the attributes of tablet as perceived by five primary school teacher adopters who choose to integrate this mobile computer device into their classroom instruction.

This qualitative case study analyzes the perceptions of five primary school teachers in Nakhon Phanom Education Area District Office 1, Thailand as reflected through three sources of data: se-mi structured interview, classroom observation, and relevant documents and artifacts. Data analysis was conducted by means of open axial coding; triangulation of the three data sources further ascertains the validity of the study findings.

Results were discussed around Roger's five key attributes of innovations: relative advantages, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability. In general, the teachers identified several attributes pertaining to these five notions that lead them to integrate the tablet device into their instructional practices. An example of this is that when compared to print-based lessons, a wider selection of interactive, electronic instructional materials accessed through tablets better meet the varied learning needs of the student groups while at the same time relieves the teachers of the burden to supervise individual student learning activities. The researchers additionally reports issues relating to learning and instruction that emerge from the integration of this alternative, mobile instructional technology. Suggestions for provision of teacher support to enhance a smooth integration are also provided.

Keywords: case study, Diffusion of Innovations, instructional tablets, teachers' perceptions, technology integration, innovation attributes

Introduction

Education has a long association with technology integration for many decades. Technology advancement has offered a wide range of educational tools to enhance teaching and learning. In the 21st century, one among the popular educational tools is tablets. Several initiatives of educational tablets have been launched in many countries over the globe (Tablets for Schools Organization, 2013). The examples of this includes the initiation of iPad trials in a number of schools in Australia regions, including Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria. In the United States, the state of Virginia, Maine, and North Carolina started distributing thousands of tablets to teachers and students. Other countries in different regions

that also introduced similar programs were France, Turkey, Singapore, South Korea, Kazakhstan, Japan, China, India, South Africa, Jamaica, Brazil, and Mauritius.

Thailand also embraced the idea of tablet integration into teaching and learning. As the initiative of One-Tablet-Per-Child (OTPC) scheme, hundred thousands of tablets were distributed to elementary school students and teachers (OTPC, 2012). However, Thailand so far has very limited amount of empirical data that could guide and support applications of tablet before launching the scheme (Whattananarong, 2013). The lack of empirical data before launching any innovation adoption schemes was one of the enduring problems of technology integration. Decision makers often think of technology before thoroughly investigating the educational applications of the technology (Trucano, 2005). Therefore, this could pose some difficulties for users in adapting to the innovations. A study showed that teachers only expressed merely moderate intention to use the devices (Thongsri, Theerawanviwat, & Luenam 2012). Beyond that, the Ministry of Education also reported that teachers and students employed the distributed tablets, accounted for only 20 percent of the expected total use, which was much lower than anticipated (Centre for Educational Technology, 2013).

Although there were some studies focusing on tablet integration, a few of them were pertaining to teachers' perceptions using Rogers' idea as a theoretical framework. Rogers (1962) proposed the theory of Diffusion of Innovations which explains how innovations diffuse through a social system and determined factors that are related to innovation adoption.

As for the theory of Diffusion of Innovations, Rogers proposed that certain attributes of innovations as perceived by users could determine the adoption of innovations by individuals and organizations. He explained that there were five attributes of innovation as perceived by users that were related to the adoption: relative advantages, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability. If innovation users view innovation attributes according to Rogers's notion, it is likely that they would adopt the innovation.

Theoretical Frameworks

“*Diffusion* is the process in which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system” (Rogers, 2003, p.5, emphasis in original). It is a special type of communication that is concerned with the newness of ideas. Four main elements that influence the diffusion process are the innovation, communication channels, time, and the social system.

This study, however, only focused on one element: the innovation. It particularly examined how the attributes of innovations were perceived by adopters. The idea of perceived attributes of innovations was raised from the question of why innovations diffuse at different rate. Some innovations take only a few years to be widely accepted, whereas others take longer than a decade. What are attributes of innovations that affect the rate of adoption? The notion of perceived attributes of innovations proposed that regardless of characteristics of different adopters, there are five attributes of innovations as perceived by individuals that affect the rate of adoption including relative advantages, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability. These five attributes are the most variances, accounted for 48 to 87 percent, that explain the rate of adoption (Rogers, 2003). Definitions of all the attributes are as follows.

“*Relative advantages* is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being better than the idea it supersedes” (Rogers, 2003, p.229, emphasis in original). Diffusion studies indicated that relative advantage is one of the strongest attributes that predicts the rate of adoption (Rogers, 2003). The attribute can be referred to many sub-dimensions including better outcomes, economic profitability, social prestige, low initial cost, a decrease of discomfort, a saving of time and effort, and the like. However, the nature of innovations and

adopters themselves could specifically decide what dimensions of relative advantages are most important. In this research, relative advantage focused on advantages of tablet adoption in terms of teaching and learning. In addition, the teachers were the persons who specified more details on what sub-dimensions were most essential.

“*Compatibility* is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as consistent with the existing values, past experiences and needs for potentials adopters” (Rogers, 2003, p.240, emphasis in original). Factors that are related to compatibility include sociocultural values and beliefs, previous introduced ideas, and client need for innovations. The more compatibility that perceived to be consistent with such factors would contribute to a higher rate of adoption.

“*Complexity* is the degree to which an innovation is perceived as relative difficult to understand and use” (Rogers, 2003, p.257, emphasis in original). However, complexity is perceived negatively related to the rate of adoption. The more complexity of innovations contributes to the lower rate of adoption. In other words, innovations that are easy to be used are likely to be adopted.

“*Trialability* is the degree to which an innovation may be experienced with on a limited basis” (Rogers, 2003, p.258, emphasis in original). New innovations that offer trials could be more rapidly adopted since the adopters could experience the innovations in their own conditions. An innovation could also be improved while receiving feedbacks from the users. As a result, trialability is perceived positively related to innovation adoption.

“*Observability* is the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others” (Rogers, 2003, p.258, emphasis in original). Innovations that could offer observable results are more likely to be adopted as observable results communicate directly to individuals that the innovation could benefit them. As a result, observability is perceived positively to the rate of innovation adoption.

In conclusion, Rogers (2003) summarized the idea of the five perceived attributes as he noted, “innovation that are perceived by individuals as having greater relative advantages, compatibility, trialability, and observability and less complexity will be adopted more rapidly than other innovations” (p.16). As a result, this research adopted the idea of Rogers and assumed that teachers’ perceptions of these five properties of tablets could potentially explain the tablet adoption.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine teachers’ perceptions of tablets in relation to their adoptions. Qualitative methods were employed to investigate perceptions of teachers on tablets by employing the theory of Diffusion of Innovations (Rogers, 2003) to answer the research question: what are teachers’ perceptions on the five attributes of tablets? The study was conducted under the basic assumption: the perceptions on tablet attributes were assumed to play an important role on the tablet adoption. This article, however, focuses only on the perceptions of the tablets. With the exploration of the personal description, opinions and emotions of the participants on innovation adoption, the humanistic approach was suitable for the inquiry than the use of quantitative approach that conveys the phenomenon by numerical explanations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). The study employed a triangulation technique to provide a vivid description and reliable data. The three sources of information, including semi-structured interviews, observations, and documents and artifacts, were employed to complement one another in order to give both detailed and depth of the area being studied.

Methods

With an intention to investigate particular cases in depth, this research was conducted to gather data from a small number of participants. As a result, the sampling strategy of this study was non probability or purposeful sampling. The underlying principle of the purposeful sampling strategy was to select information-rich cases. Patton (1990) clarified the idea of purposeful sampling as follows:

The logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting *information - rich cases* for study in depth. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research, thus the term *purposeful* sampling. Studying information-rich cases yields insights and in-depth understanding rather than empirical generalizations. For example, if the purpose of an evaluation is to increase the effectiveness of a program in reaching lower – socioeconomic groups, one may learn a great deal more by focusing in depth on understanding the needs, interests, and incentives of a small number of carefully selected poor families than by gathering standardized information from large, statistically representative sample of the whole program. The purpose of purposeful sampling is to select information – rich cases whose study will illuminate the questions under study (p.169, emphasis in original)

Therefore, the qualitative approach with purposefully sampling would be appropriate and suitable for the study focusing on teacher’s perceptions on five attributes of tablets

Recruitment Criteria of Participants

As for purposeful sampling, it is the concept of qualitative research to choose samples or informants that could best answer the research question (Creswell, 1994). As a result, a set of criteria was established for the recruitment of participants of this study. These criteria were:

1. Be elementary school teachers from schools located in Nakhon Phanom Primary Educational Service Areas Office 1;
2. Teach at 3rd grade level, where the instructional tablet scheme has been implemented;
3. Use tablets for teaching and learning in actual classroom.

After being informed about the study, five elementary school teachers finally volunteered to participate in the study with their consent and with voluntary involvement in observations, interviews, and provide relevant documents.

Data Collection Procedures

Research data were collected from three sources including interviews on teachers’ perceptions of tablet attributes, observations of teachers’ instructional practices in actual classes, and an analysis of documents and artifacts to answer the research questions. Data were validated through the process of triangulation, comparing data gathered from different tools and procedures.

As for the interview, the five teachers voluntarily participated in semi-structured interviews which were guided by fifteen interview questions regarding their perception on the five attributes of tablets. The interviews took place in classrooms under the schedules when the teachers were free and available. During the interviews the conversations were tape recorded and field notes were taken with permission of the teacher participants. After that, the interviews were transcribed and analyzed by qualitative coding. Furthermore, the participants were observed three times in classroom environment, teaching students with tablets. Finally, the teachers also provided relevant documents and allowed the researcher to collect artifacts for the study.

Analysis of Data

The interview data were analyzed by using open axial coding and organized into themes. Observational notes taken during the classroom observations were used to mingle with perceptions of teachers that responded to the interview questions. The documents and artifacts provided a fuller picture of the perceptions in terms of background and validation of interview and observational data.

Results

Data indicated that the participants generally perceived tablets to be positive. All the participants tried to comply with the government policy of One-Tablet-Per-Child. As data-rich cases, all the participants were found to be integrated the tablets in their teaching and what they said was found to be in line with their practices in classrooms. Following is the report of findings that reflect perceptions of the participants on the five attributes of the innovation namely relative advantages, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability in respective order.

Regarding advantages, data revealed that the participants perceived relative advantages of tablets with respect to better learning materials, reduced teaching burden, and portability. Teacher reported that compared to print based lessons, tablets had a wider selection of materials: multimedia and interactive programs. Such learning materials allowed students to engage in self-instructional learning programs and reduced part of teachers' role in teaching. The level of teaching responsibility in classroom were found to be lesser than the teacher- centered approach. In addition, tablets were perceived to have more value than previous learning innovative devices such as computers due to their portability and mobility.

Despite all the perceived benefits of tablets, the participating teachers were found to perceive the tablets often used for non – related activities. Although tablets had reduced the level of teacher dependence, the participants reported that students sometimes engaged in non-school related activities such as games, movies, and songs. As a result, it was, to some extent, necessary to supervise and ensure that the students use tablets mainly for school related activities.

In terms of compatibility, tablets were perceived to be compatible with teachers' needs with respect to student dependence, school IT environment, and student IT development. Teachers reported that students engaged themselves more on self-study, seeking new knowledge and learning on their own. As for school IT environment, data showed that some schools had a limited number of computers. Therefore, tablets become a supplement to school computers, giving more opportunities to connect to the Internet. Teachers further added that tablets were compatible with student IT development as tablets provided more or less essential skills for the students who live in the age of technology such as information literacy and technical operation.

Another attribute of tablet innovation, its complexity, was found to be perceived by the participating teachers to have limitations. The participants reported some complexity concerns that prevent them from using the tablets to their full potential: limitation of tablet specification and maintenance issues. Some specifications of tablets, including short battery life and low memory capacity created difficulties for tablets to run smoothly. Besides the specifications, the cost of maintenance and limited tablet replacements were perceived to cause difficulties in using them.

Despite of the complexity concerns, tablets, however, were found to be perceived as having a relatively high level of trialability. With the launching of the One-Tablet-Per-Child policy, the government also provided opportunities for teachers to try out the innovation. Before adoption of the tablets in schools, all teachers were required to participate in tablet training programs organized by the government. In addition, teachers reported to have personal experiences using tablets at home prior to the beginning stage of the policy implementation. As a result, trialability of tablets came from two sources: tablet trainings and personal experiences.

Finally, the observability as an attribute of innovation that might affect the tablet adoption was found to be perceived as positive by the participating teachers. The teachers indicated some positive observability of tablets. What could be observed as a result of the use of tablets in classrooms includes: students' motivation and enthusiasm, learning pace, and development of basic IT skills. First of all, the tablets were perceived to better motivate the students' learning and created their enthusiasm in classroom. Students were motivated by a variety of learning materials and multimedia that engaged them with game-based learning programs. Moreover, audio-based learning programs allowed slow students to learn at their own paces and was able to keep paces with other students. Teachers finally observed that students developed basic IT skills related to information literacy such as searching information and browsing the Internet.

In some, findings suggested that the instructional tablets were perceived by the participating teachers to have five attributes of innovation, supporting the teaching and learning process. What was more important as the teachers perceived, however, was how the innovation was implemented and monitored by the teachers, and how it is employed by the students. Teachers reported that the high level of tablet dependence might restrict the students from developing skills such as writing and skills to interact with teachers and peers. Students might heavily rely upon learning with tablets only, whereas many educational applications in tablets were usually based on development of basic learning skills. Thus, teachers should also promote higher skills learning in the classroom as well.

Conclusion and Recommendations

By examining the perceived attributes of tablets, the research found a large amount of useful data that could shed light on the issues of tablet adoption at primary education. The data provide insight into a better understanding of tablet adoption that are related to its perceived attributes. The idea allowed us to understand important attributes of innovations that contribute to their adoption. Relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability were the essential attributes that policy makers and innovation adopters should be taken into account during the innovation adoption. The research findings more or less fulfilled the inadequacies in the existing body of research on tablet adoption in Thailand.

The values of the teachers' perceptions were priceless as their perceptions provided insights and understanding on the actual adoption. The emerging issues that were discovered should be closely looked at and immediate solutions to the problems should be provided. The limitation of tablet specification could be improved by new replacements on

battery and memory. The next generation of tablets used in schools, for example, should have higher specifications in order to be compatible with a large amount of contents uploaded. In addition, future tablet trainings should also focus on how to use tablets with higher learning skills.

Finally, the collaboration between decision makers and practitioners should be encouraged as much as possible in order to achieve desirable outcomes. The research data would help the government and those who involved in decision making of the policy at least plan for additional supports and programs to enhance the adoption of tablets.

References

- Centre for Educational Technology. (2013). Tablets Used Only Twenty Percent. Retrieved from <http://www.ceted.org/ceted2010/detail-news.php?pgShow=news&NewsID=1168>
- Creswell, J. (1994). *Research design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2005). *The SAGE handbook of qualitative research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- OTPC. (2012). Tablet Project for Thai Education. Retrieved from <http://www.otpc.in.th/aboutus.html>
- Patton, M., & Patton, M. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Rogers, E. (1962). *Diffusion of innovations*. New York: Free Press of Glencoe.
- Rogers, E. (2003). *Diffusion of innovations*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Tablets for Schools. (2014). Tablet Initiatives around the World. Retrieved from <http://www.tabletsforschools.org.uk/worldwide-research/>
- Thongsri, N. Theerawanviwat, D., & Luenam, P. (2012). *Intention to Use Tablet of Teacher in Nakhonsrithammarat Education Office Area 3: The Application of Technology Acceptance Model*. Paper presented at The 2nd STOU Graduate Research Conference. Sukhothai Thammathirat Open University. Bangkok, Thailand. Retrieved From http://www.stou.ac.th/thai/grad_stdy/Masters/O-SS%20058%20นางสาวณัฐพร%20ทองศรี.pdf
- Trucano, M. (2005). Knowledge Maps: ICT in Education. Retrieved from http://www.infodev.org/infodev-files/resource/InfodevDocuments_8.pdf
- Whattananarong, K. (2013 August, 26). BYOT: Bring Your Own Technology. *Thairath*. Retrieved from <http://www.thairath.co.th/content/365756>

Biography of the Authors

Orana Meenongwha is now an M.A. graduate student majoring in Applied Linguistics, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University, Thailand. This research is a part of her MA thesis focusing on tablet adoption in Thailand.

Wiwat Puntai is currently with the M.A. program in Applied Linguistics at Mahidol University. His areas of interest include Diffusion of Innovations, instructional system design and language testing.

Kornsiri Boonyaparakob is a faculty member at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University in Thailand. She currently directs an MA program in Applied Linguistics. Her academic qualifications include a Ph.D in Curriculum and Instruction from North Carolina State University, an MA in Applied Linguistics from Mahidol University, and a Dip.TESL from Victoria University of Wellington, NZ.

Educating the Educators: An evaluation of the preparedness of elementary school teachers in Los Baños, Laguna, Philippines for journalism instruction and internet-mediated learning

Pauline Gidget Estella
University of the Philippines-Los Baños-Department of Humanities
College English Instructor

With the nuances of journalistic form and the evolving requirements of context, the pedagogy of journalism makes a tricky case especially when the students are as young as elementary pupils learning English as a second language. The challenge becomes more difficult to overcome if the teachers assigned as journalism trainers are not equipped with the mastery of journalistic style and methods. Such is the case in the primary schools in the district of Los Baños, Laguna, Philippines, and possibly in many elementary schools in the country.

This study 1) describes how the internet has dramatically transformed the practice and pedagogy of journalism in the Philippines, 2) critically assesses the preparedness of journalism teachers in training elementary students in Los Baños, Laguna, Philippines, and 3) examines the preparedness of teachers for internet-mediated journalism training. The district was chosen because it makes a good case study based on its performance in the journalism competitions (from division to national levels) in the last five years.

This study is the **first of an ongoing four-part study**, which will consist of the following:

1. Assessment of the current pedagogy of journalism in elementary schools in Los Baños and introduction of distance learning as a tool in improving the quality of instruction
2. Development of a more comprehensive and institutionalized e-learning system for elementary journalism
3. Monitoring and evaluation of the e-learning system
4. Multi-location testing of the e-learning system

The study will follow John Hopkins University's (2013) P-Process framework for strategic communication, with the first part covering the analysis (stakeholder and situation) stage.

Based on the 1) responses in the surveys and in-depth interviews with the teachers and 2) evaluation of classroom lectures, the crux of the problem lies not on the teachers' instructional communication strategies, but on their mastery of journalism as a practice. The dilemma was further aggravated by educational policy on journalism pedagogy.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching journalism as both a science and an art requires a distinct set of skills and values from the instructor. The dynamics of form and content are best seen in the practice of journalism; a good journalistic piece, say, a news article, does not rely solely on the presentation (excellent diction and structure). The data has to be compelling, and made more compelling through command of language.

Therefore, a journalism teacher should have expertise in gathering data (for content) and packaging the information (form). The direction of data-gathering and the strategies of packaging the information as a journalistic piece are governed by a third defining attribute: awareness of context. Context is a term used broadly, and even loosely, across fields in language and genres in literature, but the commonalities lie on three ideas: 1) historicizing (what happened before?), 2) illustrating the significance (the ‘so what’), and 3) understanding the socio-political conditions *around* the subject of the journalistic text (What are the interests of the audience in this place and at this point in time? Who are the authorities? The underdogs? We are in the middle of what?).

These requisites of journalism instruction signify the nature of journalistic writing (which comprises bulk of journalism as a craft) as *process-oriented, concise, accurate, and fair (but can never be perfectly objective)*. One cannot produce an effective journalistic text in a rush, two-hour sit-down activity; the writer has to go through planning, data-gathering, writing, and revising.

Moreover, writers of journalistic texts, as a genre distinct from academic texts and literary texts, bear the burden of political correctness and strive always to be “almost neutral”, (an individual cannot be entirely unbiased). For example, a journalist must carefully choose his or her words, such that “said” is preferred over “argued” or “exclaimed,” and loaded words, even if uttered verbatim, are replaced by words that minimize potential damage to persons involved.

With the nuances of language and slippery (and evolving) requirements of context, the pedagogy of journalism gives rise to numerous delicate and problematic tasks, especially in a situation where the learners are as young as elementary students. **In this paper, I will discuss 1) how the internet transformed the practice and pedagogy of journalism in the country (instruction *in* the internet or internet alongside classroom instruction?), 2) the nature of journalism as an extra-curricular field in Philippine elementary education, and 3) the preparedness of teachers in teaching journalism vis-à-vis the educational policy on teaching journalism in public elementary schools**

For a case study, I evaluated the performance of journalism trainers in teaching journalism, particularly journalistic writing in English, to students in the town of Los Baños, Laguna, Philippines. The assessment led to the conclusion that the instructional communication strategies of the teachers are not the problem in terms of effectiveness, but their lack of mastery of journalism as a practice (I will discuss this in depth in the subsequent sections of this paper).

After evaluating the situation of journalism teaching in Los Baños, I arranged online writing tutorials on newswriting, considered a core component of journalism, and observed the development (or lack thereof) in the writing skills of the teachers as the tutorials continue. Through this method, I explored the possible role that *e-learning* can play in developing the journalistic skills of the teachers and improving their quality of instruction.

This paper is the *first part* of an ongoing four-part study, which will consist of the following:

1. Assessment of the current pedagogy of journalism in elementary schools in Los Baños and introduction of distance learning as a tool in improving the quality of instruction
2. Development of a more comprehensive and institutionalized *e-learning* system for elementary journalism
3. Monitoring and evaluation of the *e-learning* system
4. Multi-location testing of the *e-learning* system

The objective of the study is to provide 1) basis for a review and revision of educational policy on journalism teaching in primary education, and 2) grounding for an institutionalized and long-term *e-learning* system and curriculum for improvement of journalism instruction.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

From ‘hot off the presses’ to real-time: How the internet changed the practice and pedagogy of journalism in the Philippines

Much has been said about the fact that the internet transformed the dimensions of time and space, radically reducing both such that media has become nothing less “pervasive and ubiquitous” (Deuze, 2012). For Harvey (1990), the development of and democratization of access to the internet as a technology, and the hardware or infrastructure that work with it, changed the “human experience of space-time relationships” and even people’s “sense of reality itself” (Harvey, 1990, cited by Deuze, 2012).

Tough beginnings

The metamorphosis of space-time relationships in journalism (relationships referring to relationships between space and time, relationships between journalist and audience, and relationships among the audience) are apparent in 1) data-gathering for content, and 2) distribution and consumption of content. For instance, in the online newsroom, an article published an hour after the event is already considered late, a feat deemed impossible by the journalists of the ‘80s or even ‘90s. For those who have access to the internet and has the necessary equipment (laptop or smartphone), a civil war in Syria or an airstrike in Gaza happens like it was just around the block.

The transformation of space-time relationships, however, did not happen as swiftly as a mouse click. In fact, it has been 30 years since the internet was introduced in the Philippines, but a significant portion of the population still has no access to the medium. The country was able to acquire a permanent public internet connection only in 1994 (Contreras and Maslog, 2006), lagging behind other countries. At that time, only a privileged few were able to use the internet because the necessary infrastructure was lacking or even non-existent in many areas. For one, only a limited number of telephone lines function in the National Capital Region at the time when internet service is coursed through the landline cables (dial-up). Consequently, online news publishing then was not seen as an “economically viable medium,” and releasing an online edition was done “only at the side” to promote the print version (Contreras and Maslog, 2006).

In 1995, the national daily *The Manila Times* published an online edition, the first broadsheet to do so. Other newspapers followed suit, and in 1998, a significant number of news publications went online (Contreras and Maslog, 2006). The year was the turning point for the profitability of the online medium, especially after the 1997 economic crisis. Publishers and advertisers shifted to online advertising as the “cheaper alternative” (Datinguino, 1999, cited by Contreras and Maslog, 2006) to print and television advertising.

Now, the country has more than 30 online news publications, with some getting as much as 300,000 hits a day on regular days (Contreras and Maslog, 2006).

The new landscape

While the print major dailies and the tabloids still thrive in the country, publishers have installed adaptive measures amid the emergence of web-based news outfits and the popularity of social networking sites such as Facebook and Twitter, which themselves have become venues of news circulation. Broadsheets such as the *Philippine Daily Inquirer*, which has the biggest circulation among tabloids at 866,000 readers per day (The Nielsen Co., 2011, cited by Inquirer.net, 2012), and major television networks like GMA and ABS-CBN, manage their respective online news sites. An interesting observation is that the online sites of the broadsheets publish news as soon as it happens, but the news articles in the hard copy are uploaded only after the paper was released (so essentially, a degree of sanctity is still accorded to the print version).

Editors of print newspapers now invest in the “angle” and volume of data in their articles, inasmuch as print could not compete with online journalism in terms of speed. Some publishers are exploring the synergy of both the online and print components (A case in point would be the inclusion of a QR code in the print copy; the user scans the code and will be taken to the e-version of the photo published in the newspaper or to the paper as a whole). Journalists of this day and age put premium on the brevity of content and/or the visual presentation of content, thus the popularity of “infographics” in online news, a requirement created by the attributes of the *i*-gen (internet generation).

Dy (2013) described the learning style and media consumption of the *i*-gen as “immediate,” “experiential,” and “social,” *so the journalist must digest the content and transcode it into a form that can be speedily consumed.* This pursuit for “instant gratification” and constant multi-tasking characterize the *i*-gen, said Lee-Chua (2012). Lee-Chua even cited her students as example; “slow” was the term they used to describe the late Michael Jackson, whose dance movement is already considered as ‘hyper-energized’ in his time.

The electronic trail

Alongside the “hyper-acceleration” in the distribution and consumption of media, internet-based data-gathering methods were also developed. Sheila Coronel, an award-winning Filipino journalist, acknowledged the fact that the internet, “with its vast resources, is a mine of information.” (2012) She added that “familiarity with online research techniques is now a pre-requisite for investigations.”

The anonymity and time-space compression in the internet have offered sources the convenience and the assurance of safety when communicating with journalists. Journalists use e-mail services and even social networking sites to correspond with government functionaries whose work schedules make face-to-face interviews almost impossible. Individuals who prefer anonymity due to fear of retribution also use the internet to provide crucial information and at the same time mask their identity (it is still the journalist’s duty to confirm the information).

Government offices, including the office of the president, and institutions such as the Catholic Bishops Conference of the Philippines, are now maintaining Twitter accounts for information dissemination. Journalists “follow” key accounts and “influencers,” or individuals with a huge following in social networking sites, to keep abreast of developments and cover breaking news. To track online developments, they familiarize themselves with the hashtags set by prominent groups or media networks for a particular occasion (e.g. #GlendaPH in the case of the onslaught of Typhoon Rammasun in the Philippines).

The shift to the mobile web

Internet usage is increasingly becoming a necessity in the urban space, and Filipino consumers started to seek 24/7 connection in 2011 (Nielsen, 2014). Internet penetration in the last four years doubled from 27 percent in 2010 to 52 percent in 2014 (Nielsen, 2014). The game changer in the access to the internet is the surge in smartphone usage (smartphones universally defined as a phones with advanced connectivity compared with the earlier units and are able to synchronize with online services). While the use of desktop for internet dwindled significantly from 63 percent in 2013 to 35 percent in the first quarter of 2014, the use of mobile devices for browsing increased to 35 percent.

“As mobile penetration rises and getting online becomes easier than ever, consumers are staying online for increasing lengths of time,” said Stuart Jamieson, managing director of Nielsen Philippines (Nielsen, 2014). The revolutionary increase in internet access and mobile web usage led to greater investment in real-time coverage (micro-updates in Twitter released by the minute) and mobile-based platforms (news “apps” of television networks and other media outfits).

Despite the rise in internet accessibility, one cannot readily label the Philippines as a ‘wired society.’

Freedom and constancy: The internet and the pedagogy of journalism

For Filipino journalist and educator Danilo Arao (2014), the internet has provided “a more convenient way for journalists to communicate with their sources who are ‘net-savvy.’” Arao made a critical qualification: sources who are net-savvy. *The presence of this qualification speaks of a truth in Philippine society: not everyone has access to internet and not everyone is computer-literate or “internet-literate.”* The medium remains inaccessible to about half of the population, particularly in the far-flung countryside areas (Nielsen, 2014).

However, in the documented cases of internet-mediated journalism teaching (both as supplement to or supplemented by face-to-face meetings and purely online) in the Philippines, participants were mostly college students residing in the urban areas and belonging to the middle to upper class socio-economic classes. *Availability of connection or hardware was not so much a problem as curriculum planning, assessment, and plagiarism checking.*

Premier universities in the Philippines have been offering internet-assisted and online journalism courses as early as 2001. New courses such as Computer-Assisted Reporting and Online Journalism were introduced. “Many journalism courses also adopted a multi-media approach to teaching, realizing that the manner of reportage across different media could differ even if the professional and ethical standards remain the same,” explained Arao.

One of the institutions of journalism teaching in the Philippines, Konrad Adenauer Center for Journalism (CFJ) of Ateneo de Manila University, compiled what it deems as “best practices” in teaching journalism through online courses. The CFJ, an institution offering masteral programs to professional journalists in Asia, noted that the “obvious challenges” in this mode of teaching include:

1. The difficulty in creating a “mentor-apprentice” bond formed in a one-on-one writing tutorial (King, 2005)
2. Lack of “live feedback” (Wong, 2005), and consequently, the lack of the intensity of face-to-face instruction (King, 2005)
3. More opportunities for online plagiarism
4. Lack of bandwidth for multi-media presentations (Wong, 2005)
5. Cultural diversity in skills-based courses

But the debate on whether or not online learning is as effective as traditional classroom instruction is already “cliché” because educators are starting to *recognize* the uniqueness of the medium with all its limitations and potential (Escaler, 2005). The discourse has transcended the “virtual classroom vs traditional classroom” debate, and takes off from the fact that online learning fits in the needs of special groups like professionals as students and educators. The discourse now focuses on the exemplary practices that overcome the limitations that have long been identified.

A survey of these practices provided me with ideas in designing an e-learning curriculum in journalism for elementary school teachers. One of the instructors in CFJ, Elliot King (2005), observed that communication via “asynchronous” technologies (e.g. email correspondence and chat sessions) can increase the frequency of interaction between teacher and student, and possibly simulate the mentorship so crucial in teaching journalism. The problem with this method is that it is “labor intensive.”

King (2005) and Wong (2005) emphasized that collaborative learning among students is a prerequisite in simulating classroom discussion. Students can post comments on materials and more important, on the outputs of their classmates in a discussion board or forum. Mangahas (2005) believed that “constancy” is key to successful online learning; teachers should constantly observe and evaluate the feedback of students (and stimulate the discussion when students are not yet sharing their insights). Although there are no regular face-to-face meetings, the *e-learning* instructor has to allot more time and effort for consultations and evaluation in a more intensive pace (Wong, 2005).

Aside from the challenge to simulate mentorship, online instructors bear the burden of creating an alternation of feedback and revision through workshops. **Workshops are an indispensable pedagogical method in writing because skills are strengthened through practice.** Sunico (2005), for example, conducted a writing workshop online with his students, but only after he studied the background of the participants through survey questionnaires. Based on the data from the questionnaires, he created a tailor-fit online writing curriculum.

The practices highlighted one of the distinct attributes of online learning: student-centered. Online learning caters best to the working professionals who do not have the means and the time for regular face-to-face class meetings. The set-up gives them the *freedom* to accomplish academic tasks without interfering in their work schedules.

However, although the primary problem in teaching journalism online is the difficulty of establishing the “bond” between teacher and student (the bond that is crucial in skills development), hardware-based limitations still pose a dilemma even in online universities in the country. According to Wong (2005), bandwidth limitations and internet speed are often the obstacles in the presentation of content. In online learning, content is shared mostly as texts (discussion board posts, comments on outputs, soft copy of reading materials, among others) because multi-media content and videos or mini-lectures require more than optimal bandwidth and internet speed. In this case, if enough preparation is devoted to the course, mini-lectures and other multi-media content can be stored in a CD for the student’s offline use (provided the student receives the CD).

In the case of many primary schools and even tertiary schools in the countryside, the problem remains to be infrastructure limitations (the lack of computers for instance) and the lack of reliable internet connection. The journalism teachers in Los Baños face the very same problem. However, I chose online learning as a tool in improving the journalism teachers’ skills and quality of instruction because their 40-hours-a-week work schedule (from 7 a.m. or 8 a.m. to 4 p.m. or 5 p.m.) does not allow frequent classroom meetings. Moreover, these meetings require financial resources and time investment that teachers can no longer afford. Hence, distance learning is a reasonable option, provided there is accurate analysis of the status quo and background of participants.

Baptismal of fire: Journalism as a field in elementary education

The Philippine government institutionalized journalism competitions in the elementary and high school levels in 1991, by virtue of Republic Act (RA) 7079 or “Campus Journalism Act of 1991.” According to RA 7079, the Department of Education (DepEd), the government agency overseeing the affairs of basic education, “shall sponsor periodic competitions, press conferences and training seminars in which student-editors/writers and teacher-adviser of student publications in the elementary, secondary and tertiary levels shall participate.” These competitions begin at the institutional levels and “[culminates] with the holding of the annual national elementary, secondary or tertiary School Press Conferences.”

There are nine categories in each competition, with each category divided into two: English and Filipino, the national language (except the collaborative desktop publishing, in which the school publication group releases a newspaper as a collective entry). All in all, there are 14 categories, and the top seven participants are awarded on stage. The categories are as follows:

- News writing
- Editorial writing
- Copyreading and headline writing
- Feature writing
- Sports writing
- Photojournalism
- Cartooning
- Radio broadcasting
- Collaborative desktop publishing

Each school fields only one student per category, with the exception of radio broadcasting and collaborative desktop publishing (team entry). A student can participate in more than one category.

The top five (four in other areas) winners in each category in the district competition can advance to the higher level, the regional contest. **In the journalism competitions, however, the “district” does not strictly refer to the congressional districts. For instance, all schools in the town of Los Baños compete in the district level, making the town in itself a “district”.**

The top four winners in the regionals are the only ones allowed to proceed to the nationals, such that the last level is a battle among representatives from each of the 17 regions of the Philippines.

The journalism competitions are “a source of prestige” (Pingad, 2014) for school administrators, so much so that teachers earn promotion points when their students land a place in the competition. Under the Results-based Performance Management System of DepEd, teachers fill out the Individual Performance Commitment and Review form, in which they set goals under an indicated time period and performance indicators. The individual goals are patterned after institutional goals and according to the position of the teacher in the school (e.g. school publication adviser). The school principal evaluates the performance of the teacher based on “actual results,” under which the results of inter-school competitions are indicated as outcomes.

Despite the 22 years of the institutionalized competitions, *many teachers who were assigned as school publication advisers are left to their own devices (without ample training) in teaching journalism principles. There is no journalism elective in the Basic Education*

Curriculum, and most teachers rely on seasonal seminars sponsored by the DepEd and non-government organizations.

Furthermore, the teachers have to juggle the journalism training with the rest of their academic duties. More often than not, teachers are assigned (they did not volunteer) to handle the school publication (composed of 10 to 30 handpicked students). In many schools, only one teacher handles the entire publication, while in other schools, two to four advisers are assigned.

METHODOLOGY AND FRAMEWORK

This study is an ongoing project that explores the potential of distance learning (e-learning) in 1) the development of the journalism skills, particularly in writing journalistic articles in English, of elementary teachers in the town of Los Baños, and 2) the improvement of their quality of instruction.

The development of the study is illustrated through the P-Process map:

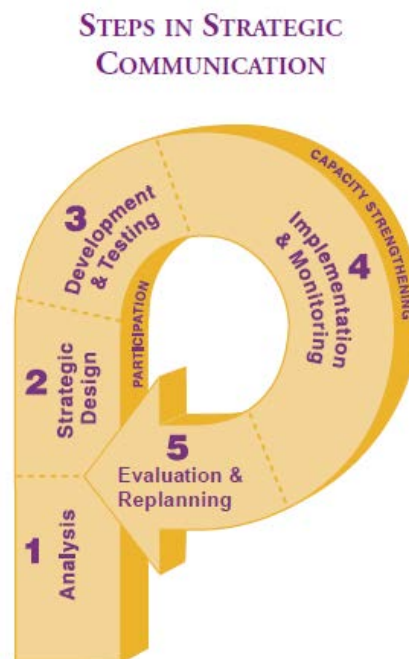


Photo taken from “The New P-Process: Steps in Strategic Communication” by Health Communication Partnership (2003)

The P-Process (Health Communication Partnership, 2003) as an operational framework is “systematic and adaptive to changes.” The developers of this framework, which begins with a grounded analysis of the situation, aim to provide communication professionals with a step-by-step guide through which they can design a campaign or a curriculum with measurable impact. The P-Process is in fact a pro-active cycle in which the evaluation of a project or a campaign goes back to the analysis and development of design.

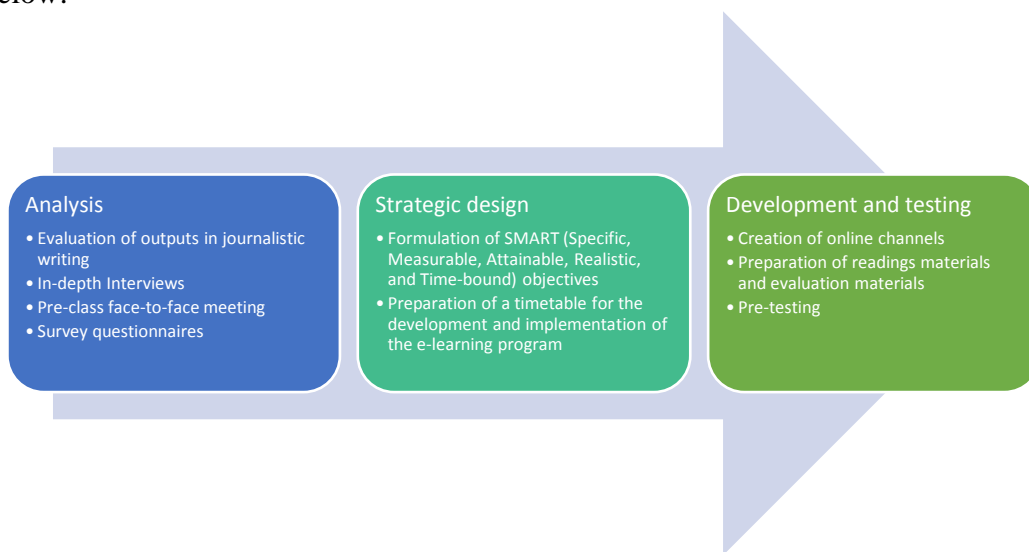
The steps in the P-Process are as follows:

1. Analysis
2. Strategic Design

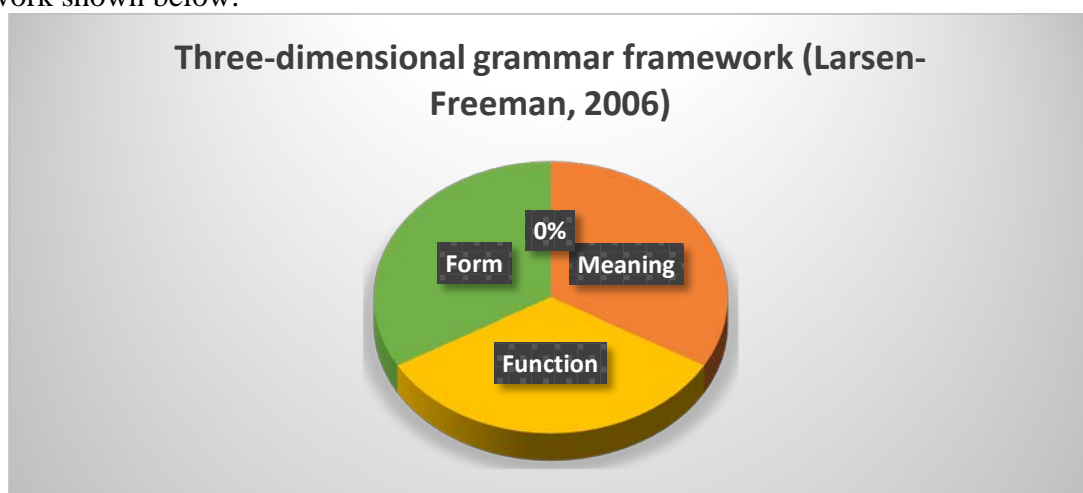
3. Development and Testing
4. Implementation and Monitoring
5. Evaluation and Re-planning

This part of the study covers the first two steps (analysis and strategic design) and part of the third step (development and testing). I chose to limit my study to the journalism trainers in Los Baños, Laguna, because of the performance of the “district” representatives in the journalism competitions in the last few years. Teachers reported difficulty in securing a spot in the competition. Last year, for instance, student representatives from Los Baños were able to secure less than 10 spots (out of 98 or seven spots in each of the 14 categories). Based on the number of secured spots, Los Baños is lagging behind the other districts of Laguna.

According to the P-Process, a rigorous study on the situation and the stakeholders should be the first step (Analysis) in strategic communication. I analyzed the strengths and weaknesses of the teachers’ journalism skills through the methods indicated in the process map below:



I evaluated the outputs (news articles in English) using the three-dimensional grammar framework shown below:



In Larsen-Freeman’s three-dimensional view on grammar, the form that the author chooses is a reflection of his or her purpose. The three dimensions (form, meaning, and

function) are represented as wedges of a pie, therefore suggesting that the dimensions are not hierarchically arranged. A change in one dimension inevitably leads to a change in the other two. Larsen-Freeman (2006) posed the progressive notion the act of writing is the act of making choices. For instance, the simple fact of choosing the passive construction of the sentence presupposes a purpose that could possibly be “to conceal the agent of the action.”

The analysis of form is guided by the three-level approach of Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (2008), which consists of the subsentential, sentential, and suprasentential analyses. To comprehensively analyze form, one has to examine the three levels by which grammar operates: choice of words of the author (subsentential level), the structure of the sentence (sentential), and the organization and register of the text as a whole (suprasentential).

In this study, I assessed the preliminary outputs of the participating teachers using the guide question “Were the teachers able to communicate the main idea or the thesis statement through command of language (form)? Why or why not?”

As aid to evaluation, I also used the standards specific to newswriting in English as prescribed by Strunk and White (1979) and Metz (1979), as follows:

| Level | Criteria |
|-----------------|--|
| Subsentential | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriate usage of words • Appropriate choice of words (appropriate to news as a text) • Political correctness • Economy of words (conciseness) • Subject-verb agreement • Correct tense of the verb |
| Sentential | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appropriate (as opposed to grammatically incorrect or awkward) phrasing • Completeness of the sentence • Appropriate choice of sentence structure |
| Suprasentential | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The structure (fluid) • Transitions • Establishing the register of the text as a news article • Presence of necessary data • Identifying the “news” in a set of events (angle) • Conciseness and impact of the lead (first paragraph) |

Since the written output is the *ultimate* measure of learning in a field such as journalism, I noted the strengths and weaknesses of their outputs as measure of their journalistic writing skills. Their appreciation of journalism (how do they view journalism as a process-oriented and context-based discipline?), meanwhile, was evaluated mostly through in-depth interviews.

As for their methods of evaluation and instruction, I observed their lecture strategies in the district-wide competitions and also asked them to accomplish survey questionnaires. In the questionnaires, they were asked to quantify the importance of the stated criteria in

evaluating news articles (5 being “very important” and 1 being “not important at all”). They also indicated their methods of teaching journalism (e.g. lectures or workshops), choosing students to train (e.g. entrance exams), and described their difficulty in teaching.

Also, from the interviews and the questionnaires, I gathered data on the frequency and quality of their internet usage. *The evaluation of their outputs and appreciation of journalism as a field (method to diagnose their skills and knowledge levels) and collection of data on frequency and quality of internet usage were used to construct the e-learning curriculum (pacing and activities).*

Before planning a more comprehensive e-learning curriculum (in which funding should be taken into account), I conducted writing tutorial sessions through email. Based on the information from interviews and questionnaires, I crafted a schedule with their workload and skill levels taken into consideration. I adopted a workshop style of instruction (alternation of feedback and revision) and observed their development in news writing. This is the development and testing stage.

The tutorial program, which I packaged as “Journalism e-training program for teachers,” followed this schedule:

| Number of days | Purpose and/or activity |
|--|--|
| PRE-ONLINE SESSIONS | |
| Day 1 (eight hours) | Pre-online learning sessions Diagnostic measures <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Newswriting exercise 2. Classroom lecture and discussion on news writing 3. Sharing of teaching experience |
| Day 2 (eight hours) | Extension of diagnostic measures Announcement of e-training program (engaging teachers to participate in the program) |
| ONLINE TUTORIALS | |
| Day 3 (three weeks after Day 2; start of e-training program) | Distribution of readings materials (for knowledge) |
| Day 4 (one day after Day 3) | Submission of newswriting output of teacher and student Returning of news outputs with embedded comments |
| Day 6 (two days after Day 4) | Deadline for revised output Returning of outputs with embedded comments |
| Day 8 (two days after Day 6) | Deadline for revised outputs/final draft Returning of outputs with embedded comments, summary of feedback, and debriefing |

Questions regarding the feedback can be coursed through email and SMS (I send them text messages for reminders). I used email correspondence to create an impression that the program is a personalized, mentor-apprentice learning relationship.

My primary purpose in this pre-testing is to determine the viability of such an online learning schedule and to determine the capability of the teachers to cope with the deadlines. The results will serve as ground for re-planning.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

In discussing the findings, I find it helpful to divide the points of analysis into two major parts: 1) preparedness of trainers in teaching journalism, and 2) preparedness for online journalism training and results of pre-testing.

Preparedness of journalism teachers

Out of the 19 journalism teachers or school publication advisers (There are 15 schools in the district of Los Baños, but some schools have more than one adviser), 11 reported that they were “assigned” to teach journalism and had “no choice.” Eight others were assigned by their respective school principals and were willing to take the task. Only one said she volunteered for the position.

Majority of those who were assigned but would have refused if given a choice said they already have their hands full with the classes they to teach each day for five days a week. Some of them said they needed more preparation for the task before being assigned as the school paper adviser. Eleven (11) teachers felt their knowledge and skills in journalism are “highly inadequate,” while eight (8) felt their skills are “inadequate.”

A considerable number (7) of the advisers are first-time journalism trainers. Five have been teaching journalism for less than five years. Two started in 2006, and one for each of the following years: 2005, 2007, 2008, and 2009. The veteran in the trade started teaching journalism in 2002.

While majority (13) of the advisers managed to field award-winning students, the teachers’ outputs suggest a glaring lack of mastery in what is considered as the core component of journalism: news writing.

In the pre-online classes, *I observed that those who were able to write a news article under two hours (the rest were not able to submit an output) need intensive training because the weaknesses lie on the suprasentential level rather than the subsentential.* All of them were not able to identify the news in the given set of facts. For example, in the exercise on a seminar about climate change, the teachers all thought that the newsworthy fact is the holding of a seminar, not what was said in the seminar. Almost everyone do not know how to write an effective lead, as most of them write “police blotter” type leads that are too long and cluttered.

Due to the inability to correctly identify the news, the subsequent paragraphs also lack direction. Some are still unable to build a clean or fluid structure.

All, except two, are not aware of the register (which includes the tone of the text in relation to the context). I classified the fidelity to the register as a suprasentential criterion, but register is the totality of the attributes of word choice, sentence structure, and text organization as a whole. The choice of words, for one, should match the nature of the text, which is the reason journalists are trained to avoid adjectives and highfalutin words in news writing.

However, the teachers still use vague words that are not appropriate to the register of the text as a news article. The writing lacks precision, as adjectives are not substantiated by the proper facts (e.g. “The seminar was very helpful.” How helpful? Helpful because? The author did not expound on the “helpfulness” of the seminar).

At the subsentential and sentential levels, I noted the lack of English proficiency. Some words were incorrectly used and quite a number of sentences were awkwardly phrased.

Awkward phrasing and choice of words signifies the difficulty that non-native learners of the English language experience. Naturally, they think in their native language, which in this case is Filipino. They directly translate their thoughts to English. This is problematic because the two are clearly two different languages with differences in grammar and lexicon. Direct and careless translation from one to another inevitably leads to grammatical errors or awkward phrasing (e.g. One of the teachers wrote “He was complained of corruption.” The word “complain,” however, is used as a verb, not a predicate adjective or subjective complement as in the case of what the teacher wrote.)

The weaknesses of the teachers’ writing stretch gravely from the small technical errors (e.g. spelling and subject-verb agreement) to the overarching principles of newswriting. Many of them know only the basic of the basics (the knowledge-level learning objectives). It is not surprising, therefore, that landing a place in the division-wide competitions proved to be a daunting task.

In their journalism lectures, seven of the teachers exhibited mastery of speech communication strategies for instruction. All of them used strategies of proxemics, particularly kinesics, in trying to engage the audience. They knew how to get their points across using theatrical techniques and story-telling. The problem, however, is that the depth of the lesson is limited because they lack mastery of the material. *For this reason, I chose to focus on skills-building first in the online learning sessions.*

Based on my interviews, their understanding of journalism as a discipline remains to be in the level of echoing platitudes or clichés such as “Journalism should be unbiased” or “Journalism aims to uncover the truth.” **The appreciation is only at the surface level, as most of them did not know (before the pre-online sessions) that journalism is actually the art and science of manipulating language forms to achieve a particular purpose.**

However, the teachers cannot be blamed entirely for the weaknesses, in the same sense that a teacher cannot blame a student for having difficulty in understanding the lesson. Journalism is not part of the Basic Education Curriculum. There was no journalism elective and in the case of the Laguna province, journalism is not integrated into Filipino or English. Journalism trainers meet their students outside class hours, sometimes stealing time from their “rest day.”

The findings of this evaluation, if anything, call for a review of educational policy regarding journalism as a field in elementary school. Measures such as inclusion of journalism in the basic education curriculum or institutionalization of distance learning support for journalism trainers should be in place.

Preparedness for online learning and results of pre-testing

Of the 19 journalism teachers, only six reported that they have reliable internet access at home (two with digital subscriber line or DSL, three with wireless fidelity or wifi connection, and one dial-up). DSL connection provides access to the internet by sending data through the public telephone network. DSL connection speed in Filipino homes ranges from 50 kilobytes of digital data per second to 10 megabytes per second, depending on the subscription fee. With this speed, a subscriber can perform a variety of internet functions such as browsing and playing internet videos. Wifi connections run with speeds similar to those of DSL (in many households, the DSL cable is connected to a wifi router device).

Dial-up connection is slower than DSL and wifi (at most 50 kilobytes), while broadband sticks offer as slow as 20 kilobytes per second to seven megabytes per second depending on the location and subscription fee. Subscribers plug in the broadband sticks to their computers to access the internet with speeds depending on their location and subscription fee (mostly prepaid).

Not all of the teachers, however, regularly use the internet because of time constraints (only two get to check their online accounts every day). Six of them rely on internet at their workplace, while seven use broadband sticks.

The figures above show the limitations of internet usage among teachers. Internet via broadband sticks are relatively slower than wifi or cable DSL, and in most of the time, users have to wait for a long period of time just for pages to load. Mentorship through online chat sessions, therefore, cannot be an option as connectivity limitations may prevent live feedback.

Those who have internet at home only get to browse the web after work hours (after 6 p.m.), while some can only use the internet during free hours at school.

Despite the limitations of schedule, most of them expressed willingness in participating in the *e-training* program. I prepared the schedule in such a way that they are given one to two days to revise their outputs. *The amount of time allotted is not overly generous and is in fact justified given that writing should be a reflective practice. Online learning is student-centered, so the participants should be given the freedom to study the feedback at their own pace, to reflect on their strong and weak points, and to rewrite their output at their own free time.*

However, out of the 19 that signed up in the program, only four were able to send their outputs via email on the set deadline. Three were two days late, citing lack of internet access at home as reason for failing to meet the deadline. The others did not respond to my reminders.

Only three of the four participants submitted revised outputs, but were not able to meet the deadlines. During the duration of the online workshop, I embedded highly illustrative comments indicating the error, the reason it is considered as an error, and ways through which the student can solve the problem (Error identification, explanation of error vis-à-vis standards and comparison with the right form, and possible remedies). *Due to the lack of immediate feedback, I strived to make the comments stand by themselves without needing additional support.*

The comments are patterned after the three-level and three-dimensional grammar framework, discussing suprasentential concerns such as faulty structure, missing thesis statement, and ineffective leads, as well as subsentential and sentential concerns like brevity in phrasing and simplicity in choice of words.

In all three of the outputs, I observed improvements not only in form, but also in content. *At first, the outputs are highly problematic because the writers are not familiar with the journalistic style and do not know how to organize thoughts.* I explained the nature of newswriting style and even directed them to the readings materials that were earlier distributed. I also wrote comments on the subsentential and sentential levels (e.g. the right verb should be singular because the subject is singular).

The revised outputs contain slightly better leads and structures. Much work remains to be done though, as grammatical errors in phrasing and even subject-verb agreement can still be found in the articles. The writers still have difficulty in executing expository techniques like narration or description.

The final output shows considerable improvement in the different levels of grammar, but still needs a lot of improvement. It should be noted that the time for the online workshop and the number of revisions were not enough to process the output into a clean copy.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The proposal to explore the potential of e-learning as a tool in the improvement of skills and instruction of elementary journalism trainers in Los Baños, Laguna, Philippines, stem from the problems in the preparedness of teachers in teaching journalism. Clearly, the

teachers are not prepared in terms of skills, knowledge, and appreciation levels. This study pointed out the primary factors that account for this status quo, which include 1) lack of formal training for both teachers and students, as journalism is not incorporated in the Basic Education Curriculum, and 2) the teachers' volume of work each day in a week. Further complicating the situation is the struggle in learning English as a second language in a developing country such as the Philippines.

Teaching journalism online, however, is not something new in the Philippines. Premier universities like the University of the Philippines and the Ateneo de Manila University have been recalibrating their courses and using the online medium for pedagogy. Since 1998, the internet has been re-shaping space-time relationships as well as the gathering, distribution, and consumption of media in the country. While the ethics and basic principles remain the same, the students are now being trained to use the internet wisely, with all its limitations and potential.

Yet, the challenges in teaching journalism online in the premier universities are not the same as those in the schools at the countryside. In this study, the problems are infrastructure-based (lack of computers and reliable connection), literacy-based (not all can use the internet to its utmost potential), and appreciation-based (not all welcome the internet as a venue for learning). The confluence of these factors and those that affect the preparedness of teachers constitute huge impediments in the development of teachers' skills in journalism and instruction.

The results of the pre-testing prove the following (and these will be included in the preparation of a more comprehensive e-learning curriculum):

1. The need for grammar refreshers as supplementary support in writing
2. The need for constant reminders through other channels such as SMS
3. The need for institutional support e.g. a memorandum for participation
4. The need for restricting the curriculum in which more time will be given for revision (not just two days)
5. The need for blended learning(internet alongside instruction) for beginners who do not have constant access to the internet

While *e*-learning can indeed provide the assistance that journalism trainers need, its success can be amplified through revision of educational policy in journalism teaching in the elementary level. Although new technology can open new possibilities in learning, the decision-making in the key agencies of the state are always, as history has proven, a matter of immediate and powerful consequence.

REFERENCES

- Arao, D. (2014, September 9). How internet changed the pedagogy and practice of journalism in the Philippines. (P. G. Estella, Interviewer)
- Coronel, S. (2012). *Digging Deeper: A Guide For Investigative Journalists in the Balkans*. Balkan Investigative Reporting Network.
- Contreras, M., & Maslog, C. (2006). Philippine Online Journalism: Promise and Perils. Asia Media Information and Communication. Retrieved from http://www.amic.org.sg/Resources/Research_Materials/Journalism/PHILIPPINE%20ONLINE%20JOURNALISM.pdf
- Datinguino, V. (1999). Local goes global: The community press finds a place in cyberspace. In S. Coronel (Ed.), *From Loren to Marimar: The Philippine Media in the 1990s*. Quezon City, Philippines: Philippine Center for Investigative Journalism.
- Escaler, M. (2005). Introduction. In V. Valdez, C. Hofileña, M. Escaler, & W. V. Busch (Eds.), *Best Practices in Journalism Education in the Information Age* (pp. 23-24). Quezon City: Ateneo de Manila University.
- Harvey, D. (1990). *The Condition of Postmodernity*. Malden: Blackwell.
- Health Communication Partnership. (2003). *The new P-process: Steps in Strategic Communication*. World Health Organization. Retrieved from http://www.who.int/immunization/hpv/communicate/the_new_p_process_jhuccp_2003.pdf
- Inquirer.net. (2012, February 20). *Philippine Daily Inquirer widens lead in readership*. Retrieved from [newsinfo.inquirer.net: http://newsinfo.inquirer.net/148811/philippine-daily-inquirer-widens-lead-in-readership](http://newsinfo.inquirer.net/148811/philippine-daily-inquirer-widens-lead-in-readership)
- King, E. (2005). Establishing collaborative learning relationships. In V. Valdez, C. Hofileña, M. V. Escaler, & W. V. Busch (Eds.), *Best Practices in Journalism Education in the Information Age* (pp. 25-31). Quezon City: Ateneo de Manila University.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (1997, March). *Grammar and Its Teaching: Challenging the Myths*. Retrieved November 2013, from <http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/larsen01.html>
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2006). *Teaching Grammar: In teaching English as a second or foreign language*. Singapore: Heinle&Heinle-Thomson Learning.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Celce-Murcia, M. (2008). *The grammar book*. Singapore: Heinle-Thomson Learning Asia.
- Lee-Chua, Q. (2012, September). Managing media and technology used by our children. Retrieved from <http://www.specialeducationphilippines.com/2012/09/02/managing-media-and-technology-used-by-our-children-by-dr-queena-lee-chua/>
- Mangahas, M. (2005). Constancy and Passion. *Best Practices in Journalism Education in the Information Age* (pp. 48-53). Quezon City: Ateneo de Manila University.

- Metz, W. (1979). *Newswriting: from lead to "30"*. Englewood Cliffs New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Deuze, M., Blank, Peter, & Speers, Laura. (2012). A life lived in media. *Digital Humanities Quarterly*, 6(1). Retrieved September 2014, from <http://www.digitalhumanities.org/dhq/vol/6/1/000110/000110.html>
- Nielsen Company. (2011). *Nielsen Media Index/Consumer and Media Views*. The Nielsen Co.
- Nielsen Company. (2014). *Pinoy Netizen Report*. The Nielsen Company.
- Pingad, G. (2014, September). On Journalism Teaching. (P. G. Estella, Interviewer)
- Strunk, W. (1979). *The elements of style / by William Strunk Jr.; with revisions, and introd., and a chapter on writing by E. B. White*. New York : MacMillian.
- Sunico, R. (2005). Managing a virtual creative writing workshop. *Best Practices in Journalism Education in the Information Age* (pp. 32-39). Quezon City: Ateneo de Manila University.
- Wong, C. (2005). Teaching IT Journalism Online. *Best Practices in Journalism Education in the Information Age* (pp. 40-47). Quezon City: Ateneo de Manila University.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Pauline Gidget Estella is a College English instructor in the University of the Philippines, the premier state university in the country. She specializes in journalism, grammar and stylistics, and media discourse. A former editor-in-chief of the university student publication and former president of a national student editors guild, she used to focus on investigative journalism projects and discourse analyses in Philippine journalism. In her ongoing graduate studies under the UPLB Communication Arts program, she branches out into research in teaching English as second language and development communication.

Entrepreneurship Education for Collegiate Students of Korea in Creative Economy Era

Sungeun Cho*

Master student, Program of Human Resource Development Policy
Sookmyung Women's University

Sinjeong Lee

Master student, Program of Human Resource Development Policy
Sookmyung Women's University

Goeun Choi

Master student, Program of Human Resource Development Policy
Sookmyung Women's University

Youngmin Lee

Associate professor, Program of Human Resource Development Policy
Sookmyung Women's University

Abstract

Due to the slow economic growth trend and the limits to growth in a global scale, the investment to human capital is expanding as the only source of growth. Countries are striving to create new added values in various areas under the banner of “creative economy”. Korea also designated “creative economy” as a national undertaking, and provided various support for it. Entrepreneurial spirit exists at the core of this creative economy. In particular, Korea lacks in entrepreneurial spirit among young adults who are the agents of innovation because of higher education and long-standing employment problems. In an attempt to tackle this problem, the government and the private sector are making a great deal of efforts to improve young adults’ entrepreneurial spirit. The present study aims to explore the directions for entrepreneurial spirit education conducted in a university setting, examining the case of Sookmyung Women’s University where entrepreneurial spirit education is actively implemented.

Keywords: creative economy, entrepreneurial spirit

I . Introduction

Korea has not been an exception to the global trend of slow growth, which has continued since global financial crisis that started with the United States in 2008. Countries have been struggling to find a new growth engine to break this trend. In this situation where increasing input has reached its limit, innovation is virtually the only source of growth, and the need to train human resources with creativity and resolve for innovation by increasing the investment to human capital is becoming increasingly important (Korea Institute for Industrial Economics, 2010).

To discover the innovation-based growth engine, each country continues its attempts to utilize its human resources mainly in the fields it has a competitive edge. These efforts of the countries are taking a foothold as a way to create new added values under the name of “creative economy” or “creative industries”.

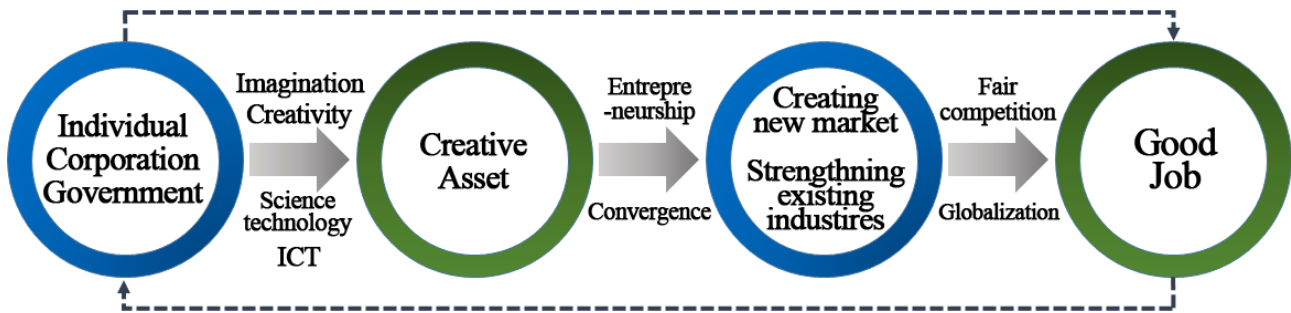
The present study will examine the creative economy, which is establishing itself as a global trend, and the creative economy that Park Geun-hye Administration has put forward, and then summarize on entrepreneurship that can be the core of creative economy. In addition, this study will examine a case of a program, which is implemented to foster entrepreneurship in a university in Korea.

II . Advent of Creative Economy

The concept of creative economy was first used in the book, “The Creative Economy” by John Howkins, a British business strategist, in 2001. Howkins described in his book that “creative economy is to vitalize the industries including manufacturing, service, retail, and entertainment with new ideas, namely creativity”. Since Howkins first mentioned the concept of creative economy, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTD) defined creative economy in “The Creative Economy Report” published in 2010 as “all economic activities to produce symbolic products in as many markets as possible through heavy use of intellectual property”. Similar concepts existed even before Howkins. In *The Creative Industries Strategic Report* published by the Department of Culture, Media, and Sports of the United Kingdom, the creative industries were defined as “the industries that establish intellectual property by utilizing individuals’ creativity, skills, and talents, and make them the source of income and job creation”. To summarize, creative economy is “to create new economic effect through individuals’ intellectual property of ideas and skills”.

President Park Geun-hye has been putting creative economy forward as a national task since she took office in 2013. In “The Creative Economy Realization Plan” announced jointly by joint offices in June 2013, creative economy was defined as “a new economic strategy to create new industries and markets by combining citizens’ imagination and creativity with science and technology, and information, communication, and technology (ICT), create good jobs by strengthening existing industries”. To that end, three goals were established including creating new jobs and markets through creation and innovation, enhancing creative economy global leadership on the world stage, and realizing the society where creativity is respected and fully expressed, seeking to provide the national growth engine through creative economy around the industries with comparative advantages.

Figure 1. Creative Economy Ecosystem



In the creative economy ecosystem announced by Park Geun-hye administration (Fig. 1), individuals' imagination and creativity are viewed as the creative assets to create new markets through convergence between entrepreneurship and technology. Viewing the intangible creativity and imagination as the key is the difference between creative economy and industrial society or knowledge economy. At the core of the creative economy paradigm is the human resources to generate new force of growth with innovative technology and creative ideas. Specifically, the essence is the innovative agent who can transcend the challenges using their creativity as a weapon and produce results through patents and start-up businesses.

The essence of the creative economy can be summarized as individuals' ideas and creativity leading to new industries and economic effects through the synergy with science and technology. What facilitates this is "entrepreneurship". It can be said that the impact of science and technology in the actual market is closely related to how to cultivate entrepreneurship.

III. Concept of Entrepreneurship

1. Definition of Entrepreneurship

The term, entrepreneur, started being used as a French Economist, Cantillon (1725) defined it as "the person who takes risks to engage in economic activities". In the 19th century, Say (1803) added the function of production to Cantillon's definition, defining entrepreneur as "the person who moves economic resources from low to high productivity and profitability". A Schumpeter (1934) defined entrepreneur as "the person who initiates creative destruction through innovation".

Schumpeter examined the aspect of entrepreneurship of innovator who becomes the driving force of economic change/development by introducing new goods or production methods. Kirzner(1978) examined the aspect of entrepreneurship of discoverer who breaks down inefficiencies of market by capturing the previously ignored opportunities to generate revenues. According to Hayek (1978), an entrepreneur discovers the opportunities for profits in market price changes, and plays a coordinator's role including increasing supply of insufficient resources to respond to the changes. Drucker (1986) conceptualized entrepreneurship as the spirit of adventure and risk-taking to commercialize the opportunity captured at the risk, and Peneder (2006) attempted to conceptualize entrepreneurship in terms of behavioral, functional, and occupational aspects.

These show that entrepreneurship is defined in various ways by many scholars, but no generalized consensus exists on its definition. Therefore in summary, entrepreneurship can be redefined as the spirit of taking risks of failure and creating new values by discovering new opportunity to venture upon rather than being content with the present.

2. Status of Entrepreneurship Among Korean Young Adults

Entrepreneurship among young adults are disappearing as they join the widespread sentiment in the society that top talents seek stable jobs in large corporations due to poor investment

climate for new businesses and little public awareness of entrepreneurship (Ahn, 2014). According to the 2012 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM), total early-stage entrepreneurial activity (TEA) level for those aged 18-24 in Korea was found to be 2.3%. This is significantly low, considering that the mean TEA for the countries with innovation-driven economy is 10% (Ban et al., 2013).

Although other countries show a high level of entrepreneurial activities among adults aged 18-34, the early-stage entrepreneurial activity is decreasing due to the college education and long preparation for employment that the age group engages in. According to the Start-up Business Status Report by Small Business Administration, the number of businesses run by entrepreneurs in their 20s was 22,954 as of 2013, and the proportion of the entrepreneurs who received entrepreneurship education at the time of they opened business was as low as 12.2%. This is a sad reality in the current situation in which those who have not been trained on entrepreneurship in the secondary or higher educational institutions need to cultivate proper attitude, knowledge and skills. Therefore, entrepreneurship education in stages needs to be provided to young adults as the driving force of economic growth starting from their school years.

3. Improvement Efforts in Young Adults' Entrepreneurship

According to the *Key Improvement Measures To Restore Entrepreneurship* published by GEM, a professional and systematic entrepreneurship education program needs to be developed. A variety of attempts led by developed countries have been made to incorporate entrepreneurship to education, and also in Korea in recent years, the importance of entrepreneurship has drawn attention and the emphasis on the need for education and training is growing (Lee, 2013).

Korea is also recognizing the need for education and support projects for young adults' entrepreneurship, and preparing a wide range of systems for entrepreneurship education in the private sector. At the government level, supports for entrepreneurship education for young adults are provided through Ministry of Employment and Labor, Small Business Administration, and local governments' business incubation centers. Ministry of Employment and Labor provides field experiences and education to young adults who want job creation and entrepreneurship through "Job Creation Internship", and provides internships linked to job creation and entrepreneurship.

For entrepreneurship education, Small Business Administration runs "Entrepreneurship Academy" and "Youth BizCool". "Entrepreneurship Academy" provides and supports college students and pre-entrepreneurs with entrepreneurship courses and clubs as well as hands-on entrepreneurship. The education consists of basics and practice of entrepreneurship, business plans, hands-on and combination course. Because universities or the agencies with capacity and physical and human infrastructure for entrepreneurship education implement the education, it is possible to lease the space dedicated for entrepreneurs and coordinate with actual investments.

Table 1. Status of Operating Bodies of Business Incubation Center

| Operating Body | University | Research Institute | Local Government | Public Corporation | Private Corporation | Other | Total |
|-------------------|------------|--------------------|------------------|--------------------|---------------------|-------|-------|
| Number of Centers | 208 | 21 | 6 | 24 | 16 | 4 | 279 |

In the private sector, a wide range of operating bodies is participating in entrepreneurship education and support. A total of 279 business incubation centers exist in Korea as of 2014, which are operated by universities, private corporations, and research institutes themselves. The fact that business incubation centers operated by universities account for 74.6% of all business incubation centers suggests that the efforts to solidify the foundation to foster young adults' entrepreneurship

are being actively engaged currently. Provided that entrepreneurship education is implemented systematically before young adult enter the society, social costs at the government, society, and individual level can be reduced.

IV. Status of Young Adult Entrepreneurship Education

1. Need for Entrepreneurship Education

As full activation of young adult entrepreneurship emerges as the core of realizing creative economy by the current administration, the importance of entrepreneurship education is drawing more attention. Entrepreneurship education has a significant influence on resulting in actual entrepreneurship. Study results suggest that students with entrepreneurship education were more proactive in planning for future entrepreneurship, and found their determination for entrepreneurship strengthened by the education (Park, 2013). In fact, Stanford University in the United States, which makes a large-scale investment in entrepreneurship education, shows the performance equivalent to the size of the economy of France, including 39,900 alumni corporations with 5.4 million jobs and annual turnover of 2.7 trillion dollars. In particular, 55% of graduates responded that they chose Stanford University for its entrepreneurship educational environment (Eesley et al., 2012).

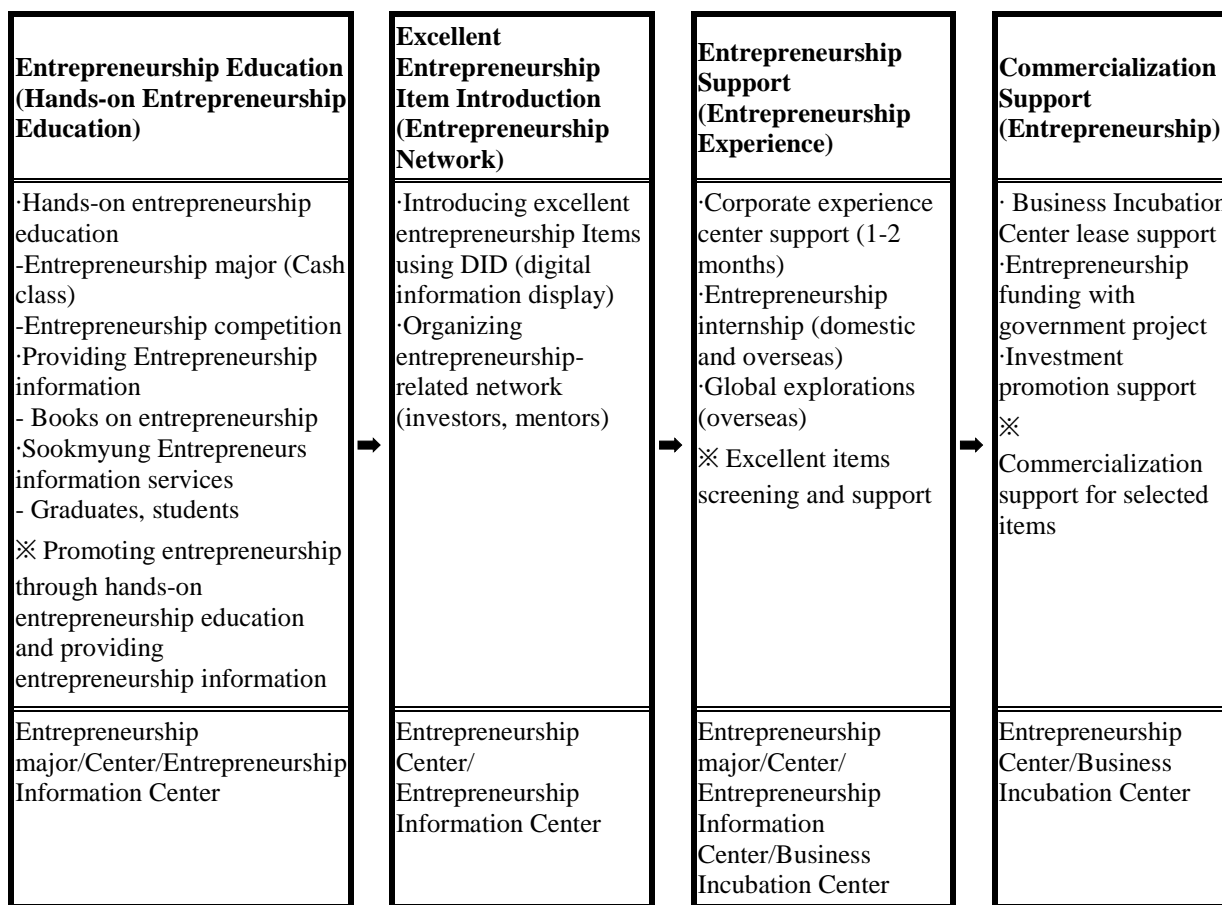
Entrepreneurship education is defined as “the education to enable positive attitude in work performance even if directly engaging in entrepreneurship, as well as the education to teach knowledge, skills, and attitude related to entrepreneurship for future entrepreneurs” (Kim, Oh, and Lee, 2007). In other words, entrepreneurship is important in fostering individuals’ capacity as well as actual entrepreneurship. In fact, a study conducted at Arizona University in the United States also showed that the students who received entrepreneurship education had three time higher entrepreneurship rate than those who did not, and even when they did not run their own businesses, the annual income of the students who received the entrepreneurship education was 27% higher than that of the students who did not (Charney et al., 2009).

Therefore, the entrepreneurial educational mission of the universities that serve to “teach and study the profound theories and their applications required for character development and advancement of nation and humanity, and contribute to them” (Kim, 2011) is becoming important, and accordingly, universities are scrambling for the education to foster entrepreneurship with a variety of programs including opening courses for a major and entrepreneurship competitions. Diverse experience through university’s entrepreneurship education can lead to eliminating negative perception of entrepreneurship, enhancing students’ entrepreneurship mindset, and spreading entrepreneurship climate within school, in addition actual entrepreneurship. This study attempts to examine the case of entrepreneurship education of Sookmyung Women’s University.

2. The Case of Entrepreneurship Education of Sookmyung Women’s University

Sookmyung Women’s University is pushing for entrepreneurship education with a unique curriculum model that combines theory and practice through entrepreneurship major and Entrepreneurship Center. The curriculum that Sookmyung Women’s University provides is examined in the following.

Figure 2. Entrepreneurship Education and Entrepreneurship Support System of Sookmyung Women's University



A. Entrepreneurship Major

The entrepreneurship major offers entrepreneurship major courses including Entrepreneurship and Marketing, Business Startup I & II, Entrepreneurship Workshop, Entrepreneurship, and Startup Case Analysis, and provides students with specialized education to equip them with entrepreneur mindset.

Business Startup I & II, and Entrepreneurship Workshop courses in particular provides Cash Class, which is similar to Foundations of Management and Entrepreneurship (FME) of Babson College in the United States. that support students' entrepreneurship by providing them with up to \$3,000 for seed money.

Cash Class is the hands-on entrepreneurship education in which if students as a team submit a business proposal, the university provides initial operating funds for selected teams and students practice entrepreneurship process. Each selected team of students is given 1.5-2.0 million KRW for a semester to turn their ideas into products and even sell them. Most importantly, the most significant characteristics of Cash Class is that students advance their ideas as they solve problems themselves with mentoring by the faculty or outside consultants, and presentations. Through this process, students acquire knowledge in a variety of fields they learned in the classroom including marketing, accounting, and production and management as they experience entire process of entrepreneurship including deriving ideas, product development and launch, operation and management, and sales activities.

B. Entrepreneurship Competition

In order to create entrepreneurship and its culture in school, and early discovery and training of female CEO by discovering creative women entrepreneurship ideas and excellent items, and commercialization support for them, the university has held entrepreneurship competitions for students and alumni since 2010. The winners receive entrepreneurship education such as mentoring, supports for patent application, and using student entrepreneurship center in Business Incubation Center for free, which is designed to be linked to entrepreneurship.

C. Global Exploration Team Program

Global exploration team is the program designed to provide the opportunity to examine entrepreneurship and corporate management cases in the global market, in which students who submit a proposal for overseas exploration and study program they write themselves, and the excellent proposals are selected based on qualities including suitability of the topic, originality, planning, links and potential to relevant academic field, characters of team members, proactive quality, industriousness, and linguistic competence, and granted a scholarship of up to 1.6 million KRW per person. This program allows students to enhance understanding of entrepreneurship field and personal capabilities by sending them to the organized global network including excellent overseas entrepreneurship centers and startup companies.

D. Entrepreneurship Camp

Sookmyung Entrepreneurship Center runs entrepreneurship camps for students for the purpose of fostering entrepreneurship mindset and enhancing entrepreneurship capacity. Camps consist of programs including mock entrepreneurship team building, entrepreneurship item development and business proposal, team-specific mentoring, and team presentations. According to the survey conducted to evaluate the entrepreneurship camp which was hosted by Sookmyung Women's University including 58 students from Hanyang University, Pohang University of Science and Technology, and Inha University, 78% of participants responded yes to the question, "Did the camp help understanding entrepreneurship better?", and 83% responded yes to the question, "Did the camp help changing perception of entrepreneurship?", indicating the entrepreneurship camp helped fostering students' entrepreneurship mindset.

V. Summary and Conclusions

Since global economic crisis, the creative economy paradigm of creating new economic effects through individuals' intellectual properties of ideas and skills gained a foothold as a global trend. Korea has implemented the policy on creative economy since Park Geun-hye administration's launch in 2013.

The core of creative economy is the fully activated entrepreneurship among young adults. Accordingly, the importance of entrepreneurship to find and take on new opportunities and create new values at the risk of failure is drawing attention, and the emphasis on the need for relevant education and training is growing. A wide range of parties in government and private sector are preparing various systems for entrepreneurship education for entrepreneurship education and support. A specific case of university entrepreneurship education and support system showed that entrepreneurship education can contribute to eliminating negative perception of entrepreneurship, enhancing students' entrepreneurship mindset, and spreading entrepreneurship climate across the society.

University's role in spreading entrepreneurship across the society is to make stronger efforts in establishing the environment students can easily approach entrepreneurship, and entrepreneurship educational program development and operation. Universities need to step up to Entrepreneurial University to train creative human capital through expansion of entrepreneurship

support as well as curriculum efforts including expansion of entrepreneurship major and qualitative advancement of instructional content. When universities become active in entrepreneurship education, this will lead to the climate spreading across society, and ultimately to a wide range of actions in the society.

References

- Ahn, W. (2014). Entrepreneurship Education and Startup Ecosystem in EU. *The Journal of Business Education*, 28(5), 135-172
- Ban, S. et al. (2013). Entrepreneurship in Korea: based on Global Entrepreneurship Monitor(GEM) Korea 2012. *Journal of the Korean Entrepreneurship Society*, 8(3), 27-57
- Choi, W. et al. (2013). *Beyond Korean style: Shaping a new growth formula*. New York: McKinsey Global Institute.
- Department of Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS). (1998). *Creative industries mapping document*. London: Department of Culture, Media and Sport
- Eesley, C. E., & Miller, W. F. (2012). *Impact: Stanford University's Economic Impact via Innovation and Entrepreneurship*.
- Florida, R. L. (2002). *The rise of the creative class: and how it's transforming work, leisure, community and everyday life*. New York: Basic books.
- Government of Republic of Korea. (2013). *Creative economy realization plan*. Seoul: Government of Republic of Korea
- Howkins, J. (2002). *The creative economy: How people make money from ideas*. London: Penguin UK.
- Jeong, C. (2013). Status and challenges of college entrepreneurship education for energizing young adults entrepreneurship. *The HRD Review*, 70(3), 40-59
- Choi, S. et al. (2010). *Structural change in global economy and search for new growth paradigm*. (Research Rep. No. 2010-586). Seoul: Korea Institute for Industrial Economics and Trade.
- Kim, J., Oh, S., & Yang, J. (2007). *A Study on the Entrepreneurship Education of Korea: Focusing on the Entrepreneurship Graduate School*. (Research Rep. No. 07-16). Seoul: Korea Small Business Institute.
- Lee, M., & Won, S. (2013). Educational Needs Analysis for the Development of Entrepreneurship Education Programs: The case of founders, prospective founders and non-founders. *The Journal of Vocational Education Research*, 32(2), 99-134.
- OUTLOOK, E. (2013). OECD Economic Outlook. *Oecd Economic Outlook*, 91, 499-533.
- Park, D. (2013). *Convergence job training measures to promote young adult entrepreneurship*. (Research Rep. No. 13-01-20). Seoul: National Research Council for Economics, Humanities, and Social Sciences.
- Park, J., Joo, H., & Yang, H. (2009). Cultivating the Entrepreneurship in Korea Based on the Analysis of Survey on Entrepreneurial Phenomena. *The Journal of Business Education*, 23(2), 145-164.
- Sookmyung Women's University. (2014). Press release presented by Entrepreneurship Center.
- UNCTAD. (2010). *Creative Economy Report*. Geneva: United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

Evaluating the Current State of Employment Service Programs for Elderly Employees, Using the CIPP Evaluation Model

Jung-yeon Lim*

Doctoral student, Program of Human Resource Development Policy

Sookmyung Women's University

jungyon82@naver.com

Youngmin Lee

Associate professor, Program of Human Resource Development Policy

Sookmyung Women's University

ymlee@sookmyung.ac.kr

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper was to examine the current state of employment services programs for the elderly employees. using the CIPP(Context-Input-Process-Product) evaluation model. Based on the model. we analyzed the current states of the programs and surveyed the program participants's satisfaction. In the results, most of the service providers have conducted the job seeking activities. including data collection of job posting. The quality of the services were various although the service providers have the professionals who have experienced the similar services. However, the service providers had difficulties in managing all the process of the programs, systematic counselling, and job seeking supports. They also need the standardized manual. As the results, the employment rate and four major public insurances of the participants was low. To solve the problems of this situation, we suggested the effective program development, training for the professions, and systematic supports for the elderly employees of job seeking.

Key Words : Employment Service program, CIPP evaluation model, Employment for the elderly

I . Introduction

The proportion of those who are 65 or older in South Korea increased to 7.2 percent in 2000 from 3.1 percent in 1970s. As a result, the country has already entered an aging society, a term defined by the United Nations. With the rate increasing every year, South Korea is expected to move into an aged society, which has more than 14 percent elderly by 2017. The advent of the aging society is likely to cause economic and social problems. They include a reduction in the number of economically active people and the consequent reduction in economic growth potential; a greater burden on the younger generation due to increased welfare spending such as pensions and health care(Jeong, Bang, Kim, and Yoon, 2010).

South Korea's demographic changes may not particularly stand out, because many developed countries have already become aged societies. However, the aging rate in Korea has been quite rapid compared to developed countries'. Therefore, it is needed to be recognized as a serious social problem. It took 115 years for France to move into the aged society from the aging society, 72 years for the United States, and 46 years for Britain. South Korea is expected to take 17 years to do so, which is 7 years faster than Japan (estimated 24 years). It is also expected to take another 9 years for the nation to move into a super-aged society from an aged society. Changes in the population structure has been made very quickly(Lee, 2011).

The severity of the problem gets worse since these changes in the population structure are causing a reduction in the number of Korea's core economically active population that makes up the backbone of the labor force in the nation. In particular, the retirement of the baby boom generation can be seen as the most important factor to cause a rapid reduction in the number of economically active individuals within the population. They were primarily responsible for the economic growth and development of Korean society (Bang, 2010; Park, 2011). Baby boomers' rapid departure from the labor market could result in a wide range of social problems. They include the weakening of South Korea's competitiveness, the increasing vulnerability of the pension system, the rapid

increase in health care costs, intergenerational job competition, conflict in family relationships, and an overall reduction in revenue and financial assets.

The Korean government has deployed a variety of efforts to address these issues. Importantly, the Ministry of Employment and Labor has conducted various forms of employment support projects. These national level projects are aimed at encouraging adults aged 45 through 60 to participate in the labor market and promoting economic activity. For this, the institutions and infrastructure that promote employment for adults aged 45 to 60 were established nationwide.

However, the current employment training programs have been criticized for being unrealistic and less effective (Kim, Lim, and Lee, 2010). In addition, the effectiveness of adult employment agencies tend to depend on the competence and ability of personnel in charge of employment of those aged 45 to 60. Accordingly, it is needed for them to improve their understanding of and expertise in those aged 45 to 60. For this purpose, it is necessary to objectively assess the operating status and performance of employment support projects for those aged 45 to 60 currently run by the government. This study analyzed the operating status of employment support programs for those aged 45 to 60 by utilizing the CIPP (Context, Input, Process, Product) Model (Lee, Choe, and Hong ,2009), which is effective for decision making as well as evaluated the effectiveness of the programs.

Diagnosing the performance and analyzing the improvement of such projects will help the following: effective strategies to encourage those aged 45 through 60 to reenter the labor market can be developed and the capacity of employment support agencies for those aged 45 to 60 can be enhanced. In addition, a comprehensive program evaluation is expected to improve how to operate future projects or provide strategies for enhancing performance.

II. Status of Supporting Employment Programs for Those Aged 45 to 60 in Korea

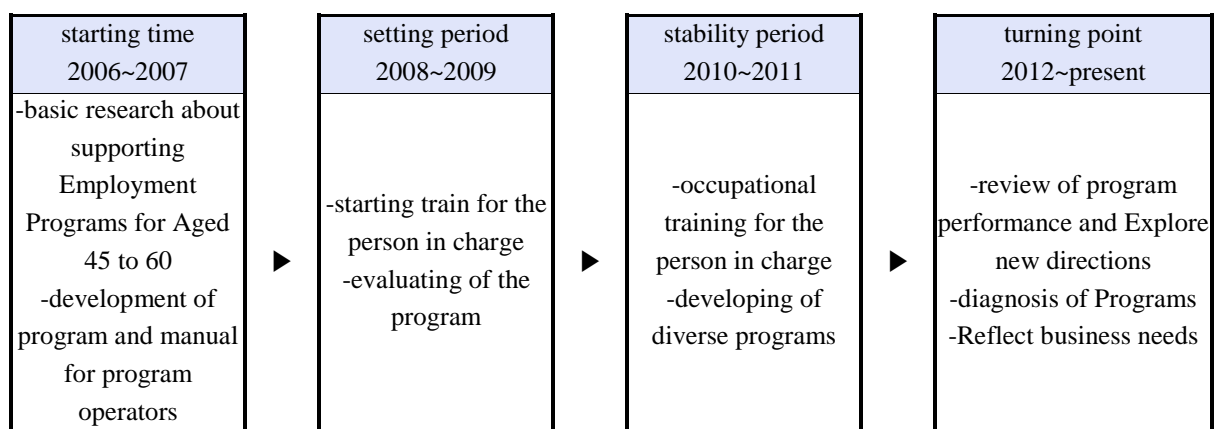
The advent of the aging society and the increasing number of adults aged 45 to 60 who are retired can cause problems. They include a sharp increase in welfare spending, a

decrease in the labor force, and disconnection on skills, which leads to weakening national competitiveness. Significantly, the demand for improving the quality of national employment support and service programs for those aged 45 to 60 after retirement began to rise (Lee Jiyeon et al., 2010). As a result, public concern grew and an increased budget for employment services for those aged 45 to 60 wanting to get a job or return to work was realized.

The main political background of expanding such employment support programs for adults aged 45 to 60 is closely related to social and environmental changes. Continued low fertility, rapid population ageing, and jobless recovery for more than 10 years since the Asian financial crisis caused some structural issues. They are early retirement and restructuring, which have been constant.

7.14 million baby boomers will begin to retire soon. Consequently, strategies for hiring those aged 45 to 60, such as later retirement, support for career change, and job creation, have been announced. They are for ensuring the workforce to maintain Korea's competitiveness. Such services and support for employment of those aged 45 to 60 started to be expanded as of 2006 and fell into a new turning point.

<Figure 1> development of supporting Employment Programs for Those Aged 45 to 60



Sources: Jiyeon Lee(2011), p7

Employment support programs for those aged 45 to 60 in Korea have been operated mainly using a standardized training program offered by adult employment agencies. The

main targets are the unemployed over 45 years of age who have registered for job hunting programs offered by adult employment support agencies and need to improve employability. About 50 hours of a session for work morale and training for improving job skills, and aggressive job placement are provided to promote reemployment.

III. Methodology

1. Subject of study

Subjects of this study are program's staffs in charge of Korea Elderly Employees programs in 2012 to 2013. They are planning, managing and counseling participants. The study was to collect primary data through an online survey and e-mail to secure information from Ministry of Employment and Labor in Korea, between August and September 2013. Total 85 questionnaires were sent and 45 were returned, the return rate was 52.9%.

<Table 1> *Demographics and characteristics of sample*

| | | N | % |
|--------------------|---------------------------|----|------|
| gender | male | 7 | 15.9 |
| | female | 37 | 84.1 |
| | total | 44 | 100 |
| age | under 30 | 5 | 11.6 |
| | 30~40 | 20 | 46.5 |
| | 41~50 | 14 | 32.6 |
| | above 51 | 4 | 9.3 |
| | total | 43 | 100 |
| educational degree | high school diploma | 1 | 2.2 |
| | College graduate | 11 | 24.4 |
| | bachelor's degree | 24 | 53.3 |
| | master's or higher degree | 9 | 20 |
| | total | 45 | 100 |

2. Questionnaire Development and Statistical Analysis

The survey instrument was adapted using CIPP framework as it covers the program evaluation of Employment Programs for Elderly Employees in general. After developing of Questionnaire, it reviewed from three of elder program experts. The study used SPSS 21.0, which is commonly used to analyze statistical data.

< Table 2> Variables in the questionnaire

| | Questions/Variables |
|---------|--|
| Context | Demand survey(education and labor), Efforts of recruiters Recruiting efforts, etc |
| Input | Number of Staffs, Clarity of staff's roles, Management system of program, etc |
| Process | Program contents and methods, Counseling process, Follow-up management, Self evaluation process, etc |
| Product | Employment rate, Satisfaction of program, etc |

IV.FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

1. The Context Phase

The main purpose of the employment support program is to find a job for trainees. Therefore, in the Context Phase, it is very important to reflect the requirements of businesses and connect a lot of companies which want to hire elderly workers. Results are following. First, 91.1% of the training institutions have recruiters relating businesses. In order to find recruiters, 53.7% of responses did "visited the company", 43.9% did telephone survey. They mainly checked "Job Condition(66.7%)", Jobs and skills(38.1%), and "how many employee they will hire(28.6%)".

Second, 57.8% of institutions had established a formal networking with relating companies. The networking types are mostly " Visit Company (46.2%)" and "Telephone Consultation(38.5%)". Third, 64.4% had mainly linked to specific occupations as "a simple labor(79.3%)", "Service/ Sales(20.7%)", "Health and Welfare(17.2%)"

<Table 3> Demand Survey and recruiter's networking

| | | N | % | | | N | % |
|-----------------------------|-------|----|------|--------------------------------------|-------|----|------|
| finding company, as the job | yes | 41 | 91.1 | networking activities with companies | yes | 26 | 57.8 |
| | no | 4 | 8.9 | | no | 19 | 42.2 |
| | total | 45 | 100 | | total | 45 | 100 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---------------------|----|------|---------------------------------------|------------------------|-----|------|
| method of Demand survey(plural response) | Business meeting | 3 | 7.3 | types of networking (plural response) | Business Presentation | 1 | 3.8 |
| | Company visits | 22 | 53.7 | | Visit Company | 12 | 46.2 |
| | online Survey | 5 | 12.2 | | small meeting | 7 | 26.9 |
| | Telephone Survey | 18 | 43.9 | | Telephone Consultation | 10 | 38.5 |
| | Others | 1 | 2.4 | | Others | 1 | 3.8 |
| | total | 41 | 100 | | total | 26 | 100 |
| details of Demand survey(plural response) | Hires | 12 | 28.6 | Whether of major occupation | yes | 29 | 64.4 |
| | Jobs and skills | 16 | 38.1 | | no | 16 | 35.6 |
| | Recruitment periods | 7 | 16.7 | | total | 45 | 100 |
| | Wages | 7 | 16.7 | type of occupation (plural response) | functional task | 2 | 6.9 |
| | Jobs Conditions | 28 | 66.7 | | Health and Welfare | 5 | 17.2 |
| | Others | 3 | 7.1 | | Service/ Sales | 6 | 20.7 |
| | total | 42 | 100 | | Simple labor | 23 | 79.3 |
| | | | | total | 29 | 100 | |

2. The Input Phase

In The Input Phase result, 88.9% of training institutions have responsible staffs for elder program, 5 institutions (11.1%) don't. they may have only one operating manager who do everything. They have average 2.12 staffs, if they include support staffs, it will be 3.67. Second, major role of staffs is managing all process(79.5%). it means they do program Management, Career counseling and job placement, etc. In other words, many staffs are likely to be involved from the beginning to finish. Their duty will be quite broad and heavy.

<Table 4> Role of responsible staff

| | | N | % |
|--------------------------------------|--|----|------|
| Whether responsible staff | yes | 40 | 88.9 |
| | no | 5 | 11.1 |
| | total | 45 | 100 |
| The main role of a responsible staff | program Management (Trainee recruitment, selection, operation, budget processing, etc.) | 4 | 9.1 |
| | operation of Educational programs | 1 | 2.3 |
| | Career counseling and job placement | 1 | 2.3 |
| | all proceeds(Management, Career counseling and job placement, etc) | 35 | 79.5 |
| | Business Management and Operations | 3 | 6.8 |
| | total | 44 | 100 |

Third, the result of Operating System for program they have, 'a standardized program to provide high quality service' is 4 points out of 5 points, career counseling systems for participant(M = 3.93), systematic selection procedures(M = 3.80), training systems for staff to build capacity(M = 3.71) rate are high. But the response of "they have a structured manual for managing of program(M = 3.64)" and "training systems for programs instructors" were somewhat low(M = 3.29).

<Table 5> Operating System for program

| | N | min | max | Mean | S.D |
|--|----|-----|-----|------|------|
| 1) We have a career counseling systems for participants. | 45 | 2 | 5 | 3.93 | 0.75 |
| 2) We have a systematic selection procedures. | 45 | 2 | 5 | 3.80 | 0.84 |
| 3) We have a standardized program to provide high quality service. | 45 | 2 | 5 | 4.00 | 0.74 |
| 4) We have a structured manual for managing of programs | 45 | 1 | 5 | 3.64 | 0.86 |
| 5) We have a training systems for staff to build capacity | 45 | 1 | 5 | 3.71 | 1.31 |
| 6) We have a training systems for programs instructors | 45 | 1 | 5 | 3.29 | 1.1 |

3. The process Phase

As a process Phase evaluation, the results are following; First, Training methods of the program are comprehensively used in Integrated Education including lecture, group discussions, case study, etc(61.0%). but, some of institutions are still primarily a lecture(31.7%).

<Table 6> Training methods

| | N | % |
|--|----|------|
| Lecture | 13 | 31.7 |
| Group discussion | 2 | 4.9 |
| field Training | 7 | 17.1 |
| Integrated Education (lectures, discussions, case study, filed training, etc.) | 25 | 61 |
| total | 41 | 100 |

Second, on average, they offer 3.3 point counseling in 30mins per a participant. it is very short time to understanding about participant's characteristic and their past work experience. Also, a staff has to manage of 70 participants who seek a job.

<Table 7> Frequency of counseling and time

| | N | Min | Max | Mean | S.D |
|--|----|-----|-----|-------|--------|
| The number of consultations in progress(per one participant) | 41 | 1 | 8 | 3.32 | 1.31 |
| counseling time(minute) | 35 | 10 | 160 | 33.43 | 27.41 |
| responsible for job seekers(per one staff) | 37 | 0 | 500 | 69.68 | 105.82 |

Third, the training institutions have follow-up services for the unemployed(97.4%), the types are providing a job information(89.7%), individual counseling(15.4%) and resume Consulting(7.7%). also they have Self-evaluation system(93.3%) like satisfaction survey for participants(88.1%).

<Table 8> follow-up service and self-evaluation system

| | | N | % | | | N | % |
|---|-------------------------|----|------|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|----|------|
| Whether of follow-up service | yes | 38 | 97.4 | Whether of Self-evaluation system | yes | 42 | 93.3 |
| | no | 1 | 2.6 | | no | 3 | 6.7 |
| | total | 39 | 100 | | total | 45 | 100 |
| types of follow-up service for the unemployed | individual counseling | 6 | 15.4 | types of Program evaluation | satisfaction survey for participants | 37 | 88.1 |
| | provide Job training | 2 | 5.1 | | satisfaction survey for employer | 3 | 7.1 |
| | introduce a new program | 1 | 2.6 | | meeting with staffs | 13 | 31 |
| | resume Consulting | 3 | 7.7 | | meeting with participants | 4 | 9.5 |
| | provide job information | 35 | 89.7 | | Related agencies meeting | 5 | 11.9 |
| | others | 1 | 2.6 | | total | 42 | 100 |
| | total | 39 | 100 | | | | |

4. The Product Phase

As a Product Phase result, in recognition of Program product is high as 4.19 points, On the other hand, job retention was relatively low(3.63 points).

< Table 9> Recognition of Program product

| | N | min | max | Mean | S.D |
|---|----|-----|-----|------|------|
| 1) improving employment rate | 43 | 3 | 5 | 3.93 | 0.70 |
| 2) improving employment retention rate | 43 | 2 | 5 | 3.63 | 0.79 |
| 3) improving of interest and motivation to get a job | 42 | 2 | 5 | 4.19 | 0.83 |
| 4) quality of individual customized service | 43 | 2 | 5 | 3.91 | 0.87 |
| 5) learning effect of how to get a job | 43 | 1 | 5 | 3.79 | 0.89 |
| 6) improving Expertise of Employment support services | 43 | 1 | 5 | 3.81 | 0.79 |

Also, finding a recognition by detailed program; improving awareness of business(4.34), offer a job information(4.15) and Writing and Consulting a Resume(4.14) are very effective in getting a job.

< Table 10> Recognition by detailed program contents

| | N | min | max | Mean | S.D |
|--|----|-----|-----|------|------|
| 1) improving awareness of business | 38 | 3 | 5 | 4.34 | 0.58 |
| 2) understanding of the changing life after retirement | 35 | 2 | 5 | 3.83 | 0.86 |
| 3) analysis of Self-diagnosis, past experience and skill | 34 | 1 | 5 | 3.59 | 0.89 |
| 4) planning and setting goals about re-employment | 34 | 2 | 5 | 3.79 | 0.84 |
| 5) understanding of finding information to get a job | 35 | 1 | 5 | 4.00 | 0.8 |
| 6) Writing and Consulting a Resume | 37 | 1 | 5 | 4.14 | 0.89 |
| 7) success case study | 33 | 1 | 4 | 3.21 | 0.96 |
| 8) mentoring with seniors | 31 | 1 | 5 | 2.94 | 1.09 |
| 9) Computer skills | 33 | 1 | 5 | 3.03 | 1.16 |
| 10) offer a job information | 39 | 2 | 5 | 4.15 | 0.67 |
| 11) Attending job fairs | 33 | 1 | 5 | 3.52 | 1.25 |
| 12) special lecture of human resources manager and Interview opportunities | 33 | 1 | 5 | 3.64 | 1.08 |
| 13) improvement of job ability | 35 | 1 | 5 | 3.77 | 0.91 |
| 14) supporting network between job seekers | 33 | 1 | 5 | 3.79 | 1.02 |
| 15) consulting of job-seeking activities | 33 | 1 | 5 | 3.67 | 1.08 |

V. Summary and Conclusions

Using the CIPP Model, the execution level and operating status of employment support programs for those aged 45 to 60 were diagnosed as well as the programs were evaluated. The results are as follows. First, it was found that most of the training institutions were finding recruiting agents through a situation analysis of employment support programs for those aged 45 to 60. However, only more than half of the institutions have formally established a recruitment agency network. That is, it is determined that a more aggressive networking is needed to increase a percentage of employment which can be the final purpose of the program. Also, an absolute majority of the profession for those aged 45 to 60 has been limited to simple labor jobs. The reemployment sector for them must be systematically excavated and expanded.

In the evaluation for investment and operation, a great number of institutions were trying to increase the quality of service by using the standardized program. However, some

institutions have a system where a person in charge handles all the jobs including program operation, management, training, and consultation or deals with about 70 job seekers. Here, increasing the personnel and supporting them will be needed to improve the quality of service. In addition, many respondents said that there were no manuals for program operation. Therefore, a standardized manual is also required for efficient program operation.

A large number of training institutions had already introduced diverse training methods and field-oriented training using integrated education and internship programs. However, a ratio of instructor-led training is still high. Research on effective training methods to enhance the educational effectiveness and the employability of those aged 45 to 60 is also needed. Finally, the output evaluation showed that the employment support program for those aged 45 to 60 had a positive impact on their preparing for, interest in, and motivation for employment. However, there was low awareness of the effectiveness of improving employment or employment retention rates. To further develop the program in the future, the following will have to be strengthened: enhancing professional employment links and networks, finding high quality jobs with high employment retention rates, and systematically securing jobs.

Training institutions, which carry out employment support programs for those aged 45 to 60, have built cooperative relationships with companies and been trying to train people based on the cooperation. However, there is still significant room for improvement. To expand sustainable consumer-oriented service, it is necessary to improve the following. First, it is required to find a variety of occupations and jobs for those aged 45 to 60 (Kim, Lim, Lee, 2008; Jeong, Bang, Kim, & Yoon, 2011). A survey showed that 79 percent of the training institutions were considering simple labor jobs as available occupations for those aged 45 to 60. Jobs, where retirees' experiences, skills, and knowledge can be well used, must be found to utilize human resources in this era of demographic ageing. New occupations must be excavated in accordance with labor market changes and job creation. Also, support systems must be expanded to help those aged 45 to 60 break into these new occupations.

Second, the number of those aged 45 to 60 who are retired and try to be reemployed seem to increase. It is needed to review how well our society is prepared for meeting such a huge demand. Currently, one counselor deals with so many job seekers. Therefore, it is difficult to provide in-depth counseling and support and then only cursory consultation is taking place. Accordingly, the substantial employment rate seems to be not that high. It is urgent that experts with expertise and competence in employment support services for those aged 45 to 60 must be nurtured. The program and career counseling must be operated and given based on the understanding of the nature and characteristics of those aged 45 to 60 as well as jobs and occupations which are suitable for them. The employment rate and employment retention rates will be able to increase with these efforts.

Third, employment support programs for those aged 45 to 60 must be developed to more systematically meet the needs of companies. Training institutions have conducted surveys on corporate demands but are rarely aware of how helpful their programs are to trainees' employment rates or their securing future jobs. Such results show that those surveys are less likely to be applied to actual training sessions and that they are just superficial. Therefore, training institutions will have to make an effort to develop and support field-based programs to train personnel that companies demand. Finally, a standardized manual must be developed to help trainees effectively perform jobs and the training institutions systematically and actively be operated.

REFERENCES

- Jeong, J.H., Bang, H.N., Kim, J.H., & Youn, J.H. (2010). *Evaluation of Elderly employment support project*, Korea labor Institution.
- Kim, K.H., Im, A., & Lee, J, P.(2008). *Research of the Career Transition Support System for the Middle-aged*, Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training.
- Kim, S. W. & Han, H. R. (2008). An Evaluation on After School Program in Middle Schools. *Journal of Educational Evaluation*, 21(1), 27-53.
- Lee, J.M., Yang, H.B., Shin, J.W., Seol, J, S. (2010). Evaluation of IT Internship Program based on CIPP Model, *International Journal of Contents*. 10(1). 457-467
- Lee, J.Y. (2011). *Manual of re-bounce program*, Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training
- Lee, Y.M., Choi, Y.S., & Hon, S.M. (2009). The Diagnostic Analysis of Consortium Training Programs for Small and Middle-Sized Corporations, Using CIPP Evaluation Model, *The Korean Journal of Human Resource Development*, 11(2). 91-113.
- Na, Y.S., Lim, E., & Mo, S.H. (2010) *Survey of Senior Employment Service Delivery System and restructuring plans*, Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training
- Park, K.H. (2011). A Study to Classify the Type of Retirement Process among the Mature-aged in Korea -Focusing on Diversity and Inequality-, *Korean journal of social welfare studies*, 42(3), 291-327.
- Seo, W.S., Kim, J. M., & Jeon, Y.U. (2007). Evaluation of Environmental Education of Public Servants in NIERD based on CIPP Model, *Journal of Korean Society for Environmental Education*, 20(1), 106-117
- Stufflebeam, D. L. & Kellaghan. T. (Eds.). (2003). *The international handbook of educational evaluation* (Chapter2). Boston: Kluwer Academic Pub.
- Stufflebeam, G. F. Madaus, & T. Kellaghan. (2000). *Evaluation models* (2nd ed.). (Chapter 16). Boston: Kluwer Academic Pub.

Evaluating the Effects of the Integration of Literary Movies on Reading Motivation and Comprehension for Second Language Learners

Joan Marie Uyvari-Huang

Abstract

This study aimed to evaluate the effects of the integration of literary movies on reading motivation and comprehension. This qualitative-quantitative study utilized Pre- and Post-Course Reading Motivation Questionnaires, Student Journals on Reading Motivation, Student Evaluations of the Teacher, a Third-Party Observation of the Teacher, a Teacher Self-Evaluation, Reading Comprehension Quizzes, a Reading Comprehension Survey, and Student Journals on Reading Comprehension. The research participants consisted of nineteen students in an English as a Second Language class with a curriculum designed for the students to read a novel while watching its coinciding literary movie. The findings of the first research objective revealed that the effects in which the integration of literary movies had on reading motivation were: increased motivation in extensive and authentic literature, increased intrinsic motivation, and an increased motivational learning environment. As well, the findings of the second research objective revealed that the effects in which the integration of literary movies had on reading comprehension were: increased reading comprehension, increased exposure to authentic second language vocabulary, and high student self-perception on reading comprehension. Overall the results showed that the integration of literary movies and novels had a substantial impact on increasing second language reading motivation and comprehension.

Summary of the Study

This study was implemented in order to explore a solution that would contribute to the growth of second language learners' reading motivation and comprehension due to an increasing lack thereof. One solution the research proposed and tested was the integration of literary movies into an L2 novel reading curriculum; the course was entitled the ESL Movie and Novel Class. The objectives of the research were to first, evaluate the effects that literary movies had on second language learners' reading motivation, and second, evaluate the effects that literary movies had on second language learners' reading comprehension.

Studies have shown that second language learners' reading comprehension and language input are enhanced through L2 literature (Anderson, 1999; Fraser, 1999; Guo, 2012; Krashen, 1989; Lang, 2008; Mezynski, 1983; Traore, 2011), specifically authentic, extensive literature such as novels (Lang & Jiang, 2008:13). And since limited research has been conducted in relation to the integration of media and literature in the ESL classroom (Pellicer-Sanchez & Schmidt, 2010; Traore, 2011:561), this study sought to combine the two by creating a curriculum based on novels and literary movies to see its impact on second language learners' reading motivation and comprehension. This section explains the main empirical findings of the research study that was conducted on nineteen university students studying English as a second language in the United States of America.

The study utilized a mixed method design using quantitative and qualitative research instruments: Pre- and Post-Course Reading Motivation Questionnaires, Student Journals on Reading Motivation, the Student Evaluation of the Teacher, Third-Party Observation of the Teacher, Teacher Self-Evaluation, Reading Comprehension Quizzes, a Reading Comprehension Survey, and the Student Journals on Reading Comprehension.

The quantitative portions of the study were: 1.) the Pre- and Post-Course Reading Motivation Questionnaires that were given to the students at the beginning and end of the course to compare any changes in reading and learning motivation and attitudes due to the research study; 2.) surveys as the Learning Resource Preferences Survey, Learning Order Preferences Survey, Student Preferences on Reading With or Without the Movie Survey, and the Reading Comprehension Survey were given throughout the course asking the students specific questions on their views and preferences of a curriculum based on reading a novel and intermittently watching its coinciding literary movie; 3.) the Novel-Initial and Movie-Initial Reading Comprehension Quizzes were taken twice throughout the course testing student information retention from both the novel and the movie.

The qualitative portions of the study were: 1.) Student Journals on Reading Motivation and Comprehension were completed throughout the duration of the course expressing the students' subjective beliefs and views of the class and how it affected their reading motivation and comprehension; 2.) the Student Evaluation of the Teacher, Third-Party Evaluation of the Teacher, and the Teacher Self-Evaluation all were completed in order to assess whether or not the instructor and the course were motivational in nature. Information was gathered that could be used by teachers, school officials, English education program directors, and curriculum developers in order to improve the teaching of English as a second language in Thailand, the United States, and throughout the world.

Conclusion

The purpose of the first research objective was to determine the effects that the integration of literary movies had on reading motivation. The student participants completed the Pre- and Post-Course Reading Motivation Questionnaires at the beginning and end of the course that measured student perceptions of motivation and attitudes in regards to reading and learning English. This questionnaire was an extension from Burgh-Hirabe's Motivation Questionnaire (2011:289) and was adapted by the researcher in order to best suit this particular research study target group. The participants rated the Pre-Course Motivation and Attitudes in Reading and Learning English questionnaire with *agree* ($\bar{x} = 3.98$, SD 0.90) and the Post-Course Questionnaire increased to *strongly agree* ($\bar{x} = 4.28$, SD 0.79) after the completion of the ESL Movie and Novel Class. Based on the descriptors which were built on a continuum from 1, equating strong disagreement to motivational statements, to 5, equating strong agreement to motivational statements, it was proposed from this data that due to the novel and literary movie-based curriculum there was a ($\bar{x} = 0.28$, SD -0.11) quantitative increase of reading motivation in the participants due to the research study.

As an on-going qualitative, and partially quantitative, research instrument, the Student Journals on Reading Motivation featured re-occurring questions in relation to the novel and literary movie course curriculum. Student responses mentioned a strong liking in the use of the literary movie within the novel reading curriculum. Each student expressed an anticipation and motivation to continue reading due to the way the curriculum was designed to enforce the continuation of reading to find out what would happen next within the movie and the novel. Many students mentioned that reading an authentic text actually spurred them on to learn more new vocabulary. A few comments were made about the limited time available for the class; only sixty minutes per session added some pressure for the students to rush when reading. Overall, the qualitative aspects of the Student Journals on Reading Motivation featured positive feedback on the motivational aspects of the curriculum.

Another quantitative resource on the motivational competency of the ESL Movie and Novel Class was subject to the Student Evaluation of the Teacher (Character, 2005). The evaluation posed motivationally positive statements about the teacher in which the students ranked from 1, equating to being *rarely* adequate in the expectations of an influential and motivational teacher, to 5, equating to being *always* adequate in the expectations of an influential and motivational teacher. The Evaluation was divided into two portions: the first portion on explicit curriculum referred to how well the teacher taught the course, and the second portion on implicit curriculum referred to how well the teacher modeled the core values through how she behaved with the students. The students ranked the teacher ($\bar{x} = 4.8$, SD 0.41), thus suggesting being *always* adequate in being a motivational and influential teacher over the span of the research study.

By spontaneous visitation of the class, a third-party observer completed the qualitative Third-Party Observation as based on Dörnyei's Motivational Strategies Evaluation of Teaching (2001: 137-144); the observer was a volunteer ESL teacher and the evaluation was adjusted to be completed from the perspective of a third-person observer. The third-party observer confirmed that the research teacher created the basic motivational conditions, generated initial motivation, and maintained and protected motivation within the classroom.

At the end of the course the researcher took a qualitative Teacher Self-Evaluation, which was also based on Dörnyei's Motivational Strategies Evaluation of Teaching. This data instrument featured questions relating to maintaining an atmosphere and method of teaching

that promoted motivation within the classroom. According to the researcher's self-perception, she recorded having adequately fulfilled the primary standards of being a motivational teacher as based on Dörnyei's evaluation; the three primary standards were to create the basic motivational conditions, generate initial motivation, and maintain and protect motivation.

By comparing the analysis and comments of both the Third-Party Observation to the Teacher Self-Evaluation, it was concluded that the research instructor created the basic motivational conditions, generated initial motivation, and maintained and protected motivation within the classroom.

The use of the Pre- and Post-Course Reading Motivation Questionnaires, Student Journals on Reading Motivation, the Student Evaluation of the Teacher, the Third-Party Observation of the Teacher, and the Teacher Self-Evaluation answered the research objective of understanding the effects that the integration of literary movies had on reading motivation. The purpose then of the second research objective was to determine the effects that the integration of literary movies had on reading comprehension. The researcher quantitatively tested the students with the Reading Comprehension Quizzes as based on two different learning order formats: the Novel-Initial Quiz and the Movie-Initial Quiz. In the novel-initial format, 47% of the students got all of the answers correct after reading the book, 42% of the students got one answer wrong after reading the book, and 11% of the students got more than one answer wrong after reading the book. The students then watched the designated movie portion of the chapter and then took the quiz again. 57% of the students got all of the answers correct after watching the movie, 32% of the students got one answer wrong after watching the movie, and 11% of the students got more than one answer wrong after watching the movie. Overall, there was a 10% increase in comprehension of the story due to the novel-initial format. With the movie-initial format, 63% of the students got all of the answers correct after watching the movie, 26% of the students got one answer wrong after watching the movie, and 11% of the students got more than one answer wrong after watching the movie. The students then read the designated chapter and then took the quiz again. 100% of the students got all of the answers correct after reading the novel. Overall, there was a 37% increase in comprehension of the story due to the movie-initial format. Conclusively, the quiz scores revealed that the movie-initial format increased reading comprehension 27% more than the novel-initial format. While the data inferred that the movie-initial format increased comprehension more, it was recommended that multiple formats be used in order to keep the course unpredictable and the activities adverse, engaging the students in multiple formats of retaining the literature through both the novel and the movie.

The Reading Comprehension Survey given to the students at the end of the course asked about, on a rating from 1-5, how well the students understood the book without the movie. With 1 rating as no comprehension of the text (0% - 19% accuracy) and 5 rating as full comprehension (80% - 100%), 21% (4 students) reported that they had full comprehension of the text at 80% - 100% accuracy, 58% (11 students) reported that they were able to understand the text very well at approximately 60% - 79% accuracy, 16% (3 students) reported that they had 40% - 59% reading comprehension accuracy, 5% (1 student) reported that they had little comprehension of the text at 20% - 39% accuracy, and 0% (0 students) reported that they had no comprehension of the text at 0% - 19% accuracy.

The Student Journals on Reading Comprehension also carried qualitative and quantitative data relating to reading comprehension. In one journal entry the question was asked if the movie helped the students understand the book more, 100% of the students said

that the movie did help them understand the book more. It was also expressed in other journal entries that most of the students said that the movie did help them read the chapter better and that they were learning more English vocabulary through the class and were getting better at reading.

Discussion

The first research objective related to the effects that the integration of literary movies had on reading motivation. The literature review conducted prior to the ESL Movie and Novel Class supported the findings that resulted from the research study.

The effects in which the integration of literary movies had on reading motivation were: increased motivation in extensive and authentic literature, increased intrinsic motivation, and an increased motivational learning environment.

First, reading motivation increased in the use of extensive and authentic literature through the integration of literary movies and novels. This conclusion was also supported by a previous study by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997). Since L2 learners develop positive attitudes towards the authentic literature in which they are reading while they also learn the language (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981), the ESL Movie and Novel Class aimed to expose the participants to authentic literature in order to increase reading motivation. Then by gauging effectivity of the authentic materials through the Learning Resource Preferences Survey, Learning Order Preferences Survey, Pre- and Post-Course Reading Motivation Questionnaires, and Student Journals, the researcher was able to gather data inferring that the participants had enhanced motivation within the ESL Movie and Novel Class due to the utilization of the authentic materials of novels and movies.

Second, intrinsic motivation increased through the integration of literary movies and novels. In order to best suit the interests of the participants in order to promote an intrinsically motivational classroom environment in the ESL Movie and Novel Class, the students chose which literary movie and novel in which they wanted to watch and read at the beginning of the course through the Needs Analysis Survey. Since lengthier novels are potentially more intimidating to second language learners (Day & Bamford, 1998), it was crucial to allow the students to independently choose a piece of extensive literature in order to set the foundation to a motivational classroom centered on novels and literary movies. If a student senses success within his or her tasks throughout the course, then motivation would also intrinsically increase (Cook, 2001:118). To determine if the students sensed success within the ESL Movie and Novel Class, the Student Journals on Reading Comprehension validated that the students felt that they were successfully learning, which in turn contributed to an increase in reading motivation. As well, students needed to sense that the reading goal was achievable in order to feel motivated to read extensive literature (Day & Bamford, 1998). By allowing the students to choose their own literary movie and novel, aware of the length and reading challenges it offered, this choice allowed the students to work towards an achievable goal which increased their motivation as they continued through the research study.

Third, the integration of literary movies and novels within the L2 classroom increased a motivational learning environment. L2 learners need a motivational relaxed, stress-free, and encouraging environment in which they can improve their reading skills in (McCombs & Pope, 1994), and the ESL Movie and Novel Class curriculum was influenced by the previous

successful curriculum designs of Alexander, Babbitt, Eröz, and Waxman and Watts. Because teachers possess high influence on learning motivation within the L2 classroom (Dörnyei, 2006), ensuring that motivation was accounted for was implemented by test instruments of the Student Evaluation of the Teacher, Third-Party Observation of the Teacher, and the Teacher Self-Evaluation. The results affirmed that the teacher did create a motivational environment for the students to learn in and that the students did find the ESL Movie and Novel Class to be a motivational learning environment.

The effects in which the integration of literary movies had on reading comprehension were: increased reading comprehension, increased exposure to authentic second language vocabulary and culture, and high student self-perception on reading comprehension.

First, the integration of literary movies and novels increased reading comprehension for the participants. Since the first research objective concluded an increase in reading motivation, according to Cook (2001:118), high motivation in a reading text can contribute to increased comprehension. In order to better understand reading comprehension during the research study, Student Journals on Reading Comprehension were given to the students asking about their extent of comprehension within the class, and in comparison, they took a Reading Comprehension Survey which asked about their personal views on how well they understood the literature alongside the Reading Comprehension Quizzes. The results came back to show that the students experienced an increase in reading comprehension due to the integration of the literary movie and novel within the research study.

Second, the integration of literary movies and novels increased exposure to authentic second language vocabulary and culture. If the participants did not understand vocabulary or concepts within the novel, the movie visually portrayed it in a way that would help the students better understand it (Traore, 2011: 566). In relation to authentic literature and reading comprehension, according to Elley and Mangubhai (1981), L2 reading proficiency increases twice as fast in an environment exposed to authentic literature than that of an un-exposed classroom setting, and in addition, the use of formal textbooks within the L2 classroom limits the comprehensive exposure of language for second language learners (Traore, 2011:563). One of the benefits of the ESL Movie and Novel Class curriculum in how it incorporated the literary movie with the novel was that a movie-based curriculum engaged the students emotionally and activated schema, which allowed for easier contextualization and comprehension of the literature (Alexander & Waxman, 2000). In order to better understand how extensive materials affected reading comprehension within the research study, the Student Journals on Reading Comprehension and Reading Comprehension Quizzes were given to the participants. The collected data verified that the use of the extensive materials did increase reading comprehension within the ESL Movie and Novel Class.

Third, high student self-perception on reading comprehension was reported by the participants due to the integration of literary movies and novels. According to Brantmeier (2005), enjoyment of literature correlates to the students' self-perception of reading abilities, and since the participants reported high levels of comprehension in the Reading Comprehension Survey and an increase in comprehension from the Reading Comprehension Quizzes, it was concluded by the collected data that the high motivation increased reading comprehension.

In order to best answer the research objective questions relating to the effects that the integration of literary movies had on reading motivation and comprehension, all collected data from the test instruments utilized within the research study inferred that the integration of a literary movie and novel in an L2 class does increase reading motivation and comprehension.

Limitations of the Study

There were three primary limitations to the research study: size, time, and limited prior research. The first limitation was the small sample size of nineteen participants in which the findings could not be generalized to a mass population. The second limitation to the study was time. Each class session lasted only sixty minutes and the researcher suggested that an hour and a half long class would be more suitable for this curriculum; either an extension of class time or an extension of class sessions was suggested in order to read the novel for a longer duration within the span of one academic semester. And the third limitation to the study was the limited resources of prior research. While some studies had been conducted for literary movies in L1 classrooms and the utilization of technology and media within the L2 classroom is an ever-growing topic, the narrow source of research studies limited the foundational understanding of the potential effects on reading motivation and comprehension of such a curriculum based on the integration of literary movies and novels.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, literary movies do greatly impact reading motivation and comprehension for second language learners. Since reading motivation is foundational to L2 learning and the increase of comprehension, implementing an L2 curriculum focused on reading novels with their coinciding literary movies would benefit ESL students in their overall reading, listening, writing, and speaking skills. Second language educational programs that rely upon textbooks versus authentic material are limiting the learners to fully embrace a foreign language in its natural culture and context. While extensive L2 literature has proven to expand reading comprehension, combining a motivational course format by including literary movies would then motivate students to read and build an autonomous desire for reading due to the positive L2 learning experience.

About the Writer

Joan Marie Uyvari-Huang is a T.E.S.O.L. graduate student from Payap University in Chiang Mai, Thailand. She aspires to continue teaching in Asia and to equip the next generation to be motivated and autonomous learners of English as a second language.

Bibliography

- Alexander, M. & Waxman, D. (2000) *Cinemaeducation: Teaching Family Systems Through the Movies*. American Journal of Family Therapy. Vol. 18 Issue 4, p 455-466.
- Anderson, N. (1999). *Exploring Second Language Reading: Issues and Strategies*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle Publishers. Volume 4, Number 1.
- Babbitt, P. (2012). *Scaffolding: Strategies for Improving Reading Comprehension Skills*. Prentice Hall eTeach. Online submission: http://www.phschool.com/eteach/language_arts/2002_12/essay.html.
- Brantmeier, C. (2003). *Does Gender Make a Difference? Passage Content and Comprehension in Second Language Reading*. Reading in a Foreign Language. Vol. 15 Issue 1, p 1-27.
- Burgh-Hirabe, R. (2011). *Extensive Reading and L2 Motivation in Japanese as a Foreign Language: A Case Study of New Zealand High School Students*. University of Otago: Dunedin, New Zealand.
- Character Education Partnership (2005). *Teacher Evaluation by Students*. Washington D.C.
- Cook, V. (2001). *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching 3rd Edition*. London: Arnold.
- Day, R.R., & Bamford, J. (1998). *Extensive Reading in the Second Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K., & Németh, N. (2006). *Motivation, Language Attitudes and Globalisation: A Hungarian Perspective*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Elley, W. B. & Mangubhai, F. (1983). *The Impact of Reading on Second Language Learning*. Reading Research Quarterly. Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 53-67.
- Eröz, B. (2009) *Using Literature and Movies for Integrated Skills Development in English Language Teaching*. TESL Reporter. Vol. 42 Issue 1, p 58-65.
- Fraser, C. A. (1999). *Lexical Processing Strategy Use and Vocabulary Learning Through Reading*. Studies in Second Language Acquisition. Vol. 21 Issue 2, p 225-241.
- Guo, S. *Using Authentic Materials for Extensive Reading to Promote English Proficiency*. English Language Teaching. Aug2012, Vol. 5 Issue 8, p 196-206.
- Krashen, S. (1989). *We Acquire Vocabulary and Spelling by Reading: Additional Evidence for the Input Hypothesis*. Modern Language Journal. Vol. 73 Issue 4, p 440-464.
- Lang, F. & Jiang, Y. (2008). *Application of Authentic Materials in Extensive Reading Class in Chinese Universities*. Mar 2008, Vol. 6 Issue 3, p 11-14.
- McCombs, B.L. & Pope, J. E. (1994). *Motivating Hard to Reach Students*. American Psychological Association. Washington, D.C.
- Mezynski, K. (1983). *Issues Concerning the Acquisition of Knowledge: Effects of Vocabulary Training on Reading Comprehension*. Review of Educational Research. Vol. 2, p 253-379.
- Pellicer-Sanchez, A. & Schmitt, N. (2010). *Incidental vocabulary acquisition from an authentic novel: Do Things Fall Apart?* Reading in a Foreign Language. Vol. 22 Issue 1, p 31-55.
- Traore, M. & Kyei-Blankson, L. (2011). *Using Literature and Multiple Technologies in ESL Instruction*. Journal of Language Teaching & Research. May2011, Vol. 2 Issue 3, p 561-568.
- Watts, R. *Harnessing the Power of Film in the Primary Classroom*. Literacy. July 2007, Vol. 41 Issue 2, p 102-109.

Wigfield, A. & Guthrie, J. T. (1997). *Relations of Children's Motivation for Reading to the Amount and Breadth of Their Reading*. *Journal of Educational Psychology*. Vol. 89 Issue 3, p 420-432.

Exploring Inclusive Education at a Qatari College: Aligning with Qatar National Vision 2030

Dana AlHamad, Maryam AlSuwaidi, and Yvonne Eaton
Community College of Qatar

Abstract

In our research we explored the concept of inclusive education at the Community College of Qatar. We posed the following research question: what are the instructor attitudes toward inclusive education and teaching mainstreamed college students with disabilities.

Additionally, we wanted to get an initial sense as to Qatar's educational policy on inclusive education. Through an exploratory-descriptive approach using mixed-methods (quantitative and qualitative) data gathering, we conducted a survey of faculty to gather data on their attitudes and conducted semi-structured interviews of college and Qatari inclusive education experts to learn about Qatar's inclusive education policies. We concluded from the survey and interview data that the college faculty and administration have a positive attitude toward inclusive education overall and the college supports and promotes inclusive education in line with the social development goals within Qatar National Vision 2030.

Introduction

Our research was the first ever conducted on the topic of disabled and special needs people and faculty attitudes toward inclusive education at the Community College of Qatar (CCQ). We thought carefully about our reason for this research which is that we believe that special needs and disabled students can contribute to the Qatari society, and to the college. Furthermore, we were attempting to figure out how we could raise awareness about this topic. We found through our exploration that faculty are aware of special needs and disabled students and overall support inclusive education at the Community College of Qatar. We have come to the conclusion that our survey findings can help the CCQ administration plan for the expansion of disability facilities and accommodations as our college grows. Finally, we believe that our research will raise awareness and help to change the Qatari society's perspective toward disabled students, thereby enriching Qatari society with their contribution in line with the goals of Qatar National Vision 2030.

Our research was the first of its kind on this topic at the college and the expected benefits of our research are plenty. First, the research delved into a world of the disabled and special needs to discover attitudinal factors of faculty toward special needs and inclusive education. Second, the research was serious and rigorous in its qualitative and quantitative data acquisition and analysis as best for our first time of doing research. Third, when we were doing our research we maintained high research standards by following the ethical guidelines on research with disabled people as outlined by the Research Department of the Qatar Supreme Council of Health. Fourth, we hope our research will serve as a foundation for additional research on inclusive and special education that would contribute to these growing fields of knowledge.

Literature Review

Qatar and Inclusive Education

Inclusive education is the philosophical and pedagogical practice of student-centered learning without segregation or discrimination, in promoting the student's confidence, respect, and safety in developing to his or her fullest potential (Spratt & Florian 2013). The term *inclusive education* was first mentioned in the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) conference held in 1994, in Salamanca, Spain on the topic of special needs education. The main idea or thrust of the conference was to internationalize the concept and practices of inclusive education to not children of special needs, but also to individuals of different ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds. Qatar was a signatory to the original *Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education* in 1994. Following this document, Qatar was a signatory to the UN's Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and its Optional Protocol in 2007 (Qatar 2009). Article 24 of such document focusing on education advocates:

State Parties recognize the right of persons with disabilities to education. With a view to realizing this right without discrimination and on the basis of equal opportunity, States Parties shall ensure an inclusive education system at all levels and lifelong learning... (UN 2008:16).

Furthermore Qatar has agreed to the following in this same document:

States Parties shall ensure that persons with disabilities are able to access general tertiary education, vocational training, adult education and lifelong learning without discrimination and on an equal basis with others. (UN 2008:18).

In the broadest sense, Qatar has set inclusive education policy goals¹ through several vectors. The first being the declaration of Qatar's commitment to the education of students with disabilities and additional needs and instituting policies throughout all educational levels and schools in Qatar. According to the report by the Education Institute of the Supreme Education Council, Qatar is committed to

meeting the needs of students with learning difficulties... and providing a comprehensive and inclusive education that meets the needs of all students and provides them with the highest quality of learning experiences, the Education Institute of the Supreme Education Council has issued a set of policies and guidance documents for schools in order for them to meet their responsibilities for students with Additional Educational Support Needs (AESN) (SEC Qatar 2010).

The second being the submission of a progress report to the World Programme for Human Rights Education. In this evaluative report, Qatar conveys that

The state of Qatar has developed a comprehensive set of policies and guidelines in relation to education of students with additional education support needs (AESN). The approach to meeting the needs of students with AESN (learning difficulties and disabilities) is fully consistent with the principles of inclusive education practices, as defined in the Salamanca Declaration and Framework for Action...(SEC Qatar 2009:2).

Faculty Attitudes Toward Inclusive Education

According to research conducted by Avramidis and Norwich (2002), teachers are instrumental in the success of inclusive education. Moreover, teachers who hold positive attitudes toward learning differences and styles are more likely to hold positive attitudes toward inclusive education. In the case study of Jordanian educator attitudes toward students with disabilities, the researcher found the results of the faculty attitude assessment as negative. The educators' attitudes were assessed using *Attitudes Toward Disabilities Scales* (ATDS) and *Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale* (ATMS) questionnaires and found that a majority of educators in this demographic survey had a negative view of disabled students in regular classes (Alghazo 2002).

An assessment of variables affecting educators' attitudes toward inclusive education in Bangladesh found that a majority of educators had a positive view due to their previous experience teaching or having contact with students with disabilities. These experiences led to a positive view of inclusive education (Ahmmed, Sharma, & Deppeler 2012). With regard to inclusive education practices, a comparative study of American and Spanish educators

¹ Qatar expands the definition of inclusive education to include access to education regardless of one's socio-economic status, religion, gender, color, disability, etc. It further states that Qatar has developed community colleges as a strategy at providing additional life-long learning opportunities for all (SEC Qatar 2009:2).

found that each cohort had a positive view of inclusive education due to the availability of resources to support their teaching. Based on results of the *Inclusive Education Practices Inventory* (ITSI), a cross-section of the educators in both countries had practiced inclusive education due to their knowledge of inclusive policies, accommodations, campus resources, course modifications, accessible course materials, inclusive assessment, and inclusive law and concepts. As a result, both groups' attitudes scored positive in each subscale. The study's implication is that postsecondary disability services staff can facilitate faculty's positive views of inclusive education with targeted services and resources to all campus departments (Lombardi & Bars 2013).

Research Design

Our research design was an exploratory-descriptive approach using mixed-method of both qualitative and quantitative data. Based on Creswell's (1994) suggestion that a combined approach allows for a more comprehensive analysis, we selected this approach for our research problem. The exploratory approach of our research paper was feasible because this was the first study conducted at the Community College of Qatar, and it helped us with our questions. Moreover, this approach led us to discover new ways of getting data such as through interviews and questionnaires. Each method helped us identify the manner by which inclusive education currently exists at the college.

According to Creswell (1994), the qualitative approach is preferred under three conditions: 1) studying the empirical world; 2) trying to see the world or phenomena as it is from the perspective and understanding of the human subject; and 3) using an exploratory research design (19 & 24). Through this approach, we found that we were able to get soft data such as faculty values, attitudes, and perceptions that would describe the experience of those concerned with the phenomenon of inclusive education. The quantitative approach that we followed helped us acquire hard data. Creswell (1994) states that if the objective is to identify factors that contribute to an outcome, then the quantitative approach is appropriate. From this we discovered that the quantitative research allowed us to use population sampling in the dissemination of the questionnaire to the faculty.

Research Instruments

The Faculty: Questionnaire and Population Sample

To get quantitative data, we chose to use a questionnaire and administered it to a convenient sample of CCQ faculty. Our questionnaire was a modified version of the *Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale* (ATMS) developed by Dr. Barbara Larrivee and Dr. Linda Cook (1979). We chose it because it has been used by many researchers in measuring teachers', students', and public's attitudes toward the inclusion of the disabled in educational institutions (Berryman 1989, Wilczenski 1991, Costello and Boyle 2013), but has not been used in Qatar before.

We modified the questionnaire to fit the faculty context. The original ATMS questionnaire contains 30 Likert-scale statements. We removed seven statements because they were non-applicable to our international context. The Likert-scale was reduced from five to four points: agree, strongly agree, disagree, and strongly disagree. The non-applicable (N/A) point was removed to minimize response bias and ambivalent answers. We administered the 23-statement questionnaire on *sogosurvey.com* which the faculty could

access through a link embedded in an email. The online questionnaire was open for one week and we received 38 anonymous responses.

The Experts: Interview Instrument

The use of expert interviews provided additional information about the inclusive education policies that exist and how they are implemented in Qatar and in the college. During our journey, we interviewed the college's special needs coordinator, inclusive education expert, a supervisor at the Qatar Social and Cultural Center Blind, and stairs – accessible wheelchair inventor, Mr. Yusf AlQahomi. We chose our questions to draw connections between the variables. We chose to maintain our interview data in three forms: audio record, video tape, and notes. All of these methods were important especially note-taking, in case one or two forms got lost or some sections of the recordings were unclear. Some of the interviews were conducted in Arabic. However, we translated the Arabic language audio and video recording and translated the key parts of the interviews into English. On the other hand, for the interviews that were in English, we did not video and audio-record them, we took notes of the responses instead.

The three interviews took an average of 15 minutes except with Mr. AlQahomi which lasted about five minutes. The three face-to face-interviews were held at the college while the interview with the supervisor at Qatar Social and Cultural Center Blind was held at the center. Another interview was conducted with Mr. AlQahomi at the Scientific Fair while we were able to video- record a demonstration of his stair – accessible wheelchair invention. From each of these interviews, our key findings helped us to draw possible connections between policies and resources that facilitate inclusive education at the college. As a result our findings will be discussed later in this report.

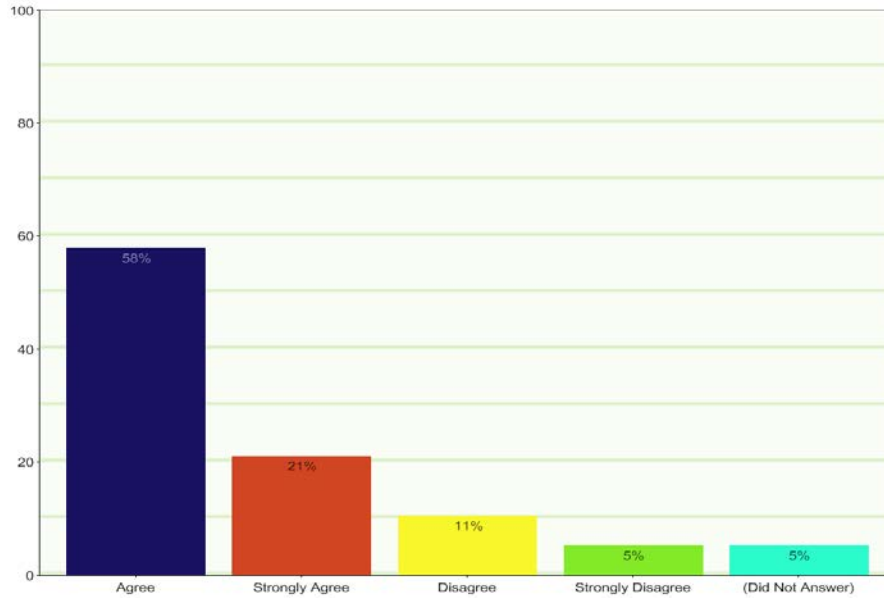
Data Analysis

Faculty Questionnaire – Key Findings

For the data analysis, we used simple descriptive statistics. We were particularly interested in three key faculty attitudes toward inclusive education: the general belief about inclusive education, the promotion of student independence, and the use of paraprofessionals and adaptive technology in the classroom. The assembled results of three key findings below indicated that in general, faculty supported mainstreaming, the idea that inclusion will promote the students with disabilities, and the use of paraprofessionals. As demonstrated in Figure 1, 58 % agreed that inclusion will promote independence, 21% strongly agreed while 11 % disagreed with the statement.

Figure 1.

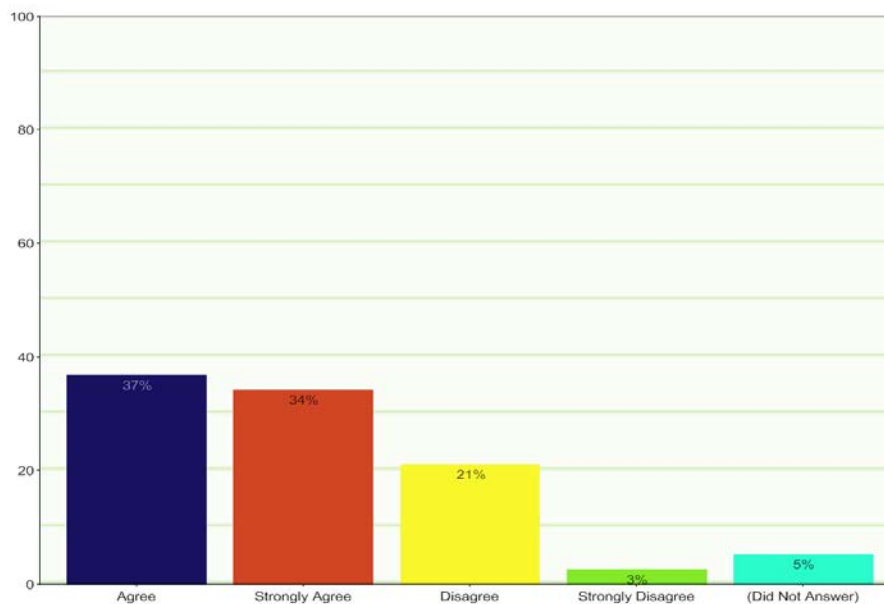
Question 16: Inclusion will promote the students with disabilities' social independence.



In the next key finding, the majority of faculty showed positive attitude toward the concepts of mainstreaming and inclusion. Thus 37% agreed and 36% strongly agreed with the concepts, whereas 21% disagreed. Overall, we can conclude that faculty supported the concepts of mainstreaming and inclusion.

Figure 2.

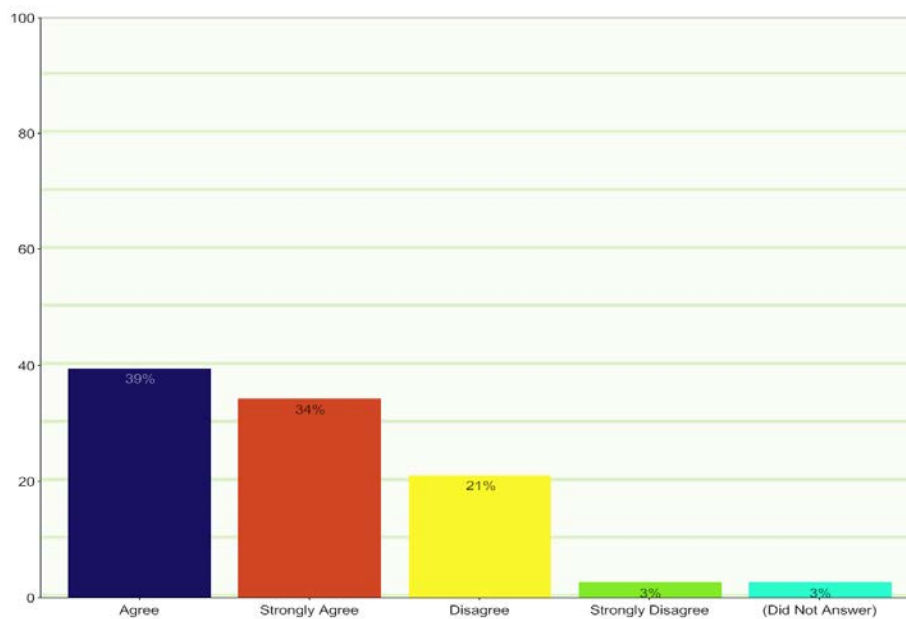
Question 23: I agree with the concepts of mainstreaming and inclusion.



As it is shown in figure 3 below, faculty emphasized the need of a classroom paraprofessional and adaptive technology. Apparently only 39% agreed, 39% strongly agreed, and only 21% disagreed with the need of a paraprofessional. The majority showed their concern with the need. From this, we can deduce that provision of a paraprofessional and adaptive technology are required tools to facilitate inclusion.

Figure 3.

Question 11: Provision of a classroom paraprofessional and adaptive technology are needed in a regular classroom.



Expert Interviews – Key Findings

We interviewed two CCQ special needs and inclusive education experts and an expert at the Qatar Social and Cultural for the Blind. The college experts explained how inclusive education and accessibility policies are in force at the institution. According to the inclusive education expert, the Qatar Supreme Education Council (SEC) has policies to promote and facilitate inclusive education. We found that the Education Institute of the SEC issued policies and guidelines for additional education support toward proving comprehensive and inclusive education (Qatar SEC 2010). The five-section document stipulates how schools can facilitate inclusive education with particular attention to providing policies to accommodate students with disabilities or special needs.

We learned from the interview with a supervisor at the Qatar Social and Cultural Center for the Blind that vision-impaired students ought to be provided adaptive equipment in the classroom as well as in special labs. We found that adaptive technology for disabled and special needs students is available at the college. According to the special needs coordinator, the college has two small labs with software provided by Mada and Nour Institute for the Blind based in Qatar. The latter institute has also provided Braille equipment for the vision-impaired students at the college.

The last key finding from this same interview is the college’s position on inclusive education. In complying the SEC’s policies, the college does not separate disabled and

special needs students from the general classrooms to place them into special classes. The students generally feel comfortable around disabled students and are welcoming and supportive. This inclusion practice is policy at the college and is in support of Qatar's social development goals.

Impact of Results on the College

We presented the results of the instructor questionnaire and expert interviews to the college administration. The college dean took the critical measures to improve the facilitation of inclusive education at the college. A special budget was created to hire more special needs specialists and install additional adaptive technology in the classrooms and labs. As the college continues to grow, the priority of serving the special needs students at the college will continue as well. The college will be relocating to two new buildings which are American with Disabilities Act (ADA)-compliant. Additionally, as a result of our research, there is heightened awareness among instructors and students about the special needs and disabled students in our academic community.

Validity and Reliability Threats

In order to minimize threats to validity of the tools and reliability of the faculty questionnaire results, our use of the standardized questionnaire ensures the validity of what is being measured and reliability in the consistency of the measurement. We chose to use the ATMS questionnaire because it has been tested for validity and reliability by Larrivee and Cook (1979) and Wilczenski (1991).

Ethical Concerns

During our research, we were guided by research ethics regarding maintain confidential information on the disabled students and responses of the faculty and experts, as detailed in the *Policies, Regulations, and Guidelines for Research Involving Human Subjects*, Qatar Supreme Council of Health (2009) and *Research Ethics Guide*, Qatar National Research Fund (2013). We cleared a preliminary review through college administration. We also promised confidentiality of the faculty respondents' responses; currently their responses are not marked or traceable. We also agreed to and signed a confidentiality statement provided by the Office of Student Affairs prior to our college interviews. We sought and received permission from the interviewees concerning the public disclosure of their interviews, audio, and video-recordings and the information therein. The results of the questionnaire and interviews are as accurate as possible in order that others may replicate the results where possible. We dealt with each person involved in this study honestly, openly, and with full disclosure where confidentiality of student and faculty private information precludes it.

Implications and Further Research

As this is the first research of this topic and kind at CCQ, the results are preliminary, yet provide a foundation by which to build further research in either promoting inclusive education policy or evaluating its implementation and programs. The attitudes data received from the faculty questionnaire are useful and additional research questions can be derived from them. Even a comparative study of faculty attitudes toward inclusive education can be conducted between other universities in Qatar, the Gulf region, or any international universities. In all, the focus of each subsequent study initiated from this one ought to build

on the idea promoting inclusive education in support of Qatar's signatory status within the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, Human Rights Education, and Qatar's National Vision 2030.

References

Ahmed, M, Sharma, U, & Deppeler, J. 2012. Variables affecting teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education in Bangladesh. *Journal of Special Educational Needs* 12(3):132-140.

Alghazo, EM. 2002. Educators' attitudes toward persons with disabilities: factors affecting inclusion. *Journal of Faculty of Education* 17(19):27-44.

Avramidis, E, & Norwich, B. 2002. Teachers' attitudes towards integration/inclusion: a review of the literature. *European Journal of Special Needs Education* 17(2):129-147.

Berryman, J. 1989. Attitudes of the public toward educational mainstreaming. *Remedial and Special Education* 10:44-49.

Costello, S, & Boyle, C. 2013. Pre-service secondary teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education* 38(4):129-143.

Creswell, JW. 1994. *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-methods approach*. 2d edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Haimour, AI. 2012. Undergraduate universities student's attitudes toward disabled persons in Saudi Arabia. *European Journal of Educational Studies* 4(2):269-280.

Larrivee, B, & Cook, L. (1979). Mainstreaming: A study of the variables affecting teacher attitude. *Journal of Special Education* 13:315-324.

Lombardi, A, & Bars, I. 2013. *An international comparison of postsecondary faculty attitudes and actions toward inclusive instruction: comparing Spain and the United States*. A paper presented at the International Conference on Higher Education and Disability, 23 July 2013.

Qatar National Research Fund. 2013. *Research Ethics Guide*. Doha, Qatar: Qatar Foundation.

Qatar Research Department. 2009. *Policies, regulations, and guidelines for research involving human subjects*. Doha, Qatar: Qatar Supreme Council on Health. [Online].

Available at:

<http://www.sch.gov.qa/sch/UserFiles/File/Research%20Department/PoliciesandRegulations.pdf> [Accessed: 17 December, 2013].

Qatar Supreme Education Council. 2009. Evaluation of the First Phase (2005-2009) of the World Programme for Human Rights Education (WPHRE), 2005-2009. [Online]. Available at:

http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/Education/Training/replies/QATAR_UNESCO.pdf
[Accessed: 17 December, 2013].

Qatar Supreme Education Council. 2010. *Education Institute issues policies and guidelines for additional educational support*. 30 June 2010 [Online]. Available at:
<http://www.sec.gov.qa/En/Media/News/Pages/NewsDetails.aspx?NewsID=2927> [Accessed 17 June 2013].

Spratt, J, & Florian, L. 2013. Applying the principles of inclusive pedagogy in initial teacher education: from university based course to classroom action. *Revista de Investigacion en Education* 11(3):133-140.

United Nations. 2008. Conventions on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and Optional Protocol. [Online]. Available at:
<http://www.un.org/disabilities/documents/convention/convoptprot-e.pdf> [Accessed 13 December 2013].

UNESCO. 1994. The Salamanca statement on principles, policy and practice in special needs education. [Online]. Available at: http://www.unesco.org/education/pdf/SALAMA_E.PDF
[Accessed 18 February 2014].

Wilczenski, F. 1991. *Use of attitudes toward mainstreaming scale with undergraduate education students*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the New England Educational Research Organization, Portsmouth, New Hampshire, April, 1991. [Online]. Available at:
<http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED332992> [Accessed 18 December, 2013].

Appendix A. Instructor Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain information about what you as an educator think about inclusive education. Inclusive education is the process of including students with special needs and physical impairments in general education places. This questionnaire is based on the Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale (ATMS) by Dr. Barbara Larrivee and Dr. Linda Cook (1979). It contains 20 statements of which you may mark a response. All the information in this questionnaire is provided by you anonymously and we will not maintain any identifying information. You do not have to respond to any statement that you feel uncomfortable answering and you can withdraw from this questionnaire at any time without completing.

Have you received any training or taken any courses on special needs education

No _____ Yes _____ (If YES, please answer items a, b, and c.) (If NO, please continue to question 6.)

What kind of training did you receive? (Check all those that apply.)

_____ State Credential/Certificate

- _____ In-service training during pre-service
- _____ School-based training course(s)
- _____ Teacher training college degree
- _____ Teacher training university degree
- _____ Professional development (If so, please describe) _____
- _____ Other (Please describe) _____

Total time of training you received _____ years _____ months _____ weeks

Main subjects of the training you received (Please list)

I have had experience teaching students with special needs and/or disabilities for _____ years _____ months

What kind of impairment? (Please check all those that apply.)

- _____ Language
- _____ Visual
- _____ Hearing
- _____ Physical
- _____ Mental
- _____ Reading
- _____ Multi-disabilities
- _____ Other (Please describe) _____

ATTITUDE STATEMENTS

Instructions: please check the statement that best describes your opinion. You may skip any statement you feel uncomfortable answering.

1 = strongly disagree 2 = disagree 3 = agree 4 = strongly agree

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| The needs of students with disabilities can best be served through special, separate classes. | | | | |

| | | | | |
|---|--|--|--|--|
| Students who use sign-language or communication boards should be in regular classrooms. | | | | |
| Most of the methods used by teachers with regular students in the classroom are appropriate for students with disabilities. | | | | |
| The challenge of being in the regular classroom will promote the academic growth of the students with disabilities. | | | | |
| It is difficult to maintain order in a regular classroom that contains a student with a disability. | | | | |
| Regular teachers possess a great deal of expertise necessary to work with students with disabilities. | | | | |
| The students with disabilities will probably develop academic skills more rapidly in a special class than in a regular classroom. | | | | |
| The extra attention that students with disabilities require will be to the detriment of the other students. | | | | |
| Provision of a classroom paraprofessional and adaptive technology are needed in a regular classroom. | | | | |
| Additional time to plan lessons is needed in a regular classroom. | | | | |
| Inclusion of students with disabilities will require significant changes in the regular classroom procedures. | | | | |
| Regular teachers have sufficient training to teach students with disabilities. | | | | |
| Students with disabilities will monopolize the teacher's time. | | | | |
| Inclusion will promote the students with disabilities' social independence. | | | | |
| Most students with disabilities do not make an attempt to complete their assignments. | | | | |
| It is likely that a student with a disability will exhibit behavior problems in a regular classroom. | | | | |
| The inclusion of students with disabilities creates confusion in a regular classroom. | | | | |
| The inclusion of students with disabilities can be beneficial for regular students. | | | | |
| Isolation in a special class has a negative effect on the social and emotional development of the students with disabilities. | | | | |
| I agree with concepts of mainstreaming and inclusion. | | | | |

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Your responses will be most useful to our research.

Biographies

Maryam Khalifah AlSuwaidi is a second year college student at the Community College of Qatar (CCQ) who is interested in pursuing a major in international affairs. She is an employee at the Public Relations and Communication Department of the Qatar Ministry of Administrative Development. She was a recipient of the first student research grant at CCQ. Her research on inclusive education conducted with her co-principal researcher won first place. Maryam is known as a young woman who is passionate about contributing to and making positive changes in her country.

Dana Saleh AlHamad is a first year student at the Community College of Qatar (CCQ). She hopes to continue her studies in Media and Mass Communication in the United Kingdom. She was a recipient of one of the first student research grants at CCQ as well. Her research on inclusive education conducted with her co-principal researcher won first place. Her goal in life is to see the world as a better place for disabled people. Her passion is to advocate for their educational rights around the world.

Yvonne D Eaton is a professor of international relations, political science, and Gulf modern history at the Community College of Qatar (CCQ). She served as the research faculty advisor for Maryam and Dana in their research on inclusive education at the college.

Exploring perceived effects of Thai secondary educational culture on social innovation

DeQawn Mobley* Faculty of Arts & Science, Business Admin., Webster University Thailand
Dr Judith McIntyre Faculty of Business Administration, Webster University Thailand
(*this paper is based on the primary author's 2014 thesis for a Master of Business Administration degree)

Abstract

Social innovation has become an increasingly important feature of the global landscape. Simply put, social innovation is people or organizations that specifically seek to meet social needs with creative ideas, design, frameworks, methodologies and implementations (Oeij, Dhondt & Korver, 2011). The purpose of this study is to elaborate the main factors impacting the relationship between Thai secondary educational culture and social innovation. In-depth interviews, direct and participant observation and documentation provided data which was analyzed in descriptive, topic and analytical coding. Five primary factors of how Thai educational culture impacts social innovation were found: (a) “sabai sabai” (b) “appeasing por & mae” (c) “esteemed ajarn” (d) “qual experience” and (e) “sharing is caring”. Identifying the different ways in which Thai educational culture impacts social innovation in the classroom can inform teaching and learning because it provides educators with a basis for creating opportunities to develop students’ understanding and development of social innovation. The knowledge and skills needed for Thailand to succeed is changing and there is a demand for pedagogical reform. However, without consideration to existing sociocultural characteristics this policy reform and “Karn-rien karn-sorn thi yued phurien pen soon-klang” (learner centred teaching and learning) will not take place.

Introduction

Education is universally acknowledged as one of the fundamental pillars to socioeconomic growth in a country, and secondary level schooling influences students in what they will aspire to become as adults (Nordstokka, 2013). Human capital (the valuation of skills, knowledge, experience and expertise of a person, group or society) is created and improved through educational investments that target children (Breton, 2013). However, a factory-model education system can no longer prepare students to succeed in a global economy that demands 21st century skills such as empathy, leadership, creativity and critical thinking. It is the contention in this paper that when investing in the education of children, social innovation should be considered, that is, if the optimum goal or expected return is to increase human capital that satisfies current societal demands.

Secondary students in Thailand continue to achieve unsatisfactory performance on international education tests highlighting a quality issue. Thailand ranks 78th out of 144 nations globally and last among eight ASEAN countries in quality of education (James & Channgam, 2013). Not surprisingly, there is much literature criticizing the Thai education system and its teaching and learning processes, and current works offer critiques in which the connection to social innovation is implicit (Aramnet, 2014; Fernquest, 2013; *The Economist*, 2012; Hallinger & Lee, 2011; *The Nation*, 2013; James & Channgam, 2013); examining the context and relationship between the processes of this performance and social innovation merits further exploration. Concomitantly, the literature concerning social innovation or its relationship to education is overwhelmingly based in and on the Western world (McAllister, 2014; Oeij, Dhondt, & Korver, 2011; Caulier-Grice, Kahn, Mulgan, Pulford & Vasconcelos, 2010; Figueiredo, 2009; Van de Ven, Polley & Garud, 2008). This research study addresses this gap by exploring the interrelationship between Thai secondary education and social innovation presenting cultural sensitivity with a Thai (Eastern) perspective and context. In the following section of the paper we discuss the origins of the term social innovation. A review of the evolution of social innovation illustrates its progression from a Western construct to an emerging global concern. We then situate our discussion of social innovation in the context of the Thai education system and dominant national sociocultural traits to illuminate the challenges and implications.

Innovation

Innovation is an introduction of new products, ideas or methods that addresses or solves the current or future problems of an organization, corporation, society or any aspect of life that affects a collective group (Datta, 2011). Figueiredo (2009) explains two types of innovation as incremental and disruptive. Incremental innovations are improvements to ideas, services, products, systems, organizations and processes that already exist (students that learn better from the implementation of PowerPoint), while disruptive innovations take the place of traditional solutions (Wikipedia replacing encyclopaedia books - instantaneous accessibility, no cost or space and convenient). Phills Jr., Deiglmeier & Miller's (2008) review of the literature identify two distinct streams: innovation as a process or as an outcome. From the point of view of process, it is imperative that national education systems become contexts that support innovation in order to help foster the conditions that enable people to create solutions to social problems.

Social Innovation Defined

Combining the two terms social and innovation recognizes the importance of people or organizations to meet social needs with creative ideas, design, frameworks, methodologies and implementations (Oeij, Dhondt, & Korver, 2011). Social innovations contribute value to an entire society rather than one individual or organization (Phills Jr et al., 2008). Caulier-Grice et al., (2010, p.17) state: “social innovations are innovations that are social both in their ends and their means. In other words, they are innovations that are both good for society and enhance society’s capacity to act.” If social innovation comes about through critical and analytical thinking, creativity and knowledge sharing (Van de Ven, Polley & Garud, 2008) it is crucial that citizens be given the opportunity to develop these attributes.

There are four sectors in which social innovation can arise or interact: the private market, the public sector, the grant economy and voluntary work and households (Oeij, Dhondt, & Korver, 2011). The drivers of social innovation may innovate within and amongst any of these sectors, acting in response to a contextual problem and the inability of current institutional frameworks to solve unique problems birthed from a new set of circumstances (Klien, Fontan, Harrison, & Levesque, 2012). However, social innovation is bigger than social entrepreneurship and social enterprise as it includes “the ideas and solutions that create social value—as well as the processes through which they are generated, not just the individuals and organizations” (Stanford Graduate School of Business, 2008).

Evolution of Social Innovation

The idea of social innovation as a vehicle to address social issues has been around for centuries although, primarily documented in the Western context. Robert Owen, an influential early social reformer in the 18th century used profits from the village store to fund education which led to the cooperative movement whereby members receive a share of the profits (Harvey, 1949). Peter Drucker and Michael Young (Open University, Health-line and International Alert) discussed social innovation as early as the 1960s in the academic literature (Mulgan, Tucker, Ali & Sanders, 2007). Moreover, social innovation can be seen throughout history in transformative changes such as kindergartens, distance learning and massive open online courses (MOOCs) as well as the fair trade movement and microfinance. In its most recent form the concept has deep roots in the social entrepreneurship movement of the 1980s and 1990s, promoted by Bill Drayton the founder of Ashoka and Charles Leadbeater’s Pro-Am Revolution with its bottom-up self-organization.

Social innovation today is a strategic priority for most governments. In 2009, President Barack Obama created the White House Office of Social Innovation and Civic Participation (SICP) as part of his Domestic Policy Council within the Executive Office of the President raising awareness. This Office focuses on issues such as national service, civic engagement, impact investing, and social enterprise. In the United Kingdom, the Office for Civil Society has responsibility for charities, social enterprises and voluntary organizations and announced a £60m investment to help social ventures struggling to access finance (Birkwood, 2014). Most countries today cannot afford to provide a welfare state and collaboration amongst government and the private and voluntary sectors is being encouraged to develop new ways of thinking to develop innovative ideas for addressing health, social and environmental challenges. This devolution of responsibility has progressed further still in terms of directly reaching out to individual citizens to tackle local social issues. For example, in the United Kingdom the Big Green Challenge (GBP 1 million) invites communities to confront climate change. Similarly, in Canada, BC Ideas is an online competition, which uses crowd sourcing to get British Columbians to bring forward innovative ideas and programs to address the challenges facing the province. In France, the Mayor of Paris asked citizens to participate in

the budget process and decide on the allocation of five per cent of the city's investment budget. This 'mass localism' attempts to engage citizens in social innovation where they live, costs less and has more potential for lasting impact than traditional approaches (Bunt & Harris, 2010). The ultimate end goal is Drayton's Ashoka philosophy where everyone would become a 'change maker' and improve his/her community for the better. The question of how to create an enabling environment for citizens to take on this responsibility has yet to be addressed. However, there is little doubt state education systems will be looked to in order to better prepare students to be active members of society and become socially innovative to tackle societal problems. This will be a significant challenge as recent research by Wagner (2012) suggests the "culture of schooling as we all know it is radically at odds with the culture of learning that produces innovators" (Swallow, 2012).

Higher educational institutions have started to play an important role in promoting and developing the concept of social innovation. The Stanford Social Innovation Review (University of Stanford) informs and inspires drivers of social innovation from all segments of society, encouraging collaboration amongst nonprofit, business, and government sectors to address social issues. The Skoll Centre for social entrepreneurship was launched in 2003 at Saïd Business School, The University of Oxford with a large donation from Jeff Skoll, founding President of eBay. While most Western universities now have courses and undergraduate and graduate degree programs that provide students with opportunities to pursue their interests in social innovation it is important for the secondary education sector to also lay a foundation for students.

Though results of social innovation on a global scale are easily identified (self-build housing, neighborhood nurseries, zero carbon housing schemes), most literature concerning social innovation focuses on business and technology with little comprehensive research, history, in-depth analysis (qualitative or quantitative) or theoretical framework of how social innovation is to be done or reinforced (Mulgan, Tucker, Ali & Sanders, 2007). This lack of attention is also notable in developing countries such as Thailand which sets a large challenge that needs to be addressed.

Social Innovation in a Thai Context

Literature and research pertaining to social innovation in a Thai context is undoubtedly limited, however, there is a sense of urgency throughout Thai education, government and non-governmental sectors concerning social innovation. The Thai Social Enterprise Office (TSEO) is an independent government agency that focuses on promoting social innovation and enterprise in Thailand. This agency's premise is simple: in order to improve Thailand's socioeconomic situation all areas of society and government must think and do things differently (Thai Social Enterprise Office, 2013). Similar to other countries there are different initiatives/strands to the Thai social innovation policy: firstly, promote a culture of innovation in the public sector through awards/competitions; secondly, co-creation model for prototyping and thirdly, develop the ecosystem through networks and design labs (Thai Social Enterprise Office, 2013).

Innovation Thailand (2014) acknowledges the importance of innovation in preparation for the ASEAN Economic Community in 2015, while UNESCO Bangkok (2011) organizes regional seminars on innovative information and communication technology practices in teaching and learning processes; this allows educators and school administrators to share innovative ICT practices and reshape Thailand's pedagogy to be student-centered. "Refuse to Be Corrupt" Cafes, BE magazines sold by homeless people and A-CHIEVE are recent examples of social

innovation in action. Programs like Ashoka's Citizen Based Initiative (CBI) and Innovative Learning Initiative (ILI) are imperative to establishing a normalcy of idea sharing on social issues between individuals in society. These types of programs reinforce the importance of "qualitative experiences" such as collaborations, social networking and civic engagement in a society when solving social problems. A primary focus of Ashoka Thailand is to counter the country's current perception of youth and inspire students and young adults to form their own associations for the development of their community; Youth Ventures is one of the latest programs to emerge. If these initiatives are to be successful in the long term the Thai education system must be the catalyst to prepare its citizenry to create a sustainable environment for social innovation to flourish.

Thai Secondary School System

The core subjects of Thai secondary education are math, science, social studies, religion and culture, Thai language, health and physical education, careers and technology, arts, and foreign languages. Since 2001, the Thai education system has been divided into three levels: KG1 to KG3 (3 to 5 years old), P1 to P6 (6 to 11 years old, also known as Prathom) and M1 to M6 (12 to 18 years old, also known as Mathayom or secondary education). After successfully completing the obligatory levels of P1 to M3, students have the option of continuing their education and moving on to grade M4 based on completion of the standardized test, Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET). After completing the last secondary level, M6, students will take O-NET once more, including the Advanced National Educational Test (A-NET) for university admission (The National Institute of Educational Testing Service, 2009). Eighty seven percent of Thai secondary teachers working under the Office of the Board Education Commission (OBEC) had earned at least a bachelor's degree in 2005; although, 11% or less of secondary teachers obtained a Master's degree or higher (Benveniste, 2007). Thailand's secondary class sizes are relatively large, averaging approximately 43 students per class (Benveniste, 2007).

The 1999 National Education Act was the most bold and influential education initiative in the last 15 years in Thailand. The 1999 National Education Act's framework emphasizes several areas in relevance to the betterment of teaching and learning processes: to promote independent thinkers with the ability to build knowledge individually; to promote students with problem-solving abilities and to make classes and learning environments student-centered. Education is the highest public expenditure in Thailand. In 2012, 19.1% of Thailand's GDP was spent on education and approximately 70% of its education budget was spent on primary and secondary education levels (James & Channgam, 2013). However, according to international rankings Thailand's secondary education is 94th in secondary enrollment and 80th in the quality of secondary math and science education (James & Channgam, 2013). Though the literature presents deep sociocultural factors (Fernquest, 2013; The Nation, 2013), Thailand's approach to reforming education has been to spend more; however, this approach fails to address quality issues and exacerbates problems (James & Channgam, 2013). For example, Thailand's populist policies (led by the Pheu Thai government) like supplying computer tablets to students across the country is not an answer (The Economist, 2012). The Ministry of Education (2012) states its vision: "quality student-centered education is provided for everyone with distribution of equitable education opportunities, in cities, rural and outreach areas. Education leads to people's vigor building. Vigorous and knowledgeable people are powerful capital to fight poverty." Unfortunately, the unchanging reality remains despite the rhetoric, Thai pedagogy is teacher-centered and emphasizes rote learning, producing non-academically inclined, under-skilled and unconfident young adults with poor social skills, unable to meet industry needs

(Fernquest, 2013; Benveniste, 2007). The Bangkok Post argues that Thailand’s educational system exhibits an authoritarian teaching and learning environment with militaristic attributes; devastating creativity and producing a noncompetitive society in a “world driven by innovation” (Fernquest, 2013).

Rote Learning, Textbooks and Open Discussion

Rote learning is the process of learning new facts or ideas by way of repetition (memorization) and is useful for remembering facts like phone numbers, dates, names or specific details from a historical event (Ohio University, 2000). However, current access to information makes memorization of facts redundant when someone can easily look up an answer to a question. According to Wolfe (2003), there has been a general pedagogical shift to encourage active, collaborative and peer teaching/learning. Undoubtedly, rote learning counters these objectives, demoting analytical and critical thinking, creativity, student-centered learning and thus, social innovation on a broader platform (Lee et al., 2013; Fredericks, 2005; Ohio University, 2000; Ornstein, 1994). For instance, in rote learning students recall one fact but the others are not recalled, integrated, cross referenced or related. In meaningful learning facts are stored into the memory bank as a whole because they are related to each other in some way; this systematic and rational learning process allow students to recall other facts when one fact is recalled (Purdue, 2014). Figure 1 illustrates this contrast.

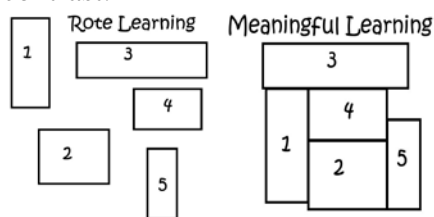


Figure 1: Rote and meaningful learning effects on retaining facts- direct excerpt (Purdue, 2014)

In two studies analyzing textbook tasks (Bennett, 1984; Bennet & Carre, 1993), a total of 417 language and math problems were assigned in a textbook. Results showed 60% of the assigned textbook problems to be practice tasks, moreover, material that the students had already seen and known from the textbook; 25% of the problems were new tasks and 7% were tasks that required the students to create or develop a new concept or problem. In many cases, teachers create tests, quizzes, homework and class assignments from problems in textbooks or printed materials in which correct answers can be found by choosing verbatim information (Ornstein, 1994). This method does not promote problem solving skills, creativity or reasoning. Textbooks are relatively inefficient in encouraging higher levels of cognitive process, and are often distant from the ways students think and reason in real-world circumstances. According to Healey and Ilbery (1993), textbooks are best utilized when incorporated with other teaching methods, creating a learning environment where students are required to take more responsibility for their learning experience.

Open discussions encourage students to take a more active role in their learning experience, students become empowered and self confident while learning how to articulate their ideas, opinions and sharpen their listening skills (Bacay, 2004; Gall & Gillet, 2001). Lessons become clearer for students when they have a chance to learn from each other, exposing collective misunderstandings that would have not been addressed in teacher-centered learning environments. Dr. Kelly McGonigal (2005) explains three outcomes of discussion: (1) increases students’ comfort with the specialized language and methods of a field; (2) develops critical thinking; and (3) develops problem-solving skills. Discussions can cultivate

a sense of belonging (community), this is something that many of us long for (Blount, 1999); and this is essential when addressing shared circumstances and problems.

Sociocultural Traits of Education

Concerning pedagogy, Western teachers tend to stress active learning in classroom settings; this is reflective of an expressive culture that values openness, individual opinion and creativity (Cheng, 2010). These cultural attributes have been interwoven into Western education since the ancient Greek years of Aristotle, Plato and Socrates when they all encouraged rational thinking (Hassan & Jamaludin, 2010). Conversely, Eastern teachers tend to stress passive learning, which is reflective of a culture that emphasizes high power distance (seniority is important) and hierarchy systems (Cheng, 2010). In cultures containing religious backgrounds such as Hinduism, Buddhism, Islam, Taoism and Confucianism knowledge was usually transferred directly from the lessons and teachings of their respective religion (Chai Mun Onn, 2009); this same teaching and learning method is replicated in modern Eastern education (textbook emphasis, rote and teacher-centered learning).

Thai National Culture

Hofstede defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind distinguishing the members of one group or category of people from another" (The Hofstede Centre, n.d., para. 1). His initial research (Hofstede, 1983) identified four cultural value dimensions that enable comparison across different cultures and are relevant to the discussion: power distance refers to the degree to which people in a country accept that power is distributed unequally. Uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) is used to rank cultures on the extent to which people feel threatened by uncertainty and seek to reduce it. A high ranking on the UAI suggests a lack of comfort in unstructured situations. The individualism-collectivism dimension refers to whether individual or group goals dominate. The masculinity versus femininity dimension contrasts the masculine attribute of assertiveness over the traditional feminine value of cooperation.

According to Hofstede (1980) Thailand exhibits high power distance, collectivism, feminine attributes and uncertainty avoidance. High power distance displays itself in all aspects of Thai society (age, gender, occupation). For example, two and three year old children learn to address their four year old sibling or cousin as "Pi" (pronounced pee), this acknowledges and symbolizes a respect for seniority. "Kreng-jai" is a Thai word meaning consideration, humbleness and to some extent submissiveness to others and this is especially given to those of high hierarchal status (Rhein, 2013). In Thailand, a high collectivism is practiced on the political, religious (Buddhism) and social levels (Pimpa, 2012). From food offerings to Buddhist monks in the early morning hours to sharing foods in large groups during dinner, Thais value the concept of sharing and doing things together.

In most masculine cultures, quality of life is reached through strategic thinking, socially perceived achievements and materialism. Conversely, feminine cultures attain quality of life through relationships, feelings and harmony. "Nam jai" is a common Thai term which means to help others and show care or concern for them (Prpic & Kanjanapanyakom, 2013). According to Rhein (2013), Thais tend to avoid conflict and desire social harmony stemming from feminine cultural attributes. Lastly, when a country exhibits high uncertainty avoidance it sees uncertainty as a threat to society and seeks to avoid it (Hofstede, 1980). High uncertainty avoidance is intolerant to new ideas, behaviours or policies that conflict with the norm. Thais see working hard and family orientation as stability and a means to avoid uncertainty (Arenander, 2014). Not to be dismissed, Hofstede (n.d., para. 11) also describes

Thailand as a normative society in the later emerged cultural dimension of pragmatism, asserting that normative countries “exhibit great respect for traditions, a relatively small propensity to save for the future, and a focus on achieving quick results.”

Indeed, theories of culture arise from subjective perception, though it is safe to say sociocultural features do in fact affect the probabilities of change and outcome. Thus, from an educational standpoint, Thai students tend to be significantly less competitive than students from “masculine” cultures (Hallinger, 2003; Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions, 2010), and extreme collectivism in a classroom setting demotes individual thinking (Prpic & Kanjanapanyakom, 2013). Additionally, social innovation processes entail a readiness to change, and this requires addressing uncertainties and outmoded approaches. Further, high power distance between teachers and students discourages opinions- students would rather not question the opinion or knowledge of a teacher in fear of threatening the teacher’s relatively high position in society, disrespecting seniority, causing a teacher to “lose face,” or simply disrupting the power distance system (The Nation, 2013; Niehoff, Turnley, Yen & Sheu, 2001; Hallinger & Kantamara, 2001).

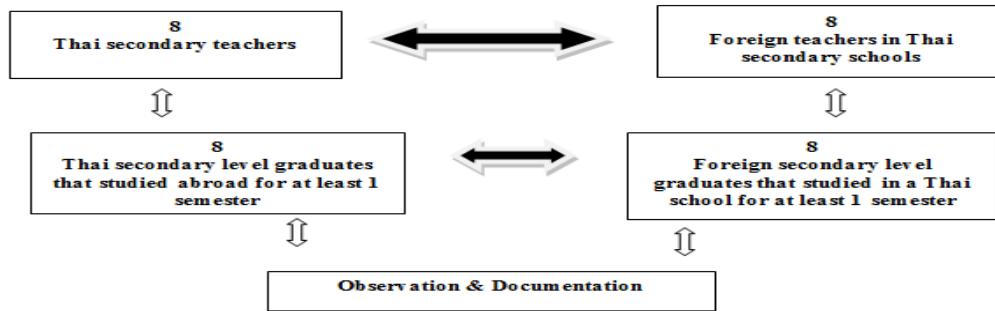
Implications & Conclusion

Thai secondary educational culture remains an obstacle for social innovation to flourish. Tan (2011) argues that non-discussion and rote learning are profoundly embedded in East Asian culture. Consequently, most Thai students receive little opportunity to apply material, information and knowledge to new circumstances. The Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) questionnaire evaluating the teaching and learning processes of countries, revealed only 33% of Thai students reported being called to the front of the classroom to answer questions or present ideas (the international average was 60%), and approximately 12% of Thai students stated that they have used charts, graphs or tables for analyzing relationships (Benveniste, 2007). Thailand’s goal of establishing “Khru Pan Mai” (New Breed of Teachers) is an opportunity to challenge traditional teaching methods and introduce pedagogy in alignment with social innovation characteristics such as critical thinking, creativity and knowledge sharing.

Methodology: Design of Study Approach & Setting

This research study was conducted using a qualitative multi-method inductive approach. A multi-method research design (see figure 2) was chosen to improve the research process and findings and avoid producing homogeneous data (Locke, 2006). A single method is unlikely to provide enough sources of understanding and ways of looking at Thai socio cultural traits and social innovation. Combining a range of data sources such as interviews, observation and documentation enable the possibility of creativity – discovering fresh or paradoxical factors that stimulate further work and expansion – widening the scope of the study to take in contextual aspects of the situation (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The research objective was to explore perceptions about socio cultural traits and social innovation and the nature of that relationship in order to establish a theoretical basis for which future discourse and research can be conducted and expounded upon.

Figure 2: Multi-Method Approach



Direct and participant observation (class viewings and personal experience as a secondary teacher in Thailand) as well as documentation from institutions concerned produced the initial data for analysis and this was subsequently used to generate an interview protocol. Pilot interviews were conducted in person with two Thai students and two Thai teachers which helped identify and confirm the analytical approach, feasibility of data collection and general structure of interviews (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). As this is an exploratory study dealing with multi-perceptions, open-ended questions and in-depth interviews were deemed an appropriate data collection method (Gioia, Corley & Hamilton, 2012; Saunders et al, 2003). Kvale (1983, p.174) proposed the purpose of an interview “is to gather descriptions of the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena”. A survey containing closed-ended questions would confine multiple perceptions in an exploratory study.

Sample

The sample (see figure 2) is comprised of 32 interviewees: eight Thai secondary teachers, eight foreign secondary teachers (working in Thai public or government schools), eight Thai secondary level graduates that studied abroad (for at least one full school semester), and eight foreigners that studied in or graduated from a Thai secondary school (public, government and international schools). Gender is equally represented and backgrounds are purposely diversified in the sample (range of age, foreign nationalities, academic performances, teaching experience and subjects) to ensure a wide range of perspectives.

Foreign student participants attended schools throughout Thailand, metropolitan/city and rural areas (Nakhon Ratchasima-Northeast Thailand, Prachuap Khiri Khan-Central Thailand, Surathani-Southern Thailand, and Bangkok). Residence in Thailand averages over 10 years and six out of eight foreign students graduated from a Thai secondary school. These sub-features of the foreign-student sample, theoretically, help to provide a culturally sensitive perspective (Liamputtong, 2010). Half the foreign teachers have taught in a country other than Thailand (Western countries), and twenty-five per cent have taught in another Thai province besides Bangkok (Pathum Thani and Buriram provinces). Seventy five per cent of the foreign teachers have taught in more than one Thai secondary school.

The foreign teachers and foreign students provide a sociocultural contrast to the Thai teachers and Thai students. Teaching and learning processes are influenced by society and culture (Cheng, 2010) so exposure to different educational contexts would theoretically help to explicate differences between Western and Eastern pedagogical expectations and perceptions. To ensure variation the decision was made to interview Thai students who have studied abroad for at least one school semester. While the educational backgrounds of Thai students are rooted in Thai or Eastern pedagogy, their study abroad experience enables them to

provide contrasts within their perception regarding sociocultural and educational differences between the West and East (Cheng, 2010).

To avoid a Bangkok centric approach it was important to reach out to Thai teachers from outside of the metropolitan areas. Five Thai teachers are from small towns or rural areas in Central, Northern and Southern provinces of Thailand and have taught in other provinces besides Bangkok. A range of subjects are taught by the Thai-teacher group in various grades M-1 through M-6. In addition, three Thai teachers have taught in vocational, technical or non-formal schools. On average, the Thai teachers have been teaching for nine years, and two Thai teachers have taught for 14 and 15 years. Only one Thai teacher has either taught or experienced teaching and learning processes outside of Thailand (New Zealand for one month and U.S.A for one week as an exchange teacher).

Interviews

The majority of the interviews were conducted in person at school offices for interviewee convenience and on average lasted 75 minutes. Nine video-conferences were held to accommodate the hectic work schedules of participants unable to meet in person. Like in-person interviews, video conferences provided the ability to capture verbal and non-verbal cues. Interviews consisted of note taking and transcription, enabling reconfirmation of responses for precise description and analysis (Linnane, 2013). The interviews were conducted in the English language. All Thai students spoke English fluently. However, to assist Thai teachers and the researcher, a Thai teacher of English was available during interviews to translate and clarify. In addition, interview questions were provided two weeks before the actual interview to allow participants to clarify any questions and reduce any anxiety about their participation in the study.

The first five to ten minutes of the meeting was allocated to introductions from both parties. In this introductory period, most surface questions were naturally answered (where are you from, how long have you been teaching/studying in Thailand?). Also, interviewees were given a brief overview of the study area and reassured of their anonymity (Ukosakul, 2003). Reassuring anonymity in the Thai context is important, considering the Thai cultural attributes of “kreng jai” and “saving face” (Ukosakul, 2003; Prpic & Kanjanapanyakom, 2013).

Initial interview questions focused on contrasting characteristics of Thai and “Western” teaching and learning processes. Thereafter, interviewees were asked to identify distinctions between Eastern and Western sociocultural attributes and how those attributes affected their pedagogy. Interviewees were asked to give their perception on the effects of rote learning, textbook stressed classes and lack of open discussion in classrooms. After giving their opinion on these types of teaching and learning processes, the interviewees were then asked whether or not these were characteristics of Thai teaching and learning processes. Interviewees were asked to define social innovation in their perspective and thereafter, given as much time as they needed to explain how specific characteristics (rote learning, textbook stressed classes, lack of open discussion and most importantly culture) effect social innovation in general. Probing questions were used to examine participants’ perceptions on the effects of Thai educational culture on social innovation and whether or not it demotes/promotes social innovation.

Because most published material on social innovation comes out of the West (McAllister, 2014; Oeij, Dhondt, and Korver, 2011; Caulier-Grice et al., 2010; Figueiredo, 2009; Van de

Ven, Polley & Garud, 2008), it would appear that social innovation is purely a Western concept. However, the term and definition of social innovation may be lost in translation when navigating through search engines and archives. This methodology (in-depth interviews with open-ended questions) allowed the interviewees to define and explain the nature of social innovation from their own perspective before deciphering how Thai educational culture demotes, supports or promotes social innovation. This unrestricting question and answer format provided perceptual clarity (Saunders et al, 2003). Moreover, it gives us insight into whether or not Westerners and Easterners define, conceptualize and relate to social innovation on common theoretical grounds.

Data Analysis

In order to find meaning in any data a researcher must reduce it to identify themes and patterns. In qualitative research, coding is the starting point for data analysis. This is described by Punch (1998, p. 204) as the “process of putting tags, names or labels against pieces of the data”. Coding for the findings was executed in three steps: descriptive, topic and analytical coding (Richards, 2005; Richards, 2009). In the descriptive coding step, all information that describes attributes of specific cases was stored. For example, attributes concerning cases of interviews and cases of class observation were stored separate from one another (gender, nationality, position- teacher or student, type of school- public/government or international, class size, subject being taught). Detailed tables containing summarizations of each case (and their attributes) were created.

Similar to step one (descriptive), topic coding involves little interpretation; in this step, data was placed “where it belongs” (Richards, 2005; Richards, 2009). For example: “this is about social innovation,” “this is about disadvantages of rote learning,” or “this is about Thai culture.” The logic behind this step or process is as follows: if the role of Thai culture is applicable to the study, it is essential to get in one department everything perceived about this role (Richards, 2005; Richards, 2009; Saunders et al, 2003).

Analytical coding is where intensive interpretation and superior factors begin to arise. Perceptions/responses from participants that are significantly consistent or inconsistent were departmentalized (Gibbs, 2007). Data cohesion was established after relating the observations and documentation to these departments, exploring connections between what was said, seen and done. For example, if student participation grades identified from documentation are low, students remaining silent in class was observed and a consistent interviewee response is ‘Thai students remain silent or do not participate in classes due to specific cultural norms like high teacher-student power distance’, these classifications will be departmentalized together and labeled ‘Esteemed Ajarn’. This grouping is then analyzed and explored in relation to or its effect on social innovation. As a result of this initial departmentalization, sample responses, observations and documentation were easier to thematically classify; thus, producing primary finding groups for the process of analysis as suggested by Gibbs (2007).

Naturally, classes for findings were partially derived from the necessity to compare and contrast the secondary data implications to findings (Saunders et al, 2003). This enables one to relate implicit literature to explicit findings; thus, providing a linear theoretical framework, exposing contradictions in literature and findings and/or confirming the study’s contribution. In accordance, the interview protocol was initially created to explicitly address, to some extent, prominent themes evident in the secondary data that implied an interrelationship between Thai secondary teaching and learning processes and social innovation (Cassell & Symon, 1998). Importantly, classes for findings emerged mostly from analytical coding-

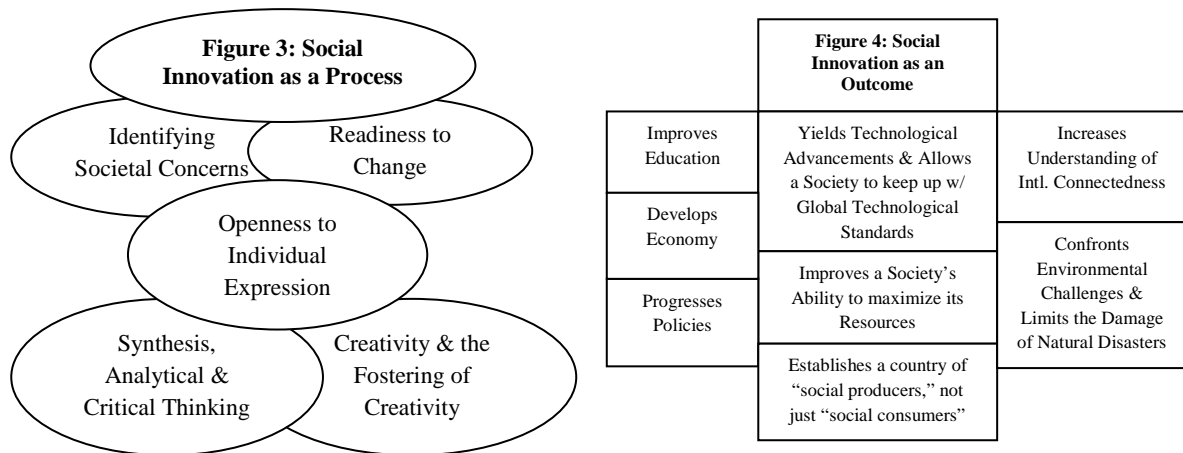
cases compared and contrasted with other cases, consistent data versus inconsistent data and rigorous interpretation (Richards, 2005; Richards, 2009; Gibbs, 2007).

Findings

Once the interviews with Thai and foreign teachers and students were analyzed and coded, the data analysis revealed insight on how participants perceived social innovation and five primary factors of Thai secondary educational culture that effect social innovation were found. These factors are described and supported with extracts from interviews in this study as evidence to support the interpretations and claims made for each category. The text in parentheses following the extracts from interview transcripts refers to a pseudonym assigned to each participant for this study and their classification as Thai/foreign teacher or student.

Perceptions of Social innovation

The participants perceived social innovation as both a process and outcome which progresses a collective society. Though, according to findings, socially innovative processes must exhibit specific characteristics for successful outcomes. Figure 3 illustrates the participants' perception of social innovation as a process, while figure 4 shows their perception of social innovation as an outcome.



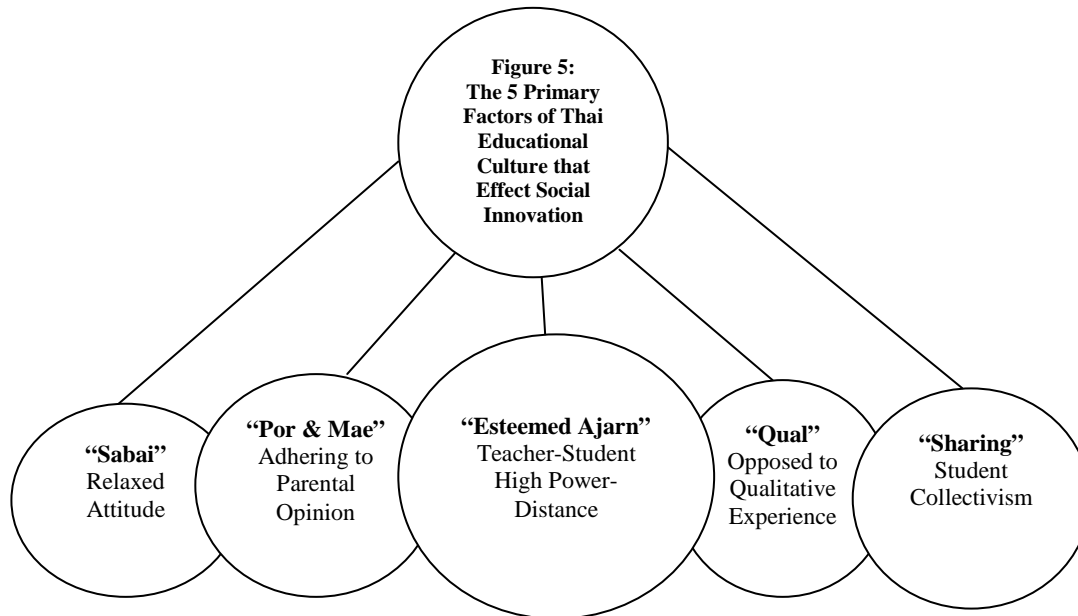
I think social innovation is about fostering creative environments and thinking

processes in a society to make new products and things to give back to society and solve social problems; to create or make things to solve social problems and help people in a society (Jonathan, Foreign Teacher).

Participants' perceived social innovation as a necessary means of dealing with social problems particularly with the environment: "We have to be able to deal with new crisis (tsunami) or new problems (climate change). We have to be able to solve these problems and deal with it in new ways because it is a new problem. We cannot address it the same way because it won't work" (Katawan, Thai Student). Creativity was most commonly associated with social innovation: "social innovation is about fostering creative environments and thinking processes in a society to make new products and things to give back to society and solve social problems; therefore, creativity is a huge part of making our life better and more fulfilled" (Chaiyakorn, Thai Student).

Effects of Thai educational culture on social innovation

Thai secondary educational culture emerged as the most stressed factor of Thai teaching and learning processes that effect social innovation. Five primary attributes of Thai secondary educational culture emerged from the study: (a) “sabai sabai” (b)“appeasing por & mae” (c)“esteemed ajarn” (d)“qual experience” and (e)“sharing is caring”.



“Sabai Sabai”

Sabai sabai, the Thai term for being fine or relaxed, was perceived by interviewees as a dominant aspect of educational culture that impacts social innovation. “Sabai-ness” is seen as being relaxed and choosing not to overexert or stress oneself over problems or tasks. Thai secondary schools generally exhibit sabai sabai organizational behaviors and attitudes toward education that are reflected in teaching and learning processes, thus affecting the way teachers, students and schools address problems: “Thai schools are very easy going; if you pass you’re good, if you fail, they still make you pass” (Pongsapit, Thai Student).

An educational sabai-ness demotes problem identification (societal concerns), readiness to change, reevaluation, adjustments and adaptation to new methods, ideas or practices. If a person lacks initiative or sees little reason or value in changing a circumstance or adjusting and adapting to new circumstances innovation cannot take place. Certainly, from a societal aspect, social innovation cannot take place if there is no social inclination to produce or progress societal ideas or address its problems.

Thais seem to have less urgency in doing things, and a more relaxed approach to things in general. In the school setting, students seem to follow this trend as a reflection of its culture. I’ve seen foreign teachers try to instill a sense of urgency, self responsibility and individual aspiration into some Thai students but they are frequently unsuccessful, for whatever reason. The Thai students just seem to be uninterested in this type of change. (Timothy, Foreign Teacher)

“Por & Mae”

Respect for parents, “por and mae” (dad and mom) was a common theme highlighted by interviewees as impacting the Thai secondary educational setting and limiting students’ self-

expression and choice. Thai students are expected to study whatever it is that their parents recommend: “This society values ‘face’, you must uphold your family’s reputation. Therefore, there is generally a lot of stress put on students from their parents. Thai students must study what their parents tell them to study; they have little freedom to study what they want”. (Chaiyakorn, Thai Student) Similarly, “Thailand is based on hierarchy so we must respect the older people no matter what, but people are more equal in the West; sometimes this makes us less confident in expressing ourselves”. (Sumaree, Thai Student)

Participants believed that parents are very serious about their children’s education, and this is why parents encourage their children to take extra classes after school hours. This perception was viewed in contrast to knowledge of parental influence in other countries: “In Germany, parents were more open to their children exploring activities outside of traditional academics (sports, music, arts). I believe this is better because it promotes creativity and diverse thinking”. (Watcharin, Thai Student)

Thai Teacher responses paralleled this idea that the educational paths of Thai students are heavily directed and regulated by parents: “In Thai society you must respect elders and your parents. Thai children are usually told what educational paths to take by their parents”. (Kanjana, Thai Teacher) The powerful role of parents in student educational paths was seen as restricting students from studying courses or exploring knowledge that interested them; thus, limiting student creativity, individual expression and exposure to interdisciplinary knowledge/practice- all characteristics of socially innovation.

In Thailand, parents decide almost everything for their children. Students must go to the school that their parents want them to go to and learn what their parents want them to learn. This culture is reflected in schools. Students aren’t allowed to have opinions or decide on things. The elders are supposed to decide mostly everything for them. Because of this, students lack the critical thinking and problem solving skills that they will need sooner than later in the real world. (Shirash, Foreign Teacher)

“Esteemed Ajarn”

Ajarn is the direct translation of the word teacher in the Thai language, and according to the participants, this word (position) holds a great deal of respect in both society and educational culture. The power and respect of Ajarn was seen as a very important characteristic of Thai educational culture that effects social innovation. High power-distance between Thai teachers and students was frequently emphasized throughout the interviews.

If you fall asleep in class, get a wrong answer, put your feet up, etc, you may get hit by a Thai teacher. In fact, you are not even allowed to sit on the same level as a Thai teacher. In Thailand, students respect the teachers greatly, in America, students and teachers seem to be equal. In Thailand, people would look at you as if you aren’t being obedient to your teacher if you questioned them. Also, we don’t raise our hands and aren’t very outspoken because we are afraid of making mistakes and scared of disappointing the teacher and possibly getting struck by the teacher. (Worawit, Thai Student)

Teachers are considered superior in knowledge and authority because of age and position. This produces an educational culture that places emphasis on teacher-centered classes, little open discussion, and students’ reluctance (due to respect, passiveness and/or fear) to

participate: “Thai students respect their teachers a lot. They respect teachers because we have more knowledge than them. When I give them a home reading assignment, the majority will not read or retain much of it. So, they cannot discuss much in class on the topic. This puts even more emphasis on teacher-centered classes.” (Watcharin, Thai Teacher) In juxtaposition, there was also recognition of the need to address the power distance by promoting a student-centered environment: “Thai teaching and learning processes demote social innovation because it does not help students become creative or interested in social things. We must make classes more student-centered and improve teaching management”. (Thitima, Thai Teacher)

Many cultural differences were expressed in the interviews in the form of Eastern pedagogy versus Western pedagogy. For example, “Thai students cannot have an opinion in class, and they cannot question ideas of the teacher or speak openly in class”. (Truls, Foreign Student) This student made the contrast to Sweden where “you can question the teacher, contribute ideas and have open conversations.” Foreign Student Eli explained Israeli teaching and learning processes, stating “teachers encourage students to speak more in class and expound on topics, whereas, Thai teachers do not encourage students to speak. Israeli classes are student and discussion-centered. Israeli teachers aren’t dictators of knowledge, they rather discuss knowledge”.

Social innovation requires openness to individual expression. Teachers are not viewed as open to student questions, ideas and critique, as questions may highlight their lack of information or knowledge of the topic: “Thai classes aren’t very open; teachers may ask a closed-ended question that needs a yes or no answer but rarely asks questions concerning student opinion or further elaboration on a topic”. (Pongsapit, Thai Student) According to interviewees, student individual expression is substantially discouraged in many Thai secondary classrooms. In consequence, creative thinking is demoted because students fear making a comment or sharing an idea that will be perceived by teachers or students as either stupid or disrespectful to the superior. On the other hand, Thai Teacher Ratchapon stated: “though teaching and learning processes in Thai secondary schools tend to be teacher-centered, we do try to incorporate the students at times, but they don’t like it much”.

“Qualitative Experience”

Participants viewed teaching and learning practices in Thai secondary schools as directed heavily by the teacher with the main focus on academic subject content. There are limited qualitative experiences (service learning in the community, social networking environments, internships and youth jobs, real-life decision making scenarios) to apply subject content. Interviewees expressed the general sentiment that vocational and technical schools are frowned upon in Thai educational culture: “Thais generally perceive students that study from grade levels M-1 to M-6 (completing secondary school) as more smart or clever than students that attend vocational school; this societal perception places creative restraints on Thai students to study what they want”. (Sudara, Thai Teacher) A traditional education path (four years of high school and immediate enrollment into a four year university) was viewed as increasing the probability of ‘success’ in life and also as the undoubtedly ‘correct’ path for all young people to take.

Some kids in Germany may come off as lazy because they choose technical schools and things other than traditional educational routes. Though, I do believe that it is good that kids in America and places like Germany start work when they are young. These young people gain a lot of experience and

learn how to navigate and function in society, and this makes them more capable of formulating new ideas or creations to benefit their society. (Watcharin, Thai Student)

The consensus was that Thai students undergo many hours of traditional schooling (a more quantitative based experience), and are obligated to strict schedules that rarely allow opportunities for social experience or real-life decision making scenarios.

In the West, I learned responsibility and self-reliance. I had to plan my own schedule and do a lot of other things outside of school. In Thailand, it is hard for Thais to except diversification or something different. I've proved that we don't have to be typical to be successful. At times, I think Thai society can be very restrictive of creativity or different opinions". (Phattraporn, Thai Student)

Thai secondary educational culture neglects qualitative experience because it rarely accounts or provides practice for social situations that call for in-depth solutions beyond given mathematical formulas. According to participants, in-depth multifaceted solutions to complex social problems (social innovations) can only materialize once a person has identified a societal problem that demands a solution or an area of society that needs to be progressed, and naturally finds interest in taking initiative for the sake of social betterment. In theory, a student that has little exposure to qualitative experience due to an educational culture that neglects it will find profound difficulty in solving problems that have a qualitative (social) nature or even being capable of identifying societal problems or areas of society that demand a creative solution.

I think the Thai educational system is effective in terms of receiving knowledge or information but it is impractical in regards to real life situations. The Thai educational approach is primarily rote focused and students are rarely encouraged to discuss or participate in social or political matters; this makes it difficult for them to utilize knowledge or adapt to new situations that they encounter in real life. (Rachael, Foreign Teacher)

“Sharing is Caring”

Collectivism was viewed as an important characteristic of Thai educational culture that demotes social innovation or innovative thinkers. Participants saw plagiarism as a rampant practice in Thai secondary schools and viewed plagiarism as a product of Thai collectivism: “The collectivism of Thai culture seems to justify the massive out in the open cheating done by students. I think they would call this ‘sharing’. In the West, to cheat like this would be deemed as taboo”. (Evangeline, Foreign Teacher)

The socio-cultural attribute of collectivism is reflected in educational culture whereby, students saw no problem with “sharing” work or answers; in fact, some students saw this as a form of helping others. Many Thai students do not start their work until others have finished, waiting for answers to be handed over to them. Students who plagiarize seem incredibly comfortable and non-offended by this dependence: “students frequently come early before class to copy homework from other students. One person may have done the homework and everyone else copies, and no one thinks wrong of this. This is the sharing aspect that effects education”. (Chaiyakorn, Thai Student) Such practices do not allow independent problem solving because it “requires no thinking to copy work” (Michael, Foreign Teacher). Creative

thinking requires one to formulate individual ideas instead of copying others. Rampant plagiarism and cheating have negative effects on social innovation because such practices counter essential characteristics of socially innovative processes: “Social innovation demands creativity but I don’t think Thai education promotes creativity; I don’t think quiet students and cheating complement social innovation or any type of innovation for that matter”. (Jennifer, Foreign Student)

The described five primary factors of Thai secondary education culture that emerged from the data analysis do not promote social innovation because they reinforce an environment and pedagogy rooted in the manifestation of sociocultural norms opposed to socially innovative characteristics or processes. The implications of these findings will be discussed, recommending the way forward for Thai secondary education to examine and address these particular cultural tendencies in order to create a more positive environment for social innovation to flourish.

Implications

This study confirms rote learning and textbook stressed classes with little open discussion present disadvantages such as demotion of synthesis, critical, analytical and problem-solving skills, and the ability to adapt knowledge to new contexts or real life situations. Thus, the pedagogical demotion of these characteristics in Thai secondary education perceivably impedes social innovation on a broader national platform, producing communities and workforces with underdeveloped social capital. Findings suggest specific sociocultural traits of Thai secondary education to be at the root of this impediment. This final section discusses the implications for each finding as it pertains to Thai teachers, students and general education policy, and identifies areas for future research.

Sabai Sabai

A nonchalant attitude towards education can surely produce disinclined young adults and a counterproductive pedagogical approach. For example, Thailand’s no child left behind policy often results in grade inflation and student promotion to the next grade level regardless of performance or productivity. This policy is reflective of Thai sabai-ness and perpetuates the lax attitudes and lack of initiative in Thai students to aspire for more or challenge themselves. While Thais are generally perceived as non-confrontational pleasant people, a sense of social urgency contrary to sabai-ness must be encouraged in educational environments for the promotion of social innovation. Students and teachers must be presented with feasible objectives and clear incentives in the beginning of every week, month or semester of school. School contests that reward groups with the most efficient, progressive or creative ideas and solutions to school or community issues are easily developed and sustained. Unquestionably, local and national policy makers must implement educational frameworks that explore social innovation and encourage practical opportunities for students to apply subject knowledge.

Por & Mae

Because Thai parents heavily regulate the educational paths of their children, confining ingenuity, individual expression and exposure to cross-disciplinary knowledge, students’ ability to innovate within contextualized societal scenarios is compromised. A paradigm shift in the perceptions of the role of “Por & Mae” and the community needs to occur in order to foster social innovation at the grass roots level and gain public support. Government, NGOs and communities should look to the Ashoka Thailand model which promotes and supports the concept of youth responsibility in the development of the country. NextGEN

Empowerment Training in Thailand believes that modern education does not teach students how to live in their village, thus, seeks to equip rural youth with the practical skills it takes to develop themselves, their families and communities. International Network of Engaged Buddhists (INEB), establishing youth internships with courses such as the Socially Engaged Buddhist (SEB) Training Course focusing on social issues (women rights, environment, community progress and sustainable/alternative development) are necessary for youth empowerment (INEB, 2015). While there are numerous domestic and global examples of youth empowerment initiatives and cases that demonstrate youth's responsibilities toward a country's progress, the Thai government and private sectors must prioritize the publicizing of this objective with urgency comparable to economic concerns. Conducting open discussions concerning the responsibilities of youth in society and their roles in social innovation at parent-teacher conferences and school events is a great way to include parents in this process. Also, social innovation clinics and weekend camps for teachers, administration, students and parents can establish a unified objective and sense of belonging.

Esteemed Ajarn

The undeniable presence of high power-distance in Thai secondary education perpetuates traditional methods of Thai instruction which is inconsistent with “Khru Pan Mai” (New Breed of Teachers). Netiwit Chotiphathaisal, the co-founder and secretary general of Thai Students Educational Revolution Alliance (TERA), states “the educational system is problematic because it doesn't allow students to challenge teachers. When I pose questions, I end up being branded as a problematic youth” (The Nation, 2013). A re-conceptualization of power-distance to recognize leadership as the basis of esteemed ajarn must take place. Though “Karn-rien karn-sorn thi yued phurien pen soon-klang” (learner centred teaching and learning) has become a popular term used throughout Thai education (Phungphol, 2005), pre-service and in-service training programs need to consider the implications of teacher-student power distance and its effects on necessary reform. Training programs must be open to addressing outdated pedagogical practices that are deep-rooted in sociocultural traits, implementing innovative exercises and assessments contrary to the norm. In addition, the implementation of exchange programs to gain insight about what other teachers have done to integrate social innovation may give teachers more initiative in the classroom. Training transformative agents, such as teacher-leaders or teachers of excellence, to mentor other teachers and eliminate outdated pedagogies in their school would provide support. Peer training programs whereby government teachers who are on vacation break would be paired to co-teach with teachers at international schools for a week or two, and vice versa could expose practitioners to fresh ideas (Johnson & Trivitayakhun, 2010). Future research could examine classroom practices of secondary school teachers of excellence to see what they are doing in the classroom to integrate social innovation into the curriculum and work within the constraints/advantages of Thai socio cultural traits. Significantly, participants raised concerns regarding teacher salaries. Thai teacher salaries are very low, which creates unmotivated teachers. This produces teachers that rely solely upon text and workbooks, implementing little outside information and failing to adapt material to a Thai context. Certainly, salaries are clear incentives for teachers, therefore, this issue must be considered at the national policy level. Teachers need to see some evidence of a career path with aligned incentives. In this way there would be motivation to keep abreast of the changes and developments in their profession if professional development became linked to rewards and part of the licensing process.

Qualitative Experience

Civic engagement is an important factor of social innovation. Thai students must be given the opportunity to actively participate in their community. Therefore, policy makers should introduce more volunteerism in secondary education (a form of qualitative experience); voluntary work and households are one of the four sectors in which social innovation happens (Oeij, Dhondt & Korver, 2011). For example, since 1999, secondary students in Ontario, Canada must complete the requirement of 40 hours of community service before graduating; this policy has proved to produce civically engaged youth/young adults with the capacity to brainstorm social solutions (Pancer, Brown, Henderson & Ellis-Hale, 2007). A Community Service Bursary (see Prince Edward Island Department of Innovation and Advanced Learning) gives high school students five dollars per hour for up to 100 hours of volunteer work which can then be used for university or college tuition. Creativity, activity and service (CAS) is an essential element that every student must complete as part of the International Baccalaureate Diploma Program. Secondary education volunteerism improves students' civic engagement and enhances personal development. An annual or bi-annual study that monitors the impact of secondary community service programs can reinforce public support and perhaps persuade the private sector to get more involved.

Sharing is Caring

While collectivism is well aligned with social innovation as it requires group participation to solve shared problems, from an educational standpoint collectivism in the form of rampant plagiarism and unchallenged information hinders creativity and progressive thought; producing students that are incapable of innovating. In Thai secondary schools most tests are comprised of multiple choices. Consequently, instruction, curriculum and exercises are typically designed for and influenced by multiple choice assessments, allowing limited opportunity to express related thoughts, ideas or creative in-depth responses, and more specifically allowing students to plagiarize easily. A reconsideration of collectivism in an educational context must be explored and adapted into curriculum design, assessments, class activities and protocol. For example, Rothstein-Fisch and Trumbull (2008) believes that classroom orchestration (creating classroom exchanges and activities that encompass principles of home and school- students resolve problems by utilizing cultural resources) and classroom organization (creating classroom exchanges and activities that encourage communication on socially relevant issues, relationships and topics of physical environment) are ways in which teachers can promote positive collectivism in classroom settings. Further, collectivism as a Thai sociocultural trait can be used as an intangible asset to promoting social innovation in Thai education profiling and sharing innovative pedagogical practices that build greater inter and intra organizational capacity for social innovation. Broadening the scope of the role of Thai collectivism in regards to social innovation and considering the socioeconomic developments of the AEC, Thailand should prioritize programs and events that focus on information sharing across cultures and social groups to catalyze collective leadership and address social problems (technological, educational, institutional, infrastructural); building upon the model of Innovation Thailand, who facilitates innovative programs between the Intellectual Property Department of Commerce Ministry and companies like Google (The Nation, 2012). In this respect, "sharing is caring" can play a positive role in the process of regional development (ASEAN).

Future Research & Conclusion

Future research should utilize the primary data from this study to (1) create questions for a quantitative study of a larger sample utilizing scaled surveys, this could add substantial statistical support to the qualitative results already found and (2) construct social innovation experimentation in Thai secondary education. Though it is important to expound on rote

learning, textbook emphasis and lack of open discussion as characteristics of Thai teaching and learning processes, one should consider placing more emphasis on defined sociocultural factors that influence Thai pedagogy and effect social innovation. In addition, a further look into the ways in which educational policies impede social innovation is imperative, including interviews or perceptions from representatives of the Thai Ministry of Education. Lastly, defining social innovation and its processes in the language and cultural context of Thailand is a must for enhanced universal understanding and study results.

A dramatic educational reform is something that Thailand may not be immediately ready for; however, the Thai secondary system should begin rethinking its general pedagogy, sociocultural tendencies in education and educational policies if it is interested in producing social problem solvers. A society that fails to produce innovative thinkers is forced to rely mostly or solely upon the modern services and products of other countries. A socially innovative-less country is doomed to habitual societal problems.

DeQawn Mobley

DeQawn Mobley has taught in Thai secondary education for three years, contributing to curriculum design and innovative instruction for secondary students (power-point based lecture with images, videos, music, games and various effects). His professional background includes community service, youth empowerment, volunteerism, education and sports clinics in U.S.A and Thailand. DeQawn currently teaches in the undergraduate Arts and Science, and Business Administration programs at Webster University Thailand.

Dr. Judith McIntyre

Dr. Judith McIntyre has over ten years of experience working in the higher education sector in the Asia-Pacific region. Her professional background includes experience in the education field in an administrative and policy development capacity as well as creating and delivering learning content for high school, college, undergraduate and postgraduate level education in Australia, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam and the Fiji Islands. Judith currently teaches in the MBA program at Webster University Thailand.

References:

- Ackroyd, S., & Hughes, J. A. (1981). *Data collection in context*. London: Longman.
- All about Education (2010, January 13). *Textbooks: Advantages and Disadvantages*. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://allabouteducation4you.blogspot.jp/2010/01/textbooks-advantages-and-disadvantages.html>
- Aramnet, C. (2014). Mathayom 6 Students Fare Poorly in O-Net. *The Nation*. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.nationmultimedia.com/national/Mathayom-6-students-fare-poorly-in-O-Net-30226655.html>
- Arenander, C. (2014). A Discourse Analysis of Leadership in Non-Profit Cross-Cultural Organizations in Chiang Mai, Thailand. *Sociologiska Institutionen*.
- Bacay, S. C. (2004). Class Discussions: Its Benefits. *CDTL Brief*, 7(2). [Online]. Retrieved from <http://www.cdtl.nus.edu.sg/brief/v7n2/sec3.htm>
- Bennett, N. (1984). *The quality of pupil learning experiences*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Bennett, N., & Carre, C. (1993). *Learning to teach*. New York: Routledge.
- Benveniste, L. (2007). Thailand Social Monitor: Improving Secondary Education. *The World Bank Office, Bangkok*.
- Birkwood, S. (2014, 19 June) "Cabinet Office puts £60m behind social ventures struggling for investment". Retrieved at <http://www.thirdsector.co.uk/cabinet-office-puts-60m-behind-social-ventures-struggling-investment/policy-and-politics/article/1299582>
- Breton, T. R. (2013). The Role of Education in Economic Growth: Theory, History and Current Returns. *Educational Research*, 55(2), 121-138.
- Bunt, L. & Harris, M. (2010). *Mass Localism: A Way to Help Small Communities to Solve Big Social Challenges*. London: NESTA.
- Buracom, P. (2011). The Determinants and Distributional Effects of Public Education, Health, and Welfare Spending in Thailand. *Asian Affairs: An American Review*, 38, 113-142.
- Cassell, C., & Symon, G. (1998). *Qualitative methods and analysis in organizational research: A practical guide*. London: Sage Publications.
- Caulier-Grice, J., Kahn, L., Mulgan, G., Pulford, L. & Vasconcelos, D. (2010). Study on Social Innovation. *The social Innovation eXchange (SIX) and the Young Foundation for the Bureau of European Policy Advisors*.
- Cheng, L. (2010). West and East. *San Diego State University*. [Online]. Retrieved at http://www.google.co.th/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=3&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=0CCkQFjAC&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.weraonline.org%2Fresource%2Fresmgr%2Ffocalmeeting_%2Fkl-panel1-chenglily-slides.ppt&ei=s4PdVN-kA82vuQTV44DgBQ&usq=AFQjCNHhFFs3wHdsNNQdEWzmfOQkG_gSVQ&sig2=mfQ7V_1PXLw2TIuaDs6d-A
- Chia Mun Onn (2009). Major Differences Between Eastern and Western Philosophies as the Basis for Adult Education - The Singapore experience. *European Association for Education of Adults*. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.eaea.org/index.php>
- Choppin, J. M. (2007). Teacher-orchestrated classroom arguments. *Mathematics Teacher*, 101(4), 306-310.
- Datta, P.B (2011). Exploring the Evolution of a Social Innovation: A Case Study from India. *International Journal of Technology Management & Sustainable Development*, 10(1), 55-75.
- DeWalt, Kathleen M. & DeWalt, Billie R. (2002). *Participant observation: a guide for fieldworkers*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.
- The Economist (2012). Let Them Eat Tablets. *The Economist Newspaper*. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.economist.com/node/21556940>
- Fernquest, J. (2013). Education reform: Let Go of Central Control. *The Bangkok Post*. [Online]. Retrieved at www.bangkokpost.com/learning/learning-from-news/368384/education-reform-let-go-of-central-control
- Figueiredo, A. D. (2009). Innovating in Education, Educating for Innovation. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.slideshare.net/adfigueiredo/innovating-in-education-educating-for-innovation>

- Fredericks, A. D. (2005). *The Complete Idiot's Guide to Success as a Teacher*. New York, NY: Penguin Group.
- Gall, M. D., & Gillett, M. (2001). The Discussion Method in Classroom Teaching. *Theory into Practice*, 19(2), 98-103.
- Gibbs, G. (2007). *Analyzing qualitative data*. Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Gioia, D. A., Corley, K. G., & Hamilton, A. L. (2012). Seeking Qualitative Rigor in Inductive Research: Notes on the Gioia Methodology. *Organizational Research Methods*, 16(15).
- The GLOBE Study. (2014). Leader effectiveness and culture: The GOLBE Study. *Center for Creative Leadership*.
- Hallinger, P. (2003). Leading Educational Change: Reflections On The Practice Of Instructional And Transformational Leadership. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33(3), 329-352.
- Hallinger, P., & Kantamara, P. (2001). Exploring the cultural context of school improvement in Thailand. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*, 12(4), 385-408.
- Hallinger, P., & Lee, M. (2011). A Decade of Education Reform in Thailand: Broken Promise or Impossible Dream? *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 41(2), 139-158.
- Harvey, Rowland Hill (1949) Robert Owen: Social Idealist, University of California Press, p.211
- Hassan, A., & Jamaludin, N. S. (2010). Approaches & Values in Two Gigantic Educational Philosophies: East and West. *Philosophy of Education*.
- Healey, M., & Ilbery, B. (1993). Teaching a course around a textbook. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 17(2), 123-129.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). Motivation, Leadership and Organization: Do American Theories Apply Abroad? *Organizational Dynamics*, 9(1), 42-63.
- Hofstede, G. (1983). National cultures in four dimensions: A research-based theory of cultural differences among nations. *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 13(1/2), 46-74.
- Hofstede, G. (n.d., para. 11). National Cultural Dimensions. Retrieved on February 15, 2015 from <http://geert-hofstede.com/national-culture.html>
- The Hofstede Centre. (n.d. para. 1). National Cultural Dimensions. Retrieved on February 15, 2015 from <http://geert-hofstede.com/national-culture.html>
- Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions - South Korea VS Thailand. (2010). [Online]. Retrieved at <https://sites.google.com/site/southkoreavsthailand/thailand/values/hofstede-s-cultural-dimensions>
- INEB. (2015). The Socially Engaged Buddhist (SEB) Training Course Report. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.inebnetwork.org/engagement/5-young-bodhisatava/182-the-socially-engaged-buddhist-seb-training-course-report>
- Innovation Thailand (2014). Innovation Thailand. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://innovationthailand.org/>
- James, B., & Channgam, P. (2013). Education Minister Promises "Revolution" in Thai Education. *Pattaya News*. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.pattayamail.com/localnews/education-minister-promises-revolution-in-thai-education-30327>
- Johnson & Trivitayakhun (2010). "Somwung opens up on enhancing teacher quality" Bangkok Post. Retrieved at <http://www.bangkokpost.com/learning/education-features/31282/somwung-opens-up-on-enhancing-teacher-quality>
- Klien, J. L., Fontan, J. M., Harrisson, D., & Levesque, B. (2012). The Quebec System of Social Innovation. A Focused Analysis on the Local Development. *Centre de Recherche sur les Innovations Sociales (CRISIS)*, 47(94), 9-28.
- Kvale, S. (1983). The qualitative research interview: A phenomenological and a hermeneutical mode of understanding. *Journal of Phenomenological Psychology*, 14, 171-196.
- LeBaron, M. (2003, June 1). Communication Tools for Understanding Cultural Differences. The *Beyond Intractability Project, The Conflict Information Consortium, University of Colorado*. [Online]. Retrieved February 22, 2014, from <http://www.beyondintractability.org/essay/communication-tools>
- Lee, C. S., McNeill, N. J., Douglass, E. P., Koro-Ljungberg, M. E., & Therriault, D. J. (2013). Indispensable resource? A Phenomenological Study of Textbook Use in Engineering Problem.

- Liamputtong, P. (2010). *Performing qualitative cross-cultural research*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Linnane, S. (2013, May 8). Reasons for Interview Transcription - Transcription City Typing Services. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.transcriptioncity.co.uk/reasons-for-interview-transcription/>
- Locke, R. (2006). *Qualitative Research Design*. [Online]. Retrieved at: http://www.sagepub.com/upm-data/13172_Chapter4.pdf
- McAllister, B. (2014). The Heart of STEM Education. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*. [Online]. Retrieved at http://www.ssireview.org/blog/entry/the_heart_of_stem_education
- McGonigal, K. (2005). Using Class Discussion to Meet Your Teaching Goals. *Newsletter on Teaching*, 15(1), 1-6. [Online]. Retrieved from http://www.stanford.edu/dept/CTL/Newsletter/discussion_leading.pdf
- The Ministry of Education (2012). Vision. [Online]Retrieved at http://www.en.moe.go.th/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=19&Itemid=54
- Mulgan, G., Tucker, S., Ali, R., & Sanders, B. (2007). Social innovation: what it is, why it matters and how it can be accelerated.
- The Nation. (2012, January 1). Innovation Thailand' winners announced. [Online]. Retrieved from <http://www.nationmultimedia.com/technology/Innovation-Thailand-winners-announced-30196267.html>
- The Nation (2013). Teenager's Take on How to Reform Thai Education . *The Nation*. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.nationmultimedia.com/national/Teenagers-take-on-how-to-reform-Thai-education-30213860.html>
- The National Institute of Educational Testing Service. (2009). The National Institute of Educational Testing Service (Public Organization) Thailand.
- Niehoff, B. P., Turnley, W. H., Yen, H. J. R., & Sheu, C. (2001). Exploring cultural differences in classroom expectations of students from the United States and Taiwan. *Journal of education for business*, 76(5), 289-293.
- Nordstokka, K. (2013). Entrepreneurs in the Classroom. *Social Innovation Exchange*. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.socialinnovationexchange.org/ideas-and-inspiration/education-and-youth/articles/entrepreneurs-classroom>
- Oeij, P. R.A, Dhondt, S., & Korver, T. (2011). Workplace Innovation, Social Innovation, and Social Quality. *International Journal of Science Quality*, 1(2), 31-49.
- Ohio University (2000). What is the Difference Between Repetition and Review? [Online]. Retrieved at http://www.ohio.edu/people/moored3/1_16_00.htm
- Ornstein, A. (1994). The Textbook- Driven Curriculum. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 1, 71-85.
- Pancer, M., Brown, S., Henderson, A., & Ellis-Hale, K. (2007). The Impact of High School Mandatory Community. *Laurier Institute for the Study of Public Opinion and Policy (LISPOP) Wilfrid Laurier University*. Imagine Canada.
- Pimpa, N. (2012). Amazing Thailand: Organizational Culture in the Thai Public Sector. *International Business Research*, 5(11).
- Phills, J. A., Deiglmeier, K., & Miller, D. T. (2008). Rediscovering Social Innovation. *Stanford Social Innovation Review*. [Online]. Retrieved at http://www.ssireview.org/articles/entry/rediscovering_social_innovation/
- Phungphol, Y. (2005). Learner-Centered Teaching Approach: A Paradigm Shift in Thai Education. *ABAC Journal*, 25(2), 5-16.
- Prpic, J. K., & Kanjanapanyakom, R. (2013). The Impact of Cultural Values and Norms on Higher Education in Thailand. *NON-REFEREED PAPER*.
- Punch, K. F. (1998). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. London: Sage Publications.
- Purdue. (2014). What Are the Pro and Cons of Rote Learning? [Online]. Retrieved at <http://web.ics.purdue.edu/~rallrich/learn/mean.html>
- Richards, L. (2005). *Handling qualitative data: A practical guide*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Richards, L. (2009). *Handling qualitative data: A practical guide*. 2nd ed. London: SAGE Publications.

- Rhein, D. (2013). The Workplace Challenge: Cross-Cultural Leadership in Thailand. *ISEA*, 41(1), 41-55.
- Rothstein-Fisch, C., & Trumbull, E. (2008, January 1). Managing Diverse Classrooms. [Online]. Retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/107014/chapters/A-New-Way-of-Thinking-About-Classroom-Management.aspx>
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2003). Research methods for business students. Harlow, England: Prentice Hall.
- School of Global Studies (2013) [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.sgs.tu.ac.th/undergraduate-program>
- Stanford Graduate School of Business. (2009). Social Innovation. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://csi.gsb.stanford.edu/social-innovation>
- Swallow, E. (2012). Creating Innovators: Why America's Education System Is Obsolete. *Forbes*. Retrieved at <http://www.forbes.com/sites/ericaswallow/2012/04/25/creating-innovators/>
- Tan, P. L. (2011). Towards a Culturally Sensitive and Deeper Understanding of “Rote Learning” and Memorisation of Adult Learners. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 15(2), 124-145. doi:10.1177/1028315309357940
- Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (1998). Mixed Methodology: Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches. London: Sage Publications.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (Eds.). (2010). Sage handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research. Sage.
- Thailand Family Law Center (2012). Thailand Family Law, Thai Culture, Intercultural Marriages Thailand. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.thailawforum.com/blog/the-family-law-center-website-is-now-live>
- Thailand perspective. Social Enterprise Policy Dialogue 16 July 2013, Berlin. Retrieved at [http://www.asef.org/images/docs/Session%201.3_Nuttaphong%20Jaruwannaphong%20\(Thailand\).pdf](http://www.asef.org/images/docs/Session%201.3_Nuttaphong%20Jaruwannaphong%20(Thailand).pdf)
- Thai Social Enterprise Office (2013). Social Enterprise and Public Services: Thailand perspective. *Social Enterprise Policy Dialogue*. [Online]. Retrieved at [http://www.asef.org/images/docs/Session%201.3_Nuttaphong%20Jaruwannaphong%20\(Thailand\).pdf](http://www.asef.org/images/docs/Session%201.3_Nuttaphong%20Jaruwannaphong%20(Thailand).pdf)
- Ukosakul, M. (2003). Conceptual metaphors motivating the use of Thai ‘face’. *CognitiveLinguistics and Non-Indo-EuropeanLanguages*. Berlin/New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 275-304.
- UNESCO Bangkok (2011). UNESCO Office in Bangkok: Innovative ICT Practices in Teaching and Learning: A Regional Seminar. [Online]. Retrieved at <http://www.unescobkk.org/education/ict/ict-in-education-projects/training-of-teachers/facilitating-ict-pedagogy/regionalseminar2011/>
- Van de Ven, A. H., Polley, D. E., & Garud, R. (2008). The Innovation Journey. *Oxford University Press*.
- Wolfe, K. (2003). Teaching Methods- Using Discussions in the Classroom. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 3(4), 79-83.

Future Directions in Interior Design Education

Dr.A. Samad Alkhalidi
University of Sharjah
aalkhalidi@sharjah.ac.ae

Abstract

Design and Art schools today are facing challenges they have never faced before to produce graduates who are relevant in the 21st Century. Today's Designers are entering into a world marked by rapid and global change, exponential advancement in information and computer technologies, complex ethical issues, borderless global competition, changing demographics, sustainability, and a multitude of problems that only emerged in the new millennium. Just as business as usual will not survive in the 21st Century, education as usual will also not get us there. This paper briefly explores challenges in global Interior Design practice in the 21st Century, before laying down the status quo in Design education. From here, based on numerous Design education reports that have emerged from various parts of the world, the requirements as well as issues to overcome in educating Designers of the future will be dwelled. This paper calls all design educators to reflect on what have we done in the past, address the current issues and challenges as well as generally make recommendations that requires proper planning and action plans. It must be realized that, business as usual will not be beneficial if we wish to see our next generation of designers can effectively play an important role in the society at large.

This paper calls all Interior design educators to reflect on what have we done in the past, address the current issues and challenges as well as generally make recommendations that requires proper planning and action plans. It must be realized that, business as usual will not be beneficial if we wish to see our next generation of Interior designers can effectively play an important role in the society at large.

Keywords : Educational Transformation ,Professional standards , Grand challenges

Introduction

Interior design has changed significantly over the past 20 to 30 years and has established itself as a recognized profession (Martin, 1998). This profession has evolved from one predominantly concerned with surface ornamentation to one based on designing for human behavior. As a profession, interior design exhibits common professional characteristics. These characteristics include jurisdictional boundaries of knowledge and skills, an educational pathway, a code of ethics, professional organizations, name change, and legal recognition (Abbott, 1988).

The education of the professional interior designer aims for the highest levels of creativity and skill in designing for our increasingly complex and technological society. Interior designers are actively responsive to issues that concern our societies, and this planet. These professionals have a commitment to conveying energy, ending pollution, preventing global warming, and recycling our resources (Kilmer, 1992).

The author believes that the key to solving these issues lies in educational transformation. This means that, above and beyond the currently recognized curriculum requirements for the first professional degree, we must prepare future designers to practice with the depth of knowledge required to solve complex interdisciplinary problems of human behavior and design (Guerin & Thompson, 2004). Educators must be prepared to teach future practitioners the value of research that adds to the body of knowledge. Thus, the bridge between practice and education can be strengthened, in turn sustaining the profession and providing the foundation for an academic discipline.

A roadmap for educational transformation has been precipitated by an assessment of architecture practice and education. Ernest Boyer and Lee Mitgang conducted this assessment and reported their results and recommendations in *Building Community: A New Future for Architecture and Practice* (1996). The two authors are renowned scholars on teaching excellence, scholarship in higher education, educational reform, and the connections among teaching, scholarship, and engagement. The recommendations in the report provide us a measuring stick against which to examine interior design education (Guerin & Thompson, 2004).

Boyer and Mitgan's recommendations can be summarized in the following way:

- 1- An enriched mission that connects schools and the profession more effectively to the changing social context.
- 2- Diversity with dignity to celebrate the varied strengths of programs originating in different administrative units, and strengths of faculty scholarship that reflects creativity and practice as well as research.
- 3- Standards without standardization that support the discovery, integration, application, and sharing of knowledge.
- 4- A connected curriculum that encourages the integration, application, and discovery of knowledge inside and outside the profession, and that reflects the changing needs of the profession.
- 5- A climate of learning for faculty and students to share common learning goals in an environment that is open, just, communicative, and caring.
- 6- A more unified profession to encourage partnership between schools and profession that enriches schools, supports experience, and sustains learning.
- 7- Service to the nation to establish a climate of engagement, clarify the public benefits of design, promote the creation of new knowledge, and stress the importance of ethical, professional behavior (Boyer & Mitgang, 1996).

I suggest that these recommendations are also appropriate considerations for interior design educators dedicated to meeting the challenge of producing quality graduates prepared to enter the interior design profession of the 21st century.

21st Century Challenges in Engineering Practice

The 21st Century brings about major changes in the global environment. Marked by rapid development in technology, explosion in information generation, borderless economic and business operations, issues in sustainability and security, and many other complex, novel problems that have never been seen before, the way businesses, governments, and various entities have to change their modus operandi (NAE, 2005; Duderstadt, 2008). To remain competitive, industries produce over thousands of new products a year that caused the existing products to be obsolete within a short period of time. This gradually put the product development time down, causing pressure on Designers to deliver novel solutions quickly. Increasing prices of resources, such as raw material and energy, place urgency upon the need for efficient and optimized processes, leaving little room for error. Global competitiveness and the quest for low production cost also result in outsourcing of design services to places that can provide the best value for money, turning it to a global commodity (National Science Board, 2007). At the other end of the spectrum, intensive knowledge and high technology research and development activities, a trademark of knowledge economy, are clustered around nations that can provide highly capable, "renaissance" engineers who are innovators with professional skills, as well as in touch with business and community needs.

A study commissioned by the UK Royal Academy of Engineering described in the 2006 report, *Educating Engineers for the 21st Century: The Industry View*, in the first two years, engineering graduates are involved in all phases of product lifecycle, from research and development (R&D), to design, manufacturing, project management, and even sales. While R&D and design dominate the jobs companies assign to engineering graduates, 15% of the companies surveyed in the study reported assigning graduate engineers roles in sales because they need people who can understand and recommend the correct solution to customers in selling high tech products (Spinks, Silburn and Birchall, 2006)

The need to remain competitive in these demanding times cause many developed nations to invest heavily in efforts to transform engineering education. Engineers, as problem solvers and innovators, are seen as assets to a nation's economy. As stated in the next UK Royal Academy of Engineering report in 2007, *Educating Engineers for the 21st Century*:

"No factor is more critical in underpinning the continuing health and vitality of any national economy than a strong supply of graduate engineers equipped with the understanding, attitudes and abilities necessary to apply their skills in business and other environments."

To be competitive and taking role of leadership today and in the future, interior design graduates must have world class design education that equip them with the latest technical knowledge and tools, and have adequate understanding of the social, economic and political issues that affect their work. More than ever, design decisions affect local communities, be it in construction, manufacture of products (which may be hazardous), automation (cutting down labor), energy source and generation (impact on energy demand versus the environment), waste treatment and many more. Many recent design mistakes that results in catastrophic disasters, showed how costly these mistakes can be to millions of people. Clearly, design graduates of today and the future need to

understand their ethical and professional responsibilities, not just towards industries, but also towards the well-being of the communities, nation, and the whole world, in general. The extent of challenges faced by future designers are aptly summarized by Duderstadt (2008), in his report on Engineering for a Changing World, in the list of Grand Challenges as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: The Grand Challenges

| The Grand Challenges | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|--|
| 1 | Global Sustainability | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Destruction of forests, wetlands, and other natural habitats - Global warming - Ballooning global population |
| 2 | Energy | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Unsustainable fossil fuel - Sustainable energy technologies - Alternative energy technologies - Energy infrastructure |
| 3 | Global Poverty and Health | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Green revolution - 1/6 population - extreme poverty - Globalization |
| 4 | Infrastructure | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Aging infrastructure - Urbanization - Manufacturing to knowledge services - Systems integration |

21st Century Requirements of Design and Engineering Graduates

The rapid changes 21st Century requires that graduate engineers be equipped with the necessary skills, such as information mining, knowledge integration, ideas creation, and especially problem solving. In an increasing global workplace, engineering graduates are expected to function on multinational and multidisciplinary teams, have global perspective, and to be culturally and linguistically literate (Spinks, Silburn, and Birchall, 2006; Duderstadt, 2008). Industries, such as IBM and Siemens, define the need for "T-shaped" engineers - those with deep knowledge and expertise in their discipline, with a broad breadth of cross-disciplinary knowledge and boundary crossing capabilities, such as an understanding of business context and human as well as social aspects of engineering, communication, systems perspective, lifelong learning skills, ability to innovate, able to adapt to changing environment and requirements and many more. This is also echoed by the Korean government, which stress that designers who create new technology and knowledge at the local and international level, are the key to a nation's competitiveness (Song, 2012). In order to achieve this, they need design graduates who (Song 2012):

- Can adapt to open innovation
- Are equipped with knowledge and information in their own field, humanities, social science, art, etc.
- Proactively respond to changing environment
- Are able to interact with at the global level.

Royal Academy of Engineering (RAE) report on Educating Engineers for the 21st Century in 2007 stated that Industries requires graduates with deep understanding of technical knowledge that is underpinned on the fundamentals of the discipline and mathematics along with the necessary thinking (eg critical, analytical and creative thinking) skills and ability to apply the knowledge to real life, as well as professional skills that are essentially enabling skills that allow them to effectively function at the work place, such as communication skills, team working skills, people management skills, etc. The 2006 RAE report defined the "Renaissance Engineer" of the new Millennium (Spinks, Silburn, and Birchall, 2006) as:

- 1- Engineer as specialist - Engineer graduates as technical experts in their discipline
- 2- Engineer as integrator - Engineer graduates who can work and manage across boundaries in both technical and organizational requirements of a complex business environment
- 3- Engineer as change agent - Engineer graduates who can play a critical role as the impetus for innovation in steering the industry towards success and harmony in a sustainable future.

In the later report, the RAE (2007) put forth their finding that the top most quality desired by industries is the ability to apply Design knowledge to solve real industrial problems. They must be able to take a holistic approach to problems involving complex and ambiguous systems, and to employ creative problem solving skills (Katehi, 2005).

Council for Interior Design Accreditation (CIDA) requires Interior design programs with the following outcomes in the 2014 Interior design Program Accreditation Manual (Professional Standards):

1. **Critical Thinking, Professional Values, and Processes** :Interior designers have a global view and weigh design decisions within the parameters of ecological, socio-economic, and cultural contexts.

2. **Human-centered Design**: The work of interior designers is informed by knowledge of human factors and theories of human behavior related to the built environment.

3. **Design Process**: Interior Designers need to apply all aspects of the design process to creative problem solving. Design process enables designers to identify and explore complex problems and generate creative solutions that optimize the human experience within the interior environment.

4. **Collaboration**: Interior Designers engage in multi-disciplinary collaboration.

5. **Communication**: Interior Designers are effective communicators.

6. **Professionalism and Business Practice**: Interior Designers use ethical and accepted standards of practice, are committed to professional development and the industry, and understand the value of their contribution to the built environment through the following points:

- The contributions of interior design to contemporary society.
- Various types of design practices.
- The elements of business practice (business development, financial management, strategic planning, and various forms of collaboration and integration of disciplines).
- The elements of project management, project communication, and project delivery methods.
- Professional ethics.

7. **Core Design and Technical Knowledge**: Interior Designers apply knowledge of interiors, architecture, decorative arts, and art within a historical and cultural context.

8. **Space and Form**: Students effectively apply the elements and principles of design to:

- a) Two-dimensional design solutions.

b) Three-dimensional design solutions.

c) Students are able to analyze and communicate theories or concepts of spatial definition and Organization.

9. Interior Designers apply **color principles and theories**.

10. **Environmental Systems:** Interior Designers use the principles of lighting, acoustics, thermal comfort, and indoor air quality to enhance the health, safety, welfare, and performance of building occupants.

11. **Building Systems and Interior Construction.**

12. **Regulations and Guidelines:** Interior Designers use laws, codes, standards, and guidelines that impact the design of interior spaces.

In contrast ,Interior design accreditation standards are continually assessed and revised through a practice and education partnership handled by the Council for Interior Design Accreditation (CIDA) However, with each revision of CIDA standards the breadth and depth of required content increases substantially without a corrective decrease in extant content. For instant, in the mid-1990,CAD became a requisite skill with no concurrent decrease in standards of manual drafting competency.

As the complexity of the profession grows ,so grows the necessity of including content in areas such as sustainable design ,codes, structures ,and mechanical systems. Without any comparable decrease in existing content requirements, Interior Design educational programs cannot cover all required areas in four years while simultaneously providing entry –level practitioners firm grounding in liberal education(Guerin&Thompson,2004).

Educators utilize many strategies to meet the increased demand in curriculum within the limited span of four years. One common strategy to inject more (content) into studio courses is the creation of projects that address multiple issues: e.g., emphasizing sustainability in a design project; requiring both hand-drafted and CAD drawings at different phases of a project; or creating a project for construction in another country. The difficulty with this approach is that it lessens the emphasis that can be placed on problem –solving, critical thinking, and design communication –all of which are essential components of a bachelor’s degree program.

These components separate degree programs from others and, are the elements that practitioners value most in entry –level designers.

A second strategy used by educators to address the demand for content is (double dipping) within liberal education requirements; e.g., using a composition course that focuses on writing about cultural diversity to meet both the writing and cultural diversity liberal education requirements. In addition, we must eliminate elective opportunities for students in order to address expanded content requirements. In other words, four year bachelor’s programs have used every strategy possible to reflect current practice by adding new content through coursework or studio integration. However, they have done so at the expense of a rich liberal arts foundation that emphasizes synthesis (Guerin&Thompson,2004).

Current and Future Interior Design Education

Given the current and future challenges in Interior Design practice, as well as the requirements on Interior Design graduates, Interior Design education clearly needs to be transformed from the current practice. While technology and Design practice have clearly changed by leaps and bounds, the way Interior Design students are taught has hardly changed. Lectures and recipe-type laboratories are very much the predominant method of delivery in Design education. It is not surprising to hear the numerous complaints from industries and regarding the absence of critical skills among graduates. While it is always easy to complain about the quality of graduates, industries also have a major role to plan in educating Interior Design students through participation in curricula as well as extra curricula activities. Although transformation is clearly needed, it is not always obvious what Interior Design education needs to transform into, and how to do it.

Today, everybody tends to agree upon the necessity of including art, science, and technology in a design curriculum. But disagreement will soon arise, on the one hand, as to their relative importance, and, on the other hand, as to their respective function, i.e., the way they should be articulated (Findeli,2001). A third and highly critical aspect inevitably will provoke even stronger disagreement, a factor without which no curriculum, be it as filled with theoretical courses, workshops, seminars, and studio work as possible, will ever find its coherence: the overall purpose of design education and practice. The questions to be asked are: To which meta-project (anthropological, social, cosmological, etc.) does a design project and a design curriculum contribute? For what end is design means? How autonomous can design be? All these questions are related to the ethical dimension of design, which will be discussed later.

Based on Interior Design education reports, a summary of the challenges and the attributes of effective graduates of the 21st century can be seen in Table 2. To get the required attributes, Interior Design education has to change towards the desired characteristics shown in the last column of Table 2 (Syed Ahmad Helmi, 2011; Duderstadt. 2008; NAE, 2005). With the current state of Design education, which is rooted in the traditional approach of teacher-centered courses taught in silos with mostly written examinations as the only means to assess students, Interior Design educators will have to honestly examine the commitment to move Design curricula (which includes teaching and learning methods used, as well as proper assessment) towards the desired characteristics as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Design and Interior Design Education of the 21st Century

| Challenges of the 21st Century | Attributes of Effective Interior Designers | Desired Characteristics of Interior Design Education |
|--|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Knowledge economy • Globalization • Breadth & depth of knowledge • Demographics • Technological change • Evidence –based design • Technological innovation • Global sustainability • Energy • Global poverty and health • Interior space infrastructure • Awareness of cultural differences | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analytical skills • Practical ingenuity • Creativity • Communication • Leadership • Team working • Professionalism • Dynamic, agility, resilience and flexible • Lifelong learners • Function in global economy • Principles of business and management • Ethics | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learner-centered • Discovery-based or constructivist Learning • Systems perspective • Avoid content orientation • Learn how to learn • Inquiry-based scientific methods • Team-based problem solving • Prepare Designers into the sustainable design • Linkage to the real projects • |

Interior Design Education of the future requires innovative efforts to deliver the required characteristics as shown in Table 2. While program outcomes, in accordance with Outcomes-based Education (OBE) mostly matches the attributes of the future graduates given in the middle column of Table 2, the curricula of the majority of Interior Design programs, unfortunately, are not aligned to support the attainment of these outcomes. Most program owners choose to take the strategic approach of simply documenting the traditional curricula to suit OBE, rather than embrace the philosophy of OBE to transform the curricula. Assessment and evaluation are taken at a purely mechanistic level to somehow quantify measurements of all outcomes using numbers or percentages, without fully understanding what they mean, as well as their validity. These lofty 21st Century outcomes, however, will just remain on-paper if the delivery and assessment remain as they were as in the 20th Century.

In terms of delivery, for example, among the most desired characteristic of Interior Design education in the future is learner centeredness. Learner centered refers to framing the delivery of the knowledge in a learning environment that takes into account the background, preconceptions (which are often misconceptions), connections to prior learning or existing knowledge of students, as well as difficulties that they go through in learning the new knowledge, and how to help them understand and develop mastery (Bransford, 1997). What is of utmost importance is what students actually learn, rather than what is transmitted by the instructor. Students actually go through an aligned learning process to match the outcome, while instructors facilitate to support deep learning (Biggs, 1996; Biggs, 2010). There are a range of techniques in varying degrees of learner centeredness to support the attainment of different levels of outcomes. Higher level outcomes, such as the ability to solve complex problems, require methods that are more intricate to conduct so as to support students in developing the required outcomes. Nevertheless, the current willingness and ability to conduct learner centered methods among Interior Design academics are rather dismal. Learning does not occur in a vacuum - students cannot attain lofty outcomes on their own without being guided in a supportive environment. Transformation in delivery will also not take place without institutional commitment, support and will. Commitment at all levels is necessary if curricula transformation is to take place successfully.

Today Interior Design Programs must take into account that in the future, students will learn in a completely different way (NAE, 2005). Until today most Interior Design Programs have developed curricula by creating scenarios or predicting the problems we expect to face. In doing so, the focus is more on knowledge rather than skills. According to Bransford (2004), curricula based on specific knowledge are built from the bottom up. Interior Designers whose education is built from the bottom up cannot comprehend and address big problems (NAE, 2005). As mentioned by Katehi (2005), “the future engineering curriculum should be built around developing skills and not around teaching available knowledge. The focus must be on shaping analytic skills, problem-solving skills, and design skills. Interior Design educators must teach methods and not solutions”. Jonassen (2006) directed his work “towards design theory of problem solving” to come up with how to prepare our future designers to solve work place problem. Stroble (2008) urged design education researchers to better understand the nature of work place problem solving especially for instructional and educational strategies that heavily utilize problems like PBL. Savery (2006) related constructivism (which is the philosophical view of how people came to understand), to the practice of instruction. He examined problem based learning, which he considered the best exemplars of constructivist learning environment.

The change toward innovative and meaningful curricula is even more important nowadays to attract the current Generation-Y into engineering. With very little exposure to the importance in the role of engineers, and the blame on engineers for major accidents, the Gen-Y do not see engineering as attractive. The high difficulty level of the content, tortuous learning environment with disjointed curricula that is estranged from the actual application in industries, coupled with relatively minimal reward and recognition compared to other fields are driving away the young generation from engineering. It is therefore not surprising to see efforts in developed countries from North America to Europe, parts of Asia (such as Japan, Korea and Singapore) and Australia, to promote engineering from the school level, even introducing engineering concepts and thinking at the primary school level, such as the Inspire Institute under the School of Engineering Education, Purdue University in the US.

Realizing the challenges ahead, there have been concerted efforts among governments and engineering related NGOs as well as institutions to take the lead in providing leadership for innovations in design education. Initiatives to enhance the quality of graduates, such as service learning, cooperative programs, global student exchange and summer school programs, design centric curricula, entrepreneurship, professional ethics, problem or project based curricula, a variety of active learning methods, industrial involvement in various aspects of the curricula, etc are among innovations that are being implemented. Nevertheless, there are also calls for innovations to be properly thought out and studied for real, meaningful impact. As stated by Jamieson and Lohman (2012) in the ASEE report, "Innovation with Impact":

If a "grand challenge" for Interior design education is "How will we teach and how our students will learn all that is needed to tackle the challenges of today and tomorrow?", then the issue is NOT simply a need for more educational innovations.

Indeed, implementing innovations without taking the scholarly, evidence-based approach can be costly and disruptive for students learning. Care must be taken because changes made in engineering in education will bring about impact on students, be it positive or negative. What is desired are innovations that are rooted on strong educational principles that are properly studied, and thus evaluated for effectiveness according to the desired outcomes. The study of innovative practices can lead to further improvements in implementation, which can in turn lead to a virtuous cycle of research.

The move for conducting rigorous research in Interior design education gained momentum in the first decade of the 21st Century. In the United States, the National Science foundation allotted millions to fund design education research, as well as initiatives to train Interior design academics to conduct rigorous educational research. The European Society for Engineering Education (SEFI) received similar funding for conducting and training rigorous educational research among design academics. The Korean government currently funds sixty nine innovative centers for engineering education, with five hubs to gather and lead the centers under the hub, each with different innovation emphasis to properly implement and conduct research on the effectiveness of innovations made (Song, 2012). At the international level, the Research in Engineering Education Network (REEN) is a world-wide network which aims to promote and support rigorous research in design education.

Clearly, attaining the desired quality of graduates depends heavily on academics that design the curricula, teach, and perhaps study innovations made at their own institution. Streveler, Borrego and Smith (2007) classified the levels of academics in design education as follows:

- Level 0 Teacher who teach as he/she was taught
- Level 1 Effective Teacher who applies accepted teaching theories and practices
- Level 2 Scholarly Teacher who evaluates performance of students and makes improvements
- Level 3 Scholar of Teaching and Learning who conducts educational experiments and documents the results in the form of presentations or papers
- Level 4 Design Education Researcher who conducts rigorous design education research and publish papers in peer reviewed journals.

While not all Interior design educators are required to be at Level 4, the OBE approach requires that instructors can at least be classified to be in Level 2. Since those at levels 3 and 4 will obviously be beneficial to the design education community, it is imperative that institutions encourage and

reward this type of work, especially in providing a promotion track for those heavily involved in design education. This is of utmost importance in enabling innovation with impact in Interior design education for developing designers that are suited for the 21st Century.

Conclusion

Although the purpose of this paper is to lay some foundations for a renewal of design education and research, but, the author indicates some directions for further research and constructive work. Lets sum up the principal stages of the above discussion.

An archetypical model of a curriculum for Interior design education has been described in the form of a three-part structure, art/science/ technology, enclosed within a general purpose for design. In order to figure out what the content of these three components would be and how they should be articulated, it is necessary to establish an epistemological/methodological model for the design process or project. If we further accept the fact that the linear, causal, and instrumental model is no longer adequate to describe the complexity of the Interior design process, we are invited to adopt a new model whose theoretical framework is inspired by systems science, complexity theory, and practical philosophy. In the new model, instead of science and technology, I would prefer perception and action, the first term referring to the concept of visual intelligence, and the second indicating that a technological act always is a moral act. As for the reflective relationship between perception and action, I consider it governed not by deductive logics, but by a logic based on aesthetics.

The second aspect at stake is the specific training necessary for perception, action, and their relationship to be carried out adequately and consistently by students. I believe that visual intelligence, ethical sensibility, and aesthetic intuition can be developed and strengthened through some kind of basic Interior design education.

However, instead of having this basic design taught in the first year as a preliminary course, as in the Bauhaus tradition, it would be taught in parallel with studio work through the entire course of study, from the first to last year.

The explosion in technological development since the second half of the 20th Century results in rapid changes and novel challenges throughout the world. To remain relevant in the 21st Century, Interior design education has to rise up to the challenge and transform the curricula as well as the way Interior design students were taught. To attain the attributes of Interior design graduates of the 21st Century, design education has to match the desired strategies that can produce the desired quality of graduates.

While there are numerous innovations that are being implemented to enhance Interior design education, what is of utmost importance is to ensure that these are innovations with impact. This requires proper research into the significance of the innovations, through which others can also learn and follow suit. Just as Interior design innovations requires the path of a scholarly approach, innovations for transforming design education also can be best determined through systematic scholarly and evidence based approach.

This paper calls all Interior design educators to reflect on what have we done in the past, address the current issues and challenges as well as generally make recommendations that requires proper planning and action plans. It must be realized that, business as usual will not be beneficial if we wish to see our next generation of Interior designers can effectively play an important role in the society at large. Change is inevitable, to stay competitive, there is the need to discover new knowledge and technology through rigorous research and innovation in Interior design education. We must be able to prepare graduates that will make new discoveries, bring new products and services, design, and deliver to serve the communities and innovate continually to support the

industries. Hence, the fundamental sciences, engineering principles and analytical capabilities of the students should be enhanced through several active learning approaches and use of current tools and technology. Humanities, arts and social sciences are essential for graduates to be creative, explorative and be open-minded. We must also make Interior design education exciting, innovative, entrepreneurial, creative, adventurous, challenging, and demanding and empower situational environment more than just specifying curricular details. The key success factors to all this is we need to understand and engage ourselves in issues pertaining Interior design education, be committed, work in teams and enjoy all the challenges ahead.

References

1. Abbott,A.(1988).The system of professions: An essay on the division of expert labor, Chicago: University of Chicago press.
2. Biggs, C. (1996). Enhancing Teaching Through Constructive Alignment, *Higher Education*, 32, 347-364, 1996.
3. Biggs, J., and Tang, C. (2010). Applying Constructive Alignment to Outcomes-based Teaching and Learning, Training Material for “Quality Teaching for Learning in Higher Education” Workshop for Master Trainers, Ministry of Higher Education, Kuala Lumpur, 23-25 Feb, 2010.
4. Bransford, J., Vye, N. and Bateman, H. (1997). Creating High-Quality Learning Environments: Guidelines from Research on How People Learn, National Academy of Sciences, 2004, pp 159-197.
5. Duderstadt J.J., (2008), Engineering for a Changing World: A Roadmap to the Future of Engineering Practice, Research and Education, The Millennium Project, The University of Michigan.
6. Findeli, Alain, (2001),Rethinking Design Education for the 21st Century, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Volume 17, Number 1 Winter 2001.
- 7.Guerin,Denise&Thompson,Jo Ann,(2004).Interior Design education in the 21st Century ,*Journal of Interior Design* ,V30,Number 1,2004.
8. Jameison, L. H. &Lohmann, J. R. (2012). Innovation with Impact: Creating a culture for scholarly and systematic innovation in engineering education. Washington: ASEE.
9. Jonassen, D., et al., (2006), Everyday Problem Solving in Engineering: Lessons for Engineering Educators, *Journal of Engineering Education*, April 2006, Vol 95, No 2.
10. Katehi, L. 2005, The Global Engineer. Address to the National Academy of Engineering, July 22-23.
- 11.Martin,C.(1998).Professionalization :Architecture ,interior decoration, and interior design as defined by Abbott.Master’s thesis ,Department of design, University of Minnesota.
12. National Academy of Engineering (2005). The Engineer of 2020: Visions of engineering in the new century. Washington: The Academic Press.
13. The Royal Academy of Engineering (2007). Educating Engineers for the 21st Century. London: The Royal Academy of Engineering

14. Savery, John R. (2006). Overview of problem-based learning: Definitions and distinctions. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-based Learning*, 1(1), 9-20.
15. Song, Sungjung (2012). Presentation on SKKU Hub Innovative Centre for Engineering Education, January, UniversitiTeknologi Malaysia, Johor Bahru.
16. Spinks, N, Silburn N, and Birchall D, (2006), *Educating Engineers for the 21st Century*, Henley Management College, The Royal Academy of Engineering, UK
17. Streveler, R., Borrego, M. and Smith, K. A., (2007), Moving from the "Scholarship of Teaching and Learning" to "Educational Research": An Example from Engineering, *Improve the Academy*, Vol. 25, 139-149.
18. Stroble, J (2007) Compound Problem Solving: Workplace Lessons for Engineering Education, Proceedings of the 2007 Midwest Section ASEE Conference
19. Syed Ahmad Helmi, S H (2011), *Enhancement of Problem Solving Skills through Cooperative Problem Based Learning*, PhD Thesis, UniversitiTeknologi Malaysia.

Gender and Modern Foreign Language learning

Danagul Yembergenova
PhD student of the University of Geneva
Nurzhanova Assiya
Associate Professor of Philological Sciences
Saken Seyfullin Kazakh Agro Technical University

Abstract

The present article discusses the result of the case study conducted in the United Kingdom's English medium secondary schools. The research paper identifies some of the main factors which affect boys' non take-up of MFL, underachievement, motivation and their attitudes towards MFL. The research also reports girls' and boys' opinions about foreign languages and their views on the good language learning strategies through their feedback. The article also looks at this issue with comparative perspective where it compares boys' attainment in MFL in different parts of the world through literature review. The results of the article reveal that girls' achievement in foreign language learning mostly depend on their natural ability and different structure of their brain. While boys' performance can be improved through motivation, good language learning and teaching strategies, despite the fact, that boys are defined as different in their ability as regards foreign languages. Finally, research paper illustrates the suggestions and recommendations for secondary schools in the UK and elsewhere to boost boys' enjoyment and motivation in MFL by recognizing boys' beliefs about MFL and by reflecting on boys' perceptions of effects of foreign languages on their future lives.

Key Words: Modern Foreign Language (MFL), motivation, language learning strategy, underachievement, perception.

Introduction

In the United Kingdom gender has been a key concern in educational debates for more than three decades. The last ten to 15 years have seen an increase in attention to the relationship between boys and schooling. Particularly, underachievement is expected of boys in the areas of languages. From the moment MFL became optional subject, classrooms are inhabited mostly by girls: boys for the most part disappear. In other words, poor relationship between boys and MFL is an issue of almost all secondary schools in the UK nowadays.

From a historical perspective, Court (2011, p.5) states in her article about masculinities and foreign language learning that in the 19th century in particular, underachievement was expected of gentlemen, at least of those who possessed 'character'. Boys have always underachieved, for even in the 1970s and 1980s, more girls than boys were gaining five O-levels. Moreover, some scholars argue that the introduction of the National Curriculum in 1988 is partly responsible for boys' deselection of and underachievement in MFL, as National Curriculum gave subject choices for pupils which widened the gender differences in Education.

The gap in educational achievement between boys and girls in general is the phenomenon which has been broadly consistent in the UK, especially in Wales. According Estyn report (2008, p.2) in recent years in Wales, the gap between what girls and boys attain has been widening. The report called Modern foreign Languages in Welsh-Medium schools (2004, p.15) says that nationally, in all schools, far more girls than boys enter foreign languages at GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education). According to this report since 1995 almost 60% of entries have been made by girls. For example, GSCE entries in 2002, according to National Statistics, for French, German and Spanish, of 39% boys and 61% girls. This shows that the difference is enormous, because twice as many girls enter foreign languages at GCSE as boys.

Rua (2006, pp.99-114) gives an outline of the evidence on boys' and girls' achievement in foreign languages as she says girls are usually superior to boys in terms of overall achievement in languages, the number of girls taking public examinations in languages is considerably higher than the number of boys, boys appear to be more self-deprecating of their linguistic abilities than girls, and boys as do not consider languages to be useful in their future careers. Carr and Pouwels (2005, pp43-53) also note that the performances may vary, but all boys like to share the defining characteristic of being 'other' in relation to girls. Therefore, they are willing to deselect themselves from foreign language classes, which are considered to be girls' activity.

This issue of gender and foreign languages is relevant not only to UK's schools but also central issue of language teachers in different parts of the world. For instance, Palacios Martínez (1994) investigated Spanish secondary school students and their attitudes towards English as a foreign language. The study highlighted the influence of sex on the students' answers to a series of questions related to the importance ascribed to the language, their preferences concerning tasks and materials, self-evaluation, and motivations for the study of the language. Ayman Sabry Daif-Allah (2012) determined the role of the gender variable on Saudi students about learning English as a foreign language. He illustrated the effect of gender differences on learners' beliefs about the difficulty of language learning, where he illustrated that girls seem to possess more self confidence in their learning abilities than boys to believe that they will eventually learn to speak the English language very well. On the other hand, boys in Saudi schools are likely to have more realistic views than girls to believe that language learning was time consuming and needed a longer period of time to learn.

All above mentioned indications seem to suggest that boys' and girls' attainments in modern foreign languages depend on a number of factors. Therefore, the aim of this research reported in this article was to find out the reasons why boys are opting out of

foreign language classes and to reveal some of the factors which impact on boys' performance in foreign languages.

With these overall objectives in mind, the specific research questions were as follows:

1. What are the reasons for boys' non take-up of MFL?
2. What are the boys' and girls' perception of advantages and disadvantages of MFL?
3. What are the good practices which are being done to boost boys' motivation and enjoyment in MFL?

Methodology

In choosing my methodology the most important aspects I looked at were whether that methodology provides analysis which is holistic rather than based on isolated facts, if this methodology allows the use of a variety of research methods. Another aspect in choosing methodology was its ability to foster the use of multiple sources of data. And finally and the most importantly I had to choose methodology which is ethical and suitable for small-scale research. With these all in mind I decided to carry out my research using the case study approach.

According to Denscombe (2010:52), case studies focus on one (or just a few) instances of a particular phenomenon with a view to providing an in-depth account of events, relationships, experiences or processes occurring in that particular instance. Based on that quotation, I believe that case study which is presently at hand provided more detailed information about masculinity and languages, reasons for boys' opting out of MFL, and it also provided in-depth information about current language teaching strategies and styles which are being done to boost motivation of boys.

The main tools for gathering data in this case study research were open ended interview and semi-structured questionnaires. With the help of interview I collected detailed, in-depth data about why boys are likely to deselect and underperform in MFL, in particular, what teachers have to say about boys' and girls' attitudes towards MFL. Furthermore, interview allowed for ideas to be followed up and feelings to be investigated.

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011, p. 409) define interview as a flexible tool for data collection. They also explain that interviewer can press not only for complete answers but for responses about complex and deep issues. In short, I believed conducting interview was the most suitable way of gathering information from my foreign language teacher participant, I also believed the interview to be a powerful implement for me as an individual researcher.

Regarding the questionnaire, Denscombe (2010, p.165) claims that information gathered through open ended questionnaire is more likely to reflect the full richness and complexity of the views held by respondents, and information collected through closed questionnaires can easily be analyzed. Therefore, I combined open ended and closed questions and designed semi-structured questionnaire, so that I could present both quantitative data (how many boys and girls agree or disagree with a certain aspect of foreign language learning) and qualitative data (what are the boys' and girls' perceptions of foreign language learning). Secondary school boys and girls were first asked questions in relation to their age, gender and the foreign language they are currently learning. Further, they were asked Likert scale questions to find out the importance of particular aspect for them, where they had to scale from 1=not important at all to 5=very important. In addition, 1=Yes to 2=No and 3=Not sure questions were asked as well. In the final part of the questionnaire, I asked open-ended questions to investigate pupils' feelings and attitudes towards foreign languages.

These different sets of data-collection instruments helped me to triangulate findings and to produce complete and valid study. According to Basit (2010, p.67) triangulation is a

strategy is used to establish concurrent validity in research by looking at the same issue from different perspectives. Triangulation helped me to show greater confidence in my findings and claim that my data collected are valid. Moreover, with the help of triangulation I could check the reliability of the data by asking the same question from foreign language teacher and secondary school pupils and checking for the truthfulness of the answers given. Bell (2005, p.117) defines reliability as the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under contrast conditions on all occasions. Bell also says that the check for reliability comes at the stage of question wording.

The participants consisted of sixty pupils of secondary English medium school and foreign language teachers of French and Spanish languages. Even if study is centered on the boys' attitudes towards foreign languages, I also included girls in the study, so that I could make valid comparison between two gender groups. I also chose to hand out questionnaires to year 7 pupils among all secondary school pupils, because they just transferred from primary school to secondary school and may have new feelings about secondary education.

British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2011) has been of assistance for the ethical principles of this case study research. Procedure and process of the study were explained to all the participants (foreign language teacher and pupils) and they had the chance to understand and agree to the participation. They were also informed of outcomes of this research and how can they benefit from it (BERA, points 10 and 11). Questionnaires to all secondary school pupils were distributed by hand. They were also made aware prior to their right to withdraw from participating in the study without any explanation or reason (BERA, point 15). I recognized the participants' entitlement to privacy and accorded them their rights to confidentiality and anonymity (BERA, point 22).

Results and analysis

1. What are the reasons for boys' non take-up of MFL?

In order to identify the reasons for boys' opting out of foreign languages and to find out reasons for their underperformance in foreign languages, MFL teachers of UK's secondary schools were interviewed and semi-structured questionnaires were given out to boys and girls. With regard to teacher interview, qualitative data were collected from the responses teacher gave about the boys' non take-up of foreign languages. The duration of the interviews was 20-25 minutes and was audio recorded with the permission of the interviewees.

In order to probe deeper, I specifically asked about the reasons for boys' non take up of foreign languages in general, as in why teachers think boys are likely to opt of foreign language classes and what the boys' attitudes are to work and participation in their classroom.

French Teacher: It could be because they think languages are useless. Boys are more practical. They prefer things which are more fruitful. They don't do things for pleasure.

Spanish Teacher: Boys associate foreign languages with female aspect and they think it is cool to do IT or DT instead of languages.

It is clear from the data that foreign language teachers tended to think that boys view foreign languages in narrow terms such as travelling, holidays and visiting France or Germany, and does not link foreign languages with career aspirations. Teachers also mentioned that the nature of foreign languages is more attractive to girls than to boys, because foreign languages tend to be managed as relationship-centered and communicative. For boys foreign languages do not seem to have the same sort of status as IT or DT.

French Teacher: Boys think foreign languages are for personal fulfillment and pleasure, therefore view it as a waste of time...they don't understand that foreign languages are part of education and very important for the future employment.

It is obvious from the information given by foreign language teacher that boys in the first place should be made aware of the significance of foreign languages and languages are not only associated with 'feminine' jobs.

The document called Modern Foreign Languages in the National Curriculum for Wales (2008, p.9) states that

In modern foreign languages, learners should be given opportunities to develop their awareness of the importance of languages in the world of work, the global economy and for the future careers. Learners can use languages in work-related contexts and schools can make pupils aware of the role of languages in a range of jobs through visits, local business links and other work-related resources.

In addition to that, above information given by foreign language teacher is supported by the quantitative data collected through pupil questionnaires. The data show that the majority of boys perceived foreign languages to be beneficial for travelling, with 19 out of 30 boys, but not for career progression. While most of the girls picked career progression as an answer to the question given (20 out of 30 girls).

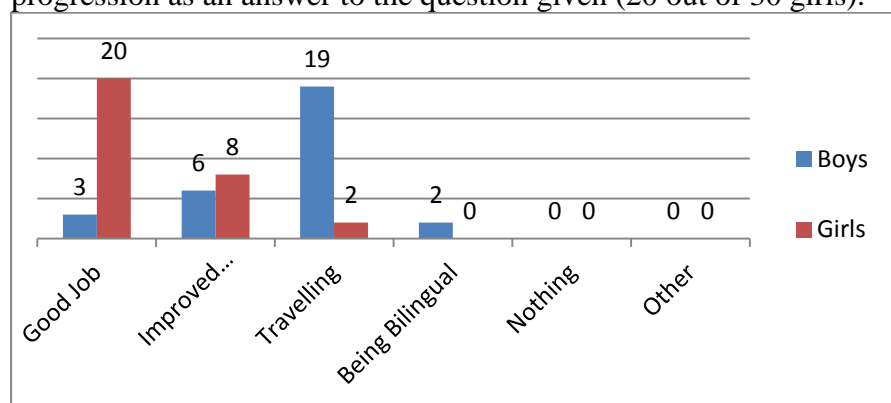


Fig. 1: What are the benefits of foreign language learning? Boys n=30 Gils n=30

The most interesting aspect I noticed in my research is that pupils and foreign language teacher relate boys' and girls' foreign language take up with career and future lives rather than structure of the brain or gender ability. Because when I previously went through several literatures, many researchers (Carr & Pauwels, 2005 and Litosseliti, 2006 ect.) say that the reason for girls' excellence in languages and boys' better performance at mathematics and science can be explained by different structure of their brain and innate differences are at best significant. However, it seems like as if pupils in my study take relevance to future lives and employment very seriously in their subject selection rather than their ability. I think, this is the view which is open to question, because Graham (1997, p.99) assures that gender-related differences in language learning ability are caused by social and environmental factors rather than being inborn.

2. What are the boys' and girls' perception of modern foreign languages?

Although it was clear that boys' non take-up of and underperformance in foreign languages in secondary schools of the UK mostly depend on the practicality of foreign languages, it was also very crucial to find out how they perceive foreign languages, so that further recommendations could be given. Therefore, I asked foreign language teachers how boys and girls perceive foreign language separately.

French Teacher 1: Think boys don't feel comfortable learning languages. They feel distant.

French Teacher 2: We use life centered topics in teaching languages, for example brother, home and family and girls are more comfortable with these questions and boys do not like talking about themselves and their lives in lessons.

French Teacher 2: I think if the language classes are based on everyday French (going to supermarket), straight forward topics rather than family, food, they will be more interested.

Green and Haworth (2003, p.9) say that pupils are by and large interested in outside world, such as sport, music, fashion, TV, travel and day to day issues.

According to this information, it is evident that boys have emotional concerns as well (such as anxiety about performing in front of other boys and talking about themselves) and these concerns need to be taken into account in the foreign language classroom.

Teacher also pointed out that socio-economic status of pupils has a huge impact on their perception of and attitudes towards foreign languages.

Spanish Teacher: In my school I teach now I can't see very negative perspective. It is kind of wealthier pupils study in this school. However, in my previous school where lower set pupils used to study, boys had very negative attitude towards languages. They used to say 'I hate languages and I don't need it'. So I think it also depends on social class.

I assume that this statement made by teacher needs further explanation, because this statement is contrasting the assertion of the Estyn report (2008) that the effect of gender does not systematically vary to any great extent across social class. The Estyn (2008) made it clear that in Wales the gap between what boys and girls attain at GCSE has been widening regardless of social class groupings. However, in some cases, this can be explained by the fact that pupils' socio-economic status might afford foreign holidays where they can actually use the language they are learning and it works as a motivation for boys. According to Pachler and Field (2001, p.160) visit to a target country can help to illustrate that the foreign language can be used effectively for communication and can be motivating. Hence, I believe that foreign language departments should offer their pupils visits and exchanges to a target country, as it can be a positive influence on boys' attitudes to and perception of modern foreign language.

Regarding boys' perception of French language in particular, teacher made it clear that boys do not find French language very enjoyable. As she said:

French Teacher: Boys NEVER say French is my favorite subject. I never saw any boy saying that.

This suggests that French language is seen as a female-dominated subject, and most of the topics covered in the syllabus are female bias. As has been mentioned before boys have emotional concerns about talking and performing in front of their peers about female topics. As Cohen (1998, cited in British Educational Research Journal, 2002, p.508) says boys under perform in French because they are shy and reluctant to make an effort with French pronunciation in front of an opposite sex who tend to be more at home in this aspect of their work.

The data collected from questionnaires also reflected the boys' and girls' perceptions of foreign language.

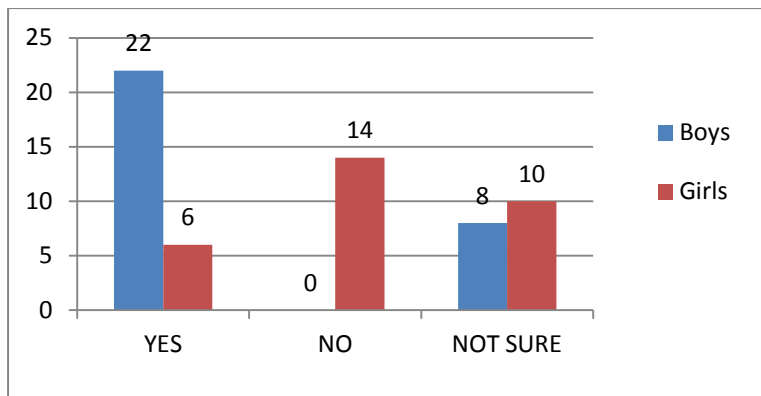


Fig. 2: I prefer Math, Humanities and Science to Modern Foreign Language
Boys n=30 Girls n=30

The data clearly show that majority of boys felt that subjects such as math, science, IT or PE are far more important than foreign languages. Out of thirty boys, twenty two indicated that they prefer math, technology and science to foreign languages; and none of the boys said they prefer languages to math, humanities and science. While fourteen out of thirty girls opted for languages and only six girls favored math and sciences rather than languages. This suggests that in school X gender gap in relation to subject selection is very wide.

Despite the assertion of many researchers that languages are for girls and there is nothing can be done, questionnaires showed that in school X boys do not really feel negative about languages, as most of the boys were not sure about whether learning a foreign language is a girls' activity.

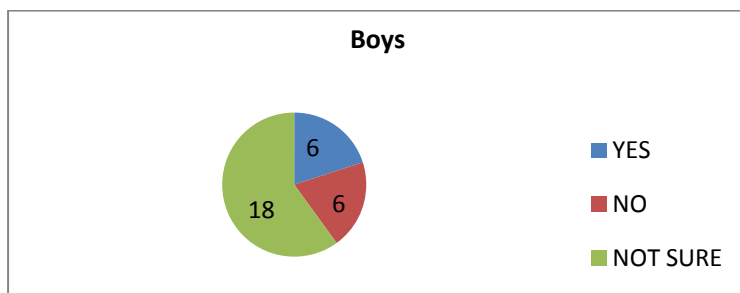


Fig. 3: Learning a foreign language is a girls' activity. Boys n=30

Overall, this seems to suggest that boys do not perceive foreign languages as a girls' activity, but are likely to look at the relevance of languages to their current lives and future employability. As majority of boys to the question what foreign language they prefer to learn answered Chinese.

Student: Because it's useful and China is one of the largest and fast developing countries in the world. (sic)

3. What are the good practices which are being done to boost boys' motivation and enjoyment in MFL?

Teachers interviewed were able to clearly identify aspects of their teaching strategies that might motivate and appeal to boys. Teachers also talked about the actions that have to be taken in general to get more boys interested in foreign languages.

First, foreign language teachers stopped to talk about her personal teaching styles and strategies that seem to appeal to boys. French teacher remarked that all pupils, particularly boys, like when there is an element of fun and enjoyment in language learning. According to foreign language teacher, the most common activities that provide fun and enjoyment for pupils are computers, games, competitions and interesting topics.

French Teacher: I think they will enjoy if I book IT suit and link language learning to computer.

Spanish Teacher: When I tell them to design something with computers about Christmas, they get interested and start looking for Spanish words from Google translator. Otherwise, they don't bother using dictionary.

French teacher felt that she has little time to introduce new additional activities, as most of the tasks she uses are prescribed by the official course syllabus. Therefore, she tries to link most of the activities which are prescribed by the official coursework to ICT. Moreover, teacher interviewed pointed out the importance of pursuing the development of communication and information through technology for modern foreign language teaching. This is because, it will help not only to engage boys in lessons, but also boys will understand the practicality of foreign languages in the fast developing technology world.

Spanish teacher talked about using challenges and games to teach grammatical lessons.

Spanish Teacher: They don't like writing and grammar. They prefer challenges and competition, things like who will first answer.

Spanish Teacher: When you open up exercise book, they switch off.

I believe that, based on the data retrieved through teacher interview, using challenges and games could be increasingly motivating because of the competitive nature of boys. Dornyei (2001, p.77) says that the opportunity to compete can add excitement to learning tasks.

In addition to that, the qualitative data obtained from teacher interviews explained the usefulness of connecting foreign languages to other subject areas in relation to get more boys interested in foreign languages.

French Teacher: They think languages are not enough, and should be linked to other subjects like geography or history, for example to find French speaking countries on the map. Then they start looking at the subject as useful and fruitful.

Teacher recognizes that foreign language learning might not be enough for boys, and they might see it as a waste of time. Therefore, in order to increase the take up of modern foreign languages and change the boys' attitudes towards foreign languages, teachers should demonstrate the foreign language learning in the different perspective.

In addition, boys' and girls' differences in cultures, characteristics and their learning behaviors might have a major impact on their achievements in and take up of foreign languages. Therefore, the research documented in this article reported the boys' and girls' characteristics in different societies through literature review. For example, in some societies, such as the United Kingdom, boys feel reluctant to make an effort with pronunciation in front of girls or talk about family related topics, or might perceive foreign languages useless. In other societies, according to Ayman Sabry Daif-Allah (2012) Saudi females enjoy learning practicing English in the language lab and prefer repetition and memorization. It may be likely that female students' shyness to speak is a more of a gender and cultural issue related to situational anxiety and norms of the Saudi conservative society.

According to Attapol Khamkhien (2010) Thai male and female students are different in the use of Cognitive category only, while there is no difference between Vietnamese male and female students in the use of learning strategies, gender is not a factor that affects the choices of learning strategies. While in Saudi schools FL teachers, as a strategy, should make an effort to change the beliefs of male students that language learning is time consuming. Because as Ayman Sabry Daif-Allah suggests that in Saudi males were more realistic than females as regard the length of time it would take them to learn English.

Therefore, foreign language teachers should keep in mind that language teaching strategies to boost boys' motivation of learning languages can differ according to social, cultural and historical factors.

Conclusion

The aim of the research reported in this article was to find out reasons for boys' non take-up of and underachievement in foreign languages. Unsurprisingly, there was no single reason, but interconnected cognitive, social, environmental and educational factors which enhances or hinders the performance of boys and girls in foreign languages. However, according to pupil questionnaires and teacher interview, it looked as if the main reason for boys' non take up of and underachievement in foreign languages is their wrong perception of it. The research documented in this article found that foreign language teacher and boys felt that there is a minimal impact of natural ability of boys, sitting arrangements, class size or the nature of language learning on their performance. Overall, the fact that the foreign language lesson is carried out only in the school basis and boys do not get to understand that foreign languages are closely related to their future lives and careers can demotivate them and lead to loss of interest and concentration.

Based on pupil feedbacks, teacher interview and my own analysis, I have constructed some recommendations for future practice aimed at increasing boys' motivation and enjoyment in foreign language classroom. Both boys' and girls' interests should be taken into account in the choice of topic, for the data show that choice of appropriate topic can actually influence boys' perception of foreign languages. In addition to that, regardless whether a teacher is male or female, boys like when teacher can make foreign language learning exciting, engaging and fruitful. Therefore, teacher should use competitive games in class and try to increase the number of activities which requires the use of computers. I also recommend that foreign language teacher to link foreign language with the geography and history of the target country. This way they will not only perceive foreign language from different perspective, but also improve their understanding of different culture.

However, some of the above given recommendations might not appeal to other schools in different areas, as the scale my research reported in this article is small. For example, as has been mentioned above, the result might differ according to pupil abilities, social class groupings, culture and bilingualism. Thus, I am concerned to extend the scale of my investigation to Asian countries, so that I could produce a full and balanced study.

References

- Ayman Sabry Daif-Allah. (2012). Beliefs about Foreign Language Learning and Their Relationship to Gender. *English Language Teaching*. 5 (10), pp. 20-33.
- Basit, T. (2010). *Conducting Research: in Educational Contexts*. London: Antony Rowe Ltd
- Bell, J. (2005). *Doing your Research Project: a guide for first-time researchers in education, health and social science*. 4thedn. Maidenhead: Open University Press
- British Educational Research Association (2011). Revised Educational Guidelines for Educational Research. BERA
- Carr, J. & Pauwels, A. (2005). *Boys and Foreign Language Learning: Real Boys Don't Do Languages*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan
- Court, K. (2001). *Why Are Boys Opting Out?: A study of Situated Masculinities and Foreign Language Learning*. Working Paper. Centre for Research in Language Education: Lancaster University.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research Methods In Education*. 7thedn. London: Routledge
- Department for Children, Education, Lifelong Learning and Skills (DCELLS). (2008). *Modern Foreign Languages: in the National Curriculum for Wales*. DCELLS (Welsh Assembly Government)
- Denscombe, M. (2010). *The Good Research Guide: for Small-scale Social Research Projects*. 4thedn. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Dornyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Estyn guidance for schools and Local Education Authorities (2004). *Modern Foreign languages in Welsh-Medium Schools*. Cardiff: Estyn
- Estynreport (2008). *Closing the gap between boys' and girls' attainment in schools*. Cardiff: Estyn
- Graham, S. (1997). *Effective Language Learning: modern languages in practice*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd
- Green, S. & Haworth, S. (2003). *Action Stations: transforming language learning through creative strategies*. London: CILT
- Khamkhien, A. (2010). Factors Affecting Language Learning Strategy Reported Usage by Thai and Vietnamese EFL Learners. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*. 7 (1), pp. 66-85
- Pachler, N. and Field, K. (2001). *Learning to Teach Modern Foreign Languages in the Secondary School: a companion to school experience*. 2ndedn. London: Routledge
- Rua, P. L. (2006). The sex variables in foreign language learning: an integrative approach. *Porta Linguarum*, (6), pp.99-114
- Williams, M., Burden, R. and Lanvers, U. (2002). 'French is the Language of Love and Stuff': student perception of issues related to motivation in learning a foreign language. *British Educational Research Journal*, 28(4), pp.504-528

Short bio-data of writers

Danagul Yembergenova is a young specialist in the sphere of educational leadership and management. Danagul was born in Kazakhstan and graduated from Kazakh National University in the Faculty of Oriental Studies. She did her master's degree in Cardiff Metropolitan University in the Cardiff School of Education. Danagul has been a recipient of several grants and scholarships, including Kazakh State Scholarship, Erasmus Mundus Arcade scholarship, ICCR scholarship of Indian Government. Danagul Yembergenova has been working in Nazarbayev University since 2013 and now is a PhD candidate in Educational sciences.

Assiya Nurzhanova is an associate professor of philological sciences. Assiya has been working in Higher Education since 1988. Assiya worked as a head of Kazakh language department, now she is a senior lecturer and professor in Saken Seyfullin Kazakh Agro Technical University.

Genre Analysis of Discussion Sections in Published Research Articles

Suchittra Tesana
Chai Nat Technical College

Asst.Prof. Jiraporn Intrasai, Ph.D.
King Monkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to analyze Moves and Steps in discussion sections in published research articles (RAs) in the field of language and linguistics. Ten published RAs were chosen from the first - ranked: Journal of Memory and Language during 2011 and 2012. The framework proposed by Yang& Allison (2003) was used for the two- layer analysis in terms of Moves and Steps. The structure of the RAs was revealed in the forms of frequency and percentage of the occurrence of Moves and Steps.

Key words

Genre analysis, Discussion section, Move and Step

1. Introduction

Research Article (RA) publication is the most important channel for presentation of new knowledge in academic arena. Successful publication can lead to many goals of academicians e.g. graduations, academic promotion, enhanced reputation, prestige, peer acceptance and research grants (Hyland, 2000; Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Bhanthumnavin, 2010). Publishing RAs in an international is quite for novice writers. Many RAs were rejected because of unpleasant discussion section. The Discussion sections with unorganized structures and researchers' ineffective writing were claimed as important causes for such rejections (Peneger & Hudelson, 2004; Newman & Stabler, 2011). One way to get effectively writing is studying a good writing model (Gillepie & Graham, 2014). Hence it can be assumed that the writers need to study the Discussion section structures of RAs published in high quality journals.

Much research has been done on the structure of the Discussion sections. A genre analysis has been used as an analytical framework for a wide variety of the Discussion sections analysis. For instance, Swales (1990) introduced 8 Moves of the RA Discussion sections: Move 1: *Background information*, Move 2: *Statement of results*, Move 3: *(Un) expected outcome*, Move 4: *Reference to previous research*, Move 5: *Explanation*, Move 6: *Exemplification*, Move 7: *Deduction and Hypothesis* and Move 8: *Recommendation*. Homes (1997) and Peacock (2012) studied on the Discussion sections across different disciplines. In the field of Linguistics, the necessary moves or the most frequent moves occurring in RA Discussion sections have been found in many studies (Yang & Allison, 2003 ; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Rassameenin, 2006; Amiran, Kassaain & Tavagoli, 2008); Nodoushan & Khakbaz, 2011; Pojanapanya & Todd, 2011; Amnuai & Wannarak, 2013). For example, the commonest moves in the fields of History, Political Science and Sociology were *Deduction and Statement of Result* (Homes, 1997). Peacock (2012) found four most widespread in the fields of Physics, Biology, Environment Science, Business, Language and Linguistics, Public and Social Administration and Law. They were *Claim*, *Finding*, *Reference to Previous Research* and *Recommendation*. Yang & Allison (2003), Rassameenin (2006), Amnuai & Wannarak (2013) found that the most frequent move in Applied Linguistics were Move 4: Commenting on results.

Although many studies have identified the structure of RAs Discussion sections, there have been no studies selecting research articles from the journals standing at number one in the SCImago journal rankings. The first – ranked journal is Journal of Memory and Language. Moreover, in this study, the analysis was performed in the Discussion sections which were given the heading 'Results and discussion', 'Discussion' or 'General discussion'. Therefore, this study aimed to analyze the structure of the Discussion sections in in Journal of Memory and Language. Moreover, the two- layer analysis of Moves and Steps proposed by Yang & Allison (2003) was a guideline for this study.

2. Discussion

Yang and Allison (2003) developed their framework from previous research. Their study was related to a genre analysis of 20 research articles in Applied Linguistics. Their research was done on a genre study of Results, Results and Discussion, Discussion, Conclusion, and Pedagogical Implications sections. Moves and Steps in the Discussion sections are presented as follows.

Move 1: Background information prepare readers for the upcoming discussion of results by restarting research question, aims and purposes of the study, theoretical background or established knowledge, and/ or the study's research methodology. Distinct lexicogrammatical features of Move 1 include 'aims of the study' 'purposes of the study' 'research question'.

Move 2: Reporting Results is employed to present the results of a study, normally with relevant evidence such as statistics and examples. Typical signals for 'Reporting Results' move include numerical value, graphs, tables, figures, reporting verbs, the use of past simple tense and section of texts with examples. Distinct lexicogrammatical features of Move 2 include statements in past tense , 'result(s)', 'finding(s)', 'graphs', 'tables', 'figures', 'for example' and numbers.

Move 3: Summarizing Results " present integrated results on the basis of a number of specific results". The categorization of Move 3 , as a result, relies heavily on close reading as well as the identification of distinct lexical signals such as 'to sum up', 'in sum', 'in summary', and 'to summarize'.

Move 4: Commenting on Results allows authors to "established the meaning and significance of the research results in relation to the relevant field". This move can be realized by one or a combination of four rhetorical options or steps: Step A : Interpreting results, Step B: Comparing results with literature, Step C: Accounting results.

Move 4 Step A: Interpreting Results include 'Hypothesis', in which the writer makes a more general claim arising from experimental results. Explicit lexical features include the use of modals and hedging device to mitigate the strength of the claims made.

Move 4 Step B: Comparing Results with Literature focuses on 'commenting results' by 'comparing (and contrasting) the results with literature. This step can be identified by the citation and/or lexical signal such as 'accord with' and contrary to'.

Move 4 Step C: Accounting for Results allows authors to give an explanation for results. This step provides an explanation or justification of unexpected results. Lexical signal include 'a possible explanation for', 'because', 'due to', or use of cause and effect discourse connectors, the use of modal and hedging devices and tentative statement.

Move 4 Step D: Evaluating Results allows authors to make a judgment on finding of their studies. Authors can and do have a choice of positively and negatively assessing their own findings in an objective manner. Distinctive lexical for this step include the use of modals 'negative' word such as 'limited', 'to be confined to', ' a small sample', 'a few samples' and hedging devices.

Move 5: Summarizing the study is used to provide a brief account of the points from the overall of the study. The identification of this move heavily relies on explicit lexical signal

such as ‘The study reports...’, ‘The study examines...’, ‘This paper describes...’, and ‘The study analyzes...’

Move 6: Evaluating the Study allows discussion writers to evaluate the overall of the study by pointing out limitations, indicating the contributions or evaluating the methodology. The scope of this move is broader than the Step: ‘Evaluating results’ in the ‘Commenting on results’ move, as there are three rhetorical options: Step A: Indicating limitations, Step B: Indicating significance/ advantage, Step C: Evaluating methodology, available to author to realize to this function.

Move 6 Step A: Indicating Limitation allows authors to express caution concerning a study’s methodology, findings, claims and /or generalization. Explicit lexical signal include ‘limitation(s)’, ‘caveat’, ‘caution’, and weakness.

Move 6 Step B: Indicating Significance/ Advantage highlights the importance of the study’s findings. Distinct lexical signal may include the use of ‘positive’ words such as ‘important’, ‘new’, ‘ground breaking’, and ‘pioneering’.

Move 6 Step C: Evaluating Methodology allows authors to judge the strengths and the weakness of the methods or procedure used in a study. Distinct lexical signals include ‘limitation(s)’, ‘evaluation’ ‘the analysis of data’, and the use of unreal conditionals.

Move 7: Deductions from the Research extends beyond the results by suggesting what can be done to solve the problem identified by the research , pointing out the line of further research or drawing pedagogic implication. This move can be realized by a step or series of steps. Step A: Making Suggestion, Step B: Recommending further research, and Step C: Drawing pedagogic implication.

Move 7 Step A: Making Suggestions extends beyond the results by suggesting what can be done to solve the problem identified by the research. lexical signal include ‘suggest’, ‘suggestion’, ‘recommend’, and ‘recommendation’.

Move 7 Step B: Recommending Further Research offers advice for the researchers directions or area of study that the authors feel worthy of further investigation and/or suggest another methodology for future studies. Explicit lexical signal include ‘further study’, ‘ further research’, ‘recommendation(s)’, and directions for further research ‘ and/or study.

Move 7 Step C: Drawing Pedagogic Implication allows the researchers to provide practical suggestions for teaching and learning. This step give concrete or practical advice relate to teaching. Explicit lexical signals include ‘teaching or pedagogic suggestion’, ‘pedagogical recommendations’, and teaching implications.

3. Method

3.1 Data Collection

Ten published research articles (RAs) were collected from the first – ranked journal ordered in SCImago journal ranking: Journal of Memory and Language during 2011 and 2012. Of the 10 published RAs, 5 articles were selected 2011 and the remaining 5 RAS during 2012.

3.2 Data Analysis

Data analysis was carried out as follows.

3.2.1 The frame work of the analysis in Moves and Steps identified in Yang & Allison (2003) was used as a guideline for the present study.

Move 1: Background Information

Move 2: Reporting results

Move 3: Summarizing results

Move 4: Commenting on results

Move 4 Step A: Interpreting results

Move 4 Step B: Comparing result with literature

Move 4 Step C: Accounting for results

Move 4 Step D: Evaluating results

Move 5: Summarizing the study

Move 6: Evaluating the study

Move 6 Step A: Indicating limitation

Move 6 Step B: Indicating significant / advantage

Move 6 Step C Evaluating methodology

Move 7: Deductions from the research

Move 7 Step A: Making suggestions

Move 7 Step B: Recommending further research

Move 7 Step C: Drawing pedagogic implication

3.2.2 Each Move or Step was identified as a text segment which may consist of 1 sentence or more. For example, the sample segment Move 2 (Reporting results) illustrated in (1) contains 1 sentence (Yang & Allison, 2003, p 382)

(1) The results indicate that if a segment has a high SR in L1, then it is likely that SR will also be high in L2.

On the other hand, according to Yang & Allison (2003, p. 382), the sample text segment in Step C (Drawing pedagogic implications) illustrated in (2) consist of 4 sentences.

(2) (S1) The way [s] in which these strategies are used by the lecturer are rarely found in EAP text book, and the students who rely on such text are therefore ill- prepared in knowing how to handle such feature of a lecture. (S2) Some of the inadequacies of the text book as a genre... (S3) How can these problems with EAP listening texts...be dealt with? (S4) In conclusion, we would make two recommendations for EAP listening instructors.

3.2.3 In some contexts, it can be difficult to identify the most salient purpose of Moves and Steps in a text segment. That is, lexical signals, including lexical terms, metatextual expression, and discourse markers in the immediate context, are not explicit in such text segment. As a result, such clues in the other parts of RA can be considered.

3.3.4 The occurrence of Moves and Steps were counted and revealed in the forms of the frequency and percentage.

3. Results and Discussion

This study aimed to analyze the structure of the Discussion sections in published RAs in the first – ranked journal of SCImago journal ranking: Journal of Memory and Language.

Yang & Allison’s (2003) discussion analysis framework was used in this present study. The Discussion sections of Journal of Memory and Language are given three headings. There are ‘Result and discussion’ ‘Discussion’ and ‘General discussion’. The frequency of each Moves and Steps is presented in Table 3.1

Table 1 .The Occurrence of Each Moves and Steps in Journal of Memory and Language

| Moves/Steps | | Result And discussion | Discussion | General Discussion | Total |
|---------------------------|---|-----------------------|------------|--------------------|-------|
| 1. Background Information | n | 7 | - | 8 | 15 |
| | % | 7.87 | | 6.4 | 10.00 |
| 2. Move reporting results | n | 27 | 6 | 11 | 44 |
| | % | 30.34 | 30 | 8.8 | 23.05 |
| 3. Summarizing results | n | 13 | 2 | 13 | 28 |

| Moves/Steps | | Result And discussion | Discussion | General Discussion | Total |
|--|---|-----------------------|------------|--------------------|-------|
| | % | 14.61 | 10 | 10.4 | 11.67 |
| 4.Commenting on results | | | | | |
| Step A: Interpreting results | n | 33 | 8 | 44 | 85 |
| | % | 37.08 | 40 | 35.2 | 37.43 |
| Step B: Comparing result with literature | n | 6 | 4 | 41 | 51 |
| | % | 6.74 | 20 | 32.8 | 19.85 |
| Step C: Accounting for results | n | 1 | - | 1 | 2 |
| | % | 1.12 | | 0.8 | 0.64 |
| Step D: Evaluating results | n | | | | |
| | % | | | | |
| Total | N | 40 | 12 | 86 | 138 |
| | % | 44.94 | 60 | 68.8 | 57.91 |
| 5.Summarizing the study | | | | | |
| | n | | | 6 | 6 |
| | % | | | 4.8 | 1.6 |
| 6.Evaluating the study | | | | | |
| | n | | | | |
| | % | | | | |
| Step A: Indicating limitation | n | | | 1 | |
| | % | | | 0.8 | 0.27 |
| Step B: Indicating significant / advantage | n | | | | |
| | % | | | | |
| Step C Evaluating methodology | n | 1 | | | |
| | % | 1.12 | | | 0.37 |
| 7.:Deductions from the research | | | | | |
| | n | | | | |
| | % | | | | |
| Step A: Making suggestions | n | | | | |
| | % | | | | |

| Moves/Steps | | Result And discussion | Discussion | General Discussion | Total |
|---------------------------------------|---|-----------------------|------------|--------------------|-------|
| StepB:Recommending further research | n | | | | |
| | % | | | | |
| Step C: Drawing pedagogic implication | n | | | | |
| | % | | | | |
| Total | N | 88 | 20 | 125 | |
| | % | 100 | 100 | 100 | |

4.1. The Occurrence of Moves and Steps in ‘Results and discussion’ Heading

The most frequent Moves were Moves 4: Commenting on results (44.94%), Move 2: Reporting on results (30.34%) and Move 3: Summarizing results (14.61%) were the second and the third frequent moves. The most frequent Steps were Move 4 Step A: Interpreting on results (37.08%) and Move 4 Step B: Comparing results with literature (6.74%). The possible reason is about the type of RAs. The RAs published in Journal of Memory and Language are empirical RAs. The experimental RA is a paper written by an investigator to describe a research study that the researchers have completed. The purpose of the report is to explain to others in the field what the objectives, methods and findings of the study were (Weissberg & Buker , 1990). The evidences are in examples below.

[Ex1.] *‘We note that there appear to be some asymmetry in one priming effect following DO and PO primes; The boost seem to have been mainly driven by DO primes rather than PO primes in this experiment (and also in experiment 2).’* **Move4: Commenting on results**

[Ex2.] *‘Table 3 present the descriptive results of the experiment and Table 4 presents results of the analysis’* **Move 2: Reporting results.’** **Move2: Reporting results**

[Ex3] *‘Thus, roughly half of the variation in DO/PO preference between the languages could be attributed to an across –the board- difference (even though the two experiments involved different participants).Hence there was a systematic shift in PO/DO between the two language.’* **Move 3: Summarizing results**

(Zhenguang, Pickering.J.,Hao and Branigan. P. , 2011)

As previous mention, it might be assumed that Move 4: Commenting on results, Move 2: Reporting results and Move3: Summarizing results often used to explain the result of experimental RAs

4.2 The Occurrence of Moves and Steps in ‘Discussion’ Heading

In ‘Discussion’ heading, Move 4: Commenting on results was the most frequent move (60%) and followed by Move 2: Reporting results (30 %) and Move 3: Summarizing results (10 %) respectively. This findings indicated that the most frequent moves occurred in Discussion heading were similar to the Moves and Steps occurrences in Result and discussion heading. We noted that the frequency of Move 2: Reporting results in 2 heading were almost the same frequency. The possible reason is the main communicative function of 2 headings were almost similar. That is, to interpret to explain the results of the study. In the Discussion section the writer and take abroad look of the finding and the study as a whole (Weissberg & Buker, 1990) Hence the writers might not avoid to mention about the results or he findings again in the ‘ Discussion’ Eventhough Although some experimental RA provided ‘Result’ section apart from the Discussion sections but the writers preferred to repeat the results again. Thus, Move 2: Reporting results was used often in ‘Results and discussion’ and ‘Discussion’ heading.

4.3 The Occurrence of Moves and Steps in ‘General discussion’ Heading

In ‘General discussion’ heading, Move 4 commenting on results was the most frequent Moves (68.8%) and followed by Move 3: Summarizing results (10.4%) and Move 2 : Reporting on results (8.8%). The Most frequent steps occurred in this heading was Move 4 Step A: Interpreting results (34.82%) and Move 4 Step B: Comparing results with literature (32.54%). The first most frequent Moves in ‘General discussion’ heading were not different from ‘Result and discussion’ and ‘Discussion’ headings. On the other hands, the third most frequent move in ‘Result and discussion’ and ‘Discussion’, Move 3 : Summarizing results, became to the second most frequent in ‘General discussion’ heading. It may be likely that the writers prefer to summarize the results in ‘General discussion’ (e.g. *Hence experimentl suggest that animacy directly affects word order choice in Japanese transitive clause. No such ordering effect was found for NP conjunctions; Participants were no more likely to recall animate conjunctions than vice versa. (We return to this in the “General discussion, Tanka, N., Branigan, P., Mcclean, F, Pickering, J., 2011)*

4.4 The Occurrence of Moves and Steps in Discussion sections of Journal of Memory and language

According to the analysis are presented in Table 3.1, the most frequent moves and steps in results and discussion and general discussion was Move 4: Commenting on results (56.78%), followed by Move 2 :Reporting results (22.38%) and Move 3 : Summarizing results (11.48%). The remaining four Moves were less frequent. These results supported Yang & Allison’s study (2003). Move 4: Commenting on results is used to establish the meaning and significant of research results. This Move can occur repeatedly in the Discussion sections, while Move 2: Reporting results and Move 3: Summarizing results together less often.

The findings of this study showed that Move 4 (Commenting on results) was the most frequent move and found in every headings ; ‘Result and discussion, ‘ Discussion’ and ‘General discussion’. The second and the third most sequent moves were Move 2 (Reporting results and Move 3: Summarizing results. This finding might be explained by several possible reasons. First, this findings were revealed Discussion section communicative functions. The main function of the Discussion section is to explain the meaning of the results to the readers, to comment on the results by interpreting, accounting, and comparing with previous studies

(R.Hess, 2004; Kallestinova, 2011; Lester, Sr & Lester,Jr, 2007). This finding support Yang & Allison's study (2003).

Second, the data of the present study are experimental research articles. The experimental RA is a paper written by an investigator to describe a research study that the researchers have completed. The purpose of the report is to explain to others in the field what the objectives, methods and findings of the study were (Weissberg & Buker , 1990). Hence, Move 4 (Commenting on results) always used to interpret or explain the findings. In this study, each experimental RA may provide more than one experiments and the researchers should discuss the finding of every experiments. Hence, Move 4 (Commenting on results) was used to interpret every finding. Third, this finding revealed to the RA publication policy of Journal of memory and language which contribute to the formulation of theoretical and experimental papers. All of published RAs in this study are the experimental RAs and each RA may provide one or more experiments. The writers interpret and explain and compare the findings of each experiment thus, Move 4 (Commenting on results) occurred in high frequency.

This finding conformed Yang and Allison (2003) and Amnuai & Wannarak (2013) that Move 4 (Commenting on results) was the most frequent move and occurred repeatedly in the Discussion sections, while Move 2 (Reporting results) and Move 3. However, we have note that , Move 4 Step A: Interpreting results and Move 4 Step B: Comparing results with literature might occurred repeatedly and together occurred or alternate. These present study were similar to previous studies e.g. the study of the discussion section of MA thesis in Applied Linguistics (Rasameenin,2006; Nodushan & Khabaz,2011) That is the most frequents moves in the Discussion sections were Move 4: Commenting on results, Move 2: Reporting results and Move 3 Commenting on results. In general, the present findings might assist in our understanding and suggest practical implication on how to write the effective RAs Discussion section.

Reference

- Annuai, W. and Wannarak, A. 2013. "Investigating Move Structure of English Applied Linguistics Research Article Discussion Published International and Thai Journal." **English Language Teaching**. 6(2): 1-13
- Arnirian, Z., Kassaain, Z. and Tavagoli, M. 2008. "Genre Analysis of Discussion Section of Applied Linguistics Research Artcils." **The Asian ESP Journal**. 4 (1): 39-63
- Bhanthumnavin, D. 2010. "Writing Research Article." **Nida Journal Web, Journal of Social Development**. 12 (2).
- Gillespie, A., and Graham, S. 2014 **Evidence-Based Practices for Teaching Writing**. [Online]. <http://www.education.jhu.edu/PD/newhorizons/Better/articles/written.html>
- Hess, R. D.2004. "How to Write an Effective Discussion." **Respiratory Care**, 49(10):1238-1241.
- Holmes, R. 1997. "Genre Analysis and Social Science: An Investigation of the Structure of Research Article Discussion Sections in Three Disciplines." **English for Specific Purposes**, 16(4): 321-337.
- Hyland, K. 2000. **Disciplinary Discourses: Social Interactions in Academic writing**. Harlow: Longman.
- Kallestinova, D., E. 2011. "How to Write Research Paper" **Yale Journal of Biology and Medicine**, [Online]. <http://www.ncbi.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3178846/>
- Kanoksilapatham, B. 2005. "Rhetorical Structure of Biochemistry Research Articles." **English for Specific Purposes**. 24: 269-292
- Kanoksilapatham, B. 2007. "Writing Scientific Research Articles in Thai and English: Similarities and Difficulties." **Silapakorn University Journal**, 7: 172-203
- Kanoksilapatham, B. 2009. "Generic Structure of Research Article Abstracts in Science." **Journal of English Studies**, 4: 96-111
- Lester, D., J. & Lester, D., J., Jr. 2007. **Writing Research Papers , a Complete Guide**. Peerson Education.
- Newman, A., and Stable, H. C. 2011. **How to Get Your Article Published: From the Title to references from Submission to Revision**. [Online]. Available: <http://www.Paperpub.com.cn/admin/upload/file/2011831555305.pdf>.
- Nodoushan, M. A. S. and Khakbaz, N. I. 2011. "Thesis Discussion Section: A Structural Move Analysis." **International Journal of Language Studies**. 5.(3).
- Peacock, M. 2002. "Communicative Move in the Discussion Section of Research Article." **System**, 30: 479-497
- Perneger, V.T. and Hudelson, M. P. 2004. "Writing a Research Article: Advice to Beginner". **International for Quality in Health Care**, 16 (3)
- Pojanapunya, P., and Watson T, R. 2011. "Relevance of Findings in Results to Discussion Sections in Applied Linguistics Research." Proceeding of International Conference: Doing Research in Applied Linguistics. King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi and Macquari University.

- Rasmeenin, C. 2006. "A Structural Move Analysis of MA Thesis Discussion Sections in Applied Linguistics." Master of Art (Applied Linguistics). Graduated Study, Mahidol University.
- Swales, J. M. 1990. **Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Setting**. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tanaka, N. M., Branigan, P. H., Mclean, F.J., and Pickering, J. M. 2011 "Conceptual Influences on Word Order and Voice in Sentence Production: Evidence from Japanese". **Journal of Memory and Language**, (65)
- Weissberg, R & Buker, S. 1990. **Writing up Research Experimental Research Report Writing for Students of English**. United State of America: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Yang, R. and Allison, D. 2003. "Research Article in Applied Linguistics: Moving from Results to Conclusion." **English for Specific Purposes**, 22: 365-385.
- Zhenguang, G. C., Pickering, J.M., Hoa, Y., Branigan, P.H. 2011 "Lexical and Syntactic Representation in Closely Related Language : Evidence from Cantonese – Mandarin Bilingual". **Journal of Memory and Language**, (65)

**Impact on Teaching and Learning Subsequent to the Introduction of
Lesson Study Approach to Calculus Classes at a Secondary School in the
Maldives**

Mariyam Shahuneeza Naseer

Villa College, Maldives

Abstract

Over the past five years as a mathematics teacher, I have observed that during class activities as well as in exams, students tend to not attempt calculus questions or to give up halfway through the problem. This led me to investigating the impact on teaching and learning of calculus subsequent to the introduction of Lesson Study approach. In the Lesson Study process, a group of teachers meet regularly to work on the design, implementation, testing and improvement of lessons. This paper reports on the mixed methods study undertaken to investigate the impact on teaching and learning of introducing the Lesson Study approach to calculus classes at a secondary school in the Maldives. A quasi-experimental design was used and teachers (N = 3) teaching the experimental group (N = 52) employed the Lesson Study approach while in the control group (N = 48) the context, goals, outcomes, and assessments remained the same, but teachers planned separately and did not share strategies. To control for extraneous factors, both pre and post tests were used for the dependent variable (student achievement). Qualitative data was collected from the teachers during the pre and post lesson discussions and reflections while an open-ended question was presented to the students at the end of the survey questionnaire. Findings indicated that there is a statistically significant improvement in student achievement after introducing the Lesson Study approach to calculus classes. Feedback from the teachers and students indicated that they found the Lesson Study approach beneficial. The prospective of Lesson Study as a form of continuous professional development for teachers of mathematics became apparent from the feedback of the teachers.

Key words: lesson study, mathematics achievement, mathematics education, professional development

Introduction

Mathematics achievement internationally has been a concern in many countries (Burghes & Robinson, 2010; Es & Conroy, 2009; Rylands & Coady, 2009). In the United Kingdom many changes to the mathematics curriculum, assessment and teaching strategies have been brought over the past few decades (Burghes & Robinson, 2010). Yet the mathematics attainment for primary and secondary grades is well below average compared to China, Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Korea, and Japan (OECD, 2013). In both the United States and Europe, concerns have been raised about students' progress in mathematics (Baumert et al, 2010; Cortes, Nomi & Goodman, 2013).

Over the past five years as a mathematics teacher, I have observed that during class activities as well as in exams, students tend to not attempt calculus questions or to give up halfway through the problem. Item analysis of students' standardized test results over the past five years have shown that only three to five percent of the students are actually able to solve problems relating to calculus. This study aims to find out the impact on teaching and learning of introducing the Lesson Study approach to calculus classes. Specifically, this study attempts to respond to the research question: Does the introduction of Lesson Study approach to calculus classes improve student achievement as measured by test scores?

Lesson Study

Lesson Study (or *kenkyu jugyo*) is a teaching improvement process that has been initiated in Japanese elementary education, where it is a widespread professional development practice (Stigler & Hiebert, 2009; Burghes & Robinson, 2010). According to Stiegler & Hieber (2009), in the Lesson Study process a group of teachers meet regularly to work on the design, implementation, testing and improvement of lessons, which is expected to bring small incremental improvements in teaching over long periods of time. Working in a small group, teachers collaborate with one another, meeting to discuss learning goals, to plan an actual classroom lesson (called a "research lesson"), to observe how it works in practice, and then to revise and report on the results so that other teachers can benefit from the experience.

It is believed that due to Japanese teachers undertaking Lesson Study – which is as mentioned, the process of planning, observing, analysing and refining actual classroom lessons, there has been a steady improvement in elementary mathematics and science education in Japan (Burghes & Robinson, 2010). This Lesson Study approach has been adopted in the US and Eastern Europe (Burghes & Robinson, 2010) and even in Australia (Sanders, 2009). According to research done in the United States by Perry, Lewis, and Akiba, Lesson Study helped teachers to develop their instructional strategies and content knowledge (2002: 1), which contribute positively to student learning.

According to Olsen (2005, cited in Sanders, 2009) teachers who took part in a Lesson Study project went on to re-examine their beliefs about teaching and learning and gained new insights. Hollingsworth and Oliver (2005, cited in Sanders, 2009) explained the positive impact of Lesson Study on teaching and learning in an Australian secondary school. White and Southwell (2003, cited in Sanders, 2009) concluded after their study of mathematics teaching in New South Wales secondary schools that the Lesson Study approach was a powerful tool in guiding teachers towards new practices.

International Perspective

American students' lack of conceptual understanding in Mathematics and not being able to apply what they have learned (Es & Conroy, 2009) could be due to teachers' capability in explaining the concepts or the teaching approach used. According to Stigler and Hiebert (2009: 73), mathematics teachers in the United States use overhead projectors in

presenting the lesson while Japanese teachers use chalkboard. Also, the United States teachers always demonstrated how to solve a problem before students are assigned to solve a problem unlike Japanese teachers who first presented the problem to students before demonstrating how to solve the problem (p. 77). Is this the case with Maldivian students? There seems to be less focus on making sense of and reasoning things out about mathematics. In fact, teachers' capacity to explain and represent content to students in a sense-making way largely depended on teachers' understanding of the concept (Baumert et al, 2010) which could be enhanced if teachers planned lessons together and opened themselves to the scrutiny of others (Elliot, 2009).

Teaching mathematics in today's classrooms, where there are diverse learners, is a challenge. Teachers, especially beginners, continuously face the challenge of attending to the differing needs of students with varying levels of ability in a classroom. According to Burghes and Robinson (2010), previous research has found that high-performing countries implement certain strategies at primary and secondary levels: in the primary phase, these countries have a strong mathematical foundation put into place and as students move on to the secondary phase, home work is used as the main tool to ensure learning: at both levels classroom teaching is highly interactive. Stigler and Hiebert (2009) observed lessons in the United States, Germany, and Japan and called what they observed the U. S. pattern, the German pattern, and the Japanese pattern. They reported that these three patterns shared some basic features such as review of the previous lesson, teachers presenting problems, and students doing deskwork. Interestingly, it was found that these activities played different roles in each pattern and the authors went on to explain that in the German pattern, presenting the problem sets the stage for the solution procedure; the U. S. pattern began with the demonstration procedure while the Japanese pattern sets the stage for students to work individually or in groups to develop solutions (p. 81).

Stigler and Hiebert (2009) explained that teaching is actually a "cultural activity" where "cultural scripts" are learned unintentionally through "informal participation over long periods of time" and emphasized that recruiting better teachers is not a solution but "the long-term improvement in teaching will depend more on the development of effective models for teaching than on identification and recruitment of talented individuals into the profession" (p.11). Stigler and Hiebert stated that "Japan has succeeded in developing a system that not only develops teachers but also develops knowledge about teaching that is relevant to classrooms" (2009: 126) which also can be shared among teachers in the profession. It is significant to note that teachers in the United States are assumed to be competent once they graduate from the teacher training college. However, Japanese teachers are expected to be involved in the school-based continuous professional development once they join the teaching team or begin their teaching career. In fact, taking part in school based professional development is part of the teacher's job in Japan. Japanese believe that there is no place better than a classroom to improve teaching (Stigler & Hiebert, 2009).

The Maldivian Context

As a mathematics teacher, I have been able to closely observe how professional development sessions are organized in my institution. The process led me to wonder how useful these professional development sessions are and what kind of a professional development session would cater to the needs of the teachers at an institution. Subsequently, I started reading in this area and found out that Lesson Study could be an excellent approach to continuing professional development which would contribute to real improvements to teaching and learning that are practical and not just for the short term. If lessons are planned from the students' perspective, students will be more engaged in the learning process and they are likely to change the way they view and relate themselves to mathematics lessons. This led me

to study the impact on teaching and learning of calculus subsequent to the introduction of Lesson Study approach.

Methodology

A quasi-experimental design was used, as randomly assigning students to groups for the purpose of the study would disrupt their classroom learning. Therefore, those two groups who had mathematics on Sundays as their first period and third period, respectively, were randomly assigned as the control group ($N = 48$) and those who had had mathematics on Sundays as their second period and fourth period, respectively, were randomly assigned as the experimental group ($N = 52$). To control for extraneous factors, both pre and post tests were used for the dependent variable (student achievement).

Teachers working with the experimental group employed the Lesson Study approach while in the control group, context, goals, outcomes, and assessments remained the same as before, but teachers planned separately and did not share teaching strategies.

Participants

As there were only five teachers teaching calculus, the Lesson Study group initially contained five teachers. However, due to work commitments and other issues, two of the team members dropped out at an early stage. Therefore, three teachers continued to be involved until the end of the research project.

The school selected for the study offers mechanics and statistics. In addition to the specialization module, all students are required to take core mathematics modules in which they study calculus. In this study, all year 12 students taking statistics took part. Statistics students were selected because they find calculus difficult compared to mechanics students. As a purposeful sampling approach was used, the results cannot be generalized.

Research Instrument

Data was collected using a pre-established survey questionnaire. While reviewing related literature, a similar research done in Australia by Peter Sanders at La Trobe University was identified. Mr. Sanders was contacted via email and he gave consent to replicate the research in the Maldives. As the present study follows the study conducted by Mr. Sanders, the reliability and validity of the instrument were taken as givens.

Data Collection

The results presented are from eight study sessions conducted in February and March 2013. Table 1 shows the title of each of these eight sessions and sample sizes for the teacher and student feedback.

Table 1: *Lesson Study Sessions**

| Lesson Study | Lesson Title |
|--------------|--|
| 1 | Parametric differentiation |
| 2 | Differentiating exponential functions |
| 3 | Implicit differentiation |
| 4 | Integration by reversing the chain rule |
| 5 | Integration by reversing the chain rule |
| 6 | Integration using trigonometric identities |

| | |
|---|----------------------|
| 7 | Integration by parts |
| 8 | Integration by parts |

*Adapted from Sanders (2009).

All the grade 12 calculus teachers were to attend the Lesson Study sessions. However, due to time table clashes and other work commitments, only some were able to attend. All the Lesson Study sessions followed the same format. Lesson Study meetings were arranged on Sunday immediately after the department meeting, as it was the only time all the teachers were available. Teachers sat together and planned the lesson prior to the lesson times and the observation forms were filled and lessons reflected on right after the session, or early morning the next day if the teachers were unavailable at that time.

Students and teachers involved in each lesson filled in the survey questionnaires to evaluate the success or otherwise of the lessons. Student questionnaires looked at mathematical features of the lesson, tasks completed and two items that verified students' attitude towards the lesson. Table 2 gives details of the student questionnaire.

Table 2: *Questions in Rating Section of Student Questionnaire**

| Item Number | Question | Question Type |
|-------------|---|---------------|
| 1 | I talked about the mathematics using mathematical words | Mathematical |
| 2 | I learnt some mathematics I did not know | Mathematical |
| 3 | I was thinking about the mathematics for most of the lesson | Mathematical |
| 4 | I got started without any help | Task |
| 5 | I saw more than one way of doing the tasks | Task |
| 6 | I tried my hardest | Attitudinal |
| 7 | I was challenged | Attitudinal |
| 8 | I could now use this mathematics on other problems | Mathematical |

*Adapted from Sanders (2009).

Students were to indicate how strongly they agreed or disagreed with the above statements using one option. The questionnaire used a Likert scale that ranged from 1 to 4 (1: Strongly Disagree; 2: Disagree; 3: Agree; 4: Strongly Agree).

Teacher feedback was collected using the questionnaire the teachers completed after the delivery of the lesson; teachers who observed the lesson were to complete a lesson observation sheet and during the lesson reflection the discussion was written up. The reflection session was mainly used to discuss how the lesson could be improved further. Teachers were requested to fill in the questionnaire to explain the proportion of the class for each of the statements shown in Table 3. This questionnaire used a semantic differential scale that ranged from 1 to 5 (1: None; 2: Some; 3: Half; 4: Most; 5: All).

Table 3: *Questions in Rating Section of Teacher Questionnaire**

| Item Number | Question | Question Type |
|-------------|--|---------------|
| 1 | Talked mathematically to each other | Mathematical |
| 2 | Learnt some new mathematics | Mathematical |
| 3 | Were on task for most of the lesson | Task |
| 4 | Got started without additional help | Task |
| 5 | Saw more than one way of doing the main task | Task |
| 6 | Tried their hardest | Attitudinal |
| 7 | Engaged in higher order thinking | Attitudinal |
| 8 | Asked meaningful questions | Attitudinal |

*Adapted from Sanders (2009).

Results and Discussion

An independent-samples t-test was carried out to establish whether there is a significant difference in student achievement between the two groups as measured by test scores.

Table 4: *Independent-samples t-Test Comparing Pre-test Scores Between Experimental Group and Control Group*

| | t | df | p-value |
|-------------------------|------|----|---------|
| Equal variances assumed | 1.15 | 98 | 0.26 |

There were 52 in the experimental group and 48 in the control group who had pre-test scores. The Levene's test for the equality of variances between the two groups (experimental and control) indicated that equal variances could be assumed, $F=0.12$, $p=0.73$. As shown in Table 4, there was no significant difference between the experimental group ($M=42.3$, $SD=22.5$) and the control group ($M=51.1$, $SD=19.3$), $t(98) = 1.15$, $p=0.26$.

Dependent-sample t-tests were carried out to compare the pre-test and post-test mean scores for the control group as well as the experimental group. Dependent-sample t-test results for the control group showed no statistically significant improvement in student achievement from pre-test to post-test. However, the dependent sample t-test result for the experimental group showed that there is a statistically significant improvement in student achievement from pre-test ($M=42.3$, $SD=22.5$) to post-test ($M=63.8$, $SD=13.7$), $t(51)=3.32$, $p = 0.002$. The results are summarized in Table 5 below.

Table 5: *Dependent-sample t-Test comparing the Pre-test Scores and Post-test Scores for Experimental Group*

| t | df | p-value |
|------|----|---------|
| 3.32 | 51 | 0.002 |

This result indicates that there is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that there is a statistically significant improvement in students' achievement following the introduction of the Lesson Study approach to calculus classes.

Teacher Feedback

The data for the teacher survey was obtained from a very small sample. Teacher feedback was collected through a survey questionnaire and through small group discussions before and after the lessons. The teacher survey used a semantic differential scale that ranged from 1 to 5. The following analysis principles were adopted from Sanders (2009). Scores from 1 through 3 were classified as 'low', scores greater than 3 through 4 were classified as 'good' and scores above 4 were classified as 'high' (Table 6). Table 3 gives the details of each item.

Table 6: *Teacher Survey: Perspectives on Student Responses to the Lesson Study Session*

| Item Number | Lesson Study 1 | Lesson Study 2 | Lesson Study 3 | Lesson Study 4 | Lesson Study 5 | Lesson Study 6 | Lesson Study 7 | Lesson Study 8 | Mean |
|-------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|------|
| 1 | 1.50 | 1.50 | 1.50 | 1.00 | 3.67 | 1.50 | 3.50 | 3.33 | 2.19 |
| 2 | 3.50 | 3.50 | 3.50 | 2.33 | 3.67 | 3.00 | 4.50 | 4.33 | 3.52 |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 3 | 4.00 | 2.00 | 3.50 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.50 | 4.00 | 4.33 | 3.57 |
| 4 | 3.00 | 3.50 | 1.50 | 1.67 | 3.67 | 2.50 | 4.00 | 4.00 | 2.86 |
| 5 | 2.00 | 1.50 | 1.75 | 2.33 | 4.00 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.33 | 2.62 |
| 6 | 2.50 | 2.50 | 3.25 | 2.33 | 4.33 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.67 | 3.48 |
| 7 | 3.00 | 2.50 | 2.50 | 2.00 | 3.67 | 3.00 | 4.50 | 4.33 | 3.14 |
| 8 | 3.00 | 3.00 | 3.25 | 3.00 | 5.00 | 4.00 | 4.50 | 5.00 | 3.86 |
| Mean | 2.81 | 2.50 | 2.59 | 2.21 | 4.00 | 2.81 | 4.25 | 4.17 | 3.16 |

Scores are very positive with ‘high’ means for only two of the eight sessions (Lesson Study 7 and 8). Remarkably, it was the same lesson. Integration by parts was taught to one group and then the lesson was revised and re-taught to the other group (both experimental groups). Lesson Study 8 recorded a ‘good’ score while most of the rest of the lessons (Lesson Study 1, 2, 3, 4, and 6) recorded a ‘low’ score. None of the items recorded ‘high’ scores. It is noteworthy that lower scores were recorded for items ‘talked mathematically to each other,’ ‘got started without additional help’ and ‘saw more than one way of doing the main task.’ The lower response for the item ‘saw more than one way of doing the main task’ highlights the issue that most of the students are constrained by their lack of familiarity with alternative strategies in mathematics. Clearly, this is a critical issue that needs to be addressed by the teachers in order to ensure the students understand the essential concepts behind the routine calculations they are doing every day. A main focus in planning the lessons was to keep students engaged and to encourage dialogue which would lead them to explore and construct their own knowledge. The ‘good’ score recorded for ‘asking meaningful questions’ (the highest score of all eight items) indicated that students’ thinking improved. This is an important aspect that can be explored in planning future lessons.

The process of Lesson Study should involve revising and re-teaching the lesson to the same group. However, due to time constraints and the pressure to complete the syllabus before their final exams, the lessons were revised and re-taught only to the slower of the two experimental groups as they were always behind schedule compared to the other experimental group. This highlights a weakness in the development of Lesson Study since only two of the lessons were re-taught.

Post-lesson discussions revealed that the teachers who took part in this Lesson Study were enthusiastic and believed that it was a great learning opportunity to observe other teachers’ teaching and later on participating in discussions solely to improve the lessons and to explore different ways of teaching the lessons to classes with students of varying levels of ability. The following is a comment that is indicative of typical responses:

Even if we want to spend more time and enable the students to explore different ways of approaching problems we cannot do so due to lack of time and by the pressures to cover the prescribed curriculum and to prepare students for Edexcel Exams. If we can get time to sit together and plan the lessons and observe teachers teaching the same subject, we could really learn and improve our teaching as well. Unfortunately our timetable does not allow this.

A number of thoughtful comments were provided during the discussions. Some of these comments provided fascinating ideas for further development of the Lesson Study research as well as how the coordination meetings can be conducted so that more time is spent on discussing and exploring different ways of teaching, keeping in mind the diverse needs of the students. Those ideas will be discussed in the recommendations section of this paper.

Student Feedback

The student survey used a Likert scale that ranged from 1 to 4. The following analysis principles were adopted from Sanders (2009). Scores from 1 through 3 were classified as 'low', scores greater than 3 through 3.5 were classified as 'good' and scores above 3.5 were classified as 'high' (Table 7). Table 2 gives the details of each item.

Table 7: Student Survey

| Item Number | Lesson Study 1 | Lesson Study 2 | Lesson Study 3 | Lesson Study 4 | Lesson Study 5 | Lesson Study 6 | Lesson Study 7 | Lesson Study 8 | Mean |
|-------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|------|
| 1 | 3.00 | 2.75 | 3.10 | 3.00 | 2.90 | 2.79 | 2.10 | 3.20 | 2.87 |
| 2 | 3.29 | 3.25 | 3.50 | 3.15 | 3.55 | 3.21 | 3.70 | 3.70 | 3.41 |
| 3 | 2.79 | 2.63 | 2.70 | 2.54 | 2.95 | 2.71 | 2.80 | 3.10 | 2.79 |
| 4 | 2.07 | 2.00 | 1.80 | 2.08 | 2.10 | 2.00 | 2.10 | 2.40 | 2.07 |
| 5 | 2.93 | 2.75 | 2.90 | 3.08 | 3.15 | 2.57 | 2.50 | 2.90 | 2.88 |
| 6 | 3.14 | 3.00 | 3.20 | 3.31 | 3.10 | 3.29 | 3.00 | 3.40 | 3.18 |
| 7 | 2.79 | 2.63 | 2.50 | 3.00 | 3.05 | 2.71 | 2.80 | 3.10 | 2.85 |
| 8 | 2.64 | 2.25 | 2.80 | 3.08 | 2.90 | 2.50 | 2.70 | 3.20 | 2.78 |
| Mean | 2.83 | 2.66 | 2.81 | 2.91 | 2.96 | 2.72 | 2.71 | 3.15 | 2.85 |

There are no overall means in 'high' category and also only Lesson Study 8 is in the 'good' category. All other lessons were in the 'low' category. This clearly indicates that the teachers rated the lessons better than the students did, which is not surprising since they had been involved in the planning and they had a stake in the success of the lesson. However, there are trends in the data that indicate a correlation between students' and teachers' reflections. Spearman correlation coefficient was calculated to see whether there is any correlation between teachers' reflections and students' reflections. The correlation coefficient was $r = 0.42$. This clearly indicates that there is a positive correlation between the teachers' reflections and students' reflections.

Lesson Study 8 provided an interesting result. It was a repeat of Lesson Study 7 but it was revised and re-taught to the experimental group which was behind schedule. Although there was no statistically significant difference between the overall means, when the lesson was re-taught, the students gave an overall mean of 3.15 compared the score given by the students when it was taught for the first time which was 2.71. It is worth mentioning that the teachers, unlike the students, gave an overall score of 4.17 when the lesson was re-taught (Lesson Study 8) while there was a score of 4.25 when the lesson was taught for the first time (Lesson study 7) to the experimental group of students who were on schedule. This variation could be due to the teachers' perceptions.

Students' rating of the item 'I learned some mathematics I don't know' is particularly encouraging. It has the highest score of all items, which is 3.41. The lowest score was 2.07 for the item 'I got started without any help.' Again, this is not a surprising discovery as most of the students say that they chose mathematics because "they have to" and students do not start work unless the teacher individually attends to each of these students and asks them to start class work. This highlights a critical issue which is not necessarily related to the teaching and learning of mathematics but needs to be explored further. A positive note is that a 'good' score was recorded for students trying their hardest (Item 6).

A weakness identified while analyzing the results is that the vast majority of the students were reluctant to write feedback and that none of the students wanted them to be interviewed. Inquiring with students revealed that they did not want anyone to find out what they had said, and therefore they did not want to take part in interviews. This could be

because in our close-knit community it is practically impossible to ensure anonymity and confidentiality. Also, this reservation was observed among the teachers during the discussions. It would be interesting to do a qualitative study to learn in-depth the impact of introducing Lesson Study on teaching and learning.

Notably, students believed that teaching has improved since “other teachers come and observe.” One of the students said:

Teachers should come and observe other teachers’ teaching. That way the teacher will not just sit around. They explain more. Now our teacher is more prepared and I feel that my teacher explains different methods of doing the same problem. My teacher is more prepared now. This should be done more often.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Results indicated that students’ achievement as measured by test scores improved upon introduction of Lesson Study approach in calculus classes. The analysis of Lesson Study reflects previous findings. Teachers enjoyed the Lesson Study and from the comments given by the students it was obvious that they found it beneficial. Students’ comments included:

“teacher is very much prepared and the lesson is easy to understand now. I think when one teacher teaches others should come and observe”

“mathematics class has become much more interesting”

“teacher explains different methods and least intelligent people like me can solve problems on my own”

“I wish teachers do this [Lesson Study] more often”

During the post lesson discussions one of teachers said “I never thought of using this approach and never expected this approach to be successful. Today we definitely learned something new”.

Obviously, educational change takes time to furnish the evidence that there is an impact on student achievement. As the case in Japan and other countries where research lessons or Lesson Study is carried out, the results improved gradually and Lesson Study is seen as a powerful form of professional development which has the potential to make real improvements to the teaching and learning of mathematics which lasts over time (Burghes & Robinson, 2010).

Based on the research results, it is recommended that

1. Students should be given opportunity to choose subjects they want to study rather than forcing them to take certain subjects.
2. Teachers should be allocated time during the session to sit together and plan their lessons together.
3. Timetabling should be done in such a way that teachers get the opportunity to observe their colleagues’ teaching.
4. Lesson Study should be made part of teachers’ job descriptions similar to countries such as Japan and Finland.
5. Lesson Study should be explored as a potential in-house professional development approach for Mathematics teachers.

References

- Baumert, J., Kunter, M., Blum, W., Brunner, M., Voss, T., Jordan, A., ... Tsai, Y. (2010). Teachers' mathematical knowledge, cognitive activation in the classroom, and student progress. *American Educational Research Journal*, 47(1), 133 – 180.
doi:10.3102/0002831209345157
- Burghes, D. & Robinson, D. (2010). *Lesson Study: Enhancing Mathematics Teaching and Learning*. United Kingdom: CfBT Education Trust.
- Cortes, K., Nomi, T., & Goodman, J. (2013). A Double Dose of Algebra. *Education Next*, 13(1), 70-76.
- Elliot, J. (2009). *Lesson and Learning Study: a globalizing form of teacher research*. Retrieved from http://www.ied.edu.hk/wals/website/resources/Lesson_and_Learning_Study.pdf
- Es, E. A., & Conroy, J. (2009). Using the Performance Assessment for California Teachers to Examine Pre-Service Teachers' Conceptions of Teaching Mathematics for Understanding. *Issues in Teacher Education*, 18 (1), 83-101.
- Perry, R., Lewis, C., & Akiba, M. (2002). Lesson Study in the San Mateo-Foster City school district. Retrieved from <http://www.lessonresearch.net/AERAfinal.pdf>
- OECD. (2013). *PISA 2012 Assessment and Analytical Framework: Mathematics, Reading, Science, Problem Solving and Financial Literacy*, OECD Publishing.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264190511-en>
- Rylands, L. J., & Coady, C. (2009). Performance of students with weak mathematics in first-year mathematics and science. *International Journal of Mathematical Education in Science and Technology*, 40(6), 741-753.
- Sanders, P. (2009). Lesson Study: An Effective School-Based Teacher Professional Learning Model for Teachers of Mathematics. In R. Hunter, B. Bicknell, & T. Burgess (Eds.), *Crossing divides: Proceedings of the 32rd annual conference of the Mathematics Education Research Group of Australasia* (Vol. 2) Palmerston North, NZ: MERGA.
- Stigler, J.W. & Hiebert, J. (2009). *The Teaching Gap*. New York: Free Press.

INTEGRATING VALUES IN HIGHER AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION

Dr. Mrs. Kiran Saxena, Professor, N.I.T.T.T.R. Bhopal

Abstract

Now a days we are experiencing the degeneration of moral, ethical and social values in all the spheres of the society and so is true for higher and technical education system also. The students in educational institutions differ not only in their cognitive development, linguistic abilities, scholastic achievement, learning styles and academic skills but also in socio-economic, cultural and religious background leading to diverse problems. The aim of higher education system is not only to empower them with skills to earn money and lead a productive life but also to develop them as good human beings integrating positive values and living together in a cultured and peaceful way. The role of teacher educator is prominent because the students need support, guidance and cordial environment for the development of inner potential, positive self concept and development of positive thinking towards self and others. This paper focuses on the development of "wholistic" personality of students, the attributes for graduate passouts, the teaching learning model, the role of teachers during the students' stay at and institutions of higher education.

Key Words: Wholistic development, Affective aspect, Graduate Attributes, Teaching Learning Model

1. Introduction

In the words of Aung San Suu Kyi (1994) "The true development of human beings involves much more than mere economic growth. At its heart there must be a sense of empowerment and inner fulfilment, this alone will ensure that human and cultural values remain paramount in the world"

Today, our education system focuses on preparing graduates, who are globally employable. The aim of higher and technical education system is to transform young students into employable graduates, equipped with technical, managerial and soft skills. Now-a-days industries, employers and organizations are in dire need of trained personnel who are not only technically qualified but also good in communication, interpersonal and other soft skills. The research studies have revealed that emotionally intelligent persons with positive attitudes excel in their professional, social as well as personal life. The students should be provided with the opportunities during their stay at educational institute to develop discipline related skills, information and technological skills and also moral, ethical and human values and positive thinking in other words to develop them as "whole" human beings.

2. The Concept of Wholistic Development

The notion of holistic student development encompasses not only academic learning and the development of skills such as problem-solving and analysis but also simultaneously recognizes students as people, growing and maturing affectively (emotionally) and morally. There are a number of different terms associated with this educational philosophy, including character education, values education, moral education, educating for citizenship, affective education and educating for social and personal responsibility, as well as holistic education. Thus relevant studies may focus on values, attitudes, beliefs, virtues, character, moral, spiritual or affective outcomes.

Palmer et al (2010) explain this concept further: The notion of wholistic student development encompasses not only learning academic knowledge and skills, such as problem solving and analysis, but also other aspects of students as people who are growing and maturing affectively (emotionally) and morally. Across a variety of related literature, a few common themes emerge:

- a. Going beyond knowledge and skills to include other aspects of being a person in society, (such as emotion, spirituality, moral judgement, embodiment)

- b. An integrative view of learning and development that emphasizes the relationships and overlapping between thinking, feeling and action dimensions of behaviour rather than separating cognitive dimension of education from affective and moral dimensions.

In UK, students and employers' good character is about good morals and right behaviour and includes the virtues of empathy, tolerance, care of others, capacity for friendship, honesty, reliability, sincerity, trustworthiness and integrity. Peterson and Seligman identified a common set of six virtues across the world's major religions and philosophies: wisdom and knowledge; courage; love and humanity; justice; temperance; and spirituality and transcendence.

3. The Attributes of Pass out Graduates In Today's Context

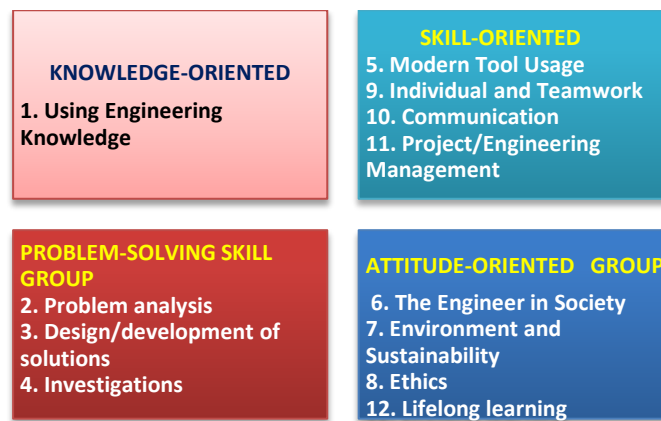
It is critical that we prepare our students through technical and higher education system to lead productive lives when they graduate, but if we wish to prepare our pass outs for 21st century, they should have the information and technology literacy, global awareness, Creativity and innovation, critical thinking, problem solving and self direction skills in addition to core subjects and themes if they wish to sustain in the fast changing industrial and modern economic world of work.

The Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU) sees personal and social responsibility as one of the major groups of learning outcomes essential for twenty-first century university graduates. They define these outcomes as:

1. Striving for excellence: developing a strong work ethics and consciously doing one's very best in all aspects of college.
2. Cultivating personal and academic integrity: recognizing and acting on a sense of honour, ranging from honesty in relationships to principled engagement with a formal academic honour code.
3. Contributing to a larger community: recognizing and acting on one's responsibility to the educational community and the wider society, locally, nationally and globally.
4. Taking seriously the perspectives of others: recognizing and acting on the obligation to inform one's own judgment; engaging diverse and competing perspectives as a resource for learning, citizenship and work.
5. Developing competence in ethical and moral reasoning and action: developing ethical and moral reasoning in ways that incorporate the other four responsibilities; using such reasoning in learning and in life.

The National Board of Accreditation (NBA) in India in tune with Washington Accord (of which India is a Signatory) emphasizes the following attributed for graduate engineers of accredited technical institute. The attributes listed under skills and attitude oriented group focus on affective domain development with special reference to ethics, moral values and concern for environment and other societal issues.

Figure: Showing Graduate Attributes Overview



(Source: IET Accreditation Training, Taipei (2011) "The Washington Accord: Past, Present, Future")

4. Role of Teachers

The teachers should be instrumental to inculcate human values and improve value education. As teachers and educators we should not only ask "What they (students) know" but also "what they want" The concept of "emotional intelligence " developed by Daniel Goleman (1996) is very close to valuing process. While educating the "mind" is critical it should be coupled with the education of "heart" Value education does not only include values transmission or moral education, but it should lead the learner to personal integration. The learning of social and moral values should not stop at cognitive level, although it is the first step in values development, it must be subjected to a process by which integration and internalization of values is checked and attained. For this firstly we should examine the cognitive structures, also known as "mind sets" or "consciousness level" The role of educator is to facilitate learners' awareness of their cognitive structures, to examine and question this base, to have a dialogue with the learners and try to expand the learners' ways of looking at things in order to make more informed choices.

Another important role of teachers is to facilitate the learners' consideration of their own behavioral patterns. What one says and feels must be in consistency with one's actions, this leads to a state of congruence. The educators must also create an environment of psychological honesty and truthfulness. The learners should be encouraged to say things which they genuinely feel, not what their teachers would like to listen. Thus the teacher should be open, sincere, genuine, non judgmental and non threatening. He should be a real life model for his learners, he may not be perfect but striving to be integrated and whole. The learning environment becomes humane and the teachers are ready to invest themselves in learning process. As the learner is also being enriched the process becomes mutually satisfying and rewarding to both, the teacher and the learner.

Thus we may conclude that although the learners should be at the center of educational processes, the teachers play critical roles as guide and facilitators. Teachers need to expand their roles and look at education from very broad, flexible and interdisciplinary perspective, to facilitate around human development. If this is internalized and the process is integrated in our teaching learning environment, we will be able to contribute to the international understanding and and a culture of peace and living together. (APNIEVE 1994)

5. The Teaching-Learning Model

Since our focus is on "Wholistic" development, all the faculties of learners must be properly recognized and developed. The affective domain, the feelings aspect, which refers to the feeling and willingness (heart) should find an equally important place in teaching -learning process as cognitive level which is mainly about knowing the facts, concepts and principles. In this a four step model has been suggested by Quisumbing (1999)

Step one: Conceptual Level- Knowing:

The values have the cognitive base. They are to be looked into and examined. How these value system is likely to affect self and others, our behaviors, cultures etc are suggested to the learners to be considered. Knowing is restricted to facts and concepts, hence movement to further steps is desirable.

Step Two: Conceptual Level- Understanding:

At this step, the distinction is to be made between knowledge and wisdom. The learners have to understand the persons, systems and their inter relationships.

Step Three: Affective Level

The values need to be integrated and internalized. This step ensures that the values are correlated with the experiences and are strengthened in affective domain. It may also result in appreciation, acceptance and respect of both, one's own value system and that of others.

Step Four: Action Level.

The reinforced values lead to action. It may be reflected in improved communication skills, better decision making and non-violent conflict resolution. Thus the learners get an opportunity to observe the relationship between cognitive (Knowing the facts and concepts and understanding it in proper context), its affective dimensions and behavioral manifestations.

Although the steps are in logical sequence, the processes are interrelated, interdependent and overlapped, hence may be re-ordered , like a particular behavior may be more satisfying and hence may strengthen our affective aspect.

Figure: The Teaching Learning Model



Source: Quisumbing, L.R., "A Framework for Teacher Education Programs Towards International Understanding and a Culture of Peace" Kyongju, Korea

6. The Role of Teachers

The role of the educators and teachers is not just to develop the knowledge and intellect of his learners, but to develop the affective aspect of behaviour which facilitates and promotes not only economic growth but the richness of inner self, the feelings of well being and empathetic attitude.

During the development of such processes, although the learners should be at the center of educational processes, the teachers play critical roles as guide and facilitators. Teachers need to expand their roles and look at education from very broad, flexible and interdisciplinary perspective, to facilitate around human development. If this is internalized and the process is integrated in our

teaching learning environment, we will be able to contribute to the international understanding and a culture of peace and living together. (APNIEVE 1994)

A suggestive approach to teaching learning processes may be summarized as follows:

| Steps | Stage | Teachers Role | Supportive Activities |
|-------|---------------|--|--|
| 1. | Knowing | Provide and support the process of knowledge acquisition and clarification | Experience sharing, Anecdotes, Case studies of events |
| 2. | Understanding | Facilitate and guide the cognitive processes of analysis and critical evaluation of different approaches | Providing opportunities for understanding the interrelationships and inter-dependence among people and events. Self analysis and self awareness |
| 3. | Valuing | Strengthen the processes through appreciation, acceptance and respect. (affective domain) | Democratic and non-judgemental classroom environment, Open discussion |
| 4. | Acting | Exhibiting desirable behavioural patterns, supporting and reinforcing positive and empathetic gestures. Witness integration and internalization. | Role plays, Group discussions about a social issue / problem, Exercises on reflections of anticipated actions in various situations. |

7. Higher Education System: Showing Pathways:

A fundamental challenge to education in this century is to teach positive values, ethical foundations and social skills, most necessary for learners to be a complete person. There is wider interest in and support for this type of educational philosophy within primary and secondary schooling than within higher education, for a variety of reasons, including that it is generally easier to accept the socialising role of education when dealing with children than with adults. But there are good reasons to focus on this in higher education, too. Researchers in this tradition, appeal to a broader set of societal needs, social problems, social injustices. Graduates of higher education are tomorrow's leaders and the troubled world needs 'leaders for good'. Higher education is a time of transition and change for all its students. Developmentally, young adulthood is a time of change, in which students are grappling with identity and developing the whole student: leading higher education initiatives that integrate mind and heart and shifting from relying on others to self-authorship. Students in higher education confront new ideas and ways of thinking as they interact with students from other backgrounds. Mature students may be at a different developmental stage, but they are still in a turbulent transition period in which existing views are challenged and identities are re-made. No matter their age, the focus on critical thinking in higher education prompts students to question age old traditions and received wisdom, value system taught by their families. So students are at the threshold of change, in which they must reconstruct a sense of purpose in their own life that integrates expanded perspectives and worldviews. In this sense, there is also a dimension of spirituality involved in holistic student development insofar as spirituality is defined broadly as connection with something larger than oneself.

Finally, it is argued that higher education does pass on values, whether we acknowledge it explicitly or not. Each subject has its own set of operating assumptions and standards that define what is better and valid from a disciplinary viewpoint. It is better to be explicit about the values we are seeking to instil, as these can then be the hallmark of higher education.

7. Conclusion

The Delors Commission has proposed four pillars of learning (Learning to know, learning to do, learning to live together and learning to be) as foundation of education and basic types of learning in reorganizing education in 21st century. As teachers and educators we have to maintain the coherence and interrelationship of these four pillars. It should be the prime responsibility of the teachers to discover, unearth, nurture and enrich the creative potential, to reveal the treasure within each one of us. Another equally critical aim of education should be to emphasize the social feeling of "living together" harmoniously, be sensitive and contribute for the community and societal development.

References:

- UNESCO-APNIEVE source book for teachers, students and territory level instructors (2002) "A Holistic and Integrated Approach to Value Education for Human Development" UNESCO, Bangkok
- Education for 21st Century: The Basics " [Online]. Available at <http://www.smlcs.org/publications/21stcenturyeducation.pdf> Accessed on 15-10-2014
- Keith Hopper, Rebecca Hendricks, "Technology Integration in College Classroom" Education Technology 2008
- "Education in Values: Strategies and Challenges" [Online]. Available at <http://www.cce.iisc.ernet.in/nsee/Presentation/vbse-iisc-prasad2.pps> Accessed on 16-10-2014
- Lawrence, Karen R. (2014) "What value really means in higher education" [Online]. Available at http://hechingerreport.org/content/value-really-means-higher-education_15129/ accessed on 20-01-2015
- Quinlan, K. M. (2011) "Developing the whole student: leading higher education initiatives that integrate mind and heart" Oxford Learning Institute, University of Oxford[Online]. Available at https://www.learning.ox.ac.uk/media/global/wwwadminoxacuk/localsites/oxfordlearninginstitute/documents/overview/research/publications/Quinlan_Developing_2011.pdf accessed on 20-01-2015
- IEET Accreditation Training, Taipei (2011) "The Washington Accord: Past, Present, Future" [Online]. Available at <http://www.ieagreements.org/Washington-Accord/Washington-Accord-Overview.pdf> accessed on 21-01-2015
- Quisumbing, L.R., "A Framework for Teacher Education Programs Towards International Understanding and a Culture of Peace" Kyongju, Korea

**Legislative Policies and Reconciliation Committees:
Contested Spaces for Aboriginal Peoples in Canada**

Lorenzo Cherubini, Ed.D.

**Professor
Brock University
Faculty of Education
St. Catharines, Ontario (Canada)**

Lorenzo.Cherubini@brocku.ca

Legislative Policies and Reconciliation Committees: Contested Spaces for Aboriginal Peoples in Canada

There is a landmark legislative proposal for First Nations education currently under consideration by the Canadian Federal government – the *Bill on First Nations Education*. The impetus for the legislation is the less than 40% graduation rate among First Nation students, stemming to some extent from the colonial legacy of 7 generations of Indian Residential and Day schools (Hampton, 1988; Kanu, 2002; Neegan, 2005). According to Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development Canada, the statistics on First Nation student graduation rates are among the lowest in the country during a time when Aboriginal youth represent the most rapid growth segment of the entire population of Canada; hence, the federal government self-declares their commitment to First Nation education based on their extensive consultations with Aboriginal leaders, educators and students who do not support the current educational system on reservation lands (Government of Canada, 2012).

The proposed *Bill on First Nations Education* comes on the heels of the *Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada* (TRC, 2012-13) that has heard the testimonies of the former students of the Residential Schools who experienced a violation of their human rights. It is estimated that the cost to the Canadian federal government and to the churches (including the Anglican, Catholic, Presbyterian and United Churches) involved in the Indian Residential School Settlement Agreement will be in the billions of dollars. It is significant to note that residential schools in Canada officially closed in the mid-1990s and enrolled an estimated 150,000 Aboriginal children during their existence (Niezen, 2013). In the years leading up to the TRC, the notion of residential school survivor came to the fore in Canada due in large part to organizations that organized and operationalized the work and causes of residential school survivors (Government of Canada, 2007).

This research discusses how both the proposed legislation and the TRC exist in contested spaces for First Nations people; specifically, how the legislation and the TRC are operationalized in officially sanctioned spaces defined by postcolonial authorities. The study first examines the responses of the regional Chiefs across Canada that criticizes how the Act will enable but not relinquish jurisdiction of First Nation control over education. The regional Chiefs object to the proposed legislation based on socio-political and socio-cultural terms. They take exception to the fact that the government positions itself in the role of enabler and therefore undermines the concept of full jurisdiction over education. Moreover, the Chiefs object to the government's narrow conceptualization of education defined in a K to 12 system of education and thereby ignoring the more holistic Aboriginal paradigms of lifelong learning. As for the funding that will be available to reservation schools, the Chiefs are critical of the lack of guarantee for further financial support to their schools in order to adequately and effectively implement the proposed reforms; this is particularly true in terms of the necessary funding to develop and deliver linguistic and cultural values into school programs (Beardy, 2013).

Second, an examination of the terms of Agreement of the TRC includes how the TRC is prevented from proceeding with formal hearings and legal processes based on the testimony of the former students (Law Commission of Canada, 2000; James, 2012; Niezen, 2013). In this way, the TRC has figuratively erased the identities of potential wrongdoers during the residential school era

as their names were not allowed to be documented on official record. Simultaneously, however, the TRC heard story after story of survivor's abusive and tormenting ordeals at the doorsteps of residential school classrooms and residences by priests, nuns and schoolmasters. The interest of the TRC was in the narratives of the victims (Arcand, 2012; Sinclair, 2012). Yet, the mandate of the TRC was significantly limited since it had insignificant judicial power.

Last, the research study points to the fact that the legislative proposal and the TRC will contribute to the crisis of confidence that First Nation people have historically experienced. For Aboriginal peoples in Canada, it has been a history of tense-relations in both government policies and practices. There is little confidence invested in post-colonial federal policy that is self-positioned as the caregiver who ambiguously *enables* First Nation control over education and adamantly assigns full responsibility for its success. The proposed legislation is couched in legalities and articulated in the sanctioned spaces of provisions, regulations and compliance. While there is the impression of control over education, the more serious implications of the differences between enable and responsibility are suspiciously absent especially when these differences become consequential. In a similar manner, the TRC is also bound by certain legalities as it involves confidentiality and restitution payments to residential school survivors. Yet, survivors cannot use the TRC as a mechanism to pursue formal hearings and public inquiries in the hopes of bringing the wrongdoers to justice. First Nation peoples do not take confidence in proposed legislations and truth commissions that serve to give the perception of responsibility on the part of the Canadian federal government. Instead, these legislative policies and practices of the TRC can be considered more a matter of pacifying Aboriginal interests rather than addressing the respective core issues of healing and self-determination.

References

- Arcand, E. (2012). *Welcome to the Territory and Opening Ceremonies*. Saskatchewan National Event. Saskatoon, Saskatchewan: Author.
- Beardy, S. (2013). *First Nation Education Update: Proposed First Nation Education Act*. Memorandum: Chiefs of Ontario.
- Government of Canada. (2013). Harper government continues consultations on a First Nations education legislative proposal. *Aboriginal Affairs and Northern Development Canada*. Ottawa, ON: Government of Canada.
- Government of Canada. (2007). *Indian Residential Schools Agreement, Schedule "n", Mandate for the Truth and Reconciliation Commission*. Ottawa, ON: Government of Canada.
- Hampton, E. (1988). Towards a redefinition of Indian education. In M. Battiste & J. Barman (Eds.), *First Nations education in Canada: The circle unfolds* (pp. 5-42). Vancouver, BC: UBC Press.
- James, M. (2012). A carnival of truth? Knowledge, ignorance, and the Canadian Truth and Reconciliation Commission. *International Journal of Transitional Justice*, 6, 182-204.
- Kanu, Y. (2002). In their own voices: First Nations students identify some cultural mediators of their learning in the formal school system. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 48(2), 98-119.
- Law Commission of Canada. (2000). *Restoring Dignity: Responding to Child Abuse in Canadian institutions*. Ottawa, ON: Minister of Public Works and Government Services.
- Neegan, E. (2005). Excuse me? Who are the first peoples of Canada? A historical analysis of Aboriginal education in Canada then and now. *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 9(1), 3-15.
- Niezen, R. (2013). *Truth and Indignation*. Toronto, ON: University of Toronto Press.
- Sinclair, M. (2012). *Welcome to the Territory and Opening Ceremonies*. Saskatchewan National Event. Saskatoon, Saskatchewan: Author.

MATERIAL DESIGN ON ENGLISH FOR CONVERSATION AT SAMUTSAKHON TECHNICAL COLLEGE

*Phattarin Munchoei
Samutsakhon Technical College*

*Asst.Prof. Jiraporn Intrasai, Ph.D.
King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, Bangkok Thailand*

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to design teaching materials and achievement tests for English for Conversation at Samutsakhon Technical College. The teaching materials involved 3 topics, namely shopping, direction and travelling and telephoning. Language functions and forms created by Van Ek & Trim (1990) were used as a guideline for material design. The achievement tests consist of 30 four-multiple-choice items. The additional 30 test items were constructed to ensure that after the validating processes, the total number of the quality test items was 30. The validating processes were carried out for both teaching materials and tests by 3 experts in the field of English teaching. Average mean (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (S.D.) were employed for the data analysis. The result showed that the quality level of the teaching materials was high with \bar{x} (4.03) and S.D. (0.63). Thirty-eight of 60 test items of the achievement tests were acceptable with the IOC in the range of 0.5 to 1.00. Twenty-two test items with the IOC of 0.33 were revised.

Keywords: Communicative approach, Material design, Achievement tests

1. Introduction

In Thailand, English is determined as a compulsory subject in the national curriculum. The 2002 the Curriculum for the Certificate of Vocational Education aims to produce and develop skillful workers who have the knowledge and vocational skills to allow to them experience, within their areas , morals, ethics, disciplines, personality, intelligence, and abilities suitable for careers in accordance with the needs of our labor market by using Thai, English and other languages in daily life and careers (Ministry of Education of Thailand, 2002). Although the Thai government has made great efforts to improve English skills in vocational and technical education, there is still a serious problem because of the lack of interest and poor basic principles of English within Thai vocational and technical students (Choosri & Intharaksa, 2011).

The researcher has taught English for conversation to the second - year automotive students. This course aims to enable the students to use the language for conversation in everyday life and career. The contents include greeting and introduction, asking and giving personal information, asking and giving permission, shopping, travelling and direction, telephoning and expressing an opinion. The researcher found that the lowest test scores in the topics related to shopping, travelling and direction and telephoning were only 2 marks. As the researcher has focused on the traditional approach in the English class, the students memorize dialogs, translate text and have writing practice. Accordingly, in the present study Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was implemented to develop technique and procedures for teaching the 3 topics.

A communicative approaches or Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) focuses on functions of language use, more authentic use of language and learning to communicate through interaction in the target language (Littlewood, 1981; Nunan, 1991; Harmer, 1991; Richards & Rogers, 2001; Richard, 2006). The principle of this method is to train students to use language forms appropriately in a variety of contexts and for variety of purposes. In – class activities involve students' role playing and group work, which are the best ways to integrate the learners' communicative ability to real life context, (Littlewood, 1981; Richards & Rogers, 2001; Richard, 2006; Dordi Nejad *et. al.* 2011). Van EK & Trim (1990) stated that a communicative approach aims to enable learners to use a foreign language for their own purposes. Their contribution was an analysis of the language functions that a language learner needs to understand and express in real situation. They proposed the language functions that could serve as a basis for communication in real-life situations for language teaching.

According to the above-mentioned matters, the purpose of the study was to design teaching materials and achievement tests for English for Conversation at Samutsakhon Technical College. Teaching materials were designed by following Littlewood's framework: structural activities, quasi-communication activities, functional communicative activities and social interaction activities. Language functions and forms created by Van Ek & Trim (1990) were also used as a guideline for material design.

2. Goal and Objectives

The purpose of the study was to design teaching materials and achievement tests for English for Conversation at Samutsakhon Technical College.

The objectives of this study were as follows:

1. To design teaching materials each of which is related to shopping, direction and travelling and telephoning.
2. To design achievement tests each of which is related to shopping, direction and travelling and telephoning.

3. Material design

Rahman (2014) stated that communicative approach towards language teaching has changed the conventional teacher centered perceptions and attitudes. It has placed the learner at the center of the language teaching process. The process includes teachers, methodology, curriculum, and teaching materials have to align to the need of the learners. It has been argued that teaching materials should motivate the learners by simulating their interest and should encourage them to further explore the potential for language learning capacities and should provide the teacher with scope to create meaning and engaging activities. In addition, Seven (2013) claimed that materials are some important instruments to make all lifelong work easier and effective. Materials used to support learning is also necessary to make students active and encourage them to participate in all classroom activities. Tomlinson (1998) pointed out that materials should provide learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes. In addition, Howard & Major (2005) presented some of the reasons why English language teachers produced teaching materials. They suggested factors that teacher should take into account when designing or adapting materials diverse learners, and presented a set of guidelines for designing effective materials for teaching and learning English. The most important factor to be considered is the learners. Materials should be contextualized to the experiences, realities and first language of the learners.

Littlewood's framework containing 4 activities: structural activities, quasi-communication activities, functional communicative activities and social interaction activities. The first type mainly concerns about structural activities. These are much like the grammar exercises in which the teacher teaches the students how to use grammatical rules in their communications. The second part is quasi-communication activities. This activity concerned with the links that the students have learnt in the structural activities. This activity aims to train learners in the 'part-skills' of communication: enabling them to acquire linguistic forms and relate them to communicative function. The third part is functional communicative activities, the main purpose of the activity is that the teacher structures the situation so that the learners have to overcome an information gap or solve a problem. The last part is social interaction activities. The main purpose of such activities is to give learners an opportunity to use the language in an appropriate social context, to create a variety of social situations and relationships. It also means that the activities proximate more closely to the kind of communication situation encountered outside the classroom. This activity include conversation, discussion sessions, dialogues and role-play, simulations, improvisations and debates.

Van EK & Trim (1990) stated that a communicative approach aims to enable learners to use a foreign language for their own purposes. Their contribution was an analysis of the language functions that a language learner needs to understand and express in real situation. They proposed the language functions that could serve as a basis for communication in real-life situations for language teaching.

4. Methods

4.1 Research Instruments

Research instruments consisted of teaching materials and achievement tests.

4.1.1 Teaching Materials

The course description was explored for the contents. In this study, teaching materials related to three topics, namely shopping, direction and travelling and telephoning were designed. Teaching materials were designed by following Littlewood's framework: structural activities, quasi-communication activities, functional communicative activities and social interaction activities. Language functions and forms created by Van Ek & Trim (1990) were also used. The content validity was evaluated by 3 experts in the field of English teaching with the use of a content evaluation form.

4.1.2 Achievement tests

The achievement tests consist of 30 four-multiple-choice items. The additional 30 test items were constructed to ensure that after the validating processes, the total number of the quality test items was 30. The validating process was carried out by the same 3 experts with the use of the Index of the Item – Objective Congruence (IOC).

4.2 Data Analysis

The data analyses were carried out in the study as follows:

4.2.1 Five-point Likert scale

The evaluation form was used as a measure of an expert's opinions on the quality level of the materials. The criteria are presented as follows:

| Likert Rating | Rating Criteria |
|---------------|-----------------|
| 5 | The highest |
| 4 | High |
| 3 | Moderate |
| 2 | Low |
| 1 | The lowest |

4.2.2 Average Mean (\bar{X})

The average mean was used to calculate the expert's opinions on the quality level of the materials. The criteria of the average mean (\bar{X}) are presented as follows :

| Mean (\bar{X}) | Level of Quality |
|--------------------|------------------|
| 4.50 - 5.00 | The highest |
| 3.50 - 4.49 | High |
| 2.50 - 3.49 | Moderate |
| 1.50- 2.49 | Low |
| 1.00- 1.49 | The lowest |

4.2.3 Standard deviation (S.D.)

The standard deviation was used to calculate the mean scores. The formula for the standard deviation is as follows:

$$S.D. = \sqrt{\sum_{n-1} x - \bar{x}}$$

Where

- S.D. = Standard deviation
- \sum = Sum of
- \bar{X} = Samples' scores
- \bar{X} = Mean
- n = Number of samples

4.2.4 Validity

The Index of the Item – Objective Congruence (IOC) was used to evaluate the congruence between the test items and the objectives. The criteria of the Index of the Item Objective Congruence (IOC) is interpreted as follows:

- + 1 means the question is congruent with the objectives
- 0 means the question is uncertain to be congruent with the objectives

- 1 means the question is not congruent with the objectives
 The questions that obtain the IOC between 0.5 – 1.0 were deemed acceptable.

5. Results and Discussions


The results and discussions of the study are presented into two parts according to the objectives as follows:


5.1 Teaching materials


The content of teaching materials presented into four main parts. The first part concerns about structural activities. This activity aims to prepare the learners with some of the skills required for communication. This part provided vocabulary items, conversation and language functions and forms, as shown in Figure 1.


VOCABULARY


A : Read the words and fill in each item.



 1. _____



 2. _____



 3. _____



 4. _____



 5. _____



 6. _____

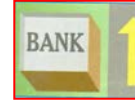

 7. _____


 8. _____


 9. _____


 10. _____


 11. _____



 12. _____

over
 past
 street
 bridge
 across
 straight
 junction
 turn left
 turn right
 traffic light
 intersection
 roundabout

CONVERSATION

B : Read and listen.

A: Excuse me, where is the cinema?
 B: It's at the Big C.
 A: Can you tell me the way to the Big C, please?
 B: Yes, go straight on this street. Go past the park.
 Then go over the bridge. Turn left and go along the street.
 The Big C is on the right. The cinema is above the supermarket.
 A: Thank you very much.
 B: It's a pleasure.



LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS & FORMS

C : Study the following table.

| Language Functions | Language Forms |
|-----------------------|---|
| Asking for directions | Where is the +place.....? Can you tell me the way to + ...place...please? How can I go to +place.....? |
| Giving directions | Go straight on this street. Go along at the end of the road. Go down Go up Go over the bridge. Go past the bank. |

Figure 1 Structural activities

In this activity, learners were divided into group of three or four. Each group looked at the pictures and completed the items. After the activity, each group presents more vocabulary used for direction and travelling. Next, learners were divided into pairs and have them present expressions used for direction and travelling in the conversation. After that, the teachers go through the language functions and forms by drawing a map on the board to show *near, next to, across from, behind, in front of, and between*. Then, the teacher points out that the students can ask for and give directions in these ways.

- Where is the _____?
- Can you tell me the way to _____?
- How can I go to _____?

The second part is quasi-communication activities. This activity concerned with the links that the students have learnt in the structural activities. This activity aims to train learners in the ‘part-skills’ of communication: enabling them to acquire linguistic forms and relate them to communicative function, as shown in Figure 2.

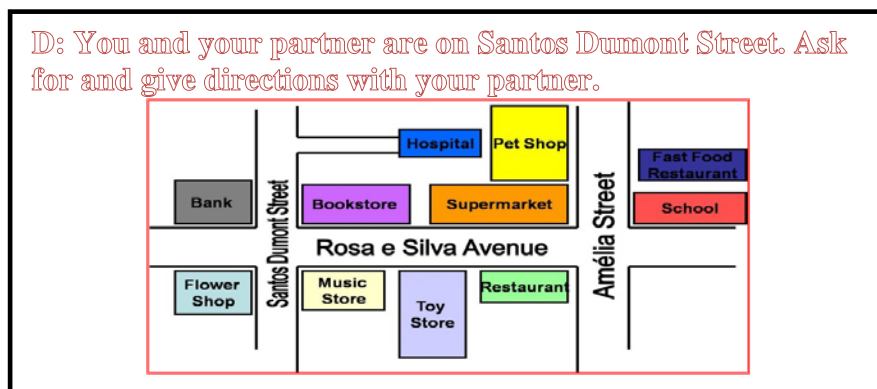


Figure 2 Quasi-communicative activities

The learners must distinguish between the forms which they have mastered as part of their linguistic competence, and the communicative functions that they perform. They practice the use of language functions and forms by question and answer activity. For example, the teacher asks questions, and the students make statements about facts which are already known:

Teacher : Where is the bookstore?

Student : It's opposite the music store.

Teacher : Where is the supermarket?

Student : It's next to the bookstore.

Then, divide the students into pairs and use the map to practice the prepositions

The third part is functional communicative activities, the main purpose of the activity is that the teacher structures the situation so that the learners have to overcome an information gap or solve a problem, as shown in Figure 3.

E : Pair Work

Directions: Student A and B have identical maps but different places. You will be A, and your partner will be B. Ask for and give directions with your partner.

Figure 3 Functional communicative activities

The teacher has designed the activity so as to provide an opportunity for learners to produce language that they had recently learnt. The learner should be able to use the language they know in order to get meaning as effectively as possible in concrete situation. For example, the students were divided in to pairs. Both of them have identical maps but different places. The students exchange their information by asking and giving directions with the language they learnt.

The fourth part is social interaction activities. This activity aims to give learners an opportunity to use the language in an appropriate social context, to create a variety of social situations and relationships through role-playing activities, as shown in Figure 4.

Role play card
Perform a role play with your partners based on following clues.

Student A
You are a tourist. You are in a van station. You would like to visit somewhere in Samusakhon.
- Ask for directions.

Student B
You are in a van station. A tourist want to find his way to somewhere in Samutsakhon.
- Give direction.

- go straight
- go past
- go over
- turn left
- turn right

- Use prepositions of place.

Figure 4 Social interaction activities

The learner becomes aware of the social meaning of language forms. They can be used language as an instrument for social intersection. This emphasis is on both the communicative effectiveness and social acceptability of the language used. For example, students practice a role play in pairs. One student is asking the information she/he needs to play the part of a tourist. The other needs to give information.

According to the result, Rahman (2014) explored the importance of language teaching materials and their relationship with learners where taught language is not their native language but is a second language. The use of authentic texts bring the learners and the knowledge together when they encounter the language used in real life situation. Cavalheiro (2013) introduced the central issue like language diversity in English Language Teaching (CLT), and the importance of adapting and creating teaching materials for classroom use. He pointed out that the use of authentic material is essential in the language learning process.

5.2 The quality level of the teaching materials

The teaching materials were evaluated by three experts in the field of English teaching with the use of the content evaluation form. The quality level of the teaching materials are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 The quality level of the teaching materials

| Evaluation List | Average | | |
|----------------------------|-----------|------|---------------|
| | \bar{x} | S.D. | Quality Level |
| Contents and Presentations | 4.00 | 0.57 | High |

| | | | |
|----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Illustrations and Language | 4.00 | 0.94 | High |
| Practices | 4.00 | 0.47 | High |
| Achievement tests | 4.13 | 0.53 | High |
| Overall Average | 4.03 | 0.63 | High |

Table 1 illustrates the quality level of the teaching materials. The overall average mean (\bar{x}) of 4.03 with the standard deviation (S.D.) of 0.63 represents a high level of the quality of the materials. Section 1 (Contents and Presentations), Section 2 (Illustrations and Language), Section 3 (Practices) and Section 4 (Achievement tests) are rated at a high level with the (\bar{x}) of 4.00 (S.D.=0.57), the (\bar{x}) of 4.00 (S.D.=0.94), the (\bar{x}) of 4.00 (S.D.=0.47) and the (\bar{x}) of 4.13 (S.D.=0.53), respectively.

5.3 The Index of the Item-Objective Congruence (IOC)

The Index of the Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) was calculated in order to evaluate the congruence between the questions and the objectives. The test items obtained the IOC between 0.5 – 1.0 are acceptable while the test items containing the IOC lower than 0.5 must be revised. The numbers of test item of each IOC levels are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 The Index of the Item-Objective Congruence (IOC)

| The Index of the Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) | The numbers of test item | | |
|--|--------------------------|------------------------------|------------------|
| | Shopping (20) | Direction ad travelling (20) | Telephoning (20) |
| 0.33 | 14 | 5 | 3 |
| 0.5 – 1.0 | 6 | 15 | 17 |

Table 2 illustrates the numbers of test item of each IOC levels. The results show that the IOC between 0.5 – 1.00 which is acceptable was found in 38 test items: 6 test items in Shopping, 15 in Direction and travelling and 17 in Telephoning. The IOC of 0.33 was found in 22 test items: 14 test items in Shopping, 5 in Direction and travelling and 3 in Telephoning. The test items containing the IOC of 0.33 were revised in accordance with the suggestion of the experts.

According to the results, the unacceptable items are classified into 4 groups are shown as follows:

First, the distractors should be changed to be more possible in 12 test items in shopping, 3 test items in direction and travelling, and 2 test items in telephoning.

Example

| |
|--|
| <p>At the shoes shop</p> <p>Assistant: Good morning. _____(1)_____</p> <p>Customer: Yes, _____(2)_____ a new pair of shoes.</p> <p>Assistant: _____(3)_____</p> <p>Customer: 37.</p> <p>Assistant: Just a moment, please. Here you are. _____(4)_____</p> <p>Customer: Certainly. _____(5)_____</p> <p>Assistant: They're 3,000 baht.</p> <p>Customer: They're very expensive. _____(6)_____</p> <p>Assistant: Sorry. _____(7)_____</p> <p>Customer: How about 2,000 baht?</p> <p>Assistant: Ok, _____(8)_____</p> <p>Customer: Woww...Thank you very much. I'll take them.</p> |
|--|

Item 5

1. How much is it?
2. ***How much do they cost?***
3. How many sizes are there?
4. How many jeans do you have?

According to the context, it was about shoes. It can be seen the distractor 4 was about jean. It was wrongly. The experts pointed out that, it should use the word 'shoes' instead of 'jean'.

The revised item 5 is shown as follows:

1. How much do you need?
2. ***How much do they cost?***
3. How many sizes are there?
4. How many shoes do you have?

Item 6

1. Can I try it on?
2. Can I help you?
3. Can you give me some money?
4. ***Can you give me a discount?***

According to the context, it was about shoes. It can be seen the distractor 1 was wrongly. The word 'it' is always used with singular noun. The experts pointed out that, it should use the word 'them' instead of 'it'.

1. Can I try them on?
2. Can you help you?
3. Can you give me some money?
4. ***Can you give me a discount?***

Second, the distractors tested only grammar, as found in the test items 2 and 4 of shopping.

Example

Item 2

1. I think
2. ***I'd like***
3. I'd rather
4. I prefer to

The experts pointed out that the distractors were not designed for communicative approach. The distractors 1, 3 and 4 tested only grammar. Hence, the distractors 1,3 and 4 were revised as follows:

1. I like
2. ***I'd like***
3. Please get
4. I have

Third, the distractors were incorrect as found in the test items 7 and 9 of direction and travelling.

Example

Item 2

1. **Go up**
2. Go inside
3. Go outside
4. Go across

It can be seen the distractors 2 and 3 were incorrect grammar. There were not 'go inside' and 'go outside'. Hence, the distractors 2 and 3 were revised as follows:

1. **go up**
2. go in
3. go out
4. go across

Fourth, the clue word in the context guide the correct answer was found in the test items 2 of direction and travelling.

Example

| | |
|----------|---|
| Student: | Excuse me. I think I'm lost. I'm looking for the school? |
| Jane: | It's on Red Street. |
| Student: | _____ (1) _____ |
| Jane: | _____ (2) _____ to the end of this street. You'll see the park. |
| | Then, _____ (3) _____ |

Item 2

1. Turn left
2. Turn right
3. Go across
4. **Go straight**

The clue word "to" in the context guide the correct answer. The experts suggested that the word 'to' in the context must be deleted. Therefore, the context and the distractor 4 were revised as follows:

| | |
|----------|--|
| Student: | Excuse me. I think I'm lost. I'm looking for the school? |
| Jane: | It's on Red Street. |
| Student: | _____ (1) _____ |
| Jane: | _____ (2) _____ the end of this street. |
| | You'll see the park. Then, _____ (3) _____ |

1. Turn left
2. Turn right
3. Go across
4. **Go straight to**

References

- Brown, H. 1994. **Teaching by Principles: An Interactive approach to language pedagogy**. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Carson, L & Tuner, C.R. 2003. Indexes of Item-Objective Congruence for multidimensional Items. *Journal of testing*. 3(2) : 163-171.
- Cavalheiro, L. 2013. Language and Teaching Materials in ELT : An EIL Approach. 71-84
- Choosri, C & Intharaksa, U. 2011. Relationship between Motivation and Students' English Learning Achievement: A study of the Second – year vocational certificate level Hatyai Technical College Students. *English Language Teaching*. [On-line]. Available : <http://www.thailist.com>.
- Dordi Nejad, F. et. al. (2011). Communicative curriculum perceived by Iranian language teacher. [On-line]. Available : <http://www.sciencedirect.com>.
- Ek, J. A & Trim, J. L. 1991. **Threshold Level 1990**. Strasbourg: Council of Europe Press.
- Harmer, J. 1998. **How to teach English**. Longman.
- Howard, J & Major, J. 2005. Guidelines for designing effective English language teaching materials. Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics Conference. [On-line]. Available : <http://www.paaljapan.org/resources/proceedings/PAAL9/pdf/Howard.pdf>
- Littlewood, W. 1981. **Communicative Language Teaching**. Cambridge university Press.
- Ministry of Education, Thailand. 2002. **Curriculum for Certificate of Vocational Education (2003 REVISED EDITION)**. [On-line]. Available : http://bsq.vec.go.th/course/Eng/certificate_eng.pdf
- Nunan, D. 1991. **Language teaching methodology**. Cambridge university Press.
- Richards, J. C. 2006. **Communicative Language Teaching Today**. London : Cambridge.
- Richards, J. C. & Rogers, T. 2001. **Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching**. (2nd ed.). Cambridge university Press.
- Rahman, R. 2014. A Case for Authentic Materials in Language. [On-line]. Available : http://www.qurtuba.edu.pk/thedialogue/The%20Dialogue/9_2/Dialogue_April_June2014_205-215.pdf
- Seven, A. M. 2013. Evaluation of language teaching materials according to English teacher's point of views. 5(5). 210 – 220.
- Tomlinson, B. 1998. **Materials Development in Language Teaching**. London : Cambridge.

Author Biography

Name Miss Phattarin Munchoei

Date of birth March 11, 1980

Place of birth Phitsanulok, Thailand

Education

Work experience 2008 Teacher at Samutsakhon Technical College

**Seeking of the Educational Present Condition and Empowerment
Measures of Workers in Korea Co-operatives**

Miran Bong*

Doctoral student, Program of Human Resource Development Policy
Sookmyung Women's University

Jihyun Shim

Assistant professor, Graduate school of HRD for women
Sookmyung Women's University

Youngmin Lee

Associate professor, Program of Human Resource Development Policy
Sookmyung Women's University

ABSTRACT

This study aims to analyze the educational present conditions of the Workers in Korea Co-operatives, and to suggest the activation measures of empowerment training. The education present condition in the Co-operatives of Social Enterprise Promotion Agency was analyzed on based on the Seven (7) kinds of Cooperative Education Policy Planning Contents of Ministry of Strategy and Finance, and accordingly, this paper was focused to suggest the empowerment activation measures of the workers in the Co-operatives as an alternatives with actual possibility. Based on the excellent cases in the Co-operative in 2014, the requirement analysis for the empowerment of the Co-operative, and the empowerment activation measures of workers in the current Co-operatives in Korea were suggested by specifically summarizing as follows: first, conducting of the customized education according to the type of Co-operative, second, training duty of all employees, third, operating of multifaceted and in-depth long-term curriculum, and fourth, the effective education promotion with various methods and contents configuration.

Key words: Co-operative, Co-operative education, education process of Co-operative, empowerment of Co-operative

I . Introduction

The Co-operatives have been already activated in various enterprises and business areas in worldwide (Song, J., 2013). The Co-operative is an alternative economic and social development model in the economic crisis situation, and as the interest about the Co-operative is recently increased because the start-up of small scale is possible in Korea (Park, H., 2013), the movement of privates that want to resolve their problems through the Co-operative is to be reflected (Park, J., Ju, S., 2014), and the Co-operative contributes to economic development by activating a dealing as the member-owned system method, furthermore, it has made the rapid quantitative growth in the offering dimension of a good job (Jang, J., 2012).

In particular, the Basic Law of Co-operative enforced in December 1, 2012 in Korea may be called innovative in the point that the legal basis for citizens to freely establish all types of Co-operatives in all areas, in addition to financial and insurance was established (Jang, J., 2012). Whereas the establishment of Co-operatives is suddenly increased in this situation, it is the actual state that the interest about various improvement plan and direction that can continuously grow and develop the Co-operative are lack (Park, H., 2013). The part on education of the Basic Law of Co-operative is defined in Article 7 (responsibilities of Co-operative), that is, it is described that Co-operative and Social Co-operative should conduct the activities, such as education, training and information offering in order to promote the rights and interests of members. In the 'Guidebook for Establishment and operation of Co-operative' published by the Ministry of Strategy and Finance, it is described that 'the Co-operatives provide education and training so that members, elected executives, managers, and employees can effectively contribute to the development of Co-operative', and it explains the necessity called, 'education and training are the basis of the competitiveness of Co-operative. The importance and necessity for the education of Co-operative are emphasized, but currently, the concern for the empowerment education study of Korea Co-operative is almost not in this field. In this study, the author has investigated the literature on existing Co-operative for the analysis of empowerment education of overall workers in Co-operative, and collected the data on the current curriculum at related-website (Social Enterprise Promotion Agency and COOP Co-operative websites, etc.), and analyzed the Co-operative customized academic education curriculum of the Social Enterprise Promotion Agency as a Co-operative empowerment education process, and intends to suggest the activation plan of the Co-operative education in the future by grasping the Co-operative empowerment contents among the Co-operative excellent cases in 2014.

II. Concept and Present Conditions of Co-operative

1. Concept of Co-operative

The Co-operative is basically 'Organization to operate business' (Park Jaewan, 2013). However, because the objectives and operation method is different with general for-profit business organization, the definition of Co-operative has been also changed in various.

International Co-operative Alliance (ICA, 1995) defines that 'Co-operative is a voluntary association of the voluntarily organized people to resolve the common economic, social and cultural needs and desires through the company that is jointly owned and democratically managed', and US Department of Agriculture (USDA) defines as the Co-operative is owned and controlled by users, and is the Business that distribute the profit based on the use scale (Ministry of Strategy and Finance, 2013). Article 2 of Basic Law of Co-operative in Korea defines that 'Co-operative is a business organization which improves the rights and profits of members and contributes to the community by cooperatively leading the purchase, production, sales and providing of goods or services (Ministry of Government Legislation, 2012). The concept of Co-operative in accordance with the stream of times and the process of development is based on the principle that the operation is voluntary and autonomous, democratic and that direction is free, unlike general for-profit business organization.

The Co-operative can be divided into about seven types by meeting to three criteria, such as the main purpose of Co-operative, the cooperator's participation motive, and the major business of Co-operative for cooperators. Seven types divided by these criteria is as follows:

<Table 1> Type of Co-operatives

| Main purpose | Participation motive | Character of business | Type of Co-operative | Features |
|---|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|--|
| Necessity sufficiency of members (Egoistic motives) | Living · Consumption | Purchasing agents | Purchasing Co-operative | Co-operative aiming at the joint purchasing of the goods needed by the members |
| | | Sharing of services and assets | Utilizing Co-operative | Co-operative aiming at jointly utilizing the assets or services jointly built by the members |
| | Business · Management | Job offering | Workers' Co-operative | Co-operative that more than two-thirds of the members are the staff and more than two-thirds of the total staff are members |
| | | Joint work agent | Business operators' Co-operative | Co-operative aiming at the healthy development of ooo business |
| | Cross-providing · Cross-utilizing | | Multi-stakeholders' Co-operative | Co-operative that more than two types of cooperators gathered for the purpose of the management improvement and the improvement of living of the cooperators |
| Realization of Social Objectives (Altruistic motives) | - | | Social Co-operative | Co-operatives which are not for-profit purpose |
| | Health and Medical Treatment | | Medical Social Co-operative | Medical Purpose, Social Co-operative |

2. Development Process and Present Status of Korea Co-operative

1) Development Process of Korea Co-operative

The community organizations such as 'Dure' or 'Gye' have been already organized, before the concept of Co-operative has been introduced in Korea, but the Co-operative was appeared again in 1960s due to the repression of the Japanese Government General of Korea in Japanese colonial era. In the case of the Co-operative after Korea's independence, the producer's Co-operatives such as the agricultural cooperative and the fisheries cooperative union by the government-initiated operation in step with the industrialization have been mainly grown, but in 1980s, the consumer Co-operative was emerged, and also in 1990s, the worker's cooperative movement was appeared. The fisheries cooperative and the credit union have been received the management of the financial institution caused by the management slump due to IMF, but now they are pursuing their own business activities in management stabilization, and the Agricultural Co-operative steadily received the needs of 'democratization' has been pursued the 3-4 times revisions of the Agricultural Cooperative Law, and the self-reform. Since the Basic Law of Co-operative was enforced in

December 1, 2012, many Co-operatives were started to be organized in various industrial fields, except for the finance and the insurance, and currently about 6000 accredited Co-operatives are in activity.

2) Present Condition of Korea Co-operative

Currently, 6,501 Co-operatives have been established by various subjects in various industries, except for the finances and the insurances in Korea within 3 years since the Basic Law of Co-operative has been enforced from December 1, 2012, and 3,153 Co-operatives among them were established from January 2014 to January 2015, and the national distribution status is 1,722 Co-op in Seoul, 973 Co-op in Gyeonggi-do, 378 Co-op in Jeollabuk-do, and remainder co-ops are distributed in other 14 cities.

<Table 2> Present Condition by Type of Korea Co-operative (as of January 2015) (Unit : piece, %)

| Total | Business operator Co-operative | Workers' Co-operative | Consumer Co-operative | Multiple-stakeholders' Co-operative | General Cooperative Association | Social Co-operative | Social Cooperative Association |
|----------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------|
| 6,501 (100) | 4,919 (75.67) | 263 (4.05) | 194 (2.98) | 851 (13.09) | 33 (0.51) | 239 (3.68) | 2 (0.03) |

※ Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, <http://www.coop.go.kr> Re-edited Data

If classifying the co-operatives by industry, the wholesale and the retail trade are the most much as 1,722 co-op (26.5%), and the education and the services are 796 co-op (12.2%), and next, the agriculture, fisheries and forestry are 11.4%, and in addition to that, there are various co-operatives, such as the manufacturing industry, arts, sports and recreation-related services, association and organizations repairs and other personal services, and construction.

III. Co-operative Education Status and Needs Analysis

In order to investigate the empowerment curriculum of Co-operative workers, the author has analyzed 2014 Co-operative customized academic education curriculum of the Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, and intended to derive the activation plan of empowerment education of Co-operative workers in the future based on the quotation of the education-related cases posted in 2014 Co-operative Excellent Casebook.

1. Co-operative Empowerment Education Status

In March 2014, the Ministry of Strategy and Finance has announced the education status analysis plan to support the construction of the healthy co-operative ecosystems such as the specialized expert consultant in Co-operative, and the detailed contents of the plan can be summarized in seven (7) provisions as shown in Table 3. As a result classifying by the region and the times of education for the Co-operative customized academic education status (2014) of the Social Enterprise Promotion Agency by focusing on the detailed contents of 2014 Co-operative Promotion Plan of Ministry of Strategy and Finance, the basic education for a business start-up, and the internal empowerment education are steadily ongoing, but the specialist education has stayed in temporarily event which the government is a sponsor. Because On-line Educations of all 20 lessons are mere guidance of about 1 minute, the educations are ineffective. Therefore, the development of specific educational contents is necessary. The education of the local governments or the intermediate support groups have not carried out. The education for the person in concerned the Co-operative by the government and the local government is concentrated on the article ①②③⑤, so the empowerment education and the experts training through the detailed education by each field is

still incomplete, and also the way leading to the experts training by a field can be reviewed. The education that the co-operative establishment seekers are the target, by the intermediate support organization by a region is corresponded to only the article ① ②, but it is not corresponded to the experts training and the internal empowerment education. For the professional manpower training in the article ⑦, currently, the Master's and Doctorate course of Sungkonghoe University, and the Master's course of Hanshin University have been established, but there is no course for the research manpower as a future expert in the Co-operative customized academic education plan of the Social Enterprise Promotion Agency.

<Table 3> Co-operative Empowerment Education Status (2014)

| Co-operative Empowerment Education Policy Plan (Ministry of Strategy and Finance, 2014) | Education Status for Person Concerned in Cooperative by Government and Local Government (2014) | | Education Status for Co-operative Establishment Seekers of Intermediate Support Organization by Region (2014) | |
|--|--|------------------------------|---|-------------------------------|
| | Region | No. (times) | Region | No. (times) |
| ① Substantiality of Basic education of Co-operative by preparing the customized education process subdivided by the business start-up and the employee of Co-operative | Government | Twice a year | Seoul | Twice a month |
| | Seoul-Gyeonggi | Once a month (Feb.- Dec.) | Gyeonggi-do (Incheon) | Once a month |
| | Chungcheong-do region | None | Chungcheong region | Once a month |
| | Jeolla-do region | Twice a year | Jeolla-do region | Once a month |
| | Gyeongsang-do region | Once a month (Mar.- Dec.) | Gyeongsang-do region | Once a month (Touring region) |
| | Gangwon-do | None | Gangwon-do | Once a month (Touring region) |
| | Jeju-do | Once a year | Jeju-do | Once a month |
| ② Steadily management of Education for Establishment Seeker enforced by Support Organization by Region, and Improvement of Educational Quality through Standard Teaching Materials | Government | None | Seoul | Twice a month |
| | Seoul-Gyeonggi-do | Once a month | Gyeonggi-do (Incheon) | Once a month |
| | Chungcheong-do region | None | Chungcheong-do region | Once a month |
| | Jeolla-do region | Once a month | Jeolla-do region | Once a month |
| | Gyeongsang-do region | Twice a month | Gyeongsang-do region | Once a month (Touring region) |
| | Gangwon-do | None | Gangwon-do | Once a month (Touring region) |
| | Jeju-do | Once a year | Jeju-do | Once a month |
| ③ Enhancement of the Understanding for Co-operative Principle targeting Existing Co-operative, and Opening of Specialized Education Curriculum by Region for Improvement of Management Capacity, including Organization management, personnel and accounting | Government | Frequently | Seoul | |
| | Seoul-Gyeonggi-do | Frequently (Mar. - Dec.) | Gyeonggi-do (Incheon) | |
| | Chungcheong-do region | Once a month (within period) | Chungcheong-do region | |
| | Jeolla-do region | Once a month (within period) | Jeolla-do region | |
| | Gyeongsang-do region | None | Gyeongsang-do region | |
| | Gangwon-do | None | Gangwon-do | |
| | Jeju-do | Once a year | Jeju-do | |
| ④ Providing the constant | Government | Frequently (Apr. - Nov.) | Seoul | |

| | | | | |
|---|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| consultation for Problems in Co-operative operation by selecting the Specialized organization by Field (Personnel, Labor, Accounting, Tax and Judicial affairs) | Seoul-Gyeonggi-do | None | Gyeonggi-do (Incheon) | |
| | Chungcheong-do region | None | Chungcheong-do region | |
| | Jeolla-do region | None | Jeolla-do region | |
| | Gyeongsang-do region | Frequently (Apr. - Nov.) | Gyeongsang-do region | |
| | Gangwon-do | None | Gangwon-do | |
| | Jeju-do | None | Jeju-do | |
| ⑤ Providing the Customized-Coach to strengthen the management capacity of the co-operative that has the difficulties in management after establishing a Co-operative | Government | Frequently (May - Oct.) | Seoul | |
| | Seoul-Gyeonggi-do | Frequently (Mar. - Dec.) | Gyeonggi-do (Incheon) | |
| | Chungcheong-do region | Once a year | Chungcheong-do region | |
| | Jeolla-do region | None | Jeolla-do region | |
| | Gyeongsang-do region | Frequently (Apr. - Nov.) | Gyeongsang-do region | |
| | Gangwon-do | None | Gangwon-do | |
| ⑥ Preparing the Cyber Curriculum to meet the demands of hard students to participate in the off-line education | Government | Co-operative Home Page on Education | Seoul | Co-operative Home Page on Education |
| | Seoul-Gyeonggi-do | | Gyeonggi-do (Incheon) | |
| | Chungcheong-do region | | Chungcheong-do region | |
| | Jeolla-do region | | Jeolla-do region | |
| | Gyeongsang-do region | | Gyeongsang-do region | |
| | Gangwon-do | | Gangwon-do | |
| ⑦ Training of the future experts who will participate in Co-operative, including Co-operative-related consulting specialists and the research manpower needed in University and Graduate school | Government | Once a year | Seoul | |
| | Seoul-Gyeonggi-do | None | Gyeonggi-do (Incheon) | |
| | Chungcheong-do region | None | Chungcheong-do region | |
| | Jeolla-do region | None | Jeolla-do region | |
| | Gyeongsang-do region | None | Gyeongsang-do region | |
| | Gangwon-do | None | Gangwon-do | |
| Jeju-do | None | Jeju-do | | |

※ Rearranging of Co-operative Customized Academic Education Plan (2014)

2. Co-operative Empowerment Education Needs Analysis

In this study, the author intends to investigate the activation plan of the Co-operative education by analyzing based on the worker's empowerment and the member's interview cases among the contents of 2014 Co-operative excellent casebook.

1) Conducting Customized Education according to Type

Because the education on the establishment and the initial period of the Co-operative were mainly conducted, the education about the Co-operative that has operated more than one year is necessary.

In addition, the customized education conducted by grasping the needs depending on the type of Co-operative is required.

"Co-operative-related education has been executed a lot, but the contents that we want are not so much. It is of help to the persons who are preparing a Co-operative, but the contents being of help to the persons who now are operating the Co-operative are not particularly exist. As you know, there are many types of Co-operatives. It means that there are various Co-operatives such as consumer's cooperative, and the Co-operatives for business operator and joint purchase, but the education that can meet the characteristics must be operated.", said a member Gang Seokjin in Goyangsi Computer Sales Cooperative.

2) Obligation of Education of all Employees

Because the experienced man related to the understanding and management of Co-operative among the founders of Co-operative is very small, the completion of education of all employees in the early period of the Co-operative establishment should be mandatory.

"At first, it's true that the degree of understanding for the Limited Company and the Co-operative was different and lack. So, the entire directors have almost participated in the education of the Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency or the intermediate support organization. Currently, the professionalism of the management of Co-operative and the pest control has been increased through the division of works (Mechanical Equipment/ Education/ Administration/ Public Relations / Sales skills) of each director.", said the Chief director Lee Ilhwan of Ulsan Pest Control Cooperation Association.

"Anyone can not be a member when he wants to be union member, whether he is reasonable or not, as a member after participating in the training program, is decided by reviewers.", said the Chief Director Jo Hana of the Fashion Design Co-operative.

3) Multifaceted and in-depth Long-term Curriculum Operation

Because the education of Co-operative is only the education of initial establishment time, the education should be steadily made. The workers' education according to the education before establishment such as the understanding, mind and establishment method of Co-operative, and the growth of Co-operative such as the accounting, tax law, personnel management, marketing, revenue model of stabilization period, leadership, communication technique, and development direction of initial period after establishment, should be steadily made.

"If the Co-operative goes well and the members are well, the members should be constantly received the Co-operative education. If you feel the fact that it can be a source of Co-operative, I think that it would be really great power.", said the Secretary-general Jang Hun of Korea Seongsudong Handmade Shoes Co-operative.

"I hope that the member's education would be continued as it is now.", said the Executive director of Jinju *Teotbat*, Jinju *uri meokgeori* (our food) Co-operative.

4) Effective Educational Public Relations by Various Method and Configurations

In order to activate the Co-operative education, the business and education of the Social Enterprise Promotion Agency and the support Organization should be promoted and widely informed so that the members can participate in the education. The Co-operative education should be configured in various method and contents.

"We try to find the education method that members want to participate and are beneficial to the members and the understanding and meaning for Co-operative are included in it. We intend to variously approach to the type of education that is also not a one-way lecture but a debate or forum type.", said the executive director of Suncheon Media Co-operative.

3. Co-operative Empowerment Activation Plan

In 2014 detailed plan of Co-operative, the training of professional manpower that the special consulting is possible, is emphasized, and the training education of the cooperative expert is

necessary in order to maximize the results that utilize the infrastructure to be built. Currently the Co-operative education places emphasis on the internal empowerment and its objects are reserve-founders or the executives and staffs who are managing the co-operatives now, but the active Co-operative consulting should be also able to make through the plan that intends to educate the experts among the education objects expanded to outside. In addition, the empowerment of Co-operative should be conducted in the process that the continuous supply and education are made by expanding from Social policy field to the lifelong education field.

V. Conclusions

1. Summary and Conclusions

In Korea, currently about 6,500 Co-operatives have been established since the Basic Law of Cooperative has been enforced in 2012, and the Co-operative education that is specified and emphasized in the Basic Law, International Co-operative Alliance (ICA), and Ministry of Strategy and Finance has been not supported, and as a result, as it appears as various management difficulty contrasting to the quantitative growth of the Co-operative, this Co-operative field is realized the educational necessity.

The Co-operative empowerment education development model and the Co-operative empowerment activation plan based on 2014 Co-operative excellent cases were suggested as follows:

- 1) Conducting Customized Education according to the Type of Co-operative
- 2) Obligation of Education of all Employees
- 3) Multifaceted and in-depth Long-term Curriculum Operation
- 4) Effective Educational Public Relations
by Various Method and Contents Configurations.

The Co-operative model is the business model that gets attention in Korea as well as around world, and also many success cases demonstrate it. However, the empowerment through the Co-operative education with internal stability is essential for the positive development of business of Co-operative, and it will have a positive impact on various aspects of whole society, not the activity of only simple cooperative.

2. Implications

First, the Co-operative Association by medium and small region forms the close relation of cooperation with the local government, and the customized education that meets to the characteristics of each region should be carried out.

Second, the external education of Co-operative should be mandatory.

Third, the education related to general operation (common respects) of Co-operative can be conducted by on-line through the national site (www.coop.go.kr), and the complement of the system for them is necessary.

3. Research Limit and Comment

This study is to investigate the current Korean Co-operative Empowerment Education Status through the Co-operative Academic Curriculum of the Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, and merely to state the case analysis on the education among the contents of 2014 Co-operative Empowerment Excellent Casebook, and it should note that it is not a Needs Investigation Case for the empowerment education of Co-operative. The author hopes that follow-up studies for the overall empowerment education about the Co-operative workers will be continued. If the follow-up study is consistently succeeded, it would be helpful in the qualitatively growth along with the quantitative growth of Korean Co-operative.

References

- Cho, E. (2009). *Mondeuragon examples of cooperative complexes for job creation*. Seoul: KRIVET
- Choi, M. (2014). *Cooperative role of local government for the union activation and public-private cooperation scheme discussed statement*. 2014 Cooperative Week events. Effectively forum cooperatives: Fourth-order open seminar forum book.
- Cooperatives Basic Law Enforcement Ordinance, Ministry of Strategy and Finance (2014)
- Jang, J., Kim, G. & Kim, Y. (2011). *The possibility of cooperation with the development direction and social enterprise in Korea cooperative sector*. Seoul: Work Together Foundation
- Jang, J. (2014). *Expectations and the need for training of cooperative professionals*. Paper presented at the 2014 Cooperative policy debate. Seoul, Korea
- Kang, S. & Kim, D. (2014). A study on the development of society Entrepreneurship education development program. *Social enterprise and policy studies*. 3(2), 1-37
- Kim, D. & Kim, Y. (2011). A Study on General Course in Social Entrepreneur Academy. *Humanities studies*. 30, 334-358
- Kim, H. (2010). A Comparative Review of Curriculum and Co-Curricular Activities of Social Entrepreneurship at Anglo-American Universities. *e-business studies*. 11(20.3), 495-517
- Kim, H. (2011). Research of Improving Training Courses for Social Entrepreneur Academy: Focusing Analysis of AHP. *Public policy review*. 25(1), 49-74
- Kim, J. (2014). *Challenges of direction and local Korean social economic policy*. Paper presented at the 2014 Cooperative Week events of effectively forum cooperatives: Fourth-order open seminar. Seoul, Korea
- Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency (2014). *Utilizing cooperative policy manual*. Seoul: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency
- Ministry of Strategy and Finance & Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency (2014). *Cooperative Casebook 2014: We are a cooperative*. Seoul: Ministry of Strategy and Finance & Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency
- Ministry of Strategy and Finance (2013). *Establishment of cooperative management guide: Creating beautiful cooperatives*. Seoul: Ministry of Strategy and Finance
- Ministry of Strategy and Finance (2013). *Utilizing cooperative work and welfare improvement final report*. Seoul: Work Together Foundation
- Moon, B. (2014). *Cooperative professional manpower discussion on how article*. Seoul: 2014 Cooperative policy debate
- Moon, S. (2014). *The role of local government for the cooperative activation*, Paper presented at the 2014 Cooperative Week events of effectively forum cooperatives: Fourth-order open seminar, Seoul, Korea
- Pack, H. (2013). *A study of current situation and improvement of county cooperative - Focusing on with the law and institutional issues*(Masters dissertation). Korea University, Seoul, Korea.
- Pack, J. (2014). *Review of domestic and overseas cases of school cooperatives*. Seoul: Korea Cooperative Institute

**Study on Solution of Manpower Supply and Demand Mismatch Problem
in Youth Labor Market, and on Revitalizing Measures of Internship Program
to Expand Youth Work Experience**

Hyewon Kim*

Doctoral student, Program of Human Resource Development Policy
Sookmyung Women's University

Sungeun Cho

Master student, Program of Human Resource Development Policy
Sookmyung Women's University

Youngmin Lee

Associate professor, Program of Human Resource Development Policy
Sookmyung Women's University

Jihyun Shim

Assistant professor, Graduate school of HRD for women
Sookmyung Women's University

Abstract

The present Government chose job creation for youth as one of its major policies. In spite of gradual improvement in the labor environment, the unemployment rate of the youth, whose shoulders the future of Korea depends on, is the highest since the change of the statistical calculation standard in 1999, and the employment rate also is on a steady decrease. This ought to be considered a national issue, no longer a problem of the youth on an individual level. To solve this problem, the Korean Government is implementing various policies to expand the work experience of youth for the purpose of creating jobs for them. Internship programs for youth currently operated by various governmental branches, local administrations and public institutions are significant in their efforts in expanding work experience and employment opportunities of the youth on a national level. In this study, the projects related to the work experience of youth being run by state and public institutions were divided into central governmental agencies, public institutions and local administrations to examine the status and characteristics of each project, and the effects and improvement measures of the youth internship system were identified. Through this study, we intend to suggest a basis for establishing a common criteria of all job experience related projects for youth. In addition, by improving the youth internship system in reflection of the current issues which are suggested here, we expect this study to be a contribution to the job experience and employment support of young jobseekers.

Keywords: youth employment policy, job experience, youth intern

I. Introduction

Job creation for youth has become the most important policy of the present Government. In spite of gradual improvement in the labor market owing to governmental efforts, the issues of youth unemployment and resolution of employment difficulty are still in need of improvement and are becoming serious social problems. According to the 2014 Employment Trend of Korea National Statistical Office, the overall unemployment rate is gradually improving while the unemployment rate of the youth is continually on the rise. The gap is getting bigger and bigger with no prospect of narrowing. Overall employment rate also is generally on the rise, and yet the rate of youth is continually dropping, making Korea the only state on a 40% range in the youth employment rate among OECD member nations (OECD, 2014). Thus, youth employment not only is decreasing in numbers but also posing a problem in a qualitative aspect. One out of five youths currently employed is holding a non-regular position, and the number of youth who have been employed less than a year in their current workplace (including their own start-ups) almost doubled in the last 6 years; and the gap in wages and work conditions between regular and non-regular workers is increasing (Economically Active Population Survey of Korea National Statistical Office, Additional Survey on Younger Generation. 2014). Therefore, it has become more difficult for the youth to get good jobs.

In this regard, the Government implemented various policies to resolve the youth employment problem by offering them work experience opportunities, which achieved the expected result. Since its inauguration, the present Government, in consideration of the essentials in youth employment issue, has been establishing and promoting the measures tailored for the solution of mismatch between supply and demand, and for the early entry into the labor market; and has been introducing and running a variety of internship programs such as youth employment internship, public institution youth internship, youth job-creation internship, age 50+ internship, senior internship, etc. in order to achieve a 70% employment rate. The youth internship is evaluated as enhancing work experience and employment probability of the younger generation, and contributing toward the job creation and solution of manpower shortage of medium and small businesses. Actually, over 30,000 people per year from 2009 to 2014 found jobs, and more than 40,000 in 2013, through the youth internship program, which contributed significantly to raising the youth employment rate (Shin Hyuk-joon. 2014). However, in spite of implementing various job policies for youth, it is evaluated that those policies could not play a significant role in expanding work experience of good quality, even though they had some effects in improving the employment index because many of those policies were performance-based, with a focus on quantitative expansion in the short term. The youth, who are the subjects of the youth employment issue, have doubts about the effectiveness of such policies, and questions are being asked whether schools are equipped properly with various systems needed for expanding work experience (Park Soo-myung, 2013).

Being aware of the situation, this study, for the purpose of expanding the work experience of the younger generation and employment probability, intends to pursue the effectiveness and improvement of the internship system, by examining the overall condition and characteristics of the youth internship system. In this regard, we studied related data and examined various programs and job experience related activities being run on a governmental level, such as various governmental branches and local administrations, through case studies of each project of governmental branches. Besides, even though the term 'youth' might be defined differently according to a scholar or individual with an academic background, in this study, it will be defined as a population of 15-29 years olds, following the definition of the Youth Employment Promotion Law.

This study, by examining the status and characteristics of a wide variety of governmental projects to promote job skills and related work experience of the youth, is expected to contribute, first, to the job experience and employment support of the youth; second, to the prevention of waste in the use of the governmental budget by expanding classification standards of businesses and managing overlapping businesses under an integrated system; third, to the provision of a legal and systematic solution in respect to the related subjects such as students, universities and business entities. It also is our wish that, through

analyzing the effects of current projects and systems and probable improvement points, and through complementing the shortcomings, this study would contribute to the revitalization of youth employment.

II. Status of Youth Internship Related Projects

Work experience related projects for youth are carried out by various organizations like governmental branches, public institutions, local administrations, business entities and universities etc. In this study, work experience related projects for youth run by governmental and public organizations will be divided into three categories-central governmental branches, public institutions and local administrations-for a close look at the characteristics of each.

1. Central Governmental Branches

Work experience related projects by central governmental branches are run in the forms of internships and job experience programs, in relation to the characteristics of each branch and its tasks.

<Table> Work experience related projects run by central governmental branches

| Operative branches | Project Name |
|--|--|
| Ministry of Employment and Labor | Youth Program for Business Experience, Medium to Small Business Youth Internship, Job-creation Internship, Overseas Business Internship, Work and study Side-by-Side |
| Ministry of Strategy and Finance | Public Institution Probationary Internship, EDCF Overseas Service Internship |
| Ministry of Science, ICT and Future Planning | Advanced Training Project in Science and Technology, ICT School-credit Earning Internship Support Project |
| Ministry of Health and Welfare | Administrative Internship |
| Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism | Physical Education Field Internship Support Industry |
| Ministry of Education | Global Field Trip Program, Korean-American College Student Study Work Program(WEST), High School Student Career Camp, Work-field Experience |
| Ministry of Foreign Affairs | ODA Youth Internship, Internship Stationed at Overseas Organization |
| Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport | Aviation Internship |
| Rural Development Administration | Science and Technology Students Internship, Global Fostering of Agricultural Students |
| Korea Forest Service | Overseas Forest Internship Support |
| Small and Medium Business Administration | Business Start-up Internship |
| Arts Council Korea | Cultural and Artistic Institution Training Member Support |

The projects of central governmental branches are run in accordance with their organizational characteristics, which serves as an advantage, because it presents the opportunities of various and proper work experience to the youth in the fields where such opportunities may easily be missed from a bigger perspective of youth work experience, job expansion, etc. Actually, work experience support systems are utilized by each branch in the fields like culture and art, agriculture, physical education and aviation etc., which are considered to be in need of opportunities tailored to the youth's major and career advancement.

2. Local Administrations

Work experience related projects by local administrations are mostly run in the form of an internship in which the youth gain experience at reputable medium and small businesses in the region. Such a system can be a great help to local businesses located outside of the metropolitan areas in solving the problem of chronic shortages of manpower, considering Korea's phenomenon of industrial and population concentration in those areas. In addition, by providing information to the locals concerning reputable local businesses, the drain of local work force can be prevented, contributing to the solution of the mismatch problem between local businesses and jobseekers.

3. Public Institutions

Public institutions are offering the youth opportunities to experience a job in the form of an 'internship system' with a contract period of 5-12 months. In order to provide the younger generation with opportunities to secure jobs and improve employment probability, government-led projects have been in operation since 2008, and about 16,000 youth have been offered internship opportunities by as many as 295 public institutions in 2013 alone.

Responding to a criticism that a youth internship offered by public institutions might just end up being a simple long-term work experience, a probationary internship which considers a youth internship as a step in the hiring process, has been adopted since 2014. Accordingly, efforts are made by public institutions to expand employment opportunities of the youth directly, by allotting 20% of total hires to the youth who completed the internship. Youth internship programs of public institutions, which have been focusing on the unemployed among youth, are now in the trend of offering expanded opportunities to a variety of people by adopting an experimental internship system for students.

III. Effects and Improvement Measures of Youth Internship Related Systems

1. Effects of Youth Internship System

Effects of the youth internship system manifest differently on each participating entity. When the entities, which are effected by the youth internship system, are divided into three (students, businesses and universities), the effects on each entity are as follows.

1) Students

The youth internship system offers students, first, an opportunity of on-the-spot verification of what they learned at school (Hurst & Good, 2010). By means of on-the-spot verification, students can review their learning and enter the labor market by supplementing what they lack. Second, the youth internship system assists students in setting a clear goal concerning their profession, and enables them to adjust quickly to working life after graduation (Divine et al., 2007). Internship experience enables students to see the profession and work which they had in their mind, realistically, thus influencing significantly on their future career and in goal setting. Internship experience, by enhancing the ability to adapt to a life as a member of an organization, can also have a positive influence on the youth in adjusting to working life following the internship. Third, the students with internship experience, equipped with professional knowledge, communication skills,

problem-solving capability etc., have a competitive edge when they enter the labor market over those with no such experience (Kim Hyang-ah, 2013). If the student with an internship experience were able to contribute to the improvement of an organization, such ability would be considered a favorable factor when the person enters a labor market, thus, internship experience give the student a competitive edge over others in the labor market.

2) Business entities

Business entities can gain positive effects of securing a superior workforce first by means of “verify-first-and-hire-later” through the internship system (Lee Jong-goo, 2008). Particularly, local businesses or medium and small businesses which are located outside of the metropolitan areas and suffering from a chronic shortage of workforce, can not only gain effects of securing a superior workforce first but also save costs during hiring procedures, through the internship system. Second, if the requests of business entities are fully reflected on the school curriculum through the internship, the schools can effectively cultivate work forces equipped with the necessary quality. Such process will have a beneficial effect on the school, and as a result, on business entities too. Businesses shall choose among those who have completed necessary training as their interns, and this practice would lead to the reduction of educational expenses on a business entity’s level.

3) Universities

Universities, through the internship system, first, can get opportunities to have the effects of education verified at a job site. In addition to such verification, the result of verification can be used as an important data when trying to improve a curriculum that will be useful at a job site. Besides, inadequacy in training can be supplemented with reflecting opinions coming from a job site, and personal, physical, and informational resources which are in short supply at a school can be supplied (Kim, Hyang-ah, 2013).

2. Improvement Measures of Youth Internship System

The youth internship system run by various governmental branches, local administrations and public institutions, is significant for its efforts to enhance the work experience and employment opportunity of youth on a national level. However, it is necessary to develop the youth internship system into a more effective one, by reflecting current issues.

First, it is necessary to set a time period realistically for the youth internship. Current internship programs last 4 months up to 12 months. If the youth internship results in hiring, there is an advantage that internship time can be counted as actual work time. Conversion rate from youth internship to permanent position in public institutions is close to the government target of 20%, however, since there exists no specific target concerning youth internship programs under central governmental branches and local administrations, youth internship under those organizations tend to end up with just gaining an internship experience. In such occasions, a long internship term becomes a risk for them to bear in order to get into the labor market (Ministry of Employment and Labor, 2013). Therefore, the youth internship time period ought to be determined on a practical level.

Second, internship system ought to focus, not just on job experience, but on improving direct job capability. For this, first, the perception on the youth internship needs to be changed. Perception changes of all entities and participants involved in youth internship system are needed so that the interns do not just perform the simple role of an assistant and experience what the work is like, but to improve job capability through work experience and to be able to prepare for future employment (Yoon Min-jae, 2011). In addition, the internship curriculum needs to be systemized so as to achieve improvement in job capability through actual work (Kim Hyang-ah, 2013). Through these measures, the youth internship system ought to result in improvement of job capability and employment.

Third, the establishment of comprehensive administrative standards on the youth internship

system is needed. The youth internship related system in the public sector consists of various entities, mainly central governmental branches, local administrations and public institutions etc., however, there does not exist concrete standards into which various projects are integrated. This makes management harder and also difficult to offer informations to the younger generation who are the objects of the youth internship (Kim Hyang-ah, 2013). Therefore, for integrated management of the youth internship system and revitalization of the youth internship project, it is desirable to establish comprehensive management standards of the youth internship system and to pursue the effective carrying out of the task.

IV. Conclusion

Internship is a job-searching process and also a learning process. The younger generation is an important time period to seriously think about profession, begin the searching process and keep on looking for a job at where they want. Therefore, the youth internship system is essential since it offers the youth with an opportunity of systematic support in career and training. Work experience related projects are run by various entities like governmental branches, public institutions, local administrations, businesses and universities, etc., and it is assumed that currently 22 projects are being run by the Government and 11 projects by governmental branches and public institutions. Representative projects among those of Government are; Youth Program for Business Experience, Medium to Small Business Youth Internship, Job-creation Internship. And representative projects among those of local administrations are; Innovative Youth Activist, Medium and Small Business Youth Internship, Medium and Small Business Trade Internship.

Positive aspects of youth internship systems are; For students, ① gaining opportunity of on-the-spot experience ② being able to set career direction and goal ③ gaining competitive edge. For businesses, ① securing superior workforce prior to others ② reduction in education expenses. Lastly, for universities, ① being able to prepare curriculum reflecting field opinions ② possibility of supporting with various resources.

On the other hand, improvement measures of youth internship systems are, ① the need to establish a practical time period ② the need to focus on improving job capability ③ the need to establish comprehensive administrative standards. Therefore, to run the internship system effectively, realistic circumstances of each entity ought to be put into consideration.

References

- Divine, Miller & Wilson. (2007). Required Internship Programs in Marketing: Benefits, Challenges and Determinants of Fit, *Marketing Education Review*, 17(2), 45-52
- Hurst and Good. (2010). A 20-year Evolution of Internships. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 20(1), 175-186
- ILO. (2012a). *The youth employment crisis: Time for action*. International Labor Conference, 101st Session. Geneva: International Labor Office.
- ILO. (2012b). *Global Employment Trends for youth 2012*. Geneva: International Labor Office.
- Kim Hyang-ah. (2013). *Changed Status of Domestic Business' Hiring Practice and Improvement Measures*. Seoul: Korea Labor Institute.
- Lee Jong-goo. (2008). Explorative Study on Private Development Process and Comparative Analysis of Age-specific Characteristics of Korean Employment Culture, *Korean Corporation Management Review*, 15(3), 55-74
- Ministry of Employment and Labor. (2013). *13 First Half Year Youth Intern Hiring Result Press Release*. Seoul: Ministry of Employment and Labor
- OECD. (2014). *Society at a Glance 2014*. Paris: OECD
- OECD and the ILO. (2011). *Giving youth a better start*. Paris: Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development & International Labor Office.
- Park Soo-myung. (2013). On Social Exclusion of the Younger Generation: from Perspectives of Hiring, Unemployment and Non-regular Workers. *Korean Policy Research*, 13(3), 113-131
- Shin Hyuk-joon. (2014). *Study on Effects of Youth Internship Program toward Socialization of Organization – Centered on Medium and Small Businesses in Daejeon, Choong cheong Province* (Masters dissertation). Hanbat Univertisy, Daejeon, Korea
- Statistics Korea. (2014). *Economically Active Population Survey; Additional Survey on Younger Generation*. Retrieved January, 15, 2015, from http://kosis.kr/statHtml/statHtml.do?orgId=101&tblId=DT_1DE9046&conn_path=I2
- Yoon Min-jae. (2011). The Research for Internship System and Its Culture in Korea, *Democracy and Human Rights*, 14(1), 271-305

The Effects of the Media Instruction Program (MIP) Modules on the Information Literacy Skills of the Ateneo de Manila Grade School Grade Five Students

Maria Victoria E. dela Cruz
Ateneo de Manila Grade School
Loyola Heights, Quezon City

ABSTRACT

The study was conducted to measure the effectiveness of the Media Instruction Program (MIP) of the Ateneo de Manila Grade School through the MIP Modules taught to selected Grade Five students enrolled for SY 2014-2015. Students were given a pre-test at the beginning of SY 2014-2015 to measure their information literacy skills. After attending MIP sessions at the Katigbak Educational Media Center (KEMC), they were given post-test to measure the difference in their pre-test and post-test scores. It was hypothesized that there is a significant difference in the pre-test and the post-test information literacy skills of Grade Five students after they have been exposed to the Media Instruction Program.

The study used a one-group pretest-posttest experimental design of research. It involved one group which was pre-tested, exposed to an intervention, and then post-tested. The study consisted of two parts. The first part was when the researcher formulated the modules while the second part was when the modules were implemented through the MIP sessions. In the first phase, the data were gathered from the guidance counselors, librarians, experts in the field of librarianship, library standards, and various literatures in library instruction program. Media Instruction Program modules were made by the researcher using the ASSURE (Gagne, Briggs, and Wagner, 1992) model. Likewise, the data in the second phase of the study were gathered through the administered tests before and after the students were exposed to the Media Instruction Program sessions. The tests were collated, tallied and submitted to a correlation analysis and two-tailed t-test. The study determined that there was a positive correlation between the pre-test and post-test scores. The result of the T-test showed that there is a significant positive difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the Grade Five students. It indicates that the Media Instruction Program modules had a very significant positive impact on the test scores of the Ateneo de Manila Grade School Grade Five students. Majority of the Grade Five students have shown improvement in their post-test scores as compared to their pre-test scores. There was an observed increase and significant improvement in the test scores of students. There was also a significant difference in the pre-test and the post-test information literacy skills of Grade Five students after they have been exposed to Media Instruction Program.

Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that the librarians should have a periodic review and implementation of the Media Instruction Program content and lesson plans. The librarians should continuously update themselves professionally and collaborate with the English teachers and among the librarians regularly to come up with a well-defined Media Instruction Program. Although the study revealed that the MIP had a very significant positive impact on the test scores of students, there is still a need to consider more creative measures of promoting new acquisitions aside from having the new titles displayed in the library. It is recommended that the developed MIP modules be used by other school librarians and other libraries after incorporating possible revisions to improve the lessons.

Author's Biographical Data

Name : Maria Victoria E. dela Cruz
Date of Birth : September 24, 1975
Place of Birth : Cabanatuan City
Educational Attainment Graduate : Master of Library and Information Science
School of Library and Information Studies
University of the Philippines
Diliman, Quezon City

Work Experiences : Faculty (Librarian)
Ateneo de Manila Grade School
Loyola Heights, Quezon City
1996-present

Coordinator, Katigbak Educational Media Center
(KEMC)
Ateneo de Manila Grade School
2008-2011

Eligibilities : Licensed Teacher
Licensed Librarian

Affiliation : Member, Philippine Association of School Librarians,
Inc.
Member, Philippine Librarians Association Inc.
Philippine Accrediting Association of
Schools, Colleges and Universities (PAASCU)
Accreditor

Total Quality Management among Elementary School Administrators: A Structural Model on School Performance

IRENE CULASTE-QUIMBO, PhD
Department of Education and
Central Mindanao University, Philippines

Abstract

This study aimed to derive a structural model that would reflect the factors that greatly influence school performance in the elementary schools of Department of Education. There were 604 participants and the EFQM Excellence Model was adopted as an instrument. Frequency counts, percentage, mean, Pearson R Moment Correlations, regression analysis using stepwise method and Structural Equation Modeling were employed.

Findings revealed that majority of the administrators were in the age range of 44-53, male, married, principal 1, served DepEd for 15-34 years and earned MA/MS units. The TQM practices of the administrators in DepEd were only observed frequently. The indicators of school performance as influenced by the TQM practices were quite a bit only.

The correlation between the demographic profile and school performance were almost negligible. There was a significant relationship between the TQM practices and school performance. Leadership, processes and people which are constructs of TQM are predictors of school performance.

The best fitting structural model on school performance is best anchored on TQM practices measured in terms of leadership, people, policy and strategy, processes, and partnership and resources. The more the administrators are exposed to TQM practices, the better are their performance in the school.

Key words: total quality management, school performance, leadership, processes, people

Introduction

Education is coming to recognize the need to pursue the sources of quality and to deliver it to students. The sources of quality in education are said to include, in an appropriate combination well-maintained buildings; outstanding teachers; high moral values; excellent examination results; specialization; parental support; business and local community; plentiful resources; application of the latest technology; strong and purposeful leadership; cares and concerns for students; and a well-balanced curriculum.

Advanced countries have continuously implemented educational changes to improve educational quality. These changes include innovative school-based curriculum with activities and new teaching approaches, school improvement plans, shared decision making among principals, teachers, parents and students, change of school management and development of ISO 9000 (Moreland and Clark, 1998; Quinn et al., 2009). These changes in the educational service were influenced by the results of quality management, with the pursuit of quality being the means to the effective end in the commerce and manufacturing organizational sectors. Several convincing research findings also demonstrated the importance of pursuing quality management (Juran, 1986; Crosby, 1979; Deming, 1986; Feigenbaum, 1991; Collard, 1990).

Quality Management had taken roots in commerce and industry. Its applicability to education came to be widely recognized and accepted by school management theorists. Goodlad (1984 in Cheng and Yau, 2011) suggested a new method of management that focused on quality to solve the school problems. Such a movement began to gain momentum during the 1990s in the USA and the UK. In 1988, the Education Reform Act in the UK was passed to guide and monitor the efficiency of the education process through performance indicators as rudimentary measures of the school quality. Schools then turned to Total Quality Management as a means of improving their service standards for effectiveness to meet their customer needs.

In the Philippines, School Based Management was officially implemented as a governance framework of DepEd with the passage of RA 9155 in 2001 as legal cover. TEEP, SEDIP and BEAM – two pilot projects implemented by DepEd – support the SBM as an effective mechanism to improve the quality of education in the basic level. SBM or the School Based Management is anchored on the decentralization trend of the 70s. SBM, a framework of governance, transfers the power and authority as well as the resources to the school level on the assumption that the school heads including teachers, key leaders in the community, parents know the root and solution to the problem. Thus SBM is a viable structural reform intervention used to improve the quality of education in the public school so as to produce functionally literate Filipinos.

Researches had clearly shown how the principles and practices of total quality management (TQM) can be a reference for organizations to improve their management and business results. These principles and practices have been named the key TQM factors and are frequently classified as soft or hard factors. All the same, as Black & Porter (1996) point out, the distinctions between soft and hard factors are in many instances difficult to determine.

However, a framework, or reference model, is needed to implement TQM and put it into practice. In this sense, excellence models offer the appropriate framework for the excellence models are the Deming Prize in Japan, the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award (MBNQA) in the U.S.A., the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) in Europe, the Ibero-American Management Excellence Model in Latin America and the Australian Quality Award in Oceania. These models have very similar concepts and evaluation criteria. Their main differences are to be found in the considerations that they grant to the criteria in the evaluation areas or in the application framework. This is because each model tries to adapt itself to the special features of each socio-cultural and economic reference context.

Researchers had studied the EFQM model had centered on its internal structure or on the benefits for organizations that arise from applying the TQM principles and practices that the model includes. However, there are a few researches that tried to go more deeply into which are the key factors that influence school performance results to a greater extent. This gave light to the researcher to conduct a study on the total quality management in the Department of Education using the EFQM Excellence Model as its framework. The researcher believes that if total quality management is properly implemented then all schools would perform excellently and eventually produce excellent and well-rounded Filipino citizens.

Conceptual Framework

This study is anchored on the premise that “Excellent results with respect to Performance, Customers, People and Society are achieved through Leadership driving Policy and Strategy that is delivered through People, Partnerships and Resources, and Processes” (EFQM, 2002).

The EFQM Excellence Model, which was employed in this study, was created in 1991 by the European Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) as a framework against which applicants for the European Quality Award are judged, and to recognize organizational excellence in European companies. The EFQM Excellence Model is made up of nine elements grouped under five *enabler* criteria (leadership, policy and strategy, people, partnerships and resources and processes) and four *result* criteria (clients' results, people results, society results, and key performance results) (Figure 1).

The enablers represent the way the organization operates, and the results concentrate on achievements relating to organizational stakeholders (EFQM, 2003). Each criterion is broken down into several sub-criteria and each sub-criterion is illustrated with various "guidance points" exemplifying what the organization has to do in order to develop the criteria.

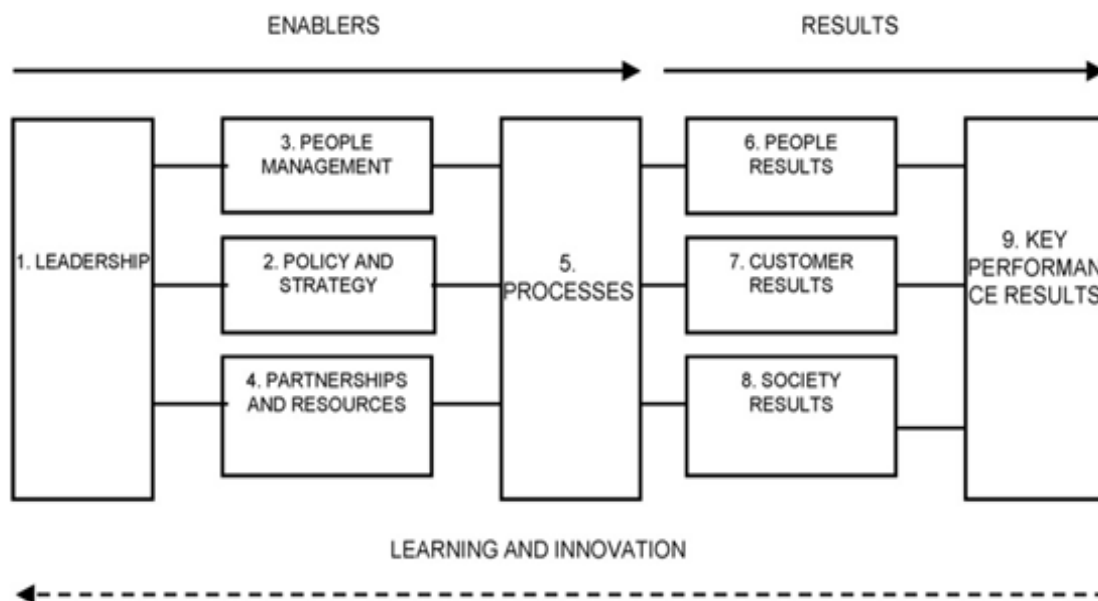


Fig. 1. The EFQM Excellence Model.
Source: EFQM (2003)

The concept of TQM is applicable to academics. Many educators believe that the Deming's concept of TQM provides guiding principles for needed educational reform. In his article, "The Quality Revolution in Education," John Jay Bonstingl outlines the TQM principles he believes are most salient to education reform. He calls them the "Four Pillars of Total Quality Management."

The first principle is *synergistic relationships*. According to this principle, an organization must focus, first and foremost, on its suppliers and customers. In a TQM organization, everyone is both a customer and supplier; this confusing concept emphasizes "the systematic nature of the work in which all are involved". In other words, teamwork and collaboration are essential. Traditionally, education has been prone to individual and departmental isolation. However, according to Bonstingl, this outdated practice no longer serves us: "When I close the classroom door, those kids are mine!" is a notion too narrow to survive in a world in which teamwork and collaboration result in high-quality benefits for the greatest number of people. The very application of the first pillar of TQM to education emphasizes the synergistic relationship between the "suppliers" and "customers". The concept of synergy suggests that performance and production is enhanced by pooling the talent and experience of individuals.

In a classroom, teacher-student teams are the equivalent of industry's front-line workers. The product of their successful work together is the development of the student's capabilities, interests, and character. In one sense, the student is the teacher's customer, as the recipient of educational services provided for the student's growth and improvement. Viewed in this way, the teacher and the school are suppliers of effective learning tools, environments, and systems to the student, who is the school's primary customer. The school is responsible for providing for the long-term educational welfare of students by teaching them how to learn and communicate in high-quality ways, how to access quality in their own work and in that of others, and how to invest in their own lifelong and life-wide learning processes by maximizing opportunities for growth in every aspect of daily life. In another sense, the student is also a worker, whose product is essentially his or her own continuous improvement and personal growth.

The second principle is *continuous improvement and self - evaluation*. The second pillar of TQM applied to education is the total dedication to continuous improvement, personally and collectively. Within a Total Quality school setting, administrators work collaboratively with their customers: teachers. Gone are the vestiges of "Scientific management"... whose watchwords were compliance, control and command. The foundations for this system were fear, intimidation, and an adversarial approach to problem-solving. Today it is in our best interest to encourage everyone's potential by dedicating ourselves to the continual improvement of our own abilities and those of the people with whom we work and live. Total Quality is, essentially, a win-win approach which works to everyone's ultimate advantage.

According to Deming, no human being should ever evaluate another human being. Therefore, TQM emphasizes self-evaluation as part of a continuous improvement process. In addition, this principle also laminates to the focusing on students' strengths, individual learning styles, and different types of intelligences.

A system of ongoing process is the third TQM principle. The third pillar of TQM as applied in academics is the recognition of the organization as a system and the work done within the organization must be seen as an ongoing process. The primary implication of this principle is that individual students and teachers are less to blame for failure than the system in which they work. Quality speaks to working on the system, which must be examined to identify and eliminate the flawed processes that allow its participants to fail. Since systems are made up of processes, the improvements made in the quality of those processes largely determine the quality of the resulting product. In the new paradigm of learning, continual improvement of learning processes based on learning outcomes replaces the outdated "teach and test" mode.

Leadership is the fifth principle. The fourth TQM principle applied to education is that the success of TQM is the responsibility of top management. The school teachers must establish the context in which students can best achieve their potential through the continuous improvement that results from teachers and students working together. Teachers who emphasize content area literacy and principle-centered teaching provide the leadership, framework, and tools necessary for continuous improvement in the learning process.

According to the practical evidences, the TQM principles help the schools in following clauses: (a) redefine the role, purpose and responsibilities of schools; (b) improve schools as a "way of life;" (c) plan comprehensive leadership training for educators at all levels; (d) create staff development that addresses the attitudes and beliefs of school staff; (e) use research and practice-based information to guide both policy and practice; (f) design comprehensive child-development initiatives that cut across a variety of agencies and institutions.

In order to achieve the above as opportunities to the academic scenario, in addition to patience, participatory management among well-trained and educated partners is crucial to the

success of TQM in education; everyone involved must understand and believe in principles. Some personnel who are committed to the principles can facilitate success with TQM. Their vision and skills in leadership, management, interpersonal communication, problem solving and creative cooperation are important qualities for successful implementation of TQM.

Objectives of the Study

The study aimed to develop a structural model of school performance in relation to total quality management practices among elementary administrators in the Department of Education.

Specifically, it sought to:

1. describe the demographic profile of the administrators in terms of:
 - a. age
 - b. gender
 - c. civil status
 - d. position held
 - e. length of service
 - f. highest educational attainment;
2. determine the degree of the total quality management practices of the administrators in terms of:
 - a. leadership
 - b. people
 - c. policy and strategy
 - d. processes
 - e. partnership and resources;
3. ascertain the level of the school performance in the Department of Education in terms of:
 - a. customer results
 - b. people results
 - c. society results
 - d. key performance results;
4. correlate between school performance and the variables such as:
 - a. demographic profile
 - b. total quality management practices;
5. identify which of the independent variables; singly or in combination best predict school performance;
6. develop a structural model of school performance and total quality management.

Methods

This study made use of a causal-comparative research design. Data gathered were analyzed quantitatively. Descriptive method was used for the study which was designed to describe the demographic profile and describe the degree of total quality management practices of the elementary administrators and the school performance. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to evaluate the relationships between two or more variables as well as the multiple regression analysis in determining the variables that predict school performance. Furthermore, this study attempted to come up with a structural equation model (SEM) that best links the total quality management practices and demographic profile towards school performance.

In the present study, two exogenous variables were included, namely: demographic profile which was measured by age, gender, civil status, position held, length of service, and highest educational attainment; and total quality management practices which was measured by leadership, people, policy and strategy, processes, and partnerships and resources. The endogenous variable was the school performance which was measured by customer results, people results, society results, and key performance results.

Random sampling was employed to determine the 604 teacher participants from the different divisions of DepEd in Region X. They rated the total quality management practices of their administrators as well as the performance of their school.

The EFQM Excellence Model was adopted in this study as research questions for the survey questionnaire. However, some of the items were modified by the researcher in order to fit to the setting of the study. Originally, the said questionnaire contained a total of 81 items, 51 items for TQM practices and 30 items for school performance. But after the reliability has been established, 4 items were discarded since they did not meet the required difficulty index. Hence, the said questionnaire was reduced to 77 items. The questionnaire now contains 50 items for TQM practices and 27 items for school performance. The reliability test revealed that the internal consistency of the TQM questionnaire used in this study was excellent since the obtained Cronbach's alpha is 0.984.

For a more systematic flow of the survey questionnaire, it was divided into three parts. The first part asked for the demographic profile of the participants which were name (optional), age, gender, civil status, designation/position held, length of service, and highest educational attainment. The second part was the measures for TQM practices, and the third part was the measures for school performance.

Following Ahire and O'Shaughnessy (1998), a seven-point Likert scale was used for all items to ensure higher statistical variability among survey responses. Thus, for each TQM Enabler criterion, participants evaluated how well the different statements describe their school practices on a scale from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 7 ("strongly agree"). In order to isolate TQM effects on performance and avoid confusion with other exogenous or endogenous factors, participants were asked to evaluate the extent to which the sole contribution of these practices had led to the achievement of each of the performance indicators (1="not at all"; 7="a great deal"). That was, participants were asked to indicate to what extent their school's quality practices allow to achieve the evaluated variables of performance be achieved.

A formal request for data collection was secured from the Regional Director then to the Division Superintendents and principals to allow the researcher to float the survey questionnaire. The researcher personally visited some of the schools to float and retrieve the questionnaires. For other schools particularly in the City Divisions of Malaybalay, Cagayan de Oro and Gingoog, the researcher was helped by some friends who were also teaching on the participating schools. In floating and retrieving the questionnaires in the division of Iligan and Camiguin, the researcher was helped by fellow researchers. The questionnaires were then checked, scored, organized into a tabular form and subjected to statistical analysis.

The descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentage was employed to determine the demographic information of the participants as well as the means in identifying the extent to which the participants practice total quality management and the degree of school performance. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to validate the relationship of the variables and the stepwise multiple-linear regression in determining the variable that best predict the school performance.

Finally, structural equation modeling, specifically, maximum likelihood (ML) method was used to test the hypothesized path model. In order to evaluate the goodness of fit of the hypothesized path model, the following indices were computed: Chi-square/degrees of

freedom x^2/df (), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Normal Fit Index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA).

Results and Discussions

It was found out that majority of the administrators' age were in the range of 44-53 which is 58% of the administrators, 350 to be exact. This was followed by age range of 54-64 which is 42% or 254 of the administrators. In terms of gender, 66% or 396 of the administrators were male and only 34% or 208 were female. For civil status, 81% or 489 were married, 4% or 23 were already widowed and 15% or 92 were separated. As to position held, 46% or 279 are principal 1, 23% or 138 were head teacher 1, 19% or 116 were holding principal 2 position, 8% or 48 are head teacher 3 and 4% or 23 were holding head teacher 2 position. Concerning length of service, there were 31% or 186 who were in the range of 15-24 years and 25-34 years, 26% or 161 were already 35-44 years in the service and 12% or 71 were 1-14 years in the department. As to the highest educational attainment, 23% or 139 of the administrators graduated in either Doctor of Philosophy or Doctor of Education. There were 16% or 94 who have Phd/EdD units, 50% or 301 were masters degree holder and 11% or 70 had MA/MS units.

As to the degree of the total quality management practices, among the five constructs, the teachers agreed that the indicators of the construct people were practiced by their administrators as supported by the obtained mean of 5.58. This implies that the indicators under the construct of people were observed in most occasions. This was followed by policy and strategy, leadership, partnerships and resources, then processes. These constructs had acquired the means of 5.44, 5.43, 5.41, and 5.33 respectively. These last four constructs were only observed frequently as fairly agreed by the participants in this study. The total quality management practices reached the grand mean of 5.44 which signify that in general the TQM practices were only observed frequently.

In terms of the degree of school performance, it was unveiled that it was in society results with a mean score of 5.78 that the TQM practices had the most influence as evaluated by the participants in this study. Customer results, key performance results, and people results were only influenced quite a bit as sustained by their obtained mean scores of 5.49, 5.43, and 5.03 respectively. The aforementioned constructs reached the grand mean score of 5.43 which implies that the indicators of school performance were influenced by the TQM practices quite a bit only. Results of the study imply that the Department of Education in the Northern Mindanao Region is somehow improving when total quality management practices were applied.

The results of the correlation of demographic information towards school performance tells that a not significant positive slight correlation was found as indicated in the Pearson r values $> .00$ with p -values $> .05$. This was evident on age, position held, and highest educational attainment. Also, a significant positive slight correlation was noted between experience and school performance as specified by the Pearson r correlation coefficient $> .00$ with p -value $< .05$. Nevertheless, a significant negative slight correlation was noted when gender was correlated with school performance as directed by the Pearson r correlation coefficient $> .00$ with p -value $< .05$. A not significant negative slight correlation was also found between civil status and school performance as shown in the Pearson r correlation coefficient $> .00$ with p -value $> .05$. The results imply that the correlation between the demographic profile and school performance were almost negligible. Hence, the null hypothesis was accepted. There was no significant relationship between the demographic profile and school performance.

The values of Pearson r correlation coefficients were all $> .40$ with p -values of $.00$ when the total quality management practices were correlated with school performance. This means that the positive correlation was moderate and highly significant. Hence, the null hypothesis was rejected. There was a significant relationship between the total quality management practices and school performance.

Likewise, among the eleven independent variables included in the regression analysis, only three were found to be significant predictors of the dependent variable school performance. These were leadership, processes, and people, the constructs of total quality management practices. The results implies that leadership, processes and people highly significantly predicts the school performance as indicated by the p -values $< .01$. The Beta standardized coefficient of leadership, processes and people are positive (.334), (.189) and (.169) respectively which denotes that an increased management in leadership, processes and people would give an increase school performance.

The R^2 of .418 indicates 41.8% of the school performance was attributed by the leadership, processes and people of the total quality management practices while 58.2% could be explained by other variables not included in the regression model.

The investigation conducted to find out if there is best fitting structural model school performance showed that structural models 1-4 did not show a good fit to the data. All of the indices in these four structural models did not reach the criteria and hence indicated a poor fit. Structural model 5 portrayed the combined effect of the measured variables of the latent exogenous variable total quality management practices towards the combined effect of measured variables of endogenous variable school performance. Results showed that 45% of the total quality management practices influenced school performance. The other 55% were influenced by other factors not mentioned in the model.

Model 5 was found to have indices that consistently indicate a very good fit to the data as reflected by $CMIN/DF = 2.309$ with p -value = $.128$. This was strongly supported by $RMSEA=.012$ with $P_{close} = .064$. Likewise, the other indices $NFI=.979$, $TLI = .964$, $CFI=.982$, and $GFI=.970$ were found to consistently indicate a very good fit model as their values all fall within each criterion. Hence, the best fitting structural model on school performance is best anchored on total quality management practices measured in terms of leadership, people, policy and strategy, processes, and partnership and resources. The more administrators are exposed to total quality management practices, the better is their performance expected in the school.

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions are drawn:

Majority of the administrators are in the age range of 44-53. This denotes that they are in their late prime age. Findings tend to reveal that since the DepEd administrators are in their prime age they could be classified as older managers. Hence, they are more focused on the soft qualities of management, the human relations. They focus more of their management styles on unfolding potentialities of their subordinates and utilizing these potentialities not only for the good of the school but for the good of the faculty and staff. They also minimize risk by studying current problems in the light of past practices and experiences. Furthermore, findings indicate that managerial position is still a man's job even in the educative process. Though male teachers are outnumbered by female teachers in the field, still administrative position is dominated by men. It is also good to note that in spite of their busy schedule and heavy work most of them are able to manage their married life. This could be attributed to their understanding and supportive spouse and children. Majority of the administrators are in

principal 1 position which means that they are really striving to be at the higher ladder of administrative position.

Moreover, administrators served the Department of Education for a range of 15-34 years. This implies that DepEd administrators had been in their post for a quite number of years. The longer the time they stayed on their present post enables them to master their line of craft. It exposes them to different opportunities of developing skills not only to know the technical aspect of their line of work but as well as to gain flexibility in dealing with different kinds of people which is considered the most complex part of the organization. Lastly, most of the administrators acquired MA/MS units. In general, the administrators are qualified in their position in terms of their educational qualification. This result could perhaps be attributed to the fact that educational requirements for DepEd administrators must have masters units.

The total quality management practices of the elementary administrators in the Department of Education were only observed frequently. This implies that administrators are still in the process of exploring or to be getting oriented with the TQM practices. They are still probably adjusting about the process.

The indicators of school performance were influenced by the total quality management practices quite a bit only. This result can be explained by the fact that administrators only practiced total quality management in their schools frequently. If administrators observe the TQM practices in most occasions, then probably its influence on school performance would have been a great deal.

The correlation between the demographic profile and school performance were almost negligible. Hence, the null hypothesis failed to be rejected. There is no significant relationship between the demographic profile in general except for gender and experience which are correlated with school performance. Nevertheless, when the total quality management practices were correlated with school performance the positive correlation was moderate and highly significant. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a significant relationship between the total quality management practices and school performance.

Similarly, the null hypothesis that no variables, singly or in combination, best predict school performance is also rejected. Leadership processes and people which are constructs of total quality management are the predictors of school performance. It denotes then that an increase in leadership, processes, and people would give an increase in school performance.

The best fitting structural model on school performance is best anchored on total quality management practices measured in terms of leadership, people, policy and strategy, processes, and partnership and resources. The more administrators are exposed to total quality management practices; the better is there performance expected in the school.

Recommendations

Grounded on the conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are strongly pointed out:

Qualifications for administrative position must be a graduate of a PhD or EdD program, not just MA/MS units. This is to ensure that administrators are highly qualified and are fully equipped with the information needed in the position. This will also give them more confidence and not to feel any insecurities with their subordinates who hold higher degrees than them.

Academic and Administrative staff have to be equipped with the necessary skills required for implementing TQM procedures. Academic and administrative processes should be well aligned with the vision.

Administrators should have proper allocation of financial and other resources for the training of employees. Training needs of employees should be identified and the obstacles in the way of this important area of Human Resource Development should be removed.

There should be a greater degree of coordination and collaboration among employees so that the employee participation in implementing TQM practices could be enhanced.

The academic staff, industry and other stakeholders should be included in designing and updating the curriculum.

TQM practices and school performance surveys should be carried out regularly and with complete confidentiality. Statistical methods should be used to monitor and improve the TQM practices.

References

- Ahire, S. L. and O'Shaughnessy, K. C. (1998). The role of top management commitment in quality management: an empirical analysis of the auto parts industry. *International Journal of Quality Science*, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 5 - 37.
- Black, S. A. and Porter, L. J. (1996). Identification of the critical factors of TQM. *Decision Sciences*, Vol. 27, No. 1, pp. 1-21.
- Bonstingl, J. J. (1992). *Schools of Quality: An Introduction to Total Quality Management in Education*. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Alexandria.
- Cheng, A. L., Yau, H. K., (2011). Principals' and teachers' perceptions of quality management in Hongkong primary schools. *Quality Assurance in Education*. Vol. 19, No2, pp. 170-186. Emerald group publishing limited 09684883 DOI 10.1108/09684881111125069
- Collard, R. (1990). *Total Quality, Success Through People*, Institute of Personnel Management, London.
- Crosby, P. B. (1979). *Quality is free: The Art of Making Quality Certain*. New American Library, New York.
- Deming, W. E. (1986). *Out of the Crisis*. MIT Center for Advanced Engineering. Cambridge University Press.
- EFQM (2002). *Modelo EFQM de Excelencia*. European Foundation for Quality Management and Club Gestión de Calidad, Madrid.
- EFQM (2003). *The EFQM Excellence Model*. Brussels, 2003.
- Feigenbaum, A. (1991). *Total Quality Control*, 4th ed. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill
- Juran, J. (1986). The quality trilogy. *Quality Progress*, No. 9, pp. 19-24.
- Moreland, N. and Clark, M. (1998). Quality and ISO 9000 in educational Organizations. *Total Quality Management*, Vol. 9, No. 2/3, pp. 311-20.

Quinn, Anita, Lemay, Gina, Larsen, Peter and Johnson, Dana M. (2009). Service quality in higher education. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 20 (2), 139-152.

Biographical Sketch

The author was born on March 25, 1986 in Cagayan de Oro City, Mindanao, Philippines. She is the second among the four children of Mr. Felipe Bersano Culaste and Mrs. Rustica Coto Culaste. Her siblings are Christopher, Leah, and Jolina.

Yen, as she is fondly called, completed her elementary education (first honors) at Paitan Elementary School, Paitan, Quezon, Bukidnon, Mindanao, Philippines in March 1999. She finished her secondary education in March 2003 at San Agustin Institute of Technology, Valencia City, Bukidnon, Mindanao, Philippines as salutatorian. Her college education was spent at Bukidnon State College, now Bukidnon State University, Malaybalay City, Bukidnon, Mindanao, Philippines and graduated in April 2007 with the degree Bachelor of Elementary Education concentrating in Mathematics (cum laude). She enrolled in Master of Science in Mathematics Education program in April 2008 at Central Mindanao University, Maramag, Bukidnon, Mindanao, Philippines and graduated in March 2011.

Her master's thesis was qualified to be presented in the Mathematics Teachers Education International Conference in Mathematics Education 2011 which was held on 21-22 October 2011 at Subic Bay, Olongapo City. She was so blessed for she was also selected by the screening committee as a recipient of a conference grant courtesy of Dr. Peter Howard, an Australian Mathematics Educator. Furthermore, her paper was published electronically in the *International Journal of Innovative Interdisciplinary Research*, Volume 1 Issue 1 copyright 2011 of the Australian Multicultural Interaction Institute.

To continue her quest for professional development, she enrolled in Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Administration in June 2011 still at Central Mindanao University then graduated on March 2014. This is to prepare and fully equip herself for her dream of becoming a regional director.

The author took and passed the Licensure Examination for Teachers in August 2007. She was employed as an elementary teacher in St. John's School, Malaybalay City in May 2007 to December 15, 2009. She worked as a substitute teacher in Busco Elementary School, Butong, Quezon, Bukidnon on December 17, 2009 to February 4, 2010 and as a permanent teacher 1 in Kibacania Elementary School, San Isidro, Quezon, Bukidnon on March 12, 2010 to present. She was then promoted as Teacher III on January 2, 2012 then as Master Teacher 1 on June 2, 2014.

Her wholesome and successful singleness ended when she blissfully married Robinson Roa Quimbo, a first officer merchant mariner on July 4, 2012. They were then blessed with a handsome baby boy named Bryce Zeth. She ardently prays that her new chapter of life will open up new horizons for both of them and that God will continually deluge them with lavish blessings.

EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT CONFERENCE 2015
5-7 MARCH 2015
BANGKOK, THAILAND
CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

ISBN 978-86-87043-27-5
